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THE

CHOICE OF A PROFESSION.

A

CONCISE ACCOUNT AND COMPARATIVE REVIEW
OF THE ENGLISH PROFESSIONS.

BY

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PREFACE.

EVERYBODY will be ready to acknowledge that the first most important step in a man's life is the choice of his future calling. On the circumstance of his having chosen one adequate to his powers, not hostile to his tastes, parallel to his interests, and the pursuit of which is within the range of his capital, not only his chance of failure or success, but, even if successful, much of his happiness depends. There can scarcely be a greater social misfortune than the erroneous choice of a profession. It is an error that is often not discovered until it is too late to change or to retreat. How often is a talented, but mild and retiring man, found getting grey as a briefless barrister; the rough, though good-natured physician, unable, with all his experience, to gain patients; or the man of energy and worldly wisdom, in the garb of the priest, wasting his irritable powers in parish squabbles. In choosing a business or a trade the same difficulty does not occur; the operations of the mind are much the same, whether a man sells cotton or corn; and therefore a father, in determining whether his son shall be a cotton broker or a corn factor, looks to considerations not immediately dependent on the intellectual capacity of the future

business man. Business is nearly the same kind of thing in all its branches; and if a lad is fit for one kind of mercantile operation, he is in general fitted (with the addition of the necessary knowledge and experience) for any other. It is far different with the choice of an intellectual calling,—that is, a profession. There is scarcely any resemblance between any two, and success in any depends in no small degree on natural fitness, and the grant of a fair opportunity. This difficulty in the "choice of a profession" is universally acknowledged; it is surprising that hitherto no book has been written to assist in so delicate a matter. It is an anxious step, and always exacts considerable consideration, both from the child and the parent; and where professions are not chosen from motives of vanity, false ambition, or the envy of the success of others, but from those considerate views that ought to be the guides in such a case, even there the greatest difficulty is found in coming to a satisfactory decision from want of information. If the father has an usual opportunity, he may be able to glean some uncertain knowledge of one or two professions, indifferent in quantity and accuracy, and rendered often untrustworthy by the peculiar views or prejudices of the informant.

The author now ventures to put forward this work as an aid in this matter, by suggesting the topics that ought to be considered in the choice of a profession, and by furnishing as far as is possible the requisite information.

This work cannot of course pretend to be an unerring guide on a topic so important, or, in fact, to do little more than furnish all information attainable by research and inquiry. Many portions of the subject respecting which (in the course of such a work) the reader would expect

information, the answer is often of a negative character, either that information is unattainable, or that it does not exist. It is not intended that this book should furnish any professional education, or any but a bare analysis of systems, only simple notification as to how and where such education is to be obtained. Yet it is hoped that it may not be useless in presenting a system of suggestion to the father, in reviewing his surrounding circumstances when determining a son's destiny.

Each chapter will be found to contain a short account of the profession and its honours (where any exist); remarks and facts connected with the special education of each individual profession, its expenses, the costs of entrance, and early efforts; the mode of entering each profession, and of pursuing the chosen line; the general income and advantages derived; with an account of the necessary capacities and qualifications for success.

The professions, especially the learned professions, have from time to time been brought under the notice of Parliament, and consequently the reports of various commissions and committees contain no small body of matter, bearing on these subjects, as well as the opinions of the most eminent leaders and professors. These reports, where available, have been made extensive use of in this work. Beyond these the information to be gleaned was found to be very scattered, and had to be carefully gathered together, chiefly from private inquiry from principal members of the professions themselves. The author has also made use of articles, pamphlets, and books, in which the subjects touched upon here have been under discussion.

The works on these subjects, however, are not numerous,

and although they have been consulted, they contain scarcely any facts.

The author has to tender his thanks to the following gentlemen for their kind assistance: to Mr. Horace Mann, Registrar to the Civil Service Commission, for information respecting the Civil Service; to Mr. William Alexander Thomson, of the Standard Life Assurance Company, for information on the profession of the Actuary; to Mr. C. H. Wilson, of the School of Design of Glasgow, and Mr. R. Scott Lauder, A.R.A., for their assistance in the chapter on the Painters; to Mr. Walter Granville, architect and engineer, for the greater portion of the chapters on the Architect and Civil Engineer; and to Mr. Emery, of the Marylebone Theatre, for his hints on the profession of the Actor.

The author believes that this is the only general work on the English professions, and, as the first of its kind, with all diffidence, presents it for public consideration.

HENRY BYERLEY THOMSON.

8, Serjeants' Inn, Temple,
1857.

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POSTSCRIPT.

MANY of the topics touched upon in this work, are of necessity topics of the day; and as might be naturally expected, some not unimportant changes in the various professional systems have been effected, or advanced on the road to completion, even in the course of printing this work. It is therefore necessary to notice these in a postscript. The first is in *military mess expenditure.*

An order has gone forth for a rigid limitation of the charges for mess dinners, and for the exclusion from the mess table of such expensive wines as claret and champagne. Two shillings *per diem* is to be the maximum price for each officer's dinner, and, in consideration of the means of subalterns, the Prince Regent's allowance for wine, of which only a portion of the officers were accustomed to partake, is to be appropriated to the common use in reducing the actual expense to 1*s.* 6*d.* Thus each infantry subaltern will have 3*s.* 6*d.* *per diem* for the other necessaries of life. Every father who has a son in the Army who regularly calls upon him to contribute something to the young Officer's expenses must feel grateful to the Duke of Cambridge for this bold and happy innovation upon long-established usages and abuses. The "mess," although in its extravagance a great evil, is not the only source of expenditure which it has become necessary to destroy. There are many other indulgences, to the root of which the axe must be applied. Nevertheless, the reduction of mess luxuries forms a good beginning. (*United Service Gazette.*)

Another proposed change that has been quite recently brought forward is the Marriage of University Fellows. The Fellows of Cambridge have recently petitioned to be allowed to marry.

A third change (proposed) which will be probably effected this year, and which is the natural consequence of the changes already made in "legal education," is the rendering examination *compulsory* for admission to the Bar. The law student it will be found, on referring to the body of the work, has at present only to attend lectures and eat his dinners to get his call.

The following alterations have also been recently made in the appointment of Marine Cadets (see page 218). The age for nomination has been changed, so that now the cadet will not be nominated if under 15 or above 17 years of age. The certificates required remain as hitherto (see page 218). When nominated, the cadet will be examined in the following subjects:

Writing English correctly from dictation—arithmetic, including vulgar and decimal fractions,—first book of Euclid—Algebra, including simple equations,—general knowledge of geography, *i. e.*, the principal countries, islands, rivers, &c., of the globe,—a competent acquaintance with the Latin, or French, or some other modern language.

On passing this examination he will be appointed a marine cadet on board the Gunnery ship at Portsmouth. Examinations of the cadets will be held from time to time in order to ascertain their progress.

The final examination of cadets, to qualify them to receive commissions as second lieutenants in the Royal Marines, includes:—

Arithmetic, Algebra, Euclid, Books 1, 2, 3, 4, and part of 6, Trigonometry, theoretical and practical, History of England, French, Use of the pocket Sextant, Fortification, Mechanical Drawing, and Gunnery. Those that distinguish themselves are appointed to the Royal Naval College, as a preliminary to being appointed to the

Artillery Companies. They remain one year in the College.

Besides the sums of £40 and £10 mentioned in the foot-note, page 219, the undermentioned sums must now be paid for each cadet to the Accountant-General of the Navy.

	£	s.	d.
Cadets under ordinary circumstances	80	0	0
Sons of officers dying on full pay, or of officers on half-pay with large families and inadequate means .	15	0	0
Sons of officers killed in the Service, or of officers dying on full pay, whose families are left in great distress	Gratis.		

Before a cadet can receive a commission as second lieutenant he must deposit £80 with the Accountant-General of the Navy to provide for his being properly equipped. Marine cadets are now paid at the rate of 3*s.* 8*d.* a day, or £66 18*s.* 4*d.* a year. They were hitherto paid the same as Mates.

Within the last few days the University of Oxford has been discussing a reform, which will not only affect the public at large, but the Profession of Education in particular, as follows:

Candidates, not members of the University, are to be examined, divided into two classes. 1. Young men of 18 years of age; and second, youths of full 15 years of age.

The examination is to be in elements of Faith and Religion (unless the parents or guardians object to it); in English Literature, in History, in Languages, in Mathematics, in Physical Science, and in any other subjects appertaining to liberal education.

The successful candidates in both classes to receive a certificate of having satisfactorily passed the examination. The seniors to be entitled to bear the title of Associate in Arts of the University of Oxford.

We cannot say more here than that this Statute is intended to answer a call made upon the University to extend its use to the middle classes. For the instruction

of the poor, Parliament has made large provisions. The Universities exercise great influence directly or indirectly over a considerable portion of the young of the upper classes. As to those, however, whose parents occupy a middle condition, nothing is done; perhaps nothing could be done beneficially by the State, and there is little connexion between them and the Universities. But it is desirable that the efforts of good teachers in the schools frequented by this class of pupils should be guided and encouraged, and pointed out to public approbation; and on the other hand, that parents should be put upon their guard against incapacity and false pretences. The industry and talent of the boys should be stimulated by the prospect of attaining distinction of a higher character than can be granted in a small school. A well digested and well administered system of examinations in a great University is calculated to effect these objects.

PROFESSIONS AND PROFESSIONAL CLASSES.

CHAPTER I.

PROFESSIONS AND PROFESSIONAL CLASSES.

In attempting to define a profession, according to the modern acceptation of the term, it is almost impossible to set out the limits where a profession* merges into a business. At no great length of time back, the term was limited to the learned professions—divinity, law, and medicine, and the professions of the army and navy. Even all these, have not at all times held the position, and dignity they now hold as professions. The professors of divinity, and the law, always have held a superior position in virtue of their connection with the State; but it was not until after the establishment of the College of Physicians, or, indeed, until the time of Sydenham, that medicine achieved the position of a profession. It was even later that the profession of arms, in the person of the army, began to assume a form; and the separation of the king's naval officer from an equality of position with the privateer captain, and merchant skipper, was of date yet later.

The advance of education, and the liberality of an improved social condition, have extended the honourable

* This word, which is usual both in Germany and France, obtains its higher signification in the English language only;—the word profession applies to almost every (even very low) occupations in German and French.

term to other callings not originally included in it. The first admitted were the artists, sculptors, and architects: then the civil engineers. Still more lately have actuaries, and other scientific men claimed, and been readily accorded, the denomination of professional men, and endeavoured, with more or less success, to unite themselves into a professional body. Quite recently have a most important body, long looked down upon, but now of necessity pushing their way, endeavoured to mould themselves into a professional class—namely, the professors of education. It is to be hoped that the gradual obliteration of ancient prejudice, and narrow views, will at no distant period enable these useful members of the commonwealth to assume their right position. By the followers of music, and the stage, the term has always been claimed, and has been by society accorded with a degree of reluctance, if not at first even with ridicule.

With so many examples it might be supposed to be easy to define the term "profession," yet almost any general definition presents many exceptions, and difficulties. It is far easier to enumerate than to define. With much doubt it is suggested that that calling is a profession, according to the present meaning of the word, in which "a man for a reward places at the public service his intellectual labour, and the fruits of intellectual knowledge, and experience."

There seem to be three modes in which men obtain their livelihood:—by intellectual labour, bodily labour, and by the sale, and barter of materials. These three are never found completely alone in any one calling. It is quite impossible to make use of the body in bodily labour without using the mind, or to make a bargain without giving the opposite party the benefit of both body, and mind. But the test by which any operation belongs to intellectual, or bodily labour, or to barter, is by observing what is the *principal object* of the exertion. Thus an artist sells to his client a certain quantity of canvas, covered with a thin coat of paint, the whole

surrounded by a gilt frame; but he is not therefore a merchant, the principal object, and real consideration of the purchase being the intellectual, and imaginative design expressed by the picture, to which point canvas, and frame are subordinate accessories.

On the opposite side, the most opulent merchant is not, under the limits of the above definition, a professional man. Much intellect, knowledge, and experience, no doubt, may be employed in pursuing his business, but these are not the end of his negotiations, the object being the sale of goods, not of the mental capacity that brought them into the market. The purchaser being quite indifferent about that; as long as he obtains the materials he requires, it matters not to him from whose hand they came; whereas, in the purchase of intellectual labour, the mind of the professional man is an essential part of the bargain, and remains connected with it as long as any benefit is derived from the transaction.

Mind, body, and capital, being the three elements of production, point to the three divisions of classes who employ these for the purposes of a living—namely, into professional men, hand-workers, and merchants; and it is suggested that the class to which any one belongs must be determined by observing which of these three elements his class principally makes use of, and for which the public seek them.

It is more than probable that on a close examination of the definition, many persons may be included that are not generally included in professions, or at least in the higher professions. It is the latter order, that it is the intention of this work to touch upon, and they may be enumerated as follows:—

Divines, lawyers, medical men, officers in the army, officers in the navy, persons in the higher branches of the civil service of the crown, painters, and sculptors, architects, engineers, actuaries, &c., musicians, and actors, educators, and men of letters. There are many callings, professional in character, but too confined in their

operations to be noticed here—such as linguists, average calculators, agricultural chemists, &c.

The professions naturally divide themselves into two principal classes—the *privileged* and the *unprivileged* professions. Amongst the privileged professions are reckoned: 1. the church; 2. the law; 3. the medical profession; 4. the army; 5. the navy; 6. the mercantile marine; 7. the public civil service. The entrances to these professions are regulated by law, and are closed (except partially in the case of the medical profession) to free competition from without.

The unprivileged professions are those of the painter, architect, sculptor, civil engineer, educator, parliamentary agent,* actuary, average calculator, &c. To these professions there is no legal restriction of entrance.

The privileges granted to the first are less in the light of benefits to themselves than as a protection to the public. Some public evidence of competency being required before permission to practice is granted, all are excluded who have not passed through the regulated curriculum. The privileged professions (except the mercantile marine) take a higher position than the others. They are more, or less connected with the State; their importance is recognised by the law; they excel the others in numbers and wealth, receive a superior education, and are generally drawn from a superior class. Yet the unprivileged professions are not the less difficult to enter, the less arduous to succeed in. In the privileged professions, the candidate has but to enter his name at the proper institution, to pay his fees, and, in due course of time, by no very extraordinary exertions, to obtain his diploma. This diploma, in some cases, gives him almost an absolute right to employment, and in all is an authorised warrant to the public of fitness. Except as to the place of education, little minute inquiry is made with regard to

* The parliamentary agent is required to be entered on the list of agents in the Houses of Lords and Commons, but this is by resolutions of the Houses, and not by statute.

a person so coming before the public;—he is so far supposed to be competent, and he has only his character for experience, and intelligence to make. In the unprivileged professions it is generally different. The neophyte here comes before the public with no guarantee of competence, or even of a regular education. Whatever name he assumes, he has dubbed himself by that title, whether worthy, or not to assume it. Those, then, who are the clients, or employers of his particular calling, having no institutional education, public examination, or diploma, to look to as a declaration of fitness, are more particular in their inquiries, and require a more personal knowledge of the individual than in the privileged professions. The character, and reputation of the teacher takes the place of the fame of the institution in the other case; it is not enough to have even a good teacher, but that teacher must himself be a man of reputation, in order that his certificate may carry any weight with it. So that it happens, that the student of the unprivileged profession seeks for his instructors men of acknowledged ability, and established reputation alone. The number of masters are therefore of necessity small, the number of students they can take few; consequently, the premium is high, and the expense of professional education, of a good order, not much less than that required in the privileged professions. Much of this is modified in those professions in which public exhibition admits of free competition; but, nevertheless, the natural anxiety to attend the schools, or classes of only the first-rate, confines the means of education, and imposes difficulties in the progress of their undertaking.

The importance of the professions, and the professional classes can scarcely be over-rated, they form the head of the great English middle class, maintain its tone of independence, keep up to the mark its standard of morality, and direct its intelligence. The best estimate of them is obtained by their numbers.

In referring then to the numbers of the professional

classes, taking the learned professions first, it is found that the clergymen of Great Britain of the established churches amount to 18,587 ; that is, 17,320 in England and Wales, 143 in the isles of the British Seas, and 1124 in Scotland ; the other Protestant ministers to 8521 ; the Roman Catholic priests to 1093 ; theological students, and various real or pretended religious teachers to 1477. The total number is 30,047.

The lawyers comprise 18,422 persons, or, exclusive of law-students, 16,763 ; namely, 85 superior or local judges, of whom, generally, 60 are fifty years of age, and upwards ; 3111 are barristers or advocates, practising, and not practising inclusive; 13,256 are solicitors, attorneys, or writers to the signet. These are assisted by 19,159 persons ; *i. e.* 1436 officers of courts of justice; 16,626 law-clerks, of whom 9270 are under twenty-five years of age ; and 1087 law-stationers.

The medical profession has not, like the professions of divinity, and law, any direct connection with the state ; its numbers are 22,383, or, exclusive of students and assistants, 18,728 : of whom 2288 are returned as physicians, 15,163 as surgeons or apothecaries. The best oculists, aurists, and dentists have the licenses of surgeons, and are so returned. But many of the 1167 dentists are mechanists. Those who supply the drugs, and instruments which the medical profession use are 16,146, of whom 15,333 are druggists, and 430 are surgical instrument makers. A large number of empirics of various kinds,—worm doctors, homœopathic professors, herb doctors, and hydropathic practitioners, add a doubtful aid to the profession.

The members of the profession of the law are the least numerous body, and sustain no competition from without, such as that to which the clergy, and medical men are exposed—a competition which, however, chiefly affects the income of the latter class only, as the incomes of the clergy are generally secured. The clergy of the Established Church (18,587), the lawyers (16,763), and the medical men (18,728), differ little from each other in

numbers, and in the aggregate amount to 54,078. The three professions, with their allied and subordinate members, not differing greatly from the average of 37,000 to each, amount to 110,730, and their importance cannot be over-rated; yet, in point of numbers, they could be outvoted by the tailors of the kingdom.

The poet, the historian, the painter, the sculptor, the musician, the architect, and the natural philosopher, as well as the professors and teachers of literature and science, may next draw our attention. To these belong the Shakspeares, Humes, Handels, Raphaels, Michael Angelos, Wrens, and Newtons, of the present day, and the humblest as well as the highest teachers of mankind. In the middle ages they formed a part of the clergy, and enjoyed endowments; but, except fellows of colleges, the members have latterly had, as an order, no rents or settled incomes from such sources. They, therefore, often derive their income from other sources than their profession, and their numbers are, therefore, difficult to estimate.

The authors, writers, and literary men, number 2866, of whom 436 are authors, 1302 editors, or writers.

The artists, in the wide sense of all who devote themselves to the fine arts, are returned at 8600: including, however, 4915 painters, some of whom generally call themselves artists, but are often called by others, drawing-masters. Many of the 2971 architects are, undoubtedly, builders.

The professors of science are singularly few: according to the last census the number is 466, but many of them are returned among the learned professions. The actuaries number only 45. The civil engineers, 3009.

Turning to the profession of education, we find the fair sex appearing as an important element, inconsiderable in number in other professions. This calling includes 34,378 men; namely, 23,488 schoolmasters, 4371 general teachers, 3149 music-masters, 1530 professors of languages, 554 professors of mathematics, and a few more. The ladies number 71,966: including 41,888 schoolmistresses

of all ages, 5259 general teachers, and 2606 music-mistresses.

In the histrionic profession, also, the ladies assert a position. There are in all 2041 actors and actresses—1398 of the former, and 643 of the latter.

The profession of music (not including teachers) musters 11 music-composers, *i. e.* persons living by that art only*; 4200 musicians, of whom 3668 are men, and 432 women; as well as 370 vocalists, 114 being men, and 256 women, which speaks in favour of the popularity of the female voice.

The Civil Service of the country assists in its government, and consequently even in number occupies a prominent position. 71,191 men of the age of twenty and upwards are employed in this important function, or one per cent. of the men of the country; 37,698 are in the civil service of the nation; 29,785 are in offices of local government; while 3,708 are officers in the East India Government residing in Great Britain. The civil offices have 105 heads of departments, comprising commissioners; 109 secretaries and chief clerks; 378 special professional and other officers; 1893 heads of particular branches; and 3982 clerks, of whom 506 are temporary or extra clerks.

The army and navy, of course, vary much; but in 1852, previous to the last war, their numbers stood as follows:—Officers in the army, 806 cavalry; 5066 infantry; in all, 5872 officers; 943 artillery and engineer officers. In the navy the numbers were—198 admirals, &c., and their staffs. 31 dock-yard officers, and 3746 ship-officers. 260 marine officers, 37 marine artillery officers.†

These numbers represent the professional classes *in* England, but not the professional classes *of* England, born in this country, and established on an English professional education. We have no means even approxi-

* So returned in the census; but the author has heard this fact denied by members of the musical profession, asserting that no person is now subsisting on the profits of composition solely.

† Estimates, 1852, 1853.

mate of estimating the numbers (especially of divines, lawyers, doctors, and engineers) that annually leave the country in search of wider fields of enterprise; yet they are not to be left out of consideration in estimating the amount of opportunity presented by a professional career. With the extension of the empire has extended the colonial church, and with it there is a constantly increasing call for English divines. English physicians find no want of opportunity in the colonies, and even on the continent of Europe. The rapid extension of the colony of Australia has lately called away many a hopeless and briefless barrister to employment and prosperity in Melbourne and its vicinity; and the necessity of reforming the Suddar courts and local jurisdictions of the Presidencies seems to be opening a new field for this class in India. The continent of Europe attests to the foreign employment of the civil engineers, in numerous railroads and public works, wrought by English genius. Even the small and select profession of the actuaries are beginning to find profitable arenas for assurance in countries beyond the four seas.

When, in addition to these numbers, it is remembered that the majority of those contained in them are heads of families, the importance of the professional classes, even in point of number, is not inconsiderable; for their importance in other respects, ample evidence will be found in the subsequent chapters.

CHAPTER II.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ON THE CHOICE OF A PROFESSION.

THE choice of a profession, as far as this work is a guide, is intended to be chiefly directed by the chapters giving a particular account of each profession. In the present chapter it is only meant to lay down a few of the *general* points that should be attended to in determining that question, as an introduction to a more particular inquiry.

It is not intended to point out the *best* profession, but only a mode of ascertaining a suitable profession for each candidate. It is clear that if the best profession could be ascertained, it would soon become the worst, by the overcrowding of eager candidates. Such a thing has happened in several instances of late years. All professions (with the exception of those few that are by their nature small) present to the public, as a whole, nearly the same opportunities, and are thus, in a general way, nearly equal; they differ only in the opportunities they present to the individual, on account of difference of capacity, inclination, connection, and means. The subsequent chapters must, therefore, be read rather as giving information than advice. There are few men who, when fully informed in this matter, would not make a better choice for a son than any one else could make for him. The principal thing required by the parent is information.

The usual plan of obtaining this information has been as follows:—When it is discovered that a youth has a

taste or a turn in some given direction, some friend or acquaintance of the family is consulted, who either belongs to the profession in question, or has some knowledge of, or distant connection with, it. It may be urged that no course can be more sensible; yet it is generally very unsatisfactory. Professional men are often very ignorant of the general condition of their own calling. With the successful, everything is *couleur de rose;* with the unsuccessful, no profession can be worse. The view taken is generally interested, and never scarcely free from prejudice. The advice, unless given by a very leading man, is necessarily guided by small views, and a narrow experience. In obtaining such information, many feelings of delicacy will intervene to prevent full inquiries, even when the informant is fully able to advise. Thus, with regard to expense, a man may hesitate boldly to touch upon this point from a fear of exposing his own circumstances. Information so obtained must be received, therefore, with great caution, and is principally useful where considerations of a local nature are brought forward.

In writing on the choice of a profession, this work is of course principally addressed to those who have determined to enter, or to place a son in, a profession at all events. But it may not be un-useful to take a view of the points of difference between a profession, and a business.

It is generally supposed that a business secures an earlier means of access to competence, and wealth; and that, on the other hand, a profession presents a readier road to position in society, and to honour.

The introduction to business does indeed generally take place at an earlier age than a professional career. It is not unusual to place boys in a counting-house as early as fourteen, or fifteen, and to bind them as apprentices for seven years, so that they are able to take employment, or commence on their own account, soon after passing their majority. Thus, in most instances, the merchant or man of business enters life with a defective education; and,

therefore, without a great source of life-happiness; and, wanting one of the safest protections against the growth of vulgar ideas, and a taste for coarse enjoyments.

The parent, then, who chooses a business for his son, will not be absolutely required to expend money on prolonged education; but, from that very event, he may be called upon to pay more for that which is both useless, and vicious.

There is a difference of opinion amongst mercantile men themselves, as to this very question of education, and it is to be regretted that the larger number regard high education as absolutely hurtful to the mercantile apprentice. The reason given is both erroneous and insulting to their own calling. It is said, that the preliminary mercantile training is so much a career of drudgery, and passive obedience, that a young man of high spirit, and elegant acquirements would revolt from it; that his education unfits him for the routine of the merchant's office, and disables him from acquiring a taste for mercantile pursuits, and appreciating the objects of a mercantile career. That it is only by commencing this drudgery at an early age that he can habituate himself to it. That the long apprenticeship is necessary to learn the business.*

To this it may be readily answered, that the commencement of every profession is drudgery, and that sound preliminary education is found to lighten it. Is there anything in the drudgery of bookkeeping or correspondence equal to that of copying law precedents, minutely dissecting the muscles, learning the "Materia Medica," calculating from the "Nautical Almanack," keeping night watches, or in practising the hands with the chisel or the pencil in elaborate copies of stale subjects: yet all these different kinds of drudgery are endured by professional men in spite of education. Neither is the time required for mercantile training a

* The author has heard this opinion, almost in the words of the text, often and often expressed.

correct argument. The young barrister can be prepared in three years; the young physician, with his almost universal acquirements, is only called upon for five; the solicitor for the same. What mystery, then, is there in business that takes so long to learn, especially as it is urged that it does not require an educated mind.

But merchants themselves acknowledge that drudges do not make good merchants. The patient toiler at the desk may rise high in his employer's estimation, may gain his entire confidence, may make an invaluable servant, but will be an impossible partner. On the other hand, another clerk, whose application may not be so respectable, but whose intelligence is superior, will be sent into the Exchange, and trusted with business requiring discretion and independent judgment. It is the latter class of mind that generally becomes the man of business; he learns readily, but not the more for the system under which he is taught; he is the very man whom education would have improved for his calling: it would have given him superior power of acquiring mercantile ideas, as well as of applying them. It is submitted, therefore, with confidence, that education ought to be no bar to a young man entering business, even if it is not deemed absolutely necessary. It will be readily conceded by every one that a knowledge of numbers, a power of mental calculation, a knowledge of geography, both political, and physical, and especially a knowledge of languages, are of essential advantage to a merchant.

Mercantile men claim for themselves high consideration; to form an essential part of the government of the country; to be capable of an accurate estimate of the condition of their country, and to be the prophets, if not the guides, of political events. Yet such high matters of judgment are claimed by a body of men, the larger number of whom boast themselves uneducated.

Lastly, it is urged that an early training is necessary to give a man a taste for mercantile pursuits. The object of a mercantile career is wealth. It would scarcely be

supposed that a special training would be required for so universal a passion. But is the mercantile calling so repulsive in its pursuits or details, that only minds taken when young, and uneducated can be found to accord with it? We are bound to believe it, because it is the mercantile world themselves that assert it; and yet it is suggested that the mind of a young man of eighteen is scarcely less pliable than that of a boy of fifteen, and that the intervening period had much better be spent by those that can accomplish it rather in acquiring a general education that will aid his career and adorn his success, than being the drudge of head clerks, employed in copying letters, and prematurely learning the vices of men. General education has gradually become a necessary element of education for all the professions, and it is hoped that it may at some early day be properly appreciated in its uses by the commercial community.

In entering a business of a good class, a premium is often, but not always, expected, and the aspirant can expect little or no emolument during the period of his probation; he will, during that period, be chiefly dependant on his natural protectors, as in the preparation for a profession. When once out of his probation, a small independence may generally be secured. But it will in the long run be found that an income of large amount is not more often made in a business * than in a profession; that fortunes made by merchants and others are not more numerous in proportion to the number of candidates than in professions. Larger fortunes are undoubtedly made by certain firms of old established character.

But not only does a mercantile fortune seem not less difficult to attain than the more moderate pecuniary success of the professional man, but it is not more secure. It is as difficult to attain (supposing the young man not to inherit a business), on account of the narrow

* The author here means a business commenced as a profession is, by the man himself. Of course a business or share in a business, inherited or obtained by adoption, is quite different.

field of opportunity. The young clerk labours in the office of his employer. On that person's estimate of character, and views must depend the future of the employée, and the ultimate attainment of a headship, or partnership. Even if he leaves this narrow sphere, and launches out on his own account in one of the branches of business, in which brain is as important as capital, such as a commission merchant, broker, accountant, &c., he will find the avenue choked by older, and fortunate competitors, quite as much as in a profession. The man of business is also under the disadvantage that he has to contend with a firm, and not with an individual. A firm has something of the royal constitution about it, it dies not with the individual. The mind that raised it passes away, but the capital, the correspondents, the establishment, and the junior partners, remain, to maintain the life of the "house." In a profession, the competition is so far lightened, that death, and age must at last clear the way. Success may be delayed, but opportunity must at length come, and the patient man has but to prepare for the opening when it shall arrive. Business does, indeed, present openings in the failure of great houses, and in its extension into fields of enterprise not previously occupied, but these chances are very irregular.

Again, although it may appear strange to say so, a mercantile income is certainly less secure than a professional income. We every day see the greatest mercantile houses going by the board, dragging with them in their entanglement many smaller firms, who are entirely innocent of fault. A professional practice, once secured, can only be lost by some gross neglect, or some marked failure of the mental or physical powers. The foundation of professional success is confidence, difficult to obtain, and almost as difficult to lose. It is almost marvellous in medicine, law, and art, to observe how long prestige survives the capability of duty. The fact is, there is generally a go-between between the professional man and the public, who has to justify himself to his clients, and

employs, therefore, the man of greatest reputation, without considering minutely his real powers; there is also always a feeling of gratitude for past exertions, that induces the middleman to retain as long as possible the old connection; nor is it to be forgotten that experience, and habit supply to a great extent the place of vigour, long after the last has been on its decay. Thus it happens, that the professional man holds to his practice, and maintains his position almost to the edge of the grave.

In point of social position the professions have vastly, the superiority over the business world. The man of business has, as a rule, no position in respect of his occupation. If *in society*, his position is the result of his wealth, his education, or the accident of his birth, and breeding. He has not gained it by his mercantile pursuits, and he will not lose it should he abandon them. The member of the higher professions on the other hand, at once takes a place in society by virtue of his calling; the poor man of business is nowhere in social position, yet the poor curate is admitted readily to that coveted county society that the millionaire has even to manœuvre for. It is true that some merchants and manufacturers have been raised to the peerage, and that some professional men are not even gentlemen, but the former circumstance is as incapable of raising the general mercantile body in social position, as that the latter is able to bring any general degradation upon the professional body. I refer always to the plateau, and not to the lofty mountains, or deepest valleys, in estimating the general level. No doubt the mercantile classes have much advanced of late years, and the distance between the trading, and professional communities has been very much lessened, and numerous points of contact established; nevertheless the professions still maintain that superiority which their nature must ever give them.

On the whole it will be perceived that the entrance to a business is not so expensive as to a profession, that it gives an earlier return, but that only in the form of a

small independence. Unless a man is possessed of capital, or is early adopted into an established connection, from motives of relationship, or otherwise, the man of business will be longer rising to a position to command a good income, or acquire a fortune than in a profession; that the man of business will be obliged to commence life with a defective education, and to assert a position in society, by means of his own force only.

The entrance to a profession is longer delayed, but the education is completed, and a social position at once acquired. Success is independent of any capital beyond the necessary support until success arrives, and depends more on the man himself, and less on surrounding accidents, than in a business. That a position attained in a profession is easily maintained, and is independent generally of the defalcations of others. The objects of a profession are nobler, more intellectual, of wider range, and confer more happiness than those of a business.

Business has one advantage over a profession, that a much larger number of capacities are fitted to its pursuit. In its lower branches it is almost a matter of routine, and all exceptional cases are capable of being acted upon after advice with superior minds. Consequently, when once fairly learnt, little is needed to acquire a fair position in business, beyond industry, attention, punctuality, and integrity. In a competitive profession, on the other hand, the smallest success requires an intellectual exertion, which is not granted to a large class of minds.

The opinion on the comparative advantages of a business, and a profession must depend not a little on the circumstance, whether that opinion is expressed by a merchant, a professional man, or a man of independent means. The man who looks upon money, and its acquirement as the sole object of life, will, of course, declare for business, whereas the man who has been accustomed to additional views of existence will weigh the question more carefully.

Supposing now my reader to have determined on a profession in preference to a business, the question arises,

what are the main points of consideration in deciding which profession to choose.

They are as follows :—1. Means. 2. Fitness. 3. Opportunity. 4. Position; and 5. The actual condition of the proposed profession.

The question of means must be considered in its whole bearing, from the commencement of the preliminary general education, to the point of prospective success. There is little use in sending a young man to a profession with inadequate pecuniary support, for he will either abandon it in early disgust, thus throwing away all that has been spent upon him, or, for the sake of immediate relief, will adopt a branch beneath his powers and expectations, and become a soured and unhappy man for the rest of his life. It must always be remembered that the cadet has not only to be prepared for his profession, but if justice is done him, must also be supported *in* it, until he is established, or by fair industry ought to have been so. Any more parsimonious course is an injustice, and a cruelty. The variety of means is innumerable, and it is quite impossible to show all the circumstances that will amount to supporting a young professional career. It is not necessary that the "means" should always be pecuniary—they may often be better than any amount of pecuniary efforts. For example, a parent who may even find a difficulty in providing the necessary education, and preliminary fees, may have first-rate opportunities of giving his son an introduction to immediate practice, that the wealthy man may wait for, for years;—it is meant, that it is not sufficient in counting the cost of a profession to look to the preliminary expenses alone.

It must also be noticed that the cheapest profession to enter is sometimes the most expensive to pursue. For example, no profession can be more economical to enter than the bar, none more expensive in the long run. A young lawyer may commence his legal education in sufficient time to be called to the bar on attaining his majority,—his whole expenses of dinners, fees, lectures,

library, wig and gown, private tutor for one year, &c., exclusive of living in London, will be under four hundred pounds, which, adding six hundred for living for three years and a half, will make his expenses less than one thousand pounds. On the other hand, the young medical man has not only a long apprenticeship of five years, for which a heavy premium must be paid, but studies at a school of medicine, also extending over a period of three to four years, costing in fees alone from £150 to £300, besides the expenses of living. But mark the difference, the medical man has fifty chances to one of an income that the barrister has. It is when a barrister has been called that his real expenses begin, his former income will no longer suffice, he has not only to live, but to keep a clerk, to go circuit, to buy reports, &c. His chances of success *at all* are very remote, and his hopes of a remunerative income within the first ten years rationally small; during that period, unless he has some other means of exerting his powers, he must live on his own resources, or those of his friends. The medical man has not only his own country almost demanding his immediate services, but has the world in the widest sense before him—the army, the navy, India, the colonies; fortune may be far distant, but it is his own fault if he is not independent. Which is the cheaper profession to a conscientious parent it is easy to perceive.

To the conscientious parent—there are many not so conscientious—men who, when they have provided a son with a bare profession, fancy that they have done all that duty and affection demand of them. Yet so far from such short handiness being duty, and affection, it is an active, burning wrong. Failure is almost certain to follow such a withholding of means, and the son is injured because, without any fault of his own, he is placed in the unhappy position of an unsuccessful man,—he is cramped by that character in his own or any other walk, the best years, and exertions of his life are rendered vain, and his natural patrimony uselessly expended.

A judgment on *fitness* must, to a great extent, be the result of private observation, and ought to be conscientiously formed, apart from feelings of family ambition, or particular liking. It is as bad to force a son to adopt a profession that is distasteful to him, as to oblige a daughter to marry a man that she dislikes. The commonest, and most serious error that is made in this behalf is in forming too early a judgment of the child's capacity. It is forgotten that the mind of youth is in a condition of constant rapid progression, and change, and an opinion as to fitness ought to be delayed as long as circumstances will possibly allow. Few things are more deceptive than schoolboy talents, or even university success. Nothing is so striking to those who have the opportunity of following early friends into life, than to observe how the learners of the college change places with the self-thinkers, when in the world. Of course it is impossible to delay the choice of a profession until the character is fully formed, but the fault of too early a determination can easily be avoided. It is not an uncommon custom to select professions, and occupations for children when quite in early youth, and to endeavour to train the young mind to the powers and tastes required. This system constantly fails. The young tree may in early growth bend to the trainer's hand, but when it gains strength will branch out for itself. Not indeed that mere taste is to be too much regarded; the young are of course ignorant of the world, and judge their tastes by imperfect information; besides, the pursuit of a profession, in the greater number of instances, forms a taste for itself. At the same time, nothing can be more unfortunate than opposing a decided distaste. It has the disadvantage of placing a person in a profession without the enthusiasm he ought to have for it, and if all goes not well it engenders a retributive feeling, and gives the young man an opportunity of placing on another person's shoulders his own short-comings.

But supposing a boy not to have any objection, or

distaste to a particular calling, the question of his fitness in other respects arises. In this there are three points of consideration. Physical fitness, fitness of character, and intellectual fitness.

In *physical fitness* we look to personal appearance, and constitution. Of course there are many points of physical fitness which no one can mistake; no one would send a lame man into a marching regiment, or a man that stutters to the law—these are disqualifications that are sufficiently obvious. It is not often that the question of personal appearance arises in the choice of a profession, many men have succeeded in spite of the most serious personal defects; there is no doubt that intellectual ability will overcome many personal defects; yet, as it is rarely that such very high intellectual capacity exists, personal appearance may form an essential in the choice of a competitive profession. In those professions which are not directly competitive, but present promotion by seniority or services, it is not of the same importance. The professions in which it is chiefly of any importance are—the law, medicine, and the histrionic profession. In the last, it is, of course, all-important. In the first, a good personal appearance is simply useful, not indispensable. It will greatly aid both the barrister, and solicitor to be men of good personal appearance, and pleasant address; they are constantly in contact with others, and it is part of their business to make themselves agreeable. To the man of medicine a not unpleasant person is indispensable; an unhappy presence, especially if aggravated by any nervous habits, may mar his best efforts.

Of more importance than personal appearance is constitution. In this respect the professions may be said to divide themselves into three groups; those in which the constitution is improved, those in which it may be nursed, or preserved, and those in which it is of necessity wasted. Among the first are those in which the occupation is without any, but unfrequent excitement, and carried

on principally in the open air. These are the navy, the mercantile marine, and, in general, the architect, and the engineer. Under any other system but the English, the army would be also considered as under this group. In the second are those professions, generally free from excitement, and where the member is sufficiently master of his own movements, to be able to take regular meals, regular exercise, and regular sleep, and not to be subjected to sudden turns of over-work. These are the church, the public civil service at home, the painter, the actuary, the actor, and the musician. In these groups of professions, therefore, the question of constitution does not enter as a vital element of preconsideration.

In the remaining group it is all-important. These are the civil service in India, the army, the law, and medicine. Any one with the most superficial knowledge of India, will recognise the importance of the cadet who intends to present himself for examination, first considering if his constitution can bear the climate. To answer such an enquiry, the safest course will no doubt be to consult some medical man connected with life insurance, who is accustomed to examine the strength of constitutions, and then to be guided by his opinion. It would be natural to suppose the army a very healthy calling,—early parades, regular drills, long periods of leisure, and great opportunities to open air sports may reasonably suggest good health; but the constitution of the English army is notoriously tried. A large portion of it is quartered in the tropics, in the most unhealthy localities; and when not so placed, is subject to the most trying changes,—the regiments of the West Indies, or Birmah passing without any acclimatization to the frosts of Canada, and vice-versâ; the British officer is hurried from wet to dry, from hot to cold, in the most dangerous manner, nor is there apparently much hope of change in a system that is the result of our colonial system, and small army. In the army, therefore, constitution is a question. In medicine, it is still more important; no one

without a sound constitution need think of this calling. Whilst a student, he is exposed to all the risks of the chemical laboratory, and the dissecting-room; and when in practice, whether in town, or country, is exposed to an amount of anxiety, and fatigue most trying to his strength. The profession acknowledges in the most emphatic manner, the wasting nature of the night duty to which the medical practitioner is subjected. It is left almost entirely to the younger men, the elder when once firmly established, almost as a rule declining that part of practice. Thus the old man's weakness becomes the young man's opportunity.

The profession of all others, in which the member requires an iron constitution is the bar. This arises not only from the very hard work of the successful advocate, but from the very nature of the occupation. The barrister's daily life is laid in close fœtid courts, or cold draughty corridors. Even if his business is not extensive, he must continually attend the courts, and breathe bad air without a reward. Every now, and then, he will be called from comparative idleness to an exertion of great excitement, in some weighty case in which he will feel all his powers prostrated, after perhaps a long struggle in which his attention has been unusually closely fixed. It will be well if the lassitude that follows the exertions of an important trial does not call for the aid of stimulus.

The above sketch of fitness of constitution may serve as some guide in a negative manner, by suggesting the avoidance of professions to which the constitution is unfitted. It is then to be observed that there are certain professions requiring great exertions, to which persons of weakly constitutions should not be sent,—that there are professions to which persons, otherwise of good constitutions, but of weak lungs, or with a taint of hereditary insanity, should not be placed in; in the former respects, those professions requiring sudden changes of climate, or temperature, or the frequent use of the voice: and in

respect of the latter, those demanding periods of extraordinary excitement, or the over-use of the brain.

In speaking of physical appearance, we might also have mentioned fitness of physical character: in the fitness of actual muscular strength, eyesight, hearing, voice, physical courage, to the profession; but these points are generally so sufficiently obvious as not to require any comment. There is scarcely any profession that does not require a full complement of the senses.

Fitness of character is perhaps the most important of all considerations in the choice of a profession—without it all other advantages are powerless. This element of success can be determined only by a knowledge of the character, and requirements of each particular profession, which it is one of the principal objects of this work to treat of more at large in the subsequent chapters. The process would be, supposing all other things were favourable, to choose that profession best suited to the known character of the young man. But as it rarely, if it ever happens, that this is possible, the adaptation of the character of the profession to the character of the aspirant is of a negative kind, and consists in avoiding a choice violently opposed to the tone of mind, however favourable other circumstances may be. At the same time, as much as possible, must other things be made to give way to this; it may be said to be the one great element of success. Fitness of character is generally accompanied with a taste, or liking for the chosen field, from which spring zeal, and enthusiasm, the best seed, and the best supporters, of that patience, and perseverance which are necessary to success, and which have it in their power to overcome every other difficulty.

Where a free choice is possible, the young man, when sufficiently old, and fully informed on the subject, is the best judge of his own fitness of character or taste, and may in general be left to the nomination of his own profession. At the same time even in this free, and generally approved course, there is much to be guarded

against. After having ascertained the tastes, or rather distastes of the young man, the rest of the determination ought to be in the hands of the parent. It is for him to consider whether he can reasonably gratify the wishes of his sons. It is clear that there must remain with him the questions, of means, opportunity, and position. But there is also another point in which he will be likely to find opposition, that of *intellectual fitness*. It is certainly one of great delicacy: no man likes to lower the intellectual character of his child, and in fact few are capable of forming a correct estimate of their children's capabilities.

The principal thing to be cautious about is, the natural conceit of the youth himself;—to be certain that his choice is not guided by an overweening opinion of his own powers, and ignorance of the levelling process of the battle of real life. The difficulty will be the greatest with those brought up at home, or who have enjoyed the paltry honours of a private school. The hard competition of the public school, and ancient university, are of the utmost importance in teaching a man to measure fairly, and modestly his own capacity.

Very often a free choice is out of the question, and the parent is confined by uncontrollable circumstances to the limit of two, or three professions; in this case, the only plan is to take that least distasteful to the candidate on the same principles as in a free choice.

The advantage of consulting a young man's taste in the choice of a profession consists, in the consciousness that he has been the arbiter of his own destiny, that he has therefore no right to question his own choice, and he will feel more bound to persevere against disadvantages than if the profession had been forced upon him; he knows that in the event of final failure the whole blame, and responsibility will remain with himself; and as he will be deprived of any stalking-horse, on which to saddle his misfortunes; he will be less likely to disturb the peace of his family by complaints, which he knows must be

on his part unjust towards them. Throughout his whole career he will, in his own choice, where it is possible, possess more zeal than under other circumstances.

Though few parents will go the length of forcing on a young man a career peculiarly unfitted to him, there are not a few who endeavour to gain their own views, by attempts, more, or less successful, to train the young mind to adapt itself to, and to incline to a calling chosen for him. Though this plan may present some advantages, it is undoubtedly replete with danger. Such a system must of necessity be entered upon many years before anything can possibly be known of the natural character of the child. Thus, in a family, one would be bound down to habits of application, when his natural inclination is to feats of enterprise; in the school-room he appears as a dunce, or obstinate lad, when he is perhaps giving himself a secret education by means of the historical, military, or nautical literature, which he is forbidden to regard as anything but play reading. An admirable soldier, or enterprising sailor, is thus lost in an indifferent scholar. On the other hand, a brother whose natural tendency is towards labour of meditation, is ineffectually roused to an enthusiasm for an active profession, which is both unfitted to his mind and nervous system.

The plan is of necessity bad, because it is constrained, and unnatural. It has also the vice of not bringing to view all the powers of the mind. Just as many a great mathematician has been lost in the forced classical studies of the old grammar-schools. So, under this system, the army would contain excellent undiscovered physicians; and the church be recruited by warriors in heart, whose yearnings are not towards the church militant. An education constrained in one line, and directed to one narrow object, has nearly the disadvantage ascribed by Gray, in his "Elegy" to the absolute want of education:

> "Some mute inglorious Milton here may rest—
> Some Cromwell guiltless of his country's blood."

The parent, in following his own wishes, has a full chance of being on the wrong scent, and, in after years, may discover in an unsuccessful son, the evidence of great abilities that it has become too late to call into employment. Nay, he may even see him taking up those tastes as an amateur, and now as an imprudent amusement, that had they been discovered by a free, and natural plan, would have led him on to fortune, and success.

Another objection to the plan mentioned arises from the professions themselves. They are in a constant state of fluctuation, according to the internal, or external political, or commercial position of the nation. The most promising profession of to-day may be unexpectedly in a state of half-bankruptcy a few years hence. A parent, therefore, who predestines his son's career, ten or twelve years before it is time to commence the special studies, claims for himself an amount of prescience that it is impossible to possess. The only safe course is to put off this determination to the last moment possible.

The taste, or liking for a profession is of two kinds: the taste, for its studies, and that for its practical pursuit. The one theoretical, the other practical; both have to be considered. A taste for antiquity, or for paradox, may induce a supposed taste for the law; or a taste for general science, for medicine, in persons who when the practice of these professions is laid before them, would find that they had less natural inclination for it than a rougher mind who regarded none of these things.

Again, beyond these matters of fitness, is what is generally called the *character*. Professions, requiring bold worldly management, should certainly not be allotted to the timorous, or the man of speculative pursuits. Such a man may distinguish himself in the science of his profession, but he will not generally make a practice in it without great difficulty. There are professions peculiarly suited to such tenderer minds. The character for tact, perseverance, boldness, speculation, and con-

fidence, on the one side, must be considered; and on the other, that for gentleness, meditation, love of ease, weakness, bashfulness, and such unworldly attributes.

Intellectual fitness is the next consideration. In speaking of fitness of character, the moral qualities, and the nature or peculiarity of the intellectual powers, were referred to. By intellectual fitness, is meant, the strength, or power of the mental qualities. Thus, two men may have an equal taste for science, but it does not therefore follow that they are both fitted to be civil engineers. The one may be the taste of a weak, the other of a strong, mind. Mental capacity for hard work comes into this category. Two minds of equal mental beauty may differ largely in this respect, just as the strength of a Hercules differs from that of an Apollo. The one improves, and strengthens by labour; the other sinks with fatigue and is lost. This is a most important consideration before entering on an arduous profession. Unless a young man, besides other things, is quite sure that his intellectual, as well as his bodily constitution will stand the labour before him, he had better decline the contest. There are many other honourable fields for him.

Though all may be won by the toil of the man himself, *opportunity* is not an unimportant consideration. If all opportunities are equally unfavourable, of course this ceases to be a point of doubt. Opportunity is valuable, in giving the happiness of early success, or at least, of some early encouragement. Few men are able to sustain, without injury, a long course of disappointment. If, therefore, the young man is of a disposition that requires encouragement, or is prone to be disheartened, a profession in which an early opportunity is presented to him, may be of great use, and force in his career. Yet even this golden dream is to be approached with caution. Too great use of opportunity before full knowledge, and experience is gained, is often the very cause of ruin. It is better to have no reputation at all than to have a bad one, and if a young man is put too much forward before

he is fully master of spear, and shield, he is apt to gain a character of never being able to wield them. It is said, he has been tried, and failed.

The question of *position* is one that enters generally too strongly into the discussion before us. No doubt the choice of a profession beneath the family connections of the candidate is an unhappy selection, but when other circumstances of a very favourable character are in opposition to this feeling, it may well be waived, if strict reliance can be placed on the energy, and gentlemanly feeling of the person himself. It may be remembered how education has raised the Church from the degrading place it socially occupied in the reigns of the Stuarts.

Reynolds and Lawrence were gentlemen, though of humble origin, in days when the profession of art had a lower *status* than at present. Garrick, Kemble, Macready, Kean, and Phelps have made the stage a pursuit fitted for a gentleman of the better classes by their own characters alone; Dr. Arnold was above the general exclusion of his calling. Position is so far a question, that no profession ought to be chosen that will exclude its follower from his former circle of connections, or render him discontented with his station.

After determining the profession best suited to the circumstances, and powers of an individual, the *condition of the proposed profession* itself must be a matter of consideration. Of course it will be wise to avoid a sinking profession, such as the law is at present, and equally prudent to approach with doubt any that has been suddenly raised above its usual normal condition by fortuitous circumstances. For example, when the success of the first made railroads brought on the "mania," every boy who could distinguish a circle from a handsaw was pushed into the profession of the civil engineer; the parents never for a moment reflecting that the extraordinary excitement must have been, by the nature of things, temporary; that England had after all only a certain amount of capital,

and could not require above a certain number of miles of rail, and that the call for engineers must soon cease.

Similarly, in 1845, hundreds of young men flocked to the bar, attracted by the immense increase of business in the parliamentary committees,—oblivious of the years of studentship, and the patient probation, necessary even to the first step of success. Long before any of these youths were ready for the struggle, parliamentary practice had sunk below even its former natural *status*, and they found themselves left behind in a damaged profession, which they themselves had contributed to overcrowd.

At the present time the opening of the public civil appointments in India to competition has raised false hopes in a great number, and induced many to prepare, who even under a less vigorous competition, would have little or no chance of success. Similarly, there has been a rush for commissions in the army, as if the war were to have lasted for ever; and so numerous have been the preparations for this service, that our future members of the learned professions are as likely to be as "well up" in fortification, and military science, as they will be in pleading, prescribing, or preaching.

This absence of a sound discretion arises from the want of the simple reflection, that every profession requires a long preparation, and when a great opening does occur, it is filled up by the younger or hitherto unsuccessful members long before the unprepared student can unfold his diploma. The safest ground on which to select a profession is its normal condition. If that condition is steadily, though slowly, improving, as medicine, art, and education have been for some time, of course the judgment will be right; it may even be a good speculation to enter a profession that has reached its lowest ebb; the amount of its prospects will then be accurately ascertainable, and it will probably be more free from competition than a more prosperous calling. Every branch of the law is at this moment in an unhealthy condition,

and excessively overcrowded; but the latter evil is, by the starving process, already beginning to correct itself; and with respect to the former, it may be said that the profession will never again attain to the position it has had, but though it will, when it shall have attained its lowest deep, occupy a humbler position, it may be a safer calling for the few that will enter it, than it has been for the many in its best days.

CHAPTER III.

GENERAL PRELIMINARY EDUCATION.

THE object of this chapter is to furnish some remarks on the nature of general education, preliminary to commencing the special education of a chosen profession, as well as to put forward a general account of the principal seats of education in England.

In this place it will be impossible to avoid entering into some discussion on general education, apart from the direct purpose of this work; and we shall enter the three several questions of the advantages of general education, with a view to professional life; the extent to which it should proceed, and the system under which it should be acquired.

The advantages of a general education, as a preliminary to professional life, are not much appreciated, except in the church, where a previous university education is in general absolutely necessary, or in the bar, where it has long been the fashion to receive a university education; great numbers enter professions with little, or no general education beyond the commonest school instruction. The navy is the only profession where a previous education is impossible, but the education given to the young cadets on the queen's ships is very complete, and there are few men who can better maintain their place in society on that score than the officers of the queen's navy. This neglect of general education arises from a notion that by putting a young man early to learn his future business a saving of time is effected. This is often very erroneous,

and were the results of putting an ill-stored and un-practiced mind to learn a profession traced to its consequences, it would be found that time is in reality lost, not by the months that are supposed to be gained, but by long and weary years.

The imprudence of cramping a boy's school education to place him in the seat of his special professional education, carries with it several evils. The parent runs the greater risk of making a wrong choice, as far as the bent of his child's mind is concerned, as the bias of the mental powers is much less discernible at fifteen, for example, than it is two or three years later. The fact is, after the former-mentioned age a great change takes place in the man, his views widen, he is more capable of self-education, and therefore more able to comprehend the real value of technicalities, and the principles to which they apply. Accordingly, it is found that a *boy* spends an amount of time in mastering petty details, that the youth a very few years older accomplishes in a much less period, and though with less habit at the same time with more hold; and when both arrive at the same age, say twenty-one, it will be generally found that the more liberally educated youth is *pari passu* with the other. It is not saying too much to assert that when a young man is too early sent to his business the first two, or three years are clearly wasted,—that he then enters his profession without general education, and without, at the same time, sufficient professional education. If an energetic man, he soon finds this out, and then perhaps begins to learn his duty, at a time when he ought to cease to be an elementary student. If he does not then obtain business no time has been saved, and if he does, he is in danger of injuring those that employ him, and of commencing life with a damaged character.

Again, extreme youth is in many respects a great professional disadvantage in four professions out of five. Few persons will care to entrust life, or property to the discretion, or control of a lad just out of teens. Very few professions can be fairly commenced before three, or four

and twenty. Too young a man is apt to take an unfavourable view of his future struggles, and to make a sacrifice of himself to a present convenience, or exaggerated doubts. All young men are despondent about the future—the world seems barred. Young healthy life thinks not of death or misfortune, and is apt to regard the successful as permanently fixed in their seats. The more experience of life a young man has before starting, the more likely is he to take a bold flight for success.

Not less important are the temptations opened to unformed habits, and unfixed principles by pushing a lad into life too early. He is sure to meet with persons much older than himself, possessing loose ideas of morality, and advanced vices, and the young lad fresh from the control of home is little likely to be able to resist the baits held out to him.

If this reasoning is correct, as little money, as time, is saved in cramping a youth in his preliminary education. If, then, it is no advantage, but a disadvantage, in omitting preliminary education to save time, what positive advantage, it may be asked, is gained by a previous general education extended beyond school in amount, and boyhood in period? Much, indeed, in professional success; and more, much more, in personal happiness. An ill-educated man, however well educated in his profession, must have great talent to raise himself above the depressing influence of a solitary class of ideas, and is far more likely to take the lower than the higher range of his opportunities. Every profession furnishes examples of ill-educated men attaining high professional distinction, but the greatest men have always been men of information and training, beyond the limits of their daily occupations.

It may be almost too late in this day to insist on the necessity of that which everybody in theory will be ready to admit the advantage of;—were it not equally true that hundreds of parents practically act upon the other principle, and hurry forward a professional career without the preparation here insisted on; and it is submitted,

without any saving of time, or money in the long run, and with much greater danger of failure than if the opposite plan were acted upon.

As to the extent to which preliminary general education should proceed, it is suggested that it should be continued to the age of seventeen as a minimum, and not be continued beyond three-and-twenty as a maximum. Under the former age, the youth is mentally unfitted for the more extended studies of a profession, and will be morally injured by so early a launch into the world. It is meant that education should be extended beyond the usual school period, and if possible, on a different plan, and in a different society. If preliminary education is continued beyond three-and-twenty, the young man will be thrown very late in commencing a professional career, even in those professions in which age is an advantage. At that age, too, the powers, though confirmed, are still supple, an advantage which is lost at a later period in most men.

To turn to the system under which preliminary education should proceed: It has been said that some education, both in acquirements, and knowledge of society, should be given after leaving school, and before entering special study. This of course is generally attained at an English, or foreign university, but as this is not attainable by everybody, as not suited to circumstances, or within the range of means, it will be useful to offer a few remarks on scholastic education in its bearing as a preparation for professional life.

The three forms now in vogue are public schools, private schools, and home education. In examining the merits of these several plans, we shall commence by citing the opinion of Dr. Beattie:—

"Could mankind lead their lives in that solitude which is so favourable to many of our most virtuous affections, I should clearly be on the side of private education. But most of us, when we go out into the world, find difficulties in our way, which good principles, and innocence alone

will not qualify us to encounter; we must have some address, and knowledge of the world different from what is learned in books, or we shall soon be puzzled, disheartened, or disgusted. The foundation of this knowledge is laid in the intercourse of school boys, or at least of young men of the same age. When a boy is always under the direction of a parent or a tutor he acquires such a habit of looking up to him for advice, that he never learns to think, or act for himself; his memory is exercised indeed in retaining their advice, but his invention is suffered to languish until it becomes totally inactive. He knows perhaps a good deal of history, or science, but he knows not how to conduct himself on those ever changing emergencies, which are too minute, and too numerous to be comprehended in any system of advice. He is astonished at the most common appearances, and discouraged with the most trifling (because unexpected) obstacles; and he is often at his wit's end where a boy of much less knowledge, but more experience, would devise a thousand expedients."

"Another inconvenience attending private education, is the suppressing of the spirit of emulation, without which it rarely happens that a boy prosecutes his studies with alacrity, or success. I have heard private tutors complain, that they were obliged to have recourse to flattery, or bribery to draw the attention of their pupils, and I need not observe how improper it is to set the example of such practices before children. True emulation, especially in young, and ingenuous minds, is a noble principle; I have known the happiest effects produced by it; I never knew it to be productive of any vice. In all public schools it is, or ought to be, carefully cherished.". . "I shall only further observe, that when boys pursue their studies at home, they are apt to contract either a habit of idleness, or too close an attachment to reading; the former breeds innumerable diseases both in the body and the soul; the latter by filling young and tender minds with more knowledge than they can

either retain, or arrange properly, is apt to make them superficial, and inattentive, or, what is worse, to strain, and consequently impair the faculties by overstretching them. I have known several instances of both." *

"The great inconvenience of public education arises from its being dangerous to morals. And, indeed, every condition, and period of human life is liable to temptation. Nor will I deny that our innocence during the first part of life, is much more secure at home than anywhere else; yet even at home when we reach a certain age, it is not perfectly secure. Let young men be kept at the greatest distance from bad company, it will not be easy to keep them from bad books, to which in these days all persons may have an easy access at all times. Let us, however, suppose the best; that both bad books, and bad company keep away, and that the young man never leaves his parent's, or tutor's side, till his mind be well furnished with good principles, and himself arrived at an age of reflection and discretion; yet temptations must come at last, and when they come, will they have less strength, because they are new, unexpected, and surprising? I fear not. The more the young man is surprised, the more apt will he be to lose his presence of mind, and consequently be the less capable of self-government. Besides, if his passions are strong, he will be disposed to form comparisons between his past state of restraint, and his present position of liberty, very much to the disadvantage of the former. His new associates will laugh at him for his reserve, and preciseness, and his unacquaintance with their manners, and with the world, as it will render him the more obnoxious to their ridicule, will also disqualify him the more both for supporting it with dignity, and also for defending himself against it. A young man kept by himself at home is never well-known, even by his parents; because he is never placed in those circumstances which alone are able effectually to rouse and

* Dr. Beattie to Mrs. Inglis. See Forbes' "Life of Beattie," vol. i. p. 180.

interest his passions, and, consequently, to make his character. His parents, therefore, or tutors, never know his weak side, nor what particular advices, or cautions he stands most in need of; whereas, if he had attended a public school, and mingled in the amusements, and pursuits of his equals, his virtues, and his vices would have been disclosing themselves every day; and his readers would have known what particular precepts, and examples it was most expedient to inculcate upon him. Compare those who have had a public education with those who have been educated at home, and it will not be found, in fact, that the latter are, either in virtue or in talents, superior to the former. I speak from observation of fact, as well as from attending to the nature of the thing." *

This is a fair, and unbiassed statement of a man in favour of public school education, who had paid more than usual attention to the subject of training the young; but there is yet another view that it is but fair to state.

It is thus stated in short by one of the Edinburgh reviewers:—

"By a public school is meant an endowed place of education of old standing, to which the sons of gentlemen resort in considerable numbers, and where they continue to reside from eight or nine to nineteen years of age. The characteristic features of these schools are their antiquity, the numbers, and the ages of the young people who have been educated at them. The most important peculiarity in the constitution of a public school is its numbers, which are so great that a close inspection by the master into the studies, and conduct of each individual is quite impossible. Under this system a boy is left almost entirely to himself, beyond the routine of his studies. The strong characters flourish under this neglect, as they would flourish anywhere, but such cases are rare, and those who have the opportunity of

* Dr. Beattie to Mrs. Inglis. See Forbes' "Life of Beattie," vol. i. p. 180.

watching at the universities, and elsewhere the characters of the public and private schoolboys, must be fully aware, that though public schools do send forth a few youths of pre-eminent talents, and strong characters, that on the whole the public school system is not favourable either to learning or morals."

Thus two eminent writers differ not only in the argument, but also as to the fact. The personal experience of the author of this volume is in favour of the former opinion. Whilst admitting the necessary evils of public schools, now much diminished, he believes the same evils to exist in private schools in an exaggerated form.

In a public school the father surrenders his child to a system—in a private school to an individual. That system is well ascertained, its operation for good, or evil fairly ascertained, and it is under the control of public opinion. The public school is independent of the parent, or of the boy's liking for the system. In a private school the master is recommended by private interest, and has every inducement to flatter the pupil, when seeking to hide insufficiency, or neglect. The private master, it must be owned, may fulfil all requisite conditions. He is the vital, and essential part of a school, and undoubtedly with all the advantages in general in favour of the ancient foundation, there cannot be a doubt that an education under a man of real ability, and judgment, who can judiciously mingle a domestic with a school life, cannot be equalled in its happy results. But such a hope has the fault of all despotisms, its dependence on the character of one. It is seldom possible to unite learning in the master, and the emulation derived from the society of other boys, with the affectionate vigilance which is experienced in the house of a parent. It must be said, though it is a painful fact, that few schoolmasters in any way approach this character; with many honourable exceptions, a large number are ignorant, careless, servile, and even dishonest.

Between the two systems for the *purposes of professional life* in particular, no comparison can be held. For that

purpose it is impossible to exaggerate the importance of the development of the manly character which public education is calculated to produce, and constantly produces, in numerous instances. There can be little doubt that, in some respects, the character grows freely and vigorously in a public school, and is often stunted and dwarfed by the most carefully devised system of private education.

One of the advantages of a public school is the greater knowledge of the world which the boy derives from his position. He has more opportunities of observing human character, of learning to bear and forbear, and of acquiring the capacity of submitting patiently to the ups and downs of life. There is little chance of his being spoilt by over-attention, and he will on the whole be better prepared to "rough it" if necessary.

The manliness of the athletic exercises of a public school are of no little importance. It has been asked of what importance is it in after life, whether a boy can play well at cricket, or row a boat with the skill and precision of a waterman? A similar question might with equal fairness be asked respecting Latin verses, or the Elements of Euclid. No man in after life is either likely to desire to howl at a jury in hexameters or iambics, or to drag in the properties of circles in illustrating the truths of the Gospel. The answer is similar for both cases. The latter is intended to train and strengthen the mind, and the former has the effect of training and strengthening the body. The importance of this is now felt. The captains of schools and class-men of universities are no longer a body of prigs and slatterns, properly excluded by conceit and dirt from the society of their fellows, but men of ability and sense, who well know that a healthy body is the best support to a well-worked mind. We still have classical scholars at Oxford, and mathematicians at Cambridge; but we do not find them now almost always accompanied with enfeebled constitutions, or inveterate dyspepsia. Several of the best "oars" and "bats," both at Oxford and Cambridge, have of late years taken the

highest honours. These athletic exercises, moreover, have a direct bearing on professions. The divine and the lawyer require strong lungs, and the former often good legs, unless his benefice is a very rich one; the surgeon must often depend on the strength of his wrist, and the healthy and firm tone of his nerves in his most delicate operations, and who will deny to the soldier and sailor the absolute necessity of a good physical education? No gymnastic or callisthenic exercises have yet been found to equal the animated exhilaration of the cricket-field, or the river in producing sound constitutions, and finely developed forms.

Another benefit derived from public schools is the compulsory uniformity and regularity of the system. In a private seminary the crotchets of the parents are constantly coming into collision with the experience of the master, and almost every other boy is educated on an independent system. That constancy of mind, so important in life, and so useful to the exercise of its free energies, is often wanting. In a profession a man must follow the trammels of a system, and any system of education that does not early train the mind and wishes to yield to the pressure of the harness is defective for professional education. In private schools the personal tastes are too much consulted.

In a public school a boy has an emblem of future life, in the certainty of punishment following delinquency, as failure most surely follows unsteadiness in professional pursuits. Nor must be put on one side the honourable emulation of the ancient foundation, the *esprit du corps* that assists in teaching the boy to conduct himself so as to do no discredit to his "college." No one intimately acquainted with the two systems can for a moment doubt that much the same vices exist in both, but that the public school system creates a feeling of honour and respect for truth too often wanting in the other place.

The principal ancient public schools were probably all, or nearly all, originally day schools, with a foundation for

poor scholars. Some of them were free grammar-schools, intended for the use of the children of the townspeople, as at Harrow. Most of these foundations have been perverted from their original intentions: either the foundation has no longer been applied only to the purposes of educating poor scholars, or the free grammar-school is no longer free. In other cases the school has almost disappeared, whilst the staff of masters, or fellows, established by the original foundation, have remained to draw salaries which ought partly to be given to the scholars. In other cases, the estates have enormously increased beyond the wants of the school, as in the case of the grammar-schools of Monmouth and Loughborough. Yet, again, there are instances of grammar-schools only rescued from destruction by the efforts of some enlightened person bold enough to face corrupt practices, as in the example of the Perse grammar-school at Cambridge, or the Loughborough school mentioned above.

The public schools of England are now chiefly residential or boarding-schools, where the members of the foundation reside in allotted rooms and dormitories within the ancient buildings, and where the oppidans, out-collegers, or by whatever name they may be called, receive education in the ancient halls, but themselves reside in the houses of "dames," or of masters belonging to the school. The expense and kind of education in the principal of these will be found in a table in the Appendix.*

Of late years the increasing necessities of growing towns have called into existence another species of public school, which, although without a foundation or resident scholars, from the magnitude of their scheme and the number of the pupils (often much exceeding the numbers taught in the ancient foundations), afford a good general education, and many of the advantages of public schools, joined with the protection and comfort of

* *Vide* Appendix.

home. These schools are generally day-schools, and are entirely supported by the fees paid by the scholars, which vary from 15*l.* to 20*l.* a year, with a small addition for books; the High School of Edinburgh furnished for many years a distinguished example of the success of this plan; the managers of that seat of education having reason to be justly proud of the number of distinguished men that have been taught there. The first schools established on this plan in London, were the City of London School, University College School, and King's College School. These three schools have been pre-eminently successful, and have furnished no small number of the most distinguished prizemen of Oxford and Cambridge. These institutions have been extensively imitated in various suburbs of London and the great provincial towns.

Where the education of a public school is unattainable from want of means or other circumstances, education at these great day-schools is by far the best substitute, much preferable to education at a private boarding-school, unless carried on, on principles and on a scale allied to those of the public school. It is common to send boys from the country to attend at these schools. The expense is somewhat greater than that of a private school, but a more regular education is obtained, and the lads are of necessity well attended to in their temporary home.

Home education, it has been said, is not well-adapted as a preparation for professional life. But there is one system worse, and lately come into vogue, and that is education at a French *gymnase*. These semi-military establishments are quite unfitted for English boys. Pushed, crammed, overtaught, overworked, drilled, and disciplined as the pupils are, they learn very little. They are quite unable to teach themselves anything, or to proceed one step without the ever-ready master. Left to themselves, and away from the system, they are like soldiers without officers, entirely without self-guidance and self-control. They have few of the habits of boys,

are without their games, but with many prematurely acquired vices.

When the school education of the future professional man is completed, if it is not intended to give him the advantage of a university education, an interval of at least a year should be afforded him before commencing his special studies. Nothing is more important before placing a young man in his life's career, than that he should commence it with ideas and aspirations wider than those derived from school influences. Time ought to be afforded him to rub off the feeling of school guidance, and to feel that he has at last become responsible for himself. It is during this period that he will be most likely to form a correct judgment of what ought to be his future calling, and that his friends will be able to observe those points of character that will lead them to judge it expedient to meet or oppose his wishes.

It is of great advantage if some portion of this time can be spent in travelling, or in a circle of society where the youth is likely to be acquainted with manly views of the difficulties and purposes of his future life. Nor must be forgotten the golden opportunity that it will afford him of reviving, or strengthening home influences and affections before he again leaves his parent's house; especially at an age when the young man is beginning fully to understand the beauty and happiness of domestic affections, which next to religious principles, are the best moral safeguards.

Where it is possible, it is an undoubted advantage, though it may not be absolutely necessary, to precede a professional career with a university education. This proposition may be thought too broad, but except in those professions which admit of no choice as to the time in entering, it is submitted that it is without an exception. Of what advantage is it, it may be asked, that all professional men should learn classics, or mathematics? What, for example, has an actor to do with the differential calculus, or Greek metres? The answer is,

that it is not absolutely necessary, but of great advantage. Many men of high fancy, possessing even the deeper powers of true imagination, have failed for want of those habits of patient acquirement necessary to success in all callings. These habits it is one of the objects of a university education to confirm, if not to create.

Two advantages are offered in the ancient universities, university education and university residence. The former of these two is provided by the colleges, or by the private tutors of the place; the benefits of the latter are mostly derived from the young men themselves. University residence by continuing, in a modified form, the discipline of the public school, with increased necessities of self-government, as well as interposing another intermediate step before launching the youth into the responsibilities of life, furnishes one of the best preparations for professional life now extant. But it is very far from perfect, or even from the excellence to which very little change might bring it.

The social improvement of society in the universities has, of late years, been great and rapid. The extension of the course of studies has liberalised the university tone; the cultivation of music has supplanted the former intense passion for cards; the healthy exercises of the river and the field, have crushed fopperies in dress, and of necessity have had a good effect in diminishing habits of drinking, once a university vice. It is now vulgar for an under-graduate to get drunk, and that which is vulgar amongst young men is soon avoided. Yet there is a want, which is soon felt after a short residence, but is little understood until after-life; it is the want of female influence in modifying the habits of the fellows and tutors. These gentlemen are not allowed to marry, and become subject to all the consequences universally following that deprivation. In morals they are either ascetically prudish, or worse than ordinarily loose. Either condition being highly disadvantageous as an example to young men; the first, by its over strictness, and the latter by its evil

example. In age the tutors are either too young, or too old. The old are generally men ingrained into the narrow views attached to a residence in a small society, ignorant beyond book-learning, bigoted in religion, and almost antediluvian in politics. They are generally men who have not been bold enough to push into the adventures of life, or, having done so, have failed from the want of the very qualities necessary to fit them for the advisers of youth. The young tutors and fellows are generally very young; last year's prizemen, very little older than the young men themselves, regarded often, even by the university, as in *statu pupillari*. Capital teachers, but not exactly arrived at that period of life when they might take a lead in the college. They are also transitory in their stay. But in fact the "dons" do not know the undergraduates; the old dons have no taste for it, and the young ones follow their example. There is a want of an intermediate class, more happily situated themselves, and less on stilts with regard to those below them; men to whom the pensioner can look up to as friends and advisers in the temptations of his career. This can only be effected by consolidating the fellowships, so as to give sufficient income to the resident and working fellows to allow them to marry. The presence of a small circle of female society in a college would change its tone for the better in six months. The energetic men would remain in their offices, much to the benefit of the college institutions. Experience, widened views, and a purer form of life in the fellows themselves, would be the results of such a change. The influence of female society would go far to cure the "donnishness" of the authority, and draw the preceptor and the pupil closer together. At present, an undergraduate often passes through his university career without exchanging a word with the head of his college, and rarely even meets his tutor. There is a consequent gulf between the "don" and the undergraduate; and discipline is carried on by the juvenile expedients of tasks, fines, and confinement, or by the

worse course of turning attendance on worship in the house of God, into a punishment. There is no appeal to good feeling, none to honour, and none to religion except in outward form. The windows of the college are barred like a prison, and its walls guarded by spikes.

Many arguments no doubt can be started against a plan, that has succeeded well in the university of Dublin, but the limits of this work permit only one intimately connected with the pursuit of a profession. It is said, "That fellowships are a most useful aid to the young professional man commencing life, and that if the fellows are allowed to marry, or if the fellowships are consolidated and increased in value, and consequently lessened in number, that few vacancies will occur, and thus one great benefit of this institution be destroyed."

One answer to this argument is, that such a use of the fellowship (as an aid to the young) was no part of its original purpose, and that to apply it to such a purpose is to defeat the founder's intention.

But the important question arises, "are fellowships truly useful to young professional men? So many men, intended to follow professions, are sent to college to obtain these emoluments, and so many in reality work with no other view, that it is an important professional question. After considerable opportunity of watching the careers of young men after leaving college, the writer of this book cannot but conclude that they are not useful to that end, or that their use is at least extremely doubtful. The greatest, wisest, and most observant men of England have doubted the benefit of what is termed a "small independence." Enough to live on without labour, not enough to settle on. Enough to be selfish upon, not enough to be generous upon. Enough to waste life upon, too little, or it may be too much, to rouse energy, or awaken ambition with. A fellowship is just such a small independence, nor does it seem to make any difference in its effect, from the circumstance that it has generally been won by the exertions and ability of the fellow

himself. Indeed, this often seems to justify him in his own mind for his subsequent idleness; he has gained a fellowship, and it too frequently happens that he is satisfied with that small triumph.

From residence in the universities we turn to the education presented by these bodies. It is in two forms, *tutorial* and *professorial*. The merits of these two systems has lately been much discussed; the subject is extensive, and perhaps wants still more investigation to determine the question. The partisans of the latter system seem rather to appeal to a democratic feeling, and to argue that the system of tutors is unfair, by presenting inequalities in the merits of the instruction given to young men who are ultimately to contend for the same honours. If the sole object of a university were to confer honour, there would be much force in this argument, but as the real object is to afford education (the conferring honour being merely ancillary to that purpose), that position is wanting in firmness. Which affords the best education? The weight of evidence and opinion is in favour of the *tutorial*, that is, the system of the great English universities, especially of Cambridge, whose mathematicians are the best trained in the world.

Education at Oxford is conducted chiefly by tutors in the college, at an equal expense to all in the same house. At Cambridge it depends principally upon private tutors, who are highly paid for their distinguished instruction. This has been objected to on the ground that it gives an advantage to the rich over the poor. If the university were a mere honour-making machine this might be sound reason, but its object is education—the best education. Has not a man, because he is well off, a right to the best education he can obtain, because another is ill off?—in fact, to his natural opportunity. It would be most unfair to say, "You, A. B., shall not do your best because C. D. is poor." The principal universities of Great Britain and Ireland, where the tutorial system principally obtains, are Oxford, Cambridge, Durham, and Dublin. In the

systems of University College, London, and the Universities of Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, and St. Andrew's, the professorial has the chief influence.

The ancient Universities of Oxford and Cambridge are societies of students in all the liberal arts and sciences, and are incorporated under the names of "The Chancellor, Masters, and Scholars of the University of (Oxford or Cambridge)." These literary commonwealths consist of a union of colleges or societies (and in Oxford, halls and private halls), devoted to the study of learning and knowledge, and for the better service of the church and state. The colleges * are mostly of ancient date. University College, Oxford, claims to have been founded by Alfred, though probably there was no real foundation in either university until the middle of the thirteenth century. These colleges are chiefly maintained by the endowments of their several founders and benefactors. Each college is a body corporate, bound by its own statutes; but is likewise controlled by the paramount laws of the university.

In the University of Oxford there are four halls, which are societies *not* incorporated, their property being held by the university in trust for them. They are of very ancient origin, and in some form probably existed prior to the colleges. It is supposed that these halls, as well as the "hostels" at Cambridge, were in olden times perfectly free institutions, conducted by private members of the university, under university regulations.

For the purpose of giving poor students a cheap education, private halls have again been permitted in Oxford.† Any member of the convocation of a certain standing and qualification, may obtain a licence from the Vice-Chancellor to open his residence, if situate within a mile and a half of *Carfax*, for the reception of students, who may be matriculated and admitted to all the privileges of the university, without being of necessity entered as

* The Colleges and Halls are synonymous in Cambridge, though not so in Oxford. Thus Clare Hall, Cambridge, is called, "Collegium, sive, Domus, sive, Aula de Clare."

† Statute 17 & 18 Vict. cap. 81, §§ 25, 26.

members of any college or existing hall. The person so licensed is called a "licensed master," and his residence so opened a "private hall." These "heads" of private halls are only private speculators, and have not the *status* of heads of houses. At present only two have been established in Oxford, and have not yet apparently been very successful. It is much to be feared that the *animus* that exists in Oxford society is excessively prejudical to the success of this admirable project. Oxford society is narrow in its views, and is split up into sections, each agreeing to despise and exclude one another; and there can be little doubt that the inmate of a private hall is unfairly looked down upon, and the licensed master regarded with jealousy and dislike. It is to be hoped that when this privilege is extended to the freer atmosphere of Cambridge, that it will have a fair trial. The system is a well-hit medium between the exclusiveness of the English college, and the undisciplined licence of the German university; and it ought to open out an opportunity of a university education to almost every young man of the upper and middle classes, whose circumstances and position enable him to surrender three years of his early manhood to education. It is said that the private hall cannot be made cheaper than the college. But it is quite plain that if a country clergyman can afford to board and educate a young man of eighteen for some seventy pounds a year, and make a profit, a man of learning would find it still more to his advantage to admit students to his house on the same terms, especially when it is considered that the university student is obliged to reside only eighteen weeks in each year in Oxford, and about twenty-four in Cambridge, to obtain his degree, and is seldom from choice more than six months in the university town.

The system of private halls, hitherto so unsuccessful in Oxford, and yet to be tried in Cambridge, has been carried out in the University of Durham with considerable success. The intelligent founders of this university,

after having established a central college, did then, upon the principle of uniting domestic economy with efficient instruction, and with the special view of placing these advantages within the reach of persons of limited means, establish a new hall, called "Bishop Hatfield's Hall." * It was opened in 1846, and enlarged by a considerable building in 1849. This attempt was so successful, and the applications for admission continued to increase so fast, that another hall, called after the celebrated Bishop Cosin, Cosin's Hall was opened in 1851.

The rooms in these halls are let *furnished*, by which plan the expenses of a student's outfit are greatly diminished; and in other respects, also, their arrangement are made on a more economical scale. Students in every faculty are received into the halls as well as into the college. The members, too, of each society are subject to the same discipline, are under the same tutors, and are eligible for the most part to the same endowments.†

The education at Durham, it will be seen by the note,

* Bishop Hatfield was a liberal contributor to Durham College in Oxford, dissolved at the Reformation.

† Expenses of the University and Houses in Durham :—

1. UNIVERSITY.

	£	s.	d.
Admission Fee	2	0	0
Terminal Fees.			
Tuition, including fees to the Professors of the University	5	0	0
University Chest	0	10	0
University Library	0	10	0

Non-resident students, who are under the degree of B.A., or who have not obtained their licence of their degree of Civil Engineer, pay terminally 10*s.* to the chest, 10*s.* to the library, and 10*s.* to their college.

Every B.A., in order to count terms, pays terminally to the chest 10*s.* until he takes the degree of M.A., but after the M.A. examination or its equivalent has been passed, this charge, together with the annual payment of 1*l.*, required after the M.A. degree, may both be compounded for one payment of 5*l.*

Every M.A., in order to be a member of convocation, pays to the chest 1*l.* annually, or, in lieu of it, a composition of 5*l.* This composition may be paid at an earlier period, as above specified.

The following are the fees payable upon admission to each degree :—B.A. 3*l.*; Licence in Medicine, 3*l.*; Civil Engineers, 3*l.*; A.M., 6*l.*; M.B. 6*l.*; Licence in Theology, 3*l.* (or for a B.A., 1*l.*); Ad eundem, 5*s.*

is not nearly so expensive as at the older universities,

2. College Expenses.

At University College.

	£	s.	d.
Caution money (which is a guarantee fund against loss by terminal defalcation, and is returned to a student when he leaves the university, if his debts to the college have been discharged) . .	20	0	0
Terminal Expenses.			
Rent of College Rooms, ... from	3	0	0
		to	
	5	0	0
College Servants	1	10	0
Detriments and Gas-lights	1	15	0
Coals	1	1	0
College Commons, comprising dinner and meat luncheon . . . . . *per week*	0	14	0

Every B.A. in order to count terms, pays terminally to the college 5*s.* until he is of sufficient standing to take the degree of M.A. ; or, he may compound for this charge by a payment of 1*l.* 1*s.* made to the college upon his taking the degree of B.A.

Before admission to the high table, 2*l.* is paid to the college by those members who have proceeded to their degree in arts at Durham, and 5*l.* by those who have been admitted *ad eundem* from other universities.

At Bishop Hatfield's Hall.

	£	s.	d.
Caution money	15	0	0
Terminal Expenses.			
Rent of College Rooms, furnished (linen excepted), from	5	5	0
		to	
	6	6	0
Commons, board, including servants and all domestic charges (washing excepted) . . *per week*	0	18	0

At Bishop Cosin's Hall.

	£	s.	d.
Caution money	15	0	0
Terminal Expenses.			
Rent of College Rooms, furnished (linen excepted) .	5	5	0
		to	
	7	7	0
Commons, or board, including servants, and all domestic charges (washing excepted) . . .	0	18	0

At Nevill Hall, Newcastle-upon-Tyne.

Medical School.

	£	s.	d.
Caution money	15	0	0
Rooms furnished (except linen), board, servants, and all other domestic charges (except washing), for 40 weeks	42	0	0
Censor's fees	3	0	0

but at the same time the expenses of the ancient institutions are not of necessity so large as is popularly supposed.

In Cambridge it is customary for a student desiring to take honours to read with a private tutor, during the whole period of his residence, which adds an expense of fourteen pounds a term to his other charges.* It is also customary for the young Cambridge men to join into parties during the long vacation, and visit some part of the continent, or of the English mountain or lake scenery, with their private tutor. The tutor's fee for this purpose is 30*l.*, and the average expenses for the trip about 40*l.* Thus the private tutorial system of Cambridge adds about 112*l.* per annum to other expenses. Apart from these expenses, 140*l.* a year, exclusive of the ordinary expenses of clothing and pocket-money, ought to be sufficient for a young man moderately economical, or about 250*l.* in all. Rather more is required at Oxford, as the college fees are generally higher, and the student has not the liberty of choosing his style of living so completely as at the sister university; but at the same time a private tutor is not so necessary as at Cambridge. The whole expense of a college career may (where there is no extravagance) with every comfort be reduced below 600*l.*, without private tuition. Private tuition will raise the cost to 900*l.* All above these sums, for a gentleman, not a nobleman, or a man of fortune, I deem to be unnecessary and wasteful.

With a well developed system of private halls, where the licensed master would act as private tutor, these charges might easily be depressed below 350*l.* The colleges themselves, richly endowed, could well afford to admit students at a fixed sum, instead of under the present system of numerous fees and uncertain charges. There is no reason, whatever, why a college education should be at its present price, except the very doubtful one derived from the prejudice and rapacity of university "dons."

* Some tutors (or coaches) take half-pupils in every other day, instead of every day, for half-fees.

When a parent has determined to send a son to a university, the question, "Which university?" has to be answered. Residents in London, Dublin, and Durham, or in their neighbourhood, will almost naturally choose those at their own doors, although it may be doubted if the full advantage of an university education will be obtained so near home. A dissenter will incline towards the University of London, where he is admitted on equal terms with the members of the church. At the other universities he is admitted to the education and the honours, but not to the *degrees* and emoluments, and will besides be expected, during his course, to attend the worship of a religion that he differs from. There is no religious test on matriculating at Cambridge, but the questionist signs a declaration before admission "*ad respondendum quæstioni*," that he is a *bonâ fide* member of the Church of England. At Oxford no signature of the Articles is requisite for admission, but it goes against the young student who declines, when recommended to sign.

If no question of residence, religion, or narrow means comes into operation, the choice generally lies between Oxford and Cambridge. It is no part of the present purpose to enter into any invidious comparison of the rival universities, but there are a few simple incidents that may be mentioned that may assist.

The fellowships and scholarships of Cambridge are generally open to all comers of English birth, so that if the undergraduate has no accident of manor or county to assist him, he will have more chance of emolument than at Oxford. Scholarships at Cambridge almost invariably accompany prizes. But before determination on this ground, it may be well to look through the Oxford calendar, and to see if a choice can or cannot be made out, by alliance to founder's kin, birth in a particular county, or residence in some ancient manor.

If the period for proceeding to the university has by any accident been delayed, the undergraduate will find

himself more amongst young men of his own age at Cambridge. There is a very general system of superannuation existing at Oxford, and consequently the undergraduates are on an average two years younger than those at Cambridge—a vast difference at that period of life. There are very few limitations in respect of age at Cambridge.

The authorities of the colleges at Oxford are very particular about their admissions to their colleges, and it often happens that a young man, owing to some freak on the part of the "dons," is unable to choose his own college. A different system exists at Cambridge; there is no necessity to have a name entered in the college books earlier than the July previous to the October in which the undergraduate commences residence; the only recommendation being that of a master of arts. The Cambridge student has, therefore, a freer choice of his college.

In Oxford, where it is almost a favour to be admitted to certain colleges, the question of choice is not so open as to be a matter of much discussion, but at Cambridge it is different. In the latter university, the colleges divide themselves into large and small colleges. The large colleges are Trinity and St. John's, the remainder are small colleges. The colleges of Queen's and Catharine Hall do indeed number many students, but, from some peculiarity, obtain little influence in the university, forming almost a separate colony by themselves. Trinity and St. John's are almost universities in themselves;—they do not pretend to present a system different from that of the remainder of the university, but from their vastly superior numbers (Trinity numbering one-third of the whole university), they contain a greatly superior staff of teachers, and have a very different moral *status* from that of the small colleges. An intelligent young man can, from the excellence of the tuition in Trinity and St. John's, dispense with a private tutor the greater part of his time. The difference between a large college and a small, is not very dissimilar to that between a public and a private school. They are both, indeed, on a similar system, but

the working of the particular system in a small college is more dependent on chance. There is a wider choice of companions in a large college, but a greater tendency to cliqueism than in the others. On the whole, if no other reasons weigh, a large college is to be preferred.

The University of Oxford comprises in all four and twenty societies, consisting of colleges and halls; the former of which are corporate bodies, and the latter ancient societies, but whose property is held for them in trust by the university itself. The university, as mentioned before, forms a separate corporate body. The colleges consist generally, of a head, fellows, and scholars, all on the foundation, and of gentlemen commoners and commoners not on the foundation. The colleges are also endowed with numerous exhibitions, that is endowments to students of merit, lasting for two, three, or four years, but conferring, in general, no privileges except the receipt of the stipend.

In Oxford there are scarcely two colleges alike in constitution, and it is quite impossible to describe them in a condensed treatise. Very few are perfectly open to the public, the endowments being commonly confined to the natives of particular counties or manors, or the *alumni* of particular schools. Others do not receive any students not on the foundation, or none others but gentlemen commoners. In selecting a college, therefore, at Oxford, great care is necessary if it is intended that the young student should stand for any endowments. At the same time many of the scholarships and fellowships are given away, or *profess* to be given away, to the most successful in public examinations. A great number of the endowments are also limited to age, and a student is early superannuated. The consequence is that the Oxford men are, on the average, a year or a year and a half younger than the members of the other ancient universities.*

There are also numerous scholarships and exhibitions

* The details of each college will be found set out in the Oxford University Calendar.

in the gift of the university, unconnected with any college or hall. These are always granted only to the successful candidates in a public examination. They often comprise learning in subjects not taught by the colleges, such as Arabic, Sanscrit, Anglo-Saxon, &c.

After the student has been entered and matriculated, he has three examinations to pass through before he can take his first degree. They are as follows:—*Responsions*, holden three times a year, *i. e.*, 5th December; Monday after the fourth Sunday in Lent; Thursday after the first Sunday after Trinity; to be passed in the seventh term inclusive. The candidates are examined in one author in Latin, and one in Greek, so as to ascertain that the principles of the two languages are understood well. Arithmetic, and a small portion of Euclid and Algebra conclude the curriculum. Part of the examination is *vivâ voce*. Those who have not passed this examination by the end of the seventh term (unless by permission) are allowed to take a degree only after the expiration of so many terms as have elapsed between their sixth term and that in which they obtain the certificate of the master of the schools.

The First Public Examination, under moderators, can take place as early as the eighth, as late as the twelfth term of standing.* The examination is of the same character as the former, but more extended, adding the Gospels, the translation of English into Latin, and Grammatical Questions.

The Public Examination (held twice in the year, commencing on the Thursday after the Second Sunday after Easter, and the 24th October or day following, if either of those mentioned should fall on a festival) in two *schools* at least, but not necessarily in the same term, as early as the thirteenth, and, for honours, as late as the eighteenth term of standing. First School to be passed first, and by all, is called the school of "Literæ

* These examinations take place twice in the year, commencing the 20th November, and the Wednesday next after the Sunday after Easter.

Humaniores," and consists of an examination, partly classical, and partly divinity. The Second School is in Mathematics, the third in Natural Science, the last in Law and Modern History. The examinations (except for honours) in these latter three are extremely moderate; honours are awarded in all four schools.

Sixteen terms are required to be kept for the ordinary degree of B.A., except in the case of noblemen. There are four terms in the year; two of which are kept by six weeks' residence, and two by three weeks'. Of these sixteen terms, residence for twelve only is necessary. Thus the education of a student at Oxford is spread over more than three years, but he is actually in residence not more than fifteen months of necessity.

In order to take a degree in arts, *i. e.*, to go through the regular course of education in the University of Cambridge, the person must be admitted to some college before the end of the Easter Term* of the year in which he proposes to come into residence. The mode of admission is, either by a personal examination before the tutor and some of the college officers, or which is more usual, by sending the tutor a recommendatory certificate, signed by some master of arts of the university, stating the name, age, and qualifications, &c., of the candidate, and transmitting it with the caution money.† If this certificate is considered satisfactory, admission takes place, and the person's name is immediately placed on the boards, which are suspended in the butteries of the several colleges. The person thus admitted usually goes into residence about the 25th of October following, and then commences his academical course.

The matriculation in the university, or enrolment of

* Easter Term begins on the seventh day (the Wednesday se'nnight) after Easter day, and ends on the Friday after commencement day; commencement day is always the first Tuesday in July.

† Caution-money, is money paid on admission at each college; it remains in the hands of the tutor, and is not returned till the student takes his name off the boards of the college. It is—noblemen, 50*l.*; fellow-commoners, 25*l.*; pensioners, 15*l.*; sizars, 10*l.* At Oxford, the caution-money varies in each college, from 15*l.* to 30*l.* for a commoner; at Oxford, also, the entrance-money varies from 6*l.* to 12*l.*

the students' names in the university books, is done on the day of the division of the term. At this time also the fees to which the University is entitled are paid to the registrar; he presents to the student a book of extracts from the statutes, containing such directions as relate to his duty.

Besides a constant attendance on lectures, the undergraduates are examined in their respective colleges, yearly or half-yearly, in those subjects which have engaged their studies; and according to the manner in which they acquit themselves in the examinations, their names are arranged in classes, and those who obtain the honour of the first places receive prizes of different value.

By this course the students are prepared for those public examinations which the university requires candidates for the degree, to pass. The first, viz., the Previous Examination (or "Little-go"), takes place in the Lent and October Terms of the second year from that in which a student resides the major part of his first term. This examination is slight. The subjects are one of the four Gospels in the original Greek, Paley's "Evidences of Christianity," one of the Greek and one of the Latin classics, the "Elements of Euclid," Books i. ii. and iii., and arithmetic.

There are additional subjects of examination in mathematics for those students who intend to be candidates for honours in mathematics, classics, or law; and no student is admitted to examination as a candidate for honours, who has not passed an examination in the additional subjects to the satisfaction of the examiners. The additional subjects are the "Elements of Euclid," books iv. and vi.; the elementary parts of algebra, and elementary mechanics, treated so as not to require a knowledge of trigonometry. In both these examinations, the successful candidates are joined together and arranged in three classes. Those who appear in the first class are afterwards allowed to try for honours.

The candidate for the degree of Bachelor of Arts, must be in his tenth term of residence, that is, in first term

of the fourth year of residence, he having been in residence three years previously. This extends the Cambridge career to about three years and a quarter in all. The term in which the student entered and that also in which he takes his degree, are reckoned to him among the twelve required to be kept by statute.

The examination extends over twenty-three days. The moderators forms the questionists (this being the appellation of the students, the last six weeks of preparation) into alphabetical lists of candidates for honours, and questionists, not candidates for honours, and these lists are published previously to the examination day.

On Tuesday succeeding December 30th, the candidates for honours enter the senate-house a little before nine o'clock; the other questionists at the same hour on the morning of the Wednesday week after the first day of examination of the candidates for honours, preceded by a master of arts, who, on this occasion, is styled the father of his college. The examination of those who contend for honours commences on the Tuesday succeeding the 30th of December.

The examination for honours in mathematics is one of the hardest, perhaps the most severe, in the world. It embraces a course that includes nearly the whole of mathematical knowledge. Questions and problems in mathematical and physical science are proposed to the candidates on eight days; the first three days being assigned to the elementary, and the last five to the higher parts of mathematics. After the first three days, there is an interval of eight days; and on the seventh of the days the moderators and examiners declare what persons have so acquitted themselves as to deserve mathematical honours. Those declared to have so acquitted themselves and no others, are admitted to the examination in the higher parts of mathematics; after that examination, the moderators and examiners taking into account the examination of all the eight days, divide the successful candidates into three classes, known as wranglers, senior optimes,

and junior optimes. The first man is called "the Senior Wrangler."

Hitherto, to take classical honours, it was necessary to have obtained an ordinary degree. But in the present and every subsequent year, classical honours will be open to all students of standing proper to be candidates for mathematical honours; and all persons who obtain honours in the classical tripos will be entitled to admission to the degree of A.B. From the above system it will be seen that after a student has passed his little-go, he is not required to apply to any studies, except those in which he intends to take honours, and is not called upon to prepare for the ordinary degree. The mathematical man devotes himself to science alone; the scholar, to classics only.

The questionists not candidates for honours, or the πολλοὶ (*anglicé* "the poll"), are examined in the first fourteen or the last fourteen chapters of the Acts of the Apostles, and one of the longer or two of the shorter Epistles of the New Testament, in the original Greek, and one of the Latin classics, three of the six books of Paley's "Moral Philosophy," the History of the Christian Church, from its origin to the assembling of the Council of Nice, History of the English Reformation, and a simple course of mathematics.

In 1858 the subjects of examination are to be changed. Archdeacon's Paley's doubtful philosophy is no longer to be a subject, and the classical, divinity, and mathematical examinations will be more severe.

The great and increasing population of the north of England, and its remoteness from the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, pointed out the expediency of establishing in that part of the kingdom an institution which should secure to its inhabitants the advantages of a sound, yet not expensive education. It was perceived by the late Bishop Van Mildert and by the Dean and Chapter of Durham, that the means of supplying this acknowledged deficiency might be provided from the

resources of their own body, not only without contravening, but in exact conformity with, the principles on which it was incorporated; the education of youth being enumerated among the objects of the establishment, both in its charter of foundation and in its statutes. It was at the same time felt, that any institution established on these grounds must necessarily be placed in close connection with the cathedral church; and also that, to ensure the attainment of its objects, it must be planned, and endowed on a large and liberal scale. Out of these views arose the University of Durham. A scheme was arranged between the Bishop and the Dean and Chapter, after much deliberation, for the foundation of a university in connection with the cathedral church; the Chapter undertaking to assign immediately to this purpose property producing 3000*l.* per annum; and the bishop promising to provide eventually for the Warden, the Professor of Divinity, and the Professor of Greek, by attaching prebendal stalls to the several offices.

To effect these purposes several acts of parliament, statutes of the Chapter, and orders in council were made and passed. The office of warden is now permanently annexed to the deanery of Durham; a canonry in the cathedral church to each of the professorships of divinity and Greek; a professor of mathematics with a good salary also exists.

Six fellowships were originally established by the Dean and Chapter, to which eighteen other fellowships have been added. The annual value of each fellowship is 120*l.*; of these eight under twenty-five years of age may be laymen. A further annual sum of 30*l.* is paid to each of the senior clerical fellows to the number of ten. These fellowships are tenable for eight years from the time of election, and for the further time of two years, by a fellow who has taken holy orders within a specified time. They are vacated by marriage or preferment. There is one bye-fellowship (100*l.*).

The university scholarships are twenty in number, of

the annual value of 30*l.* each. These are given by the Dean to students distinguished in the examinations. There are very few bye-scholarships in this university.

The mode of education and requirements for degrees are very similar to those at Cambridge. For a degree in arts twelve terms must be kept, of which nine must be by residence. The advent to the degree is by the road of three examinations. The candidates are divided into classes, in two lists :—the classical and general list, and the mathematical and physical science list; the highest class reckoning as honours. Durham is an economical university, is beautifully situated in the midst of picturesque scenery, and presents opportunities of education not inferior to those presented at Oxford and Cambridge.

In the University of London, the students of the affiliated colleges are on their matriculation or admission to the university (not to the colleges), examined. The examination takes place once a year, on the first Monday in July. No candidate is admitted to the examination unless he has completed his sixteenth year. The subjects are mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry, classics, English language, outlines of history and geography, and French or German. The examination is quite elementary and easy. The successful are arranged in two classes; there also are examination for honours, with an exhibition of thirty pounds as a prize.

The examination for B.A. takes place once a year, and commences on the fourth Monday in October. No candidate is admitted to the examination within two academical years of his matriculation examination. Candidates must, fourteen days before the examination, produce certificates from the authorities of one or more of the institutions from which the university is authorised to receive certificates: 1. Of having been a student during two years at one of such institutions; 2. And of good conduct, so far as their opportunities of knowledge have extended. The subjects are mathematics and natural philosophy, animal physiology, classics, history, French

or German, logic, and moral philosophy. The candidates must show a competent knowledge in the four branches of examination: 1. Mathematics and natural philosophy; 2. Animal physiology; 3. Classics, including French or German; 4. Logic and moral philosophy. There are also examinations for honours with scholarships, 50*l.* for three years, given as prizes.

The course required in this university is more extensive than those of other, even the most distinguished, educational bodies; but it must not be supposed that the degree is more difficult to attain than the corresponding grade in the other four universities of England and Dublin; it is, in fact, the easiest of any: in unreasonably extending the course, the London senate have been obliged to admit a superficial knowledge of all the subjects as sufficient for their graduations. In medicine alone have they maintained a proper standard. Even the examination papers for honours are scarcely harder than the pass papers on similar subjects in the other universities. Oxford, Cambridge, Durham, and Dublin require fewer subjects, but in those they demand accurate knowledge.

Trinity College, commonly called the Silent Sister, was incorporated as the mother of a university by Queen Elizabeth, by charter, under the style or title of "*The College of the Holy and Undivided Trinity, founded by Queen Elizabeth.*" This college was founded on the model of Cambridge, but differs from the old English university in the privilege of marriage, accorded to the fellows by our present Queen, and in the circumstance that the candidates for its degrees are not of necessity obliged to reside. Terms in this university are kept during the undergraduate course, either by attendance on lectures, which of course requires residence, or by answering at the examinations held for the purpose at the beginning of each term. To take the degree of A. B. the student, if a pensioner, must keep four academic years, *i.e.*, he must keep at least eight terms, with at

least four catechetical terms or examinations. At Dublin also there are the remains of ancient scholastic exercises, in the form of declamations and theses, which must be delivered and written as a preliminary to the degree. A very large proportion of the students are not resident, and hold no communication with the university except by the examinations; this system is intended to offer the benefits of a university degree to the poor students of Ireland. A very large number of students, however, are resident, and the expense of a university resident education in Ireland does not much differ from the expenses of the ancient English universities.

In order to lighten the collegiate studies of those students who may be turning their attention to some particular profession, the subjects for examination in the last year of the course have been arranged in five courses. Of these courses the professional students are required to answer in two, and in only one of the other three; whilst, on the other hand, non-professional students are obliged to answer in four out of the five courses. This gives the student time for professional attendance on the lectures of his profession, an arrangement that might well be imitated by Oxford and Cambridge.

There can be no doubt that the University of Dublin is taking an advanced position as an educational body. The fellowships are very valuable, and the privilege of marriage induces many of the most distinguished scholars who obtain fellowships to remain attached to the university, and interested in its studies. Ever since this privilege was granted the university has been rising in public estimation. Most of the best text-books, especially in mathematics, have of late been written by fellows and members of Trinity College, Dublin, and in the national examinations for the public appointments lately thrown open, Dublin has taken a lead that she is not likely readily to surrender.* The influence of this

* This university is richly endowed: a provost, 7 senior fellows, 28 junior

university is strongly felt, both in the literature of Ireland, and the society of the capital, and gives a social position of which English universities are innocent.

A German university consists of a rector, as head magistrate; a senate composed of a certain number of the professors; a dean, whose duty it is to superintend the studies; a regular professor, paid by government, in each department; and an irregular professor, all of whom are paid by the students for particular subjects. All lectures are public. The rector has the power of expelling any student who at the end of the half-year does not produce a certificate of attendance on at least one course of lectures, this certificate can be obtained only by regular attendance.

The degrees consist of—1. A Doctor's, the highest in any one of the five faculties or branches, viz.: theology, (Catholic and Lutheran), jurisprudence, medicine, classics, and science. 2. The Licentiate in jurisprudence and theology. 3. The lowest, a Master's in classics and science.

The common course of study is to pass one or more years to obtain a master's degree in general knowledge, as classics and sciences, and then to devote the other two or more, as the case may be, to some particular faculty connected with the profession a man is to follow. Some, however, continue to adhere to classics and science after they are masters, and take their doctor's degree. The length of time spent by a student at the university depends only on his capability to pass the examinations, for which he may try as often as he likes.

Discipline.—As all the students live in their own lodgings in the town, no private discipline can be exercised. The rector can imprison (from a week to a couple of months) any student guilty of fighting, or disorderly conduct in the streets or public places, and, I believe, for intoxication also; in most cases a fine is substituted for

fellows, 71 scholars, to which have been added 30 queen's scholarships, established by the Commissioners of Education in Ireland, and awarded to scholars from the royal schools.

imprisonment, except for duelling. At the end of a half-year the certificates of attendance at, at least, one course of lectures must be given in to the dean and registered with the lecturer's remarks by him. If attendance has been very irregular, a warning is administered. I believe the frequenting a house of ill-fame, is also visited by severe punishment.

Studies.—Each university is famous for some particular faculty, through the celebrity of the professors belonging to that faculty; as Heidelberg for medicine, Bonn for law and history, Leipsic for classical learning. This fame changes of course with the professors. A student may frequent one university for his classics and general science, and having taken a master's degree, may migrate to another for medicine, theology, or law. His studies are regulated entirely by his own inclinations, but no man can set up in a profession (military and naval excepted) who has not got a doctor's degree in the proper faculty.

Expenses.—As every student lives in his own lodgings, he incurs no university expenses but the matriculation fees of four thalers (12*s.*), and two other thalers for the library and registrar (6*s.*), eighteen shillings in all. Besides the lecturers paid by government, he may choose to attend the private teachers, (who, however, lecture publicly,) at fees varying from eighteen shillings to thirty-six shillings per half-year. The expense of students' lodgings vary from nine shillings a month to one pound. The average is twelve shillings. The expenses of living are very small. The student generally dines at a café where he gets a good dinner for one shilling, of soup, meat, bread, and beer. A student may live well at Bonn, including educational expenses, for fifty or sixty pounds per annum. At Munich for thirty or forty. An Englishman will naturally not be able to do it as cheaply.

Society—Among the students, consists in the beer-drinking clubs, which meet for drinking and singing two or three times a week. The amount of drunkenness is much the same as at our own universities. There are

also fighting-clubs, forbidden, but winked at by the authorities. The students mix also a great deal in the society of the town, which depends entirely on the place and circumstances. At Bonn, Heidelberg, Munich, Leipsic, Berlin, &c., there is plenty of good society for a student. The morality is of a rather higher standard than in England. There is little or no vice, except intoxication. A student who is known to frequent a house of ill-fame, is expelled from the beer-club to which he may belong. The theological students are not admitted into these clubs.

I should much recommend this education for a man of narrow means intending to enter the law or the medical profession, or desirous of a good classical knowledge, and one of science, languages, &c. Every branch of learning, every language too, has its professor. Private tutors are very moderate. Most of the universities have a hospital, &c., attached for the medical students. German and Roman law are taught in all their branches. The classical teaching is of a much higher kind than at our universities, but is not a good introduction to them, being too critical.

CHAPTER IV.

THE CHURCH AS A PROFESSION.

No doubt there are many pious persons, and faithful churchmen, who will feel not a little shocked at any attempt to deal with the "holy calling of the priest," as a worldly profession; and, indeed, were society constituted on a simpler basis, and the church itself more nearly allied to primitive Christianity, such an undertaking might be regarded with some degree of reprehension. But in the present condition of society and religion, when the priest can no longer kneel to receive the "imposition of hands," and then gird up his loins, grasp his staff, and go forth on his mission; but on the other hand must be carefully nurtured, bred as a gentleman, educated as a scholar, be protected and fed by the law, and in connection with his calling fulfil many mere worldly duties; it would be absurd not to regard the church in one aspect as an earthly profession, demanding considerations similar to those claimed for law, arms, or medicine.

In a single respect, it does, or ought to differ from other professions, namely, in the class of motives with which it is entered. These motives are supposed to be founded on an exalted piety, and anxiety for God's service, although it is an assured fact that the true motives which practically induce the youth of England to engage in the ministry of the establishment, are not one whit less time-serving, or selfish, than those that create the lawyer, or the civilian, and might often bend in shame before the patriotic motives that call the soldier to the field, or the

noble love of art that guides the destiny of the struggling artist.

Putting on one side the delicate question of original motive, there cannot be a doubt that when once entered, the church is as much treated by its clergy as a temporal profession, as it is as a sacred calling,—that there is as much desire for increased emolument, reputation, and advancement, as in any other calling. Nor is this unreasonable. Is the church to be the only profession, or even trade, in which there is not to be a gradation from minor to greater duties; from probationary service, performed under the eye of a superior, to trusts of responsibility, and superintendence. The officers, dignities, and endowments, of the establishment, afford to every conforming member of the community fair objects of open and honourable competition. The son of the merchant, of the manufacturer, nay more, of the mechanic or the peasant, may by his talents and good conduct, raise himself to the highest ecclesiastical dignities which the sovereign of the realm can bestow, and thus earn for himself a station by the side of the proudest of the hereditary nobles of the land.

It is also to be remembered, that ever since the Reformation permitted the marriage of priests, a class of motives sanctified by nature have arisen to bid the clergyman to be not disregardful of the temporal advantages that may accompany turns of fortune, assiduity, or talent. The temporal ambition that might be reprehensible in the clerical celibate, may, without detracting from single-minded piety, be pardoned to the husband and father. Society and the dictates of morality enjoin the English clergyman to marry; and as that, therefore, becomes part of his duty, it is but right that he should look forward before he undertakes to encounter the difficulties of the position. I shall, therefore, without any further hesitation, proceed to deal with the temporal portion of the clerical profession.

The doctrines of the Church of England are embodied

in her Articles and Liturgy; the Book of Common Prayer prescribes her mode of worship: and the Canons of 1603, contain, so far as the clergy are concerned, her code of discipline.

Bishops, priests, and deacons are the ministerial orders known to the episcopal establishment of England. In the bishop lies the power of ordination of inferior ministers, who otherwise have no authority to dispense the sacraments, or to preach. Deacons, when ordained, may, licensed by the bishop, preach and administer the rite of baptism; priests by this ceremony are further empowered to administer the Lord's supper, and to hold a benefice for the cure of souls.

Besides these *orders*, there are also several *dignities* sustained by bishops and by priests; as *Archbishops*, each of whom is a chief of a certain number of bishops, who are usually ordained by him; *Deans* and *Chapters*, who, attached to all cathedrals, are supposed to form the council, and to aid the Bishop with advice; *Archdeacons*, who perform a kind of episcopal functions in a certain portion of the diocese; *Rural Deans*, who are assistants to the bishop in a smaller sphere.

These various orders and dignities of the church have all (except cathedral deans) attached to them peculiar territorial jurisdictions. The theory of the establishment demands that every clergyman should have his ministrations limited to a specific district or *parish;* and when England first became divided into parishes, the number of churches would exactly indicate the number of such parishes. Each parish being just that portion of the country, the inhabitants of which were meant to be accommodated in the newly-erected church. In the course of years, however, either prompted by the growth of the population, or by their own capricious piety, proprietors erected, and endowed, within the mother-parishes, fresh edifices which were either chapels of ease to the mother church, or the centres of new districts, soon allowed by custom to become distinct ecclesiastical

divisions, known as "chapelries." In this way nearly all the soil of England became parcelled out in ecclesiastical divisions, varying greatly both in size and population, as might be expected from the isolated and unsystematic efforts out of which they sprung. Of late years, as new churches have been built, some further subdivisions of the larger parishes have been effected by the bishops and commissioners empowered by acts of parliament. The number of ecclesiastical districts and parishes thus formed was, at the time of the census, 1255, containing a population of 4,832,491.

In the ancient Saxon period, ten parishes constituted a *rural deanery*. The growth, however, of the population, and the increased number of churches, have now altered this proportion, and the rural deaneries are divided in extent. At present there are 463 such divisions.

Archdeaconries as territorial divisions had their origin soon after the Norman conquest, previous to which archdeacons were but members of cathedral chapters. Several new archdeaconries have been created within recent years by the ecclesiastical commissioners, by virtue of the Act of 6 & 7 William IV. c. 77; the total number is now seventy-one.

Bishoprics or dioceses are almost as ancient as the introduction here of Christianity. Of those now extant, all (excepting seven) were formed in Saxon or British times. The Saxon bishoprics are generally co-extensive with the several kingdoms. Of the seven excepted, five were created by Henry VIII. out of a portion of the confiscated property of the suppressed religious houses, and the other two (viz. Ripon and Manchester) were created by act of Parliament 6 & 7 William IV. c. 77. There are two *archbishoprics or provinces:* Canterbury comprehending twenty-one dioceses, and York comprising the remaining seven. The population of the former in 1851 was 12,785,048; and that of the latter 5,285,687.

Incumbents of parishes are appointed, subject to the approval of the bishop, by *patrons*, who may be either

corporate bodies, or private persons. Of the 11,728 benefices in England and Wales, 1144 are in the gift of the Crown; 1853 in that of the bishops; 938 in that of cathedral chapters and other dignitaries; 770 in that of the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and the colleges of Eton, Winchester, &c.; 931 in that of the ministers of the mother-churches; and the residue (6092) in that of private persons. Incumbents are of three kinds, —rectors, vicars, and perpetual curates. Rectors are recipients of *all* the parochial tithes; vicars and perpetual curates are the delegates of the tithe-impropriators, and receive a portion only. The appointments are for life. The ordinary curates are appointed each by the incumbent who desires their aid.

The income of the Church of England is derived from the following sources,—lands, tithes, church-rates, pew-rents, Easter-offerings, and surplice-fees (*i. e.* fees for burials, marriages, &c). The distribution of these revenues may be inferred from the state of things in 1831, when it appeared to be as follows:—

Bishops	£181,631
Deans and Chapters . . .	360,095
Parochial Clergy	3,251,159
Church-rates	500,000
	£4,292,885

In the course of the twenty years which have elapsed since 1831 no fewer than 2029 new churches have been built, and the value of church property has much increased, so that after the considerable addition which must be made to the whole amount in order to obtain an accurate estimate of the total income of the church in 1851, it is probable that it will be considerably upwards of 5,000,000*l.* per annum.

The number of beneficed parochial clergy in 1831 was 10,178: the average gross income, therefore, of each would be upwards of 300*l.* per annum. At the same date there were 5230 curates, the total amount of whose stipends was 424,695*l.*, yielding an average of 81*l.* per annum to

each curate. But, as many incumbents possessed more than 300*l.* a year, and some curates more than 81*l.* a year, there must evidently have been some incumbents and curates whose remuneration was below those sums respectively. For the purpose of raising the stipends of small livings, the governors of Queen Anne's bounty annually receive the sum of 14,000*l.*, the produce of first fruits and tenths; and the Ecclesiastical Commissioners apply to the same object a portion of the surplus of episcopal and capitular estate.

This may be considered a fair statement of the general condition of church stipends. No doubt the church affords great prizes to the fortunate; thus there are a few livings reckoning thousands, and a few pluralists, whose position and incomes excite the envy of the less favoured; but in sober truth the opulence of the clergy is a mere vulgar prejudice—their enormous wealth and the implied consequences of venality and rapacity have been the theme of every demagogue, and of every sour and discontented pamphleteer. The grossness of exaggeration has been as greedily swallowed, as it was undauntedly asserted. It has now become the fashion to mourn over the poverty of the clergy, and because some livings are small, to deem every conscientious priest half-starved. Both these views are erroneous. It has been shown that the average income of the clergyman is 300*l.* a year. This is higher than the average income of barristers, much higher than the average pay of the military officer, and not much inferior to the average profits of the medical man.

This income cannot be looked upon as lucrative, when we reckon up the cost of education, the situation the clergyman must maintain, the charities to which he must contribute, the family he may have to rear, if he does that which most clergymen do on sound principles of morality, marry early. Yet the profession of the clergyman, though not presenting the hopes of profit, does promise a gentlemanly competence to the majority. Of course many persons will be ready to sneer at any idea of 300*l.* a year

being a gentlemanly competence, but it is not fair to decide on the wealth of the individual by the items of his income. A man in one station of life is far richer with 500*l.* a year than another with 1000*l.* The clergy have many advantages, and many opportunities of enjoying the comforts of life on a basis of economy denied to other classes. They are admitted into society on the recommendation of their sacred calling and education only, independent of the advantages of money. They have opportunities of forming, and do continually form, advantageous marriages, and, in the event of death, there is no class whose families are so well provided for by foundations and benevolent institutions.

The clergyman, especially if a man of ability, has several means of increasing his income. No small number of the clergy are extensively employed in the pursuit of literature, and, putting aside the fact that they are too often removed from the power to consult our great public libraries, no persons (not men of independent means) are better situated for this pursuit. With considerable leisure, the arrangement of their time in their own hands, enjoying freedom from the anxieties of professional competition, and other distractions, it rests almost with themselves whether they turn what talents they have to literature, or not.

Yet every man cannot expect to be a successful author, but there are very few who cannot impart to others what they have themselves acquired; and so we find that a very large portion of the English clergy, even after they have acquired benefices, are employed in the actual detail and drudgery of tuition. The married clergy increase their incomes by the reception of private pupils into their houses. The unmarried are often teachers in private families, and both are not seldom masters of endowed grammar schools in various parts of the country, or are public tutors in collegiate institutions.

It was once attempted to be proved that the income of the clergy is not so high as above stated. That if to the

calculation of the average annual value of English livings are annexed an estimate of the expense which the clergy of the establishment must unavoidably incur, in order to qualify themselves for the proper discharge of duties which devolve upon them, the profit will be found very small. That it may be assumed, on a moderate computation, that by the time he has completed the twenty-third year of his age, the friends of every candidate for orders have expended on his education at school and at college, a sum which amounts to 800*l.*; that it may be further assumed that, taking the average of ecclesiastical promotions, he cannot obtain preferment until he has been seven years in orders. If to 800*l.*, the principal expended in educating him, we add its interest for seven years, it will amount to 1100*l.* It is further alleged that it thus appears clear that at the earliest moment in which an ecclesiastic can expect preferment worth 300*l.* per annum, 1100*l.* has been sunk in preparing him for the discharge of his duty. If a man at the age of thirty laid out 1100*l.* in the purchase of a life annuity, it would produce him 84*l.* per annum, which, deducted from 300*l.*, leaves a balance of 216*l.* as the pecuniary compensation which clergymen on the average receive for their professional services. The state, it is said, thus enjoys the services of between nine and ten thousand well educated individuals, whose province it is to instruct the population in those duties which they owe to God and to society; and as a recompense for the devotion of their time and talents exclusively to this object, they do not on the average receive more than 216*l.* each.

This kind of speculation is erroneous, inasmuch as it presumes that the church provides no emolument but that attached to benefices, wherear almost every deacon, unless ordained to a fellowship, enters the church as a curate, and from the first obtains some stipend generally more than he could purchase a life-annuity with 1100*l.* at the age of three and twenty. But he has in addition all the advantages of his position; and in comparison,

the clergyman in pecuniary matters, is as well off as members of other professions,—his income is more certain,—his expenditure can be regulated according to his means, and both are independent of the numerous fluctuations incident to other intellectual callings.

The profession of the church is at present an expanding profession. Its progress in recent times has been very rapid; and conspicuously so in the last twenty years. Latterly a sentiment appears to have prevailed, that the relief of spiritual destitution must not be exclusively devolved upon the state; that Christians in their individual, no less than in their organised capacity, have duties to discharge in ministering to the land's religious wants. Accordingly, a spirit of benevolence has been increasingly diffused, and private liberality is now displaying fruits in daily rising churches, almost as abundant as in ancient times; distinguished also, advantageously from earlier charity, by being, it may fairly be assumed, the offspring of a more enlightened zeal, proceeding from a wider circle of contributions.*

From this view of the church as a profession, we must turn to the clergyman individually, and refer successively to his general and special education, his ordinations, and his position and duties in his benefice.

The most ordinary mode of entrance into the church is through an university degree, either of bachelor of arts, bachelor of laws, and even of bachelor of medicine, in the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and Durham, in England, and of Dublin in Ireland. These degrees have been required by the bishops of several dioceses as a necessary test of sufficient preliminary classical education for the priesthood. The universities however have never supplied a sufficient number of candidates even to the wealthier counties, and have been quite ineffectual in filling the ministry in those districts where the cures and benefices are, from extensive lay impropriation and

* Horace Mann.

other causes, very scanty in emolument. This is the case principally in Wales, and some of the northern counties. The bishops therefore have always been obliged to ordain a great number of persons who have never obtained university degrees, and who are styled "literates," or persons who on examination are found to be sufficiently learned for ordination.

In order further to increase the number of the latter class of candidates, three seats of education have been provided for them, viz., at St. Bees, in Northumberland; at Lampeter, in Wales, and also at King's College, London.*

It has been pointed out that the universities provide very little direct moral training for professional purposes, and also for the ecclesiastical profession; nor do they accord much more of the theological.

At Oxford, in 1844, a voluntary examination in theology was instituted. The candidates, who are termed Scholars in Theology, are those who after public examination in arts, have attended at least four courses of lectures, one of which may be in Hebrew, of not less than sixteen lectures in each course, with the several divinity professors,† and the Regius Professor of that language. The examinations are held twice a-year, in Hilary and Trinity terms, in a place to be appointed by the Vice-Chancellor. In the Hilary term of each year, the professors elect out of their own number two examiners (the casting vote resting with the Regius Professor of Divinity) to which the Vice-Chancellor is to add a third out of the graduates in theology.

The examiners give two weeks' notice at least, of each examination. The candidates give in their names with their testimonials, on the third at latest before the day fixed, to the senior examiner. The subjects of examina-

* Vide post, p. 82, and also Appendix.

† These are the Regius Professor of Divinity, the Margaret Professor of Divinity, the Regius Professor of Pastoral Theology, the Regius Professor of Ecclesiastical History.

tion are always those on which the professors have severally given lectures. Three examiners must always be present. The examinations are partly on paper, and partly *vivâ voce*. The names of those who receive a "testamur" on each day of examination is entered in a register kept by the Regius Professor of Divinity specially for that purpose. At the close of the examination, the names of those who have satisfied the examiners are affixed to the door of the Divinity School, arranged in alphabetical order.

For the further encouragement of theology in this university, an annual prize of twenty guineas was founded in 1825 by the late Dr. Ellerton (fellow of Magdalen College), for the best English Essay on some "doctrine or duty of the Christian religion, or on some of the points on which we differ from the Romish church, or on any other subject of theology which shall be deemed meet and useful." Among the graduates who have gained this prize are found the names of Frederick Oakeley; the Margaret Professor of Divinity; the Regius Professor of Divinity; H. W. Wilberforce; the present Bishop of Lincoln, and A. P. Stanley. There have also been established by a Mrs. Denyer two theological prizes of thirty pounds each, for the two best discourses, in English, on certain theological subjects.

There are three Regius or royal professors of divinity. One founded by Henry VIII., and the other two, one in Pastoral Theology, and the other in Ecclesiastical History, by the present Queen. Also a professorship, called the Margaret Professorship, founded by Margaret, Countess of Richmond, mother of Henry VII. All these professors from time to time give lectures, and superintend the examinations in theology.

In the University of Cambridge very little theological knowledge is required of the undergraduate, in the previous examination ("little-go"), and in the ordinary examination for the B.A. degree, the university merely requires an acquaintance with one of the four Gospels of

the Acts of the Apostles in the original Greek, with Paley's Evidences, and Paley's Moral Philosophy.* The other encouragements and aids to theological studies offered at present by the university (in addition to what is done by lectures, examinations, prizes, &c., in the several colleges†), are certain examinations and disputations conducted by the Regius Professor of Divinity, lectures delivered by the other professors of divinity, and a few university scholarships and prizes, originally founded by private benevolence.

To encourage the further study of theology, the university has established a voluntary theological examination, as well as an honour examination in theology for commencing and middle bachelors in the three faculties of arts, law, and medicine. They are examined under certain regulations:—the historical books of the Old Testament, the New Testament in Greek, the articles of religion, the liturgy of the Church of England, Ecclesiastical history of the first three centuries, and the history of the Reformation in England; and no one is deemed to have passed the examination, whether a candidate for honours or not, who has not shown a competent knowledge of all the said subjects. The first of these examinations took place on the 10th of October, last year. This will be followed up by an examination for honours in the Easter following. The honour examination will embrace:—the Greek Testament, assigned portions of the Early Fathers, and of the Septuagint version of the Old Testament, and assigned works or parts of works of standard theological writers; public notice of the assigned subjects is given by the board of theological studies the year preceding at Lent. The students before being competent for examination must attend the lectures delivered during one term at least, by two of the three professors of divinity. The candidates for honours who pass with credit are arranged in

* This is to be changed in 1858.

† That which is done in this way, is very small indeed.

classes according to merit. The examinations are an experiment not yet tried, and it remains to be seen what effect they will have upon the theological studies (at present meagre in the extreme) of an institution that sends out to the world annually no small portion of the beneficed clergy.

In the University of Durham, besides general academical education, provision has been made for a course of theological study. Graduates of Durham, Oxford, Cambridge, and Dublin, are admitted as students in theology, on producing satisfactory testimonials of character. Other persons also, between twenty-one and twenty-six (and in certain cases beyond that age) are admissible to this class; but they must previously pass an examination in the Greek and Latin languages, and in the elements of theology. At the end of the course, the students of this class, if they pass the requisite examination, and produce the necessary testimonials, receive under the common seal of the University a certificate of competency which is called a licence in theology. Those who have been admitted to the degree of B.A. at the above-named universities, obtain a licence at the end of one year. Other students cannot become licentiates till they have completed two years; and they are also required to pass the previous examinations appointed by the Warden and Senate.*

The consequence of this meagre provision is, that the graduate has to undergo another preparation to pass the Bishop's examination for orders. After ascertaining from the chaplain of the bishop of the diocese in which he has obtained a title the necessary qualifications, the young man may, if he is sufficiently acute, often prepare himself satisfactorily for this final trial; but if he has not this advantage, and he proposes to present himself for an examination in a diocese where a high standard

* The nature of the final theological examination, and the course of study by which it is preceded, is to be best understood by referring to the Durham University Calendar.

of theological knowledge is required, he may need the aid of a tutor; who may either be a clergyman of experience, or may be obtained at the university after graduation, though this latter plan necessitates residence in the university.

To aid in the preparation for orders, of university men as well as others, theological schools or colleges have been established at Wells, Canterbury (for missionaries), Cuddeston, in Oxfordshire, Chichester, Winchester, and in King's College, London.*

At King's College, London, as has been mentioned, an ample theological department is provided:

The object in view in this department of King's College is to provide a system of sound theological instruction, essentially practical in its nature, for the large and important class of young men, who propose to offer themselves as candidates for holy orders.

This department is under the immediate superintendence of the Principal of King's College, who lectures twice in each week on the Thirty-nine Articles, and is conducted by the following professors:

Professor of the Exegesis of the Old Testament.
Professor of Hebrew and Rabbinical Literature.
Professor of Ecclesiastical History.
Professor of the Exegesis of the New Testament.
Professor of Pastoral Theology.
Lecturer in Divinity, including the Evidences.
Lecturer in Hebrew and Rabbinical Literature.
Professor of Vocal Music.
Lecturer in Public Reading.

The course of instruction in this department embraces the Evidences of Natural and Revealed Religion; the Holy Scriptures in the original languages; the Thirty-nine Articles of religion; the Book of Common Prayer; Ecclesiastical History, both ancient and modern; and the theory and practice of the Pastoral Office, including the reading of the Liturgy, and the composition and delivery of sermons. Measures also are taken for providing the students with the opportunity of acting as district visitors under the parochial clergy, and also for enabling them to become practically acquainted with the best methods of conducting schools. A course of eight lectures on Public Health, in all its bearings, is given in the Lent Term of each year. Instruction is also given within the college in the theory and practice of congregational singing.

* For particulars of these institutions, see Appendix.

The following persons are admitted students of this department:—

1. All students of King's College, London, who, having passed three years in the department of General Literature and Science, shall thereupon have received the diploma of an Associate, in consideration of good conduct and industry.

2. All graduates of the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and Durham.

3. All persons of the age of twenty-one, who, after having been examined and reported as eligible by the principal, shall obtain the recommendation of a bishop. The necessary qualifications are, the Four Gospels in Greek; a knowledge of the Historical Scriptures in English; a thorough acquaintance with the Church Catechism, with Scripture proofs; a * *grammatical* knowledge of some one Greek, and some one Latin Classical book, which may be selected by the candidate himself; and the power of translating from English into Latin. An acquaintance with a small pamphlet (Initia Hebraica) of four pages on the Hebrew alphabet, by the Rev. A. M'Caul, D.D., is also expected. This may be purchased at the secretary's office, King's College, price 6*d.*, or by post 7*d.*

Associates of King's College, London, and graduates of Oxford, Cambridge, or Durham, will be admitted on producing testimonials from their respective colleges; and all other candidates must send to the principal, seven days previous to the examination, a written application for admission, accompanied by a certificate of good moral and religious character from the clergyman of their parish, or of the parish in which they have last resided. The form of application may be obtained by application to the secretary.

Previously to matriculation each student must subscribe the Thirty-nine Articles of religion, as well as a declaration that he will conform to all the rules and regulations of the college.

All students are expected to attend the chapel service morning and evening daily.

Persons already in Deacons' orders, desirous of preparing them-

* The choice of books to be brought up is to be made from the following list:—

Homer.—Books I. II. III.
One Greek Tragedy.
Herodotus.—Book II., or any two other Books.
Thucydides.—One Book.
Xenophon.—"Cyropædia." Books I. II. III.
Xenophon.—"Anabasis." Books I. II. III.
Cicero.—"De Officiis."
Cicero.—"De Natura Deorum."
Cicero.—"De Finibus."
Cæsar.—"De Bello Gallico." Three Books.
Sallust.
Livy.—Two Books.
Tacitus.—"De Moribus Germanorum," and "Agricola."
Virgil.—Three Books of the Æneid, or the Georgics.
Horace.—The Odes; the Satires; or the Epistles.

selves as candidates for Priests' orders, as well as graduates of Oxford, Cambridge, and Durham, are permitted to attend the theological course for such length of time as they may desire; but, in the case of all other students, the course of study must be continued during at least six academical terms (two years). Examinations take place in each of the several branches of instruction every term, and a probationary *vivâ voce* must be passed by every student in his fourth or fifth term. At the close of the course of two years a strict examination takes place; and to all students who have merited such a distinction by their attainments, and by their good character during the period of their studies in King's College, the principal is empowered by the council to grant a certificate of attainments, which may be exhibited for the satisfaction of that bishop to whom any student may apply to be admitted as a candidate for holy orders.

The two archbishops and twenty-three of the bishops have consented to admit as candidates for holy orders those students who shall produce the college certificate. The Bishop of Rochester also accepts the certificate, but only from those who have previously passed through the department of General Literature and Science, and have become associates. The Bishops of Bangor and Ely, *for local reasons only*, do not recognise the college certificate.

The Board of Examiners hold examinations for certificates at the close of the Michaelmas and Lent Terms in each year.

The fees for attending the full prescribed course are 8*l.* 8*s.* per term for graduates of Oxford, Cambridge, and Durham; 10*l.* 10*s.** per term for all associates of King's College, London; and 12*l.* 12*s.** per term for all other students. The fees for the first two terms must be paid upon entrance, in addition to the following; viz.—

	£	s.	d.	
Matriculation fee, including Library	3	3	0	Associates of King's College, London, are not liable to this charge.
Cap and gown	1	10	0	
The calendar	0	2	6	
	£4	15	6	

Gentlemen not wishing to attend the whole course, may, as occasional students, select any one or more subjects, at the following fees:—

	Fees per term. £	s.	Per year. £	s.	d.
Ecclesiastical History	4	4	10	10	0
Exegesis of the Old Testament and Hebrew . . .	4	4	10	10	0
Exegesis of the New Testament	4	4	10	10	0
Pastoral Theology and the Acts of the Apostles . .	4	4	10	10	0
Public Reading	2	2	5	5	0
Vocal Music	1	1	2	12	6
Public Health	1	1			

* These fees are reduced £2 2*s.* per term to those residing in college.

The academical year consists of three terms; viz.—

Michaelmas term, from about the 1st of October to the week before Christmas;

Lent term, from about the 20th of January to the week before Easter;

Easter term, from about ten days after Easter to the end of June.

Residence in College.—A residence has been provided within the college precincts for a limited number of theological students. All students (except graduates of Oxford, Cambridge and Durham, or those whose homes are in London or its neighbourhood) must be prepared at any time to occupy any rooms which may be vacant. The Censor appointed by the council has the superintendence of all resident students, under strictly academical discipline.

Terms.—The amount to be paid for residence varies, according to the position of the rooms, from 50*l.* to 55*l.* per annum; in which amount is included the whole expense of rent for furnished room, and attendance throughout the year; coals, breakfast and tea in the common room, and dinner in the college hall, during term time.*

In addition to the certificate of his degree, and passing the chaplain's examination, the candidate for orders has to obtain from the authorities of his college testimonials under their seal of his moral character and piety.† It is almost unnecessary to apprise any one the least acquainted with college life that this last document is little better than waste paper, as far as regards its being any real test of

* Class of Theological Candidates.—With the view of preparing those gentlemen who are not yet qualified to pass the examination for admission into the theological department, a class is established, in which instruction in the Latin and Greek languages is given daily. The elements of Hebrew are also taught. Any person, twenty years of age, may enter this class for such length of time as he may desire, upon producing a certificate of good moral conduct from the clergyman of the last place in which he has resided. The instruction given varies according to the proficiency of each student; but all students of this class are required to attend the chaplain's lecture on Wednesday and Saturday. Hours of attendance from ten to two daily. The fees amount to 8*l.* 8*s.* per term, which sum covers every expense, except the entrance fees, which are 4*l.* 15*s.* 6*d.*, as in the theological department. Upon joining that department, the student will not have to pay the entrance fees again.

† At Oxford, few of the colleges will grant testimonials except after three years' residence, the halls do not demand so long a term. The testimonials profess to be according to desert.

character or piety. If the candidate has allowed a long interval to elapse between graduation and presenting himself for ordination, he will be further required to obtain certificates of moral conduct and piety from two beneficed clergymen residing in his neighbourhood, or if on the continent, from the chaplain of the nearest embassy and the Queen's minister.

When the young candidate for orders has completed his education, it is usual for him, by means of a clerical agent, or private interest, to obtain a title for orders, and almost immediately to enter upon the routine of clerical duties. This course, though ordinary, is generally speaking unadvisable to the future of the clergyman. A young man who leaves the university or college, and passes at once to the duties of a country curacy, seldom, if ever, shakes off the narrow interests and prejudices of his former career. Nothing is more startling in meeting, after a lapse of years, those college-companions of former days who have taken orders, than to find the man still attired in the early feelings, views, and information of the boy, and little changed except in the addition of a few ideas equally unexalted, and often less liberal. Nor is this condition of mind to be wondered at. The parish priest is generally the most educated man in the village circle in which he moves, and is placed under the influence of no circumstances calculated to draw out the superior qualities of his intelligence. He looks back to his college career as that period of life when he enjoyed a companionship most suited to his education, and cherishes the memory of its thoughts and manners. In this, he finds encouragement amongst the few curates of the neighbouring parishes.

It is advisable, therefore, that the youth intended for a country cure, or benefice, should not at once, if possible, enter on his curacy, but should in foreign travel, or an extended residence in a metropolitan society, endeavour to rub off some of the adhesive priggism of the college. It is the want of admixture in general society previously

to entering on the comparative retirement of a country parish that renders so many of the young clergy totally unfit to join in the feelings of those below them.

In touching on the question "how a clergyman can advance himself in his profession?" it will probably be answered that that is a matter of patronage, and no doubt to a very great extent this is true; but there remains not a little that may be achieved by individual merit. If an individual passes through an obscure university career, and then buries himself in an obscure country curacy, undoubtedly his opportunity is small, and his capacity for taking advantage of it of equal tenuity. Patronage exists for his advantage, and the loss of the community. In pointing out the means of advancement in a profession, the direction can only apply to those able and willing to progress.

One of the first steps to advancement in the church to the unpatronised aspirant is a distinguished college career. Even if it does not confer a fellowship, and bear in its fortunes a college living, it calls up the sympathy of friends, and brings the successful into the notice of those that have the power, and may ultimately have the will to aid.

It is in the commencement a letter of recommendation to the bishop, and can always be referred to, in any application to a public body, or a patron in private life. If very distinguished, and properly made use of, there are no ecclesiastical honours to which it may not lead. Indeed it is an indispensable addition to the merits of candidates for nearly all the higher ecclesiastical offices.

A gift of preaching is another means of advancement, that is, if exercised in the right sphere. A man with the combined talents of Taylor, South, and Melville, may in a rural parish lead souls to heaven, but not himself to a bishopric. The gift of preaching, to obtain the reward that that talent deserves, must be exercised in a town, and if possible in London. Town incumbents are always anxious to fill their churches for the sake of the pew-

rents, and an eloquent curate is of course of service for that purpose, and a full opportunity of distinction is afforded. An eloquent preacher is soon marked out in an educated town population, and rapidly acquires friends and partisans. He then has one of two courses to pursue: the one conscientiously to do his duty, and the other to try and cut out the rector. The latter is too often chosen by practical men. The former course, in London at least, seldom fails to lead the young preacher to preferment. In every large metropolitan congregation (and even in those of large provincial towns) there are always many who directly or otherwise have church preferment in their power, and whose interest, if not engaged by private or family motives, they are anxious and ready to extend to those whom they have learned to admire. This arises partly from the improved feeling regarding the exercise of private church patronage, or from the natural sentiment that a patron has, of placing some one whose merits and character he knows, in the incumbency of his parish. London rectors find it difficult to keep their curates many years on this account. Even if a young man is not an eloquent preacher, a real attention to his duties seldom fails, in the long run, to obtain a reward, when exercised amongst an intelligent town population.

The other course hinted at is the plan practised by what may be termed "clever clerical adventurers:" it consists in creating a party in the church, entering into a dispute with the incumbent, bearing his supposed persecution with an exterior of Christian humility, and ultimately being settled in a chapel of ease, or a sole cure of his own, in which end the rector often aids for the sake of peace. There is one disadvantage about this career: it is that the beneficiare, who got into hot water for his own advancement, finds it still boiling when he has attained his object, and would wish it to cool.

The renting of chapels of ease was once extensively, and still is, a mode of making money out of the Gospel. These buildings were themselves often originally specu-

lations, and were filled by clever preachers by the very builders who entered on the speculation. It is still common for clever priests to rent them in hopes of filling the pews by their eloquence. A more modern, and less legitimate mode of obtaining an incumbency, is by becoming a subscriber to an intended church. In consequence of the extension of towns, as well as of church accommodation in hitherto unprovided districts, new churches are constantly being built. These churches are generally erected by subscription, under the management of a committee. It frequently happens that the committee are unable to obtain sufficient money to complete the interesting structure. At the juncture of difficulty, the Rev. A. B. suddenly appears on the list of subscribers as the munificent donor of one, two, or three thousand pounds towards the completion of the fabric. The public applaud, and no one is surprised that the grateful committee obtain the first incumbency of the new church for the charitable man. It is known to the committee only, that the money was subscribed under an express agreement with the committee that the preferment should be the price of the subscription, and that the gift so far from being a subscription, is, in fact, only an investment on most excellent terms, and nearly allied to simony. There are few of the new churches round London that are innocent of this system. These are, perhaps, the most innocent methods in which money is made use of to obtain preferment, but there can be no doubt that an extended simoniacal system exists.

Another mode is by aiming at livings in the gift of the clergyman's bishop, or those in the gift of the chancellor. The former are obtained in the larger dioceses often, in fact generally, by merit; and in the smaller, by the application of those delicate arts which apply to private patronage. Chancellor's livings profess to be given away on a most immaculate principle, and now and then, for the sake of decency, some distinguished scholar, or author in divinity, is rewarded with a small

one, which his lordship's secretary of livings is careful shall be published in every direction. They are, in fact, given in support of political partisanship; and the best chance of preferment on the Queen's list is by aiding the county member in his election. It is said, that the present chancellor has endeavoured to distribute his patronage on a principle of merit. If it were so, many worthy men would be soon placed in a position of competence; but it is much to be feared that it is impossible to keep political influence away from the distribution of this extended and wealthy patronage.

The great art of advancement in the church is that which may be said to apply to all the business of life, the art of making friends; and to this end opportunities are presented, both at college and after that period, if the individual has the disposition to pursue it.

This chapter will conclude with a few words on the advantages of the clerical profession in a temporal point of view. The opportunities of early independence, and the comparative security of position, as well as the opportunity of leisure, has been pointed out. In addition, it may be said, that the absence of any risk of total failure, presents a considerable advantage. The lawyer of learning and talent may sit in the back benches until his head is grey, his hopes rotten, and his heart broken; or the highly educated young medico may, in enthusiastic haste, poison his first patient, and ruin his chances for ever; the young deacon, on the other hand, may not be very successful, but no want on his side can bring utter failure as long as his character remains unstained: if not a preacher, he can be attentive to the poor, useful in the schools, or devoted in the soup-kitchen. It is easy work compared to the struggles of other callings.

Having mentioned the ready admission into society accorded to the clergyman, it only remains to point out the satisfactory sphere of usefulness which is his daily life. The clergyman is the friend of the poor, the fountain of charity, the uniting link of high and low. In retired

parishes the clergyman and his family are often a little centre of civilisation, from which gleams of refinement of manners, of neatness, of taste, as well as science and general literature, are diffused through districts into which they would otherwise never penetrate. Nothing scarcely can be more strongly marked than the contrast between parishes properly cared for by their clergy, and those, where in addition to the absence of the principal landowners, no provision exists which can secure the residence of an ecclesiastic possessing a respectable income. The personal demeanour of the labourers, the appearance and clothing of the children, the state of their cottages and gardens, enable those who are at all conversant with the economy of a parochial district to detect without further inquiry the absence or presence of an ecclesiastic, who feels an interest in his duties.

The clergy, in short, may be looked upon as a number of well-educated men, dispersed over every part of the kingdom, whose special business it is, to keep up and enforce the knowledge of those most exalted truths which relate to the duties of man, and to his ultimate destiny; and who besides have a sort of general commission to promote the good of those among whom they are settled, in every possible manner to relieve sickness and poverty, to comfort affliction, to counsel ignorance, to compose quarrels, to soften all violent and uncharitable feelings, and to reprove and discountenance vice.

CHAPTER V.

THE PROFESSION OF THE LAW.

In order of precedence the profession of the law follows that of the church. This profession the most splendid of all from the wealth and grandeur of its honours—the reputation and influence attending even only partial success—the emoluments and privileges to be won in the career it presents, is at the same time the most attractive to certain minds from the stirring and various incidents of its pursuit. Nor is the mere exercise of this profession less engrossing, even when, from circumstances of position, the lawyer is removed or debarred from the higher hopes of his calling, and remains content to enjoy competency in a lower grade. As men give up life to chess for the mere pleasure of exercising intellectual ingenuity, so the advocate (apart from ambition) where practice has made his labour comparatively easy to him, lives amidst a succession of exciting intellectual triumphs and defeats.

But to turn first to the grandeur of its honours. More than seventy British peerages have been founded by successful lawyers, the Dukedoms of Norfolk and Devonshire being of the number. Sir William Howard, a judge in the reigns of Edward I. and Edward II., was the founder of the Howard family; Sir John de Cavendish, Lord Chief Justice in the reigns of Edward III. and Richard II., of the Cavendishes. In those days, indeed, the church was the only profession which afforded the low-born a chance of rising; judgeships were conferred by the Edwards and Henries without much regard to judicial

qualities; and prior to the seventeenth century, the majority of those who rose to eminence through the law were men of good family, or connected with the great. It was not until the beginning of the eighteenth century that the lists were thrown open to all comers, and the prizes fairly distributed; but dating from that period, the self-dependent competitors have had their full share of honours.

Lord Somers's father was an attorney at Worcester; Lord Hardwicke's, an attorney at Dover; the late Lord Gifford's; a grocer in the same city; Lord Thurlow's, a poor country clergyman; Lord Kenyon's, a gentleman of small estate in Wales; Dunning's, an attorney at Ashburton; Sir Vicary Gibbs's, a surgeon and apothecary at Exeter; Sir Samuel Romilly was of a refugee family; Sir Samuel Shepherd's, a goldsmith; Lord Tenterden's, a barber at Canterbury; Lord Mansfield and Lord Erskine were men of noble family; but all Lord Mansfield got by his noble connections were a few briefs in Scotch appeal cases; and Erskine, just about the time he was called to the bar, was heard emphatically thanking God, that out of his own family he did not know a lord.

In the present day, the bar has become more than ever a profession of the middle classes; not a very great number of the present race of barristers can boast of family. On the bench we have several who have risen from families quite as humble as those of the great names referred to; and among the successful advocates several who have been small schoolmasters, wandering lecturers, newspaper-reporters, and others who have honourably raised themselves from occupations even less exalted.

But not only does this profession attract the ambitious by its honours, but on a cursory view of its position, is calculated to draw the mercenary to it by its emoluments.

In former times when the profession was still aristocratic, emoluments were smaller. Sir Thomas More told his son-in-law and biographer, Roper, that he made about 400*l.* a year by his profession, "with a

good conscience." Sir M. Hall said, 1000*l.* a year was a great deal for any common lawyer to make.* Roger North tells us, that in Charles II.'s reign, "the attorney's place was (with his practice) near 7000*l.* per annum, and the cushion of the common pleas not above 4000*l.* It is a tradition in Westminster Hall that Sir Edward Coke's gains at the latter end of the century, equalled those of a modern attorney-general; and it appears from Bacon's Works, that he made 6000*l.* a year as attorney-general. The emoluments of Lord Eldon (when Sir John Scott) at the bar, during the six years he was attorney-general, varied from 10,000*l.* to 12,000*l.* In the most productive year they amounted to 12,140*l.* The office of attorney-general is now understood to be worth 12,000*l.* a-year, independent of private practice. The fees payable on patents go far towards accounting for the recent increase. Much larger professional incomes have been made of late years.

Sir William Follett, after a few years' practice, left 200,000*l.* behind him; and it is well understood that more than one of the great advocates of the day decline to accept any brief with less than one hundred guineas as a retaining fee. Again, the profits of the parliamentary bar are enormous; I once heard an eminent city solicitor state that, during the railway mania, he paid the then leader of that bar, two thousand guineas for one speech. In 1850 Sir John Jervis stated, that there were then eight gentlemen at the bar making above 8000*l.* a year, the income then paid to the chief justice of the Queen's Bench; three and four-and-twenty who were earning more than 5000*l.* a year, the income then paid to the puisne judges. Amongst the first of these, there were five making above 11,000*l.* a year. It is supposed that no one at the common law bar ever made 20,000*l.* a year, though Sir James Scarlett went very near to it. Larger incomes than these were made during the railway mania at the parliamentary bar, but these are not likely ever to be repeated.

* Seward's Anecdotes.

But there are the other prizes in the profession of the law; the legal appointments. These consist of the lord chancellor, the two lords-justices, the master of the rolls, three vice-chancellors, and twelve masters in chancery, amongst the equity appointments; the lord chancellor has three secretaries, and each of the other equity judges one secretary each, who are barristers with salaries; the fifteen common law judges, the ecclesiastical judges, the Indian and colonial judges, recorders, registrars, advocates-general, attorneys-general, &c., all with high salaries; the recorders of English boroughs, stipendiary magistrates, nearly eighty county court judges, with their treasurers and clerks, between eighty and ninety revising barristers, commissioners of bankruptcy, insolvency, and lunacy, and a great number of other lucrative and important permanent appointments. Lately, also, a large class of appointments in India have been proposed to be opened to the bar.

"Such a glittering array of substantial honours and distinctions, while dazzling the aspiring eye which contemplates them, cannot fail in the case of a thoughtful observer, to suggest the certainty that they cannot be obtained without the greatest difficulty. The best and most highly trained intellects in the kingdom are, with their utmost energies, constantly competing for them; and numerous as are the prizes, they must ever bear a small proportion to the constantly increasing number of candidates."*

This is indeed the true view of the profession, that in the wonder excited by the magnificent, but exceptional, successes I have described, the real poverty of the "bar" is lost sight of. The number of prizes is positively great, in fact daily increasing in number, and growing in wealth and importance, yet the prizes are, in *proportion* to the candidates, exceedingly small; in fact, much smaller than in any other profession or business in the country, not excepting the ill-paid curates and starving artists. There

* Warren's Law Studies, p. 2.

is no profession in which there are so many *bonâ fide* practising members, making *nothing at all* by their profession. Not the prizes, but a bare subsistence cannot be obtained without the greatest difficulty. The absence of an outlet for young energy during a long peace, in a country rapidly increasing in wealth and numbers, combined with that aristocratic feeling that prevents the sons of the English gentry from engaging in business, has had the effect of lamentably overcrowding the open professions. These circumstances, in the case of the bar, added to the facility of entrance, the absence of strict examination, and surveillance over education and conduct, as well as the short period of probation (three years only), has drawn large numbers to its ranks, only to find disappointment.

The profession at the commencement of the present year contained 4035 members, and the following has been the number in 45 years:—1810, 880; 1821, 820; 1830, 1129; 1840, 1835; 1850, 3268; 1855, 4035. Thus, in five years, from 1850 to 1855, there has been an increase of 767 members, or nine-tenths of the whole profession in 1810, and one-half more than the number supposed on good authority to be living and prospering on the profession, which is calculated as low as 500.

From the gross number of barristers, a large number no doubt must be taken, in order to obtain an estimate of the numbers resident or practising in England. Thus there are over 500 occupying public employments, that debar them from practising, as well as about 300 resident in the colonies and in Ireland, leaving about 3235 as the number to whom the profession is open in this country.

The number of barristers, therefore, who raise fortunes, or even competence, is exceedingly small. Thus, from 120 to 140 barristers attend the circuit at Liverpool, and certainly not more than thirty of these ever hold a brief except by mere accident; an even smaller proportion obtain practice on other circuits, and there can be little doubt that out of the 1000 gentlemen *bonâ fide* prac-

tising as common-law advocates, only twenty-five per cent. are living on the emoluments of their profession. As this example may be taken as a fair test of the whole profession (placing the practising body of common law advocates, as above stated, at 1000), I believe not more than 250 are profitably employed in the practice of that branch of the law. If to these we add 250 as successful equity lawyers, conveyancers, and advocates in doctors' commons, it may be fairly said that the country, in its present condition, supports only 500 advocates. That number is daily diminishing; the sweeping away by legislative changes of many avenues of practice, has seriously diminished their number.

There are thus 1500 unsuccessful advocates, each anxious to rise, each contending for the next opening to practice that may occur by the promotion, retirement, or death of any senior member. Amidst such a crowd, disappointment of the cherished hopes of early life is far more common than success; nor is the competition for the other class of legal prizes, namely, legal appointments, less keen. Here the candidate has to contend not only with the practising body, but with the whole mass of barristers. Standing and interest are nearly the only qualifications required in this struggle, and the contest is carried on with great keenness; very lately there were no less than forty candidates for the office of police magistrate to a provincial town, the annual salary being only 800*l.*; and the numbers would doubtless be much greater, were not the notification of vacancies occurring kept tolerably quiet by the departments in whose hands the appointments lie. Often the first notice of a vacancy is learnt simultaneously with the appointment of the minister's friend, not seldom a gentleman unknown to the courts.

If we now turn from the numbers making incomes, to the incomes (not prizes) made, the view is equally cheerless. Very few queen's counsel realise more than 3000*l.**

* This refers to incomes in 1857. Sir John Jervis's statements of incomes, 1850, has very little application to the present state of bar profits.

a-year, even when leaders of their circuits, and the majority not half that sum; a junior barrister making 2000*l.* a-year must be considered as very successful, and undoubtedly will be very hard worked. From 500*l.* to 1200*l.* a-year is the ordinary income. A very little reflection will therefore point out that the bar is the poorest of all professions; it would be very liberal to estimate the whole profits of the bar at half-a-million annually, which divided equally amongst the successful body of 500, would give them 1000*l.* a-year each; if amongst the practising body, 250*l.* a-year each; and if amongst the whole mass of barristers, not 100*l.* a-year. The reader may compare these incomes with those of the church and the medical profession in other parts of the book. Every clergyman doing duty receives some income, on an average of the annual value of 300*l.* A medical man after a few years' industry and patience can easily obtain a certain competence; but in the church and medicine, all, or nearly all, are supported. On the other hand, the law does not maintain one fourth of those who probably have nothing but their profession to look to for their support.

There is a popular notion that what is called "chamber practice," is a lucrative class of business. It probably never was so. A man has hardly an opportunity of making a large sum as a conveyancer. Even the most leading conveyancers cannot make large sums in the same way as leading counsel. Settling drafts, drawing deeds, and so forth, take a great deal of time, and involve a great many difficult questions. It would be a large income for a conveyancer, even with several pupils who pay 100 guineas a-year each, to make above 2000*l.* a-year. The difficulty of obtaining even this income is greater than it was, on account of the higher education of the solicitors and attorneys, especially in this branch of law, who resort less often therefore to conveyancers than formerly.

Similar remarks may be applied to equity draftsmen.

The special pleaders formerly were (before the present changes in the law) a well-paid class of legal practitioners, but are now almost extinct: special pleadings having become so simple as not to require any particular knowledge, except in very difficult or special cases, when they are now often drawn by barristers.

Although industry and talent will eventually insure success, considerable expense must be incurred at the outset, and many years (sad years too) must elapse before a remunerating income can be calculated on. The late Lord Abinger was so strongly impressed with the conviction that independence in point of circumstances was requisite, as well to give the candidate a fair chance, as to keep up the respectability of his calling, that at one time he had serious thoughts of proposing a property qualification for barristers. In his opinion 400*l.* a-year was the smallest income on which a barrister should begin. He himself had been a fellow-commoner at Trinity College, Cambridge, and when he joined the northern circuit, was already in the possession of a handsome income; but this never lessened his interest in his profession, though it enabled him to pursue it on liberal principles. A rare case. Perhaps the most favourable position for a young barrister of any force of character is, to be sure of a small independence, but to have fortune, position, home, and the luxuries of life to struggle for.

It is difficult to say what that small independence should be; it must consist of sufficient for the young barrister to subsist upon as a gentleman, and also to meet his professional expenses. The first must be measured very much by the candidate's training, and views of expense derived from home associations; but it may be fairly said that a man of moderate views may, with care, live in chambers on 150*l.* a-year.

The expenses of entering the profession are nearly as follows:—

About 35*l.* is requisite to pay the fees, stamps, &c., attending the admission into any one of the four Inns of

Court. 100*l.* is deposited with the treasurer of his inn, by way of security, (unless the applicant produces a certificate of his having kept two years' terms in any of the universities of Oxford, Cambridge, or Dublin, or at Lincoln's Inn, or of being a member of the faculty of advocates in Scotland,) to be returned, on his either quitting the profession, or being called to the bar, or refunded to his personal representatives, in the event of his death. This "caution money" is scarcely an expense, as it generally serves to pay the commons during studentship, and the fees of admission to the degree of barrister. The cost of "keeping commons," that is, of "eating his way to the bar," amounts to about 5*l.* to 7*l.* a-year, if the student chooses to dine barely a sufficient number of times to keep the term. Each student on admission to an inn pays a sum of five guineas, which entitles him to attend the lectures of all the readers. Formerly, before the system of private classes was established, it was the custom, and still is to a certain extent, for students to obtain admission to the chambers of some eminent counsel or special pleader. The fee paid for this is usually 100 guineas a-year, and after a good course of training in lectures, one year of practice in chambers may be sufficient. This system is not real tuition. The student has simply closer opportunities of seeing real practice, and is expected to be of valuable assistance to his master. It is usual when a student enters chambers, originally for a period of two years, or even enters afterwards on a second year with the same gentleman, to give the student, as it is termed, *the run of the chambers:* that is, the liberty of attending and seeing business after his second year whenever he chooses.

On commencing practice, it is necessary to expend from 80*l.* to 100*l.* on a library, (the sum usually laid out is 200*l.*), and from 15*l.* to 20*l.* a-year is required for continuing the old Reports, or about 5*l.* for the Law Journal Reports. The costume, consisting of a wig, gown, and bands, costs about eight guineas. If the young

barrister resides in his chambers, he saves money in the rent of lodgings, but certainly loses that saving in a variety of ways. In order to push his interests fairly at sessions and circuit, he will be put to an annual expense of about 80*l.* to 100*l.*; so that in all, the young barrister will on his call to the bar require at least 300*l.*, and a continuing income of about 250*l.*, in order to pursue his profession with ease.

Of course all of the remarks that apply to preliminary education in general, apply to the law in particular; but it has of late become a matter of doubt, whether university education or university honours are necessary, or even an advantage to the barrister. Lord Eldon won the "chancellor's prize" for the best composition in English prose, the subject being, the "Advantages and Disadvantages of Foreign Travel." Five or six years later the same prize was won by another great lawyer, Lord Tenterden, the subject being "The Use and Abuse of Satire." A still more successful Oxford prizeman was Mr. Justice Coleridge, who won three prizes (including the prize in question) in one year. Cambridge has, however, always been the favourite university of embryo lawyers, from a notion that mathematics are better adapted than classics to prepare the mind for forensic reasoning; and running over the lists of wranglers and medallists, we cease to wonder that this notion has gained ground. On the list are to be found, among many other less known names, those of Lord (the first Lord) Ellenborough, Copley, Tindal, Littledale, Shadwell, Bickersteth, Pollock, Parke, Alderson,* Maule, &c. On the other hand, an equal or greater number of eminent judges and advocates never received the benefit of an Oxford or Cambridge education, or made any effort at distinction, whilst at the university. Kenyon, Thurlowe, Dunning, Erskine, Scarlett, Gifford, Shepherd, Romilly, Kelly,

* The late baron was senior wrangler and first classic of his year, no one else, except one other man, ever obtained this double honour, but in the second case it was obtained at the expense of life.

Follett, Willes, and almost all the undisputed leaders of the profession in England at the present moment, belong to one or other of these two categories. It is, therefore, quite impossible to deduce any general rule from these examples; and those who lay much stress on college honours as an earnest of future eminence, as well as those who make light of them as an indication, are equally at fault.

An university education confers undoubted advantages apart from mere learning, as an introduction to society, that makes it desirable for the young lawyer, where it is attainable, and also the advantage that it now affords of opportunities of preliminary education in *law* itself.

But, although many eminent judges and barristers of the present time are not the élèves of Oxford or Cambridge, it can be little doubted that the bar has declined in tone since it ceased to be the fashion for the future lawyer to obtain a degree at these ancient institutions. The strict rules of special pleading (now happily abolished), introduced and developed by Baron Parke since 1835, brought into notice a different set of minds from those who formerly were the great of the law. Minds, acute indeed, but unexpansible and unelevated in character.

Both at Oxford and Cambridge, it is true, were to be found a professor of civil, and a professor of English law, bound by the statutes to give public lectures on each subject, and able as well as willing to do so; but, as law in no form entered at all into the examination for the ordinary degree, vain were all attempts to raise a class of students. Some ninety years ago, Blackstone, then Vinerian professor, delivered his Commentaries to crowds of delighted auditors. His successors, and among them his son, continued for some years afterwards to give lectures on English law; but as the novelty wore off, the benches became empty; and no lectures have been of late given.

This professorship was founded by Charles Viner, Esq., by his will (Dec. 20, 1755). He left about 1200*l.* to the university of Oxford, to establish a professorship and fellowships. The professor is to read a lecture in the

English language within a year after his admission, and a course of lectures on the laws of England, every year, to consist of twenty-four, and to be read at the rate of not more than four in a week.

At Cambridge the result was the same. About three and thirty years ago, Mr. Christian, then appointed to the newly-founded Downing professorship of law, succeeded for some time in attracting a respectable, but not numerous audience, whom he amused by the quaintness of his illustrations. But his successor, a much abler man, found it impossible to draw any audience at all: classics, and mathematics fairly drove law out of the field.*

In Oxford "law" has been further encouraged by the establishment of a law-scholarship, termed the "Eldon Law Scholarship," and founded from moneys subscribed for the purpose of providing some testimonial to commemorate the political services of the Lord Chancellor Eldon; but was more especially established in order to record Lord Eldon's connection with the law, and with the university of which he was so distinguished an ornament, and at the same time to confer a real benefit upon meritorious individuals, who may have to struggle with difficulties in the early part of their professional career. This encouragement has not been without its fruits, for we find amongst the list of scholars, the names of Herman Merivale, Roundell Palmer, and Edward Kent Karslake.

The annual value of the scholarship is 200*l.* for three years. Candidates must be Protestants of the Church of England, as well as members of the University of Oxford, who have passed their examination for the degree of Bachelor of Arts, and shall have been rated in the first class, in one branch at least, of the public examinations, or shall have gained one of the chancellor's prizes, and who shall intend to study the profession of the law.†

* This professorship was founded in pursuance of the will of Sir George Downing, Bart., K.B., 1800. The salary is 200*l.* per annum, and the electors are the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, and the Masters of St. John's College, Clare Hall, and Downing College.

† Oxford University Calendar, 1855.

The time has, however, at length arrived, when the study of the common law has come to be fully restored to Oxford, and it now forms part of the necessary studies of the place.* Although the examinations were not established until 1853, it appears by the Oxford Calendar that the school of law and history is already very popular amongst the candidates for honours in Oxford.

In Cambridge, when the studies of the university were extended in 1848, a new honor tripos was established, called the *Moral Science Tripos*, and amongst the subjects for examination in that tripos the laws of England were included.† But in 1854 a more direct encouragement was given to the study of law in Cambridge by the establishment of a chancellor's medal for legal studies.‡

* *Fourth School.*—Law and Modern History.

Minimum.—History of England from the Conquest to the accession of Henry VIII., with Blackstone on Real Property; or from the accession of Henry VIII. to that of Queen Anne, with Blackstone on Personal Property, and the Rights of Persons, Justinian's Institutes may be brought up in lieu of Blackstone.

For Honours.—Law, especially the law of England. Candidates for the three superior classes must bring up civil law or international law. Adam Smith on the Wealth of Nations, may be offered. Modern history to the year 1789. Candidates for honours must necessarily include in their list the subjects required of those who seek merely to pass.

Recommendations and Requisitions by the Examiners.—The edition of Blackstone to be used is that of Stephen, and the portions required are, for the first period, all that part of the second book which is contained in the first volume; for the second period, the whole of the second volume.

Class-men, as well as pass-men, may take up Justinian without Blackstone: but in that case they are recommended to add it to Smith upon Contracts.

If they take up either division of Blackstone without Justinian, they should add it to either Wheaton on International Law, or the two first books of Grotius de Jure Belli et Pacis.

Smith on the Wealth of Nations may—as now—be added to any one of the above divisions.

† The regulations will be found in the Cambridge University Calendar.

‡ 1. The examination commences on Monday after the general admission, *ad respondendum quæstioni* in every year.

2. The examination is open to all students in arts, who, having passed the examinations entitling to admission *ad respondendum quæstioni*, are not of sufficient standing to be created masters of arts; to all students who, having taken the degree of master of arts in right of nobility, are not of more than seven years' standing from matriculation; and to all students in law or medicine of not more than seven years' standing from matriculation, who have

The university has last year, however, taken a step further, and expanded the ancient faculty of civil law into a general faculty of laws, of which the laws of England form an integral part. A board of legal studies has been established, consisting of the professors of laws, moral philosophy, modern history, Downing professor of the laws of England, and the professor of international law (if such professorship be established). The board consults on the law-studies and examinations of the university, and lays reports before the vice-chancellor.

In the year 1857, and subsequently, every candidate for the degree of Bachelor of Laws will be required to pass an examination according to a new plan, of which it will be sufficient to mention that the subjects will be portions of the Roman civil law, the constitutional and general law of England, international and general jurisprudence.* Promising as this advance in the University of Cambridge undoubtedly is, it may be fairly affirmed, that they give very little encouragement to the study of the law, unless the examination papers are made to assume more of a practical and less of an antiquarian character: at present they are far more calculated to show off the learned twaddle of the professor, than to test the merits of the candidates.†

The University of London was the first to found a faculty of laws, and has granted many degrees of Bachelor of Laws. The examination is, perhaps, too slight, consisting only of Stephens' Blackstone, and portions of Bentham's Morals and Legislation. The degree is open

passed the examinations and kept the exercises necessary for the degree of bachelor of laws or medicine.

3. That no person who has gained the prize shall be admitted as a candidate for a second time.

4. The examiners are the persons appointed to conduct the examinations of candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Laws in the same year.

In order to guide the legal studies of the candidates for the prize, a list of books was annexed to the report, which the sydicate recommended should be revised from time to time, and public notice of them given.

* For the regulations in full, see Cambridge Calendar, 1857.

† For example. The substance of one question is extracted from a Turkish MSS. in the public library.

to all graduates in arts of any university within the United Kingdom. Within the last two years three members of Oxford and Cambridge have taken advantage of this privilege.*

The four Inns of Court—the Inner Temple, the Middle Temple, Lincoln's Inn, and Gray's Inn—as before stated, severally enjoy the privilege of conferring the rank of Barrister at Law, a rank which constitutes an indispensable qualification for practice in the Inns of Court. No other means of obtaining that rank exist, but that of becoming enrolled as a student in one or other of these inns, and afterwards applying to its principal officers (*i.e.* the Benchers), for a call to the bar. The origin of this privilege of the Inns of Court is involved in considerable obscurity.†

The regulations of the inns with respect to these powers were for a long time considered almost entirely free from objection. The exercise by them of their authority as governing bodies had been for ages characterised by such prudence and integrity, that the instances of dissatisfaction with their proceedings had been exceedingly rare. The system of all the societies, by which students, in whatever part of the kingdom resident, were required to dine in the common hall a few days in the course of every term, was founded on just views, and attended with beneficial effects. Amongst these may be noticed the creation of an *esprit de corps* among the students, the formation of friendships among the future members of the same profession, the making known the person of the student, and exposing him, if his character was disreputable, to more easy detection by the society, before the period of his application to be called to the bar. It also gave an opportunity of attending the courts, and of associating with students and other members of the profession.

But with the rapid growth of the profession, and the constant increase of the public offices open to barristers

* For regulations see London University Calendar.
† Common Law Com. 6th Report, A. D. 1834.

only, the system of eating term ceased to be that sufficient guarantee for the character of the profession that it might possibly have been when the profession was small in numbers, the number of terms to be kept large, the usual course of private legal education protracted and expensive, private practice the sole reward, and therefore merit the sole avenue to success. Every other profession has improved its means of public education, and its guarantees of the preparation and fitness of its members; the bar alone stood still, or rather retrograded, for the societies, embarrassed by a load of debt, a few years ago entered into a contest for students amongst themselves, and for this purpose shortened the period of pupilage by two years, and did entirely away with any guarantee as to the learning and character of the future advocate, beyond the payment of a certain amount of fees (which no one would grudge to enter a profession), and the eating of a certain number of dinners. Thus rendering the profession, which should be most guarded, as presenting most temptations, the easiest and cheapest to enter. The consequence has been that the numbers of the profession have been inordinately increased. Of those who *bonâ fide* seek for private practice, not one in five can make even a livelihood, and many find it difficult to support their position before the world. At the same time, the ranks of the bar are filled with numerous persons depending on other occupations, such as clerks in government offices, the lower officers of courts of justice, and persons secretly in business, who, though not acquainted with the practice of the law or even its theory, nevertheless, when years have given them the proper standing, run with the real and accomplished advocate an equal or perhaps a better chance, by means of aristocratic and parliamentary influence, of obtaining the prizes of public employment; a manifest injustice to the worthy, and a great injury to the interests of justice and the public.

To amend this state of things the four Inns of Court appointed a joint-committee, consisting of thirty-one of

the members most eminent in the law and literature, to report on the subject of legal education, and other subjects. The report, and the proposed rules and regulations it contained, were adopted as the basis of the code of our legal university. The four Inns of Court agreed to act in concert with each other, in the joint establishment and maintenance of an uniform system for the legal education of students before admission to the bar. They established a standing council or committee, to consist of eight benchers, two to be nominated by each of the inns of court, and of whom four form a quorum. The members remain in office for two years, and each inn has power to fill up any vacancy that may occur in the number of its nominees during that period. To this council is entrusted the power and duty of superintending the whole subject of the education of the students, and of arranging and settling the details of the several measures which may be deemed necessary to be adopted.

For the purpose of affording to the students the means of obtaining instruction and guidance in their legal studies, five readerships or professorships have been established, which consist of three readerships, already established by the societies of the Middle Temple, the Inner Temple, and Gray's Inn; viz., on jurisprudence, and the civil law, the law of real property, and the common law; and also of a reader on equity, to be named by the society of Lincoln's Inn, and of a readership on constitutional law and legal history, to be founded by the four societies jointly. The readers are appointed for a period of three years; and the reader on constitutional law and legal history is to be chosen by the standing council. The duties of the readers, subject to regulation by the standing council, consist of the delivery of three courses of lectures in each year, and the formation of classes of private instruction.*

The four Inns of Court have formed a common fund by

* Regulations 2, 3, and 4.

annual contributions, the amounts of which have been mutually agreed on, and out of which fund are drawn the stipends assigned to the readers, and the studentships from time to time conferred upon students. The lectures and classes of the readers are open to the students of all the societies without distinction, subject to the payment of the proper fees. The stipend of each reader is three hundred guineas per annum; and the stipends, and also the expense of the stewardships, are wholly defrayed out of the common fund raised by the contributions of the several societies. The fund composed of the students' several fees is annually divided among the five readers equally, in addition to their stipend.

The committee, anxious at the same time to obtain general co-operation, and to leave independence to the societies, abstained from framing any scheme, or making any suggestion as to the fees or dues charged by the Inns of Court to their respective members, or the deposits on the entrance of students, as they considered these as matters of internal arrangement, which might with more propriety be left to the discretion and regulations of the societies respectively.

Whether sufficient for the present age or not, the following is the system of admission and call, as it stands at present.

In the first place, as to admission to an Inn of Court:—The usage as now established is, by agreement, uniform with respect to all the Inns. All persons are admissible, with the following exceptions: attorneys at law, solicitors, writers to the signet, or writers to the Scotch courts, proctors, notaries-public, clerks in chancery, parliamentary agents, or agents in any court, original or appellate clerks in chancery, clerks of the peace, clerks to any justice of the peace, or of or to any officer in any court of law or equity, or person acting in the capacity of any such clerks. No one of these excepted persons can be admitted to be members of any of the four societies for the purpose of being called to the bar,

or of practising under the bar, until (being on the roll of any court) he has taken his name off the rolls thereof, nor until he has entirely and *bonâ fide* ceased to act or practise in any of the capacities above named or described.*

There is no limit as to age, except in the Inner Temple, where no member is admitted under fifteen years.† Before any person can be admitted a member of either of the four societies, he is required to furnish a statement in writing, describing his age, his residence, and condition in life, and comprising a certificate of his being a gentleman of respectability and proper fitness to be admitted, which must be signed by two barristers, and the treasurer of the society, or, in his absence, by two benchers.‡

When these considerations are complied with, admission is seldom refused; but if admission is refused, no redress can be obtained except by a memorial of the case to the benchers of the inn, whose decision is final.§ The report before referred to furnishes examples of the grounds of

* Regulation 21. † Adopted 29th Jan., 1819.

‡ The following is the form :—

"I, , of , aged , the son of , of , in the county of , do hereby declare, that I am desirous of being admitted a member of the honourable society of the Inner Temple, for the purpose of keeping terms for the bar; and that I will not, either directly or indirectly, apply for or take out any certificate to practise, directly or indirectly, as a special pleader, or conveyancer, or draughtsman in equity, without the special permission of the masters of the bench of the said society.

"And I do hereby further declare, that I am not an attorney-at-law, solicitor, a writer to the signet, a writer of the Scotch courts, a proctor, a notary public, a clerk in chancery, a parliamentary agent, an agent in any court original or appellate, a clerk to any justice of the peace; nor do I act, directly or indirectly, in any such capacity, or in the capacity of clerk of or to any of the persons above described, or as clerk of or to any officer in any court of law or equity.

"Dated this day of .

"(Signature,)

"We, the undersigned, do hereby certify that we believe the above-named , to be a gentleman of respectability, and a proper person to be admitted a member of the said society.

" , a barrister of

" , a barrister of ."

§ Sixth Report on Courts, &c., Evidence, p. 67.

refusal. Having been in trade, and subsequently a bankrupt, not intending to be called to the bar, being clerk to a barrister, offering bribes to the officers of the society to expedite the admission of the applicant, disreputable character. These cases occurred principally before the year 1819, when the rule requiring the signature of two barristers was introduced.

After admission, the law student commences keeping his terms, in the first instance by dining in hall. If a member of the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, Dublin, London, or Durham, or of the Queen's University in Ireland, he is enabled to keep terms by dining three days in each term: if not at the same time a member of one of these universities, he is required to dine six days in each term.* The expense of commons for keeping the necessary terms is under 7*l.* per annum. The expense of commons during the whole of the four terms is from 10*l.* to 12*l.* The company is divided into messes of four, a bottle of wine is allowed to each mess, and a comfortable and substantial dinner is provided. On grand day there is an extra course, and in the hall in Gray's Inn the grace cup, made of sack, is passed round before dinner. The dinner hour is five o'clock, and no day's attendance in the respective halls is available for the purpose of keeping term, unless the member attending is present at grace before dinner, during the whole of dinner, and until the concluding grace has been said.†

Every member of the four societies must keep twelve terms before being called to the bar, unless any term or terms are dispensed with as the reward of merit for passing a good examination.‡ These twelve terms will occupy a period of three years, and as no member can be called to the bar before having attained the age of twenty-one, there is little utility in keeping terms before the age of eighteen.§

Besides keeping terms by dining in hall, the student

* Regulations 26, 27.
† Rule 28.
‡ Rules 24 and 15.
§ Rule 25.

desirous of being called to the bar is now required to attend, during one whole year, the lectures of two of the readers, or satisfactorily to pass a public examination.* The lectures are those delivered by the readers of the four societies previously noticed.

On admission, each student pays a sum of five guineas, which entitles him to attend the lectures of all the readers.†

Besides the lectures, the readers form classes of students, for the purpose of giving instruction in a more detailed and personal form, than can be supplied by general lectures, and of affording to students generally advice and directions for the conduct of their professional studies. Subject to regulation by the council, every student is at liberty to attend such classes as he may think necessary, upon payment of a moderate fee to the reader, but care is taken by the council that such fees do not in any year exceed the sum of three guineas.‡

For the purposes of legal education, the legal year is considered as divided into three terms or periods:

	Commencing	Ending
The First	November 1 . .	December 22.
The Second . . .	January 11 . .	May . . 30.
The Third . . .	April . 15 . .	July . . 31.

subject to a deduction of the days intervening between the end of Easter and the beginning of Trinity term.§

The public examinations are instituted to be held three times a year, for the examination of all such students as are desirous of being examined previously to being called to the bar; and such examinations are conducted by at least two members of the council jointly with the five readers, and certificates of having honourably passed such examinations are to be given to such students as appear to the examiners to be entitled thereto. The examina-

* Rule 12.
† Regulation 8.
‡ Regulations 4 and 10.
§ Regulation 11.

tions are held in Michaelmas term, Hilary term, and Trinity term.

The council offer the following inducements to students to propose themselves for examination:—Studentships have been founded of fifty guineas per annum each, to continue for a period of three years; and one such studentship is conferred on the most distinguished student at each public examination. Further, the examiners select and certify the names of three other students who have passed the next best examinations; and the inns of court to which such students belong may, if desired, dispense with any terms, not exceeding two, that may remain to be kept by such students previously to their being called to the bar. The examiners are, however, not obliged to confer or grant any studentship or certificate, unless they are of opinion the examinations of the students they select have been such as to have entitled them thereto.*

At every call to the bar, those students who have passed a public examination, and either obtained a studentship or a certificate of honour, take rank in seniority over all other students called upon the same day.†

However desirable a hundred and fifty pounds may be to a young man starting in life, the real inducement to pass these examinations ought to be, and no doubt is, the credit and honour. Success in such a competition is certain to obtain for the young advocate, especially amongst those natural friends to whom he must at first look, an introduction to practice. It often happens that the cleverest man, from various causes, is not most thought of amongst his own family and connexions. His tone of thought may be unsuited to their habits of mind; their notions of industry and ability may entirely differ from his; the hard thinker and deep reader is generally averse to routine and strict courses; and the man of routine, who may be his most powerful friend, will look upon his best intellectual labours as irregular and doubtful, if not as

* Regulation 15. † Regulation 16.

trifling and idleness. These examinations afford the young advocate that which he has hitherto wanted, an opportunity of proving to the world and his friends, at the very outset of his career, the stuff that is in him. In addition, success in these public examinations materially aids the efforts and recommendations of assisting friends.

Each student proposing to submit himself for examination, is required to enter his name at the office of the treasurer of the Inn of Court to which he belongs, on or before a day previously published for each term, and is further required to state, in writing, whether his object in offering himself for examination is to compete for a studentship, or other honourable distinction; or whether he is merely desirous of obtaining a certificate, preliminary to a call to the bar. The examination lasts three days; it is partly conducted by printed questions, and partly oral. The oral examination is conducted in the same order, during the same hours, and on the same subjects, as the examination by printed papers, except on the afternoon of the last day. The oral examination of each student is conducted apart from the other students, and the character of that examination varies as the student is a candidate for honours or a studentship, or simply desires to obtain a certificate. Both classes of examination are founded on books, of which a list will be found in the Appendix; regard being had, however, to the particular object, with a view to which the student presents himself for examination.

In determining the question, whether a student has passed the examination in such a manner as to entitle him to a call to the bar, the examiners are principally to have regard to the general knowledge of law and jurisprudence which he has displayed. A student may present himself at any number of examinations, until he has obtained a certificate. Any student who has obtained a certificate may present himself a second time for examination, as a candidate for the studentship, but only at one

of the three examinations immediately succeeding that at which he has obtained his certificate, provided that if any student so presenting himself does not succeed in obtaining the studentship, his name is not to appear in the list. Students who have kept more than eleven terms are not admitted to the examination for the studentship.

In reviewing these rules for examination, it is to be observed that the qualification (beyond keeping terms by dining) is attendance during one whole year on the lectures of two of the readers, or satisfactorily passing an examination.

Were the profession of the law different in condition from that in which it is; were it free from its numerous hangers on and idlers, "waiters on providence;" were the probation longer; were a strict preliminary test required; the above might be a sufficient safeguard for the public against the admission of insufficient persons to the privilege of government employment in the law, to the close-borough of legal appointments. But obviously it is no protection at all. One year's attendance on lectures is a mere mockery of education, and if a candidate fails in the examination, he can fall back on his terms and his attendance on lectures as a title to his call. So, as far as regards the privileges of the craft are concerned, the honour-man is on a level with the dinner-eating term-keeper. It is to be feared the reforming benchers had not the courage to go the length of making the conditions for the call a real test.

After having kept his terms, and attended the necessary lectures, it then becomes requisite that the name and description of each candidate desirous of being called to the bar should be hung upon the screens in the halls, benchers' rooms and treasury, or steward's offices of each society, fourteen days in term before such call. The name and description of every candidate is also sent to the other Inns of Court, and also screened for the same space of time in their respective halls, benchers' rooms, and treasury, or steward's offices. The same regulations as to screening apply also to members seeking certificates

to practise as special pleaders, conveyancers or equity draftsmen.*

No call to the bar takes place except during term; and all calls are made on the same day by the several societies namely, on the 16th day of each term, unless that day happens to fall on a Sunday, and in such case on the Monday after.†

The expenses of a call to the bar are heavy, on account of the stamp, which is 50*l.* The additional charges on call amount to between 40*l.* and 50*l.*

Those who intend to be called to the Irish bar, must keep nine terms in the King's Inn, in Dublin; and six or eight terms in one of the Inns of Court in London, according as he may or may not have taken his degree at Trinity College, Dublin. The sum required on admission to the former is 45*l.* Terms may be kept in Dublin and London alternately, or otherwise, as the student may find convenient. If a gentleman who enters any of the Inns of Court as a student for the Irish bar, should subsequently resolve to be called to the bar in England; he may petition the benchers, setting forth the circumstances of the case, who will allow him, provided he be a fit person, the advantage of any standing he may have acquired as an Irish student; and if he produce a certificate of having kept two terms at any of the privileged universities, he will be allowed the advantage of them; otherwise he must keep twelve terms, after having made a deposit of 100*l.*, as required of English students, before he can be called to the English bar.

Gray's Inn is frequently selected by Irish students, on account of the convenience it affords for keeping terms; that is, students may keep their terms by dining in the hall on any three days in the term, which they may place either consecutively or otherwise. It is also considerably less expensive than the other inns.

There are no religious tests in the Inns of Court, either

* Rules 29, 30, and 31. † Rule 32.

on admission or call to the bar; but no one in holy orders can be called.*

It has been pointed out that if a person is refused admission as a student, by any of the societies, he has no means, except by an appeal to the benchers, of bringing under revision the propriety of his rejection; a certificate of this rejection is transmitted to all the other societies. If, however, any objection appears against the call of any person to the bar, the benchers will hear him personally, or by counsel, and will allow him to adduce evidence to rebut the charges against him. No mandamus lies to compel the admission to the degree of barrister. The proper course is to appeal to the fifteen judges.

On such an appeal the benchers send to the judges a certificate, stating the reasons on which their refusal is founded. Refusal, however, so seldom occurs, that in twenty years previous to 1833, only three students had been rejected by the four Inns of Court.† The most remarkable case is that of Mr. Daniel Whittle Harvey, in the year 1831-32. He was refused in consequence of his conduct when an attorney, which was impugned. His case was heard at great length before twelve of the judges, Messrs. Brougham and Denman being the counsel for the petitioner. Mr. Harvey was finally rejected. He applied for a public hearing, but the benchers refused; allowing, however, two short-hand writers to be present, one on the part of the bench, and the other on that of Mr. Harvey. Mr. Harvey afterwards brought the affair before parliament, but ineffectually.‡

The benchers have also the power of punishing a barrister guilty of misconduct, by either admonishing and rebuking him § (of which an instance occurred a few years ago in the Inner Temple), by forbidding him from dining in the Hall, (as was done in the year 1845 by the benchers

* Resolution of the Four Inns, 5th July, 1794.

† Report on the Courts of Common Law, 1833.

‡ Report of the Courts of Common Law, 1833—Pearce's Inns of Court, p. 406; Warren's Law Studies, p. 941.

§ The admonition is hung up in writing on the screen of the hall, and is for that reason termed "screening."

of the Middle Temple, who had excluded a barrister from commons for two years,) or even by expelling him from the bar (called *disbarring*), of which an instance occurred at Gray's Inn in the year 1845; the party appealed to the fifteen judges, who unanimously confirmed the decision of the benchers.* Barristers are sometimes disbarred upon their own application, in order to allow them to become attorneys; but if they are disbarred for misconduct, they are not afterwards allowed to practise as attorneys.†

All these powers of the four societies have been objected to as unsatisfactory, and no doubt with justice. Though the probity and honour of the persons who now fill the benches of the different societies is well known—and though the number of rejected candidates for many years has been extremely small, yet it is urged that a power, in the right use of which society is so deeply interested, ought not to be left without control in the hands of persons whose functions are not of a public and responsible kind. The Inns of Court are placed upon the footing of other voluntary societies, with respect to the admission of members. In point of expediency, the ordinary immunities of a voluntary society ought not to be allowed to any body of persons claiming to be the medium of admission into one of the learned professions. If the body is to enjoy this privilege, it is no longer a private association, but one in which the public has a deep interest, and the proceedings of which, if not adapted to the purposes of general utility, ought to be made so by the interposition of the law.

Having given an outline of the "profession of the law," we are now in a position to lay down the principles that should guide a young man in choosing that calling.

It has been seen that it requires a moderate income to pursue the profession, and especially to retreat upon in case of failure (which is more common than success), the more so, as men are seldom ready to acknowledge that

* Warren's Law Studies. † Pearce, citing exparte Cole, 1 Doug. 356.

they have failed until they are too advanced in life to turn to another employment.

Further, the candidate for forensic honours must carefully consider his physical stamina. Has he a sufficiently strong constitution to bear the great pressure of labour that must come upon him if he succeeds? In equity-draughting, the many hours bending over a desk; or, if he choose the common law, the excitement and bodily exhaustion of a long cause carried into midnight, in a hot and crowded court. Let him be assured, that, unless his frame is sufficiently well-ordered to bear these exertions, his health will soon give way, and health lost is ruin in this employment. Above all, are his lungs sound, not only with regard to the power and vigour of his voice, but with regard to the fact, that no course of life is more predisposing to consumption than that passed in hot courts and cold corridors?

It is generally supposed that a man must be a man of great talent to succeed at the bar. He must be a man of ability certainly; but the popular conception is entirely at fault both as to the kind, and the amount of talent required. I will endeavour to sketch the species of mind, or rather of minds most favourable for success in its various branches. In doing so I am not drawing merely on the recollections of my own limited experience, or the resources of imagination, but from the written opinions of some of the greatest and wisest of my profession.*

Referring first to the lower order of business—that by which a young man becomes known—the business of the criminal courts and of sessions, in which young men generally make the first trial of their powers, and of the more showy and trivial order of causes which it may sometimes be their good or ill fortune to lead. In this description of business there is no scope for the higher powers or more elegant accomplishments of the mind; indeed these are often incumbrances in the way of the advocate. To

* Justice Talfourd, Lord Brougham, &c.

succeed with the jury he must rectify his understanding to the level of theirs; to succeed with the audience he must necessarily go still lower—the happy conceit, the graceful sophistry that will naturally occur to his mind, will be worse than lost. He is to find, on the other hand, on the inspiration of the moment, the matter suitable to those he addresses, to supply their place. He must sacrifice his refinement, and will be surpassed by those who can do it in a more butcherly manner than himself.

The chief duties of a junior barrister are to examine witnesses; to raise legal objections; and, in smaller cases, to address juries. 1st. The examination of witnesses in chief generally requires little more than a clear voice, a tolerable degree of self-possession, a superficial knowledge of the law of evidence, and an acquaintance with the matter to which the witnesses are speaking. It is to cross-examination that the merit of brilliancy is generally accorded. This art requires not only experience, but a power of appreciating the force of minute details; and although requiring a kind of cleverness, it calls into play no high power. Taste, feeling, and even judgment, are hindrances to its successful practice—the very clearness of head that the last faculty may be supposed to be accompanied with, will hinder an advocate from asking questions that he knows can have no bearing on the matter in question.

In starting points of law, the junior needs no great profundity, futile objections are as likely to succeed with a bench of country magistrates as sound ones; and perhaps even more so, because they are addressed to those who have a vague notion of law as full of quibbles, and therefore think, when they are deciding against it, according to common sense, they are adhering to common law. Nor does addressing a jury, in cases of minor importance, require talents or acquirements of a superior kind. It really requires a certain degree of nerve, a readiness of utterance, and a sufficient acquaintance with the ordinary line of illustration used and approved on similar occasions; in short, no very high powers, and no very great

attainments are required for success in the inferior walks of the bar. A very small attendance on criminal and local courts convinces a spectator of this.

In the leading walks of the profession, on the other hand, considerable powers are necessary; the deficiencies that aided the aspiring junior will no longer avail. The learning and authority of the judge, and the acuteness of established rivals, not only prevent the success of those experiments, which ignorance only can hazard, but generally stifle them in their birth. A man, who would keep any amount of general practice, must have industry and retentive memory; clearness of mind enough to state facts with distinctness, and to arrange them in lucid order; a knowledge of law sufficient for the discovery of any point in his own favour, and the supply of a ready evasion of any suggested by his opponent; quickness and comprehension to see the whole case on both sides at one view; and complete self-possession and coolness, without which all other capacities will be useless. The superior powers of the mind are rarely brought into action in a court of justice, but its ordinary faculties are required in full perfection and readiness for use. It is not, therefore, genius of thought or imagination, that should guide a choice to the bar, so much as the full development and health of the work-a-day faculties.

When turning to the consideration of the moral qualities required for the bar, it is but right earnestly, even solemnly to charge my reader to consider deeply before he launches on the sea of trial that the first years of the life of a junior barrister present. It has been described as eating "sawdust without butter." Indeed no trial in any other profession can equal it. It is made up of solitude, want of occupation, and disappointment.

Nine junior barristers out of ten, whom fortune has not endowed with sufficient income to marry, reside either in chambers in their inns, or are the tenants of lodgings, and the habitués of clubs. The junior's life will vary from term to circuit, from circuit to sessions, and from sessions

to circuit, in one unsuccessful round for some years, and he ought, before he take this course, to answer well these questions. Can you live alone? Can you keep away from temptation in the midst of forced idleness, or can you create occupation for yourself? Can you live for years without the daily solace of household affections? Can you bear up against trial and sorrow without aid or sympathy? Can you sit patiently for years in court or chambers, and see younger men passing you? Can you bear to see inferior men succeed, when you, a man of talent, have never been afforded an opportunity? Can you go on believing, until you are grey-headed, "that there is a good time coming, wait a little longer?" Can you do all this without becoming intemperate, bitter, soured, or misanthropical? If you can do all this, you may safely go to the bar, for with such qualities you might conquer an empire. Nevertheless, a career at the bar will try you in all these points; and rare man you will be indeed if you pass through the ordeal without some marks of the fire.

With such a view before him, no one of a vacillating, uncertain, or fastidious temperament, however brilliant his talents, ought to try this profession—he is a predicted failure. A man of a very warm, ardent, affectionate temperament ought to think twice, as, even though he may not fail, he will meet with many things to try his better feelings, and disgust may unexpectedly terminate his career. A cold, intellectual, firm, but hopeful disposition, with a large amount of self-esteem, is generally considered the best for a lawyer. Though, if such a man breaks down, his fall will be lower than that of others.

Much of this trial will be mitigated if the young lawyer takes a sensible view of the profession he is entering. Supposing him to commence with fair prospects of support, let him, too, a moment consider that he is not entering the profession for the ordinary purpose of gaining a livelihood, but he is in fact playing for a high stake,

which will require years to win. Let him accustom himself to look upon this success as a deferred annuity, of which he has no right to expect the first payment for a certain time; let him therefore regard the intermediate period not as a failure, but as a probation, during which the interest on his future fortune is accumulating, and regard any accidental business, or any acceleration of success, as a providential favour, and not as a right fulfilment of a just expectation.

This view is a hard one, but I believe it to be a proper estimate of a legal career.

Having touched upon "constitution," a few words on personal appearance may not be out of place. Undoubtedly, in a profession where a power of persuasion, and therefore of pleasing, is of great moment, agreeable manners, a comely person, and a mellow voice, are no little aids. Yet in the law the person is not of the same importance as it is in the medical profession, the army, or the navy:—men with all kinds of physical defects have succeeded brilliantly in the law; such as deformed men, men with peculiar nervous habits, men with defective utterance, or peculiarly disagreeable voices, and, strangely enough, men blighted with an unconquerable nervousness. At the same time, all these have either the power of self-government, or at least of turning their defects to account. Some deformities aid a lawyer by putting an earmark on him—his defect is remembered by a client, where a handsome man would be forgotten.

Having chosen the profession, what is the best course to success? It is an old saying, that "There be three roads to success in the law—sessions, special pleading, and miracle;" to these avenues to practice Lord Brougham adds authorship. Of circuit nothing more may be said than of Westminster Hall; going any but the very smallest circuits being as little fraught with certain success as attendance on the Courts of Westminster; and a young barrister, on the Northern, or Western, or Oxford circuits, being as little likely to obtain briefs if

he goes among his century of competitors for the business done by ten, unless highly recommended by having been a pleader, or through family connection, or sessional practice, or by authorship, as if he took his seat at once on the back rows of the Queen's Bench or Exchequer.

Sessions now no longer, except to a very few, furnish a means of living, although they may still be considered as avenues to a higher practice. Special pleading is almost defunct as a profession, and is in the hands of a very few well-established practitioners.

The law-book writing has become a kind of traffic; and has, on the part of some dealers, been subject to expedients and contrivances, incident to other branches of business, called "tricks of the trade." These circumstances have tendered to lower the nature and object of this department of literature, and has so lowered the excellence of the law-books which are now given to the profession, that book-writing has become almost an objection, rather than an advantage to a young man; unless, indeed, an author will take a heavy subject, and be as many years composing his treatise as would suffice to fulfil the other avenue, the miracle.*

I venture to put it forward, that in the present state of the law, the best avenues to practice are either localisation, that is, settling down for practice in the country, or a provincial capital, or passing the first few years in the profession of a solicitor or attorney, and so forming a connection. These courses, with industry, generally succeed, though not universally adopted by the bar.

This chapter commenced with a short account of the "grandeur of the Law," yet, in the course of its pages, the unfavourable side of its practice has been laid bare,

* At the equity bar there are no public means of making a connection, such as sessions; there, the young lawyer must depend on his private connection for an opening. There is, however, more to be obtained; conveyancing, equity drafting, and court practice. A friend who becomes a client, may not try two common law causes in a year, but if in any business, will probably be able to put forward his friend at the equity bar considerably. The equity bar is at this moment in a far more prosperous case than the common law bar.

and I believe, without any exaggeration. I shall conclude with a few remarks on what I believe to be the favourable side, and the commonplace view of its advantages.

The law, with one drawback, is perhaps the most engaging of all professions. It is the chivalry of peace. Its professors are ever in active intellectual life, in the midst of affairs, and surrounded with the most varying events of a stirring existence. Though its practice is not favourable to the development of the contemplative powers, yet the high cultivation of the perceptive faculties enables the advocate to perceive and enjoy the origin and intention of life's scenery around, just as an artist takes pleasure in the just appreciation of form and colour in a landscape. It brings with it fortune, position, reputation—often fame. The barrister is alternately called upon to oppose injustice and to maintain the integrity of the law; to oppose the oppression of official presumption, and to support order against factious violence. He is a traveller by profession, and though a hard labourer whilst at work, has that which is accorded to none else but men of fortune—a long period of rest in his "vacation," during which time he may become an author or a traveller, according to his taste. When unfit for active legal labour, he can retire on an appointment, more or less lofty, with honour to himself and usefulness to his country. The drawback is the difficulty of getting on. It is sufficient to condemn the choice of this profession. But that overcome, a greater reward for talent, perseverance, and honour, does not exist in this country.

It is neither uninteresting nor uninstructive to note the comparative systems of other countries. I do not therefore hesitate to place them before the reader.

In Scotland, by the existing regulations, three qualifications are at present indispensable to the admission of "tutrants" or students into the faculty of law. It is required of every candidate that he give evidence of general scholarship, pass two examinations upon civil and the Scotch laws, and lastly, prepare a Latin thesis upon a

title of the Pandects. This system, however, being deemed insufficient, the Faculty of Advocates have lately made a report upon the subject, recommending a much more strict and comprehensive course of study, with examinations both in general knowledge and in law.

In France, the student must first obtain the diploma of "Bachelier-és-lettres," at certain public schools, and then he presents himself at the École de Droit, is inscribed as a pupil, and follows the course of different professors for three years, attending lectures on the Roman law, on the Code Napoléon, on the study of law generally, on criminal legislation, on civil and criminal procedure, on criminal law, and penal legislation, on administrative law, on the rights of nations, and on the history of Roman and of French law, with conferences on the Pandects. He has further to write theses on the civil law, the Roman law, criminal and commercial law, and having all the examinations on these several subjects, at the end of the third year he receives the diploma of "Licencié en Droit," and is entitled to be sworn before the court, and thereupon he becomes an avocat.

A fourth year's continuance, however, at the École de Droit, attendance at lectures, submission to examinations, and the composition of a thesis, are requisite to obtain the degree of doctor of laws, which is necessary for those that desire to become professors in the faculties.

Throughout Germany every appointment in the law, from that of notary-public to the judicial bench, is in the hands of government, under the patronage of the minister of public justice; and the training necessary to qualify the candidates for such offices is strictly the subject of government regulation.

The training begins at some gymnasium, or state school, where the youths intended for the law are instructed in classical and general literature; and here they acquire all the knowledge of these branches of education that they are ever likely to obtain.

From the gymnasium, or high school, the young

student of law is transferred to some university by certificate of competent attainment in those preliminary studies. At the university his preparation for the profession of the law may be properly said to begin. These studies consume three years of his time, and comprise attendance upon lectures upon general law (encyclopædia of law), the Institutes of Justinian, the Pandects, the common law of Germany, feudal law, history of law, and criminal law.

At the close of his university career, he presents himself to the judges of some one of the courts of law, bringing with him testimonials of due attendance upon lectures, and of good moral conduct, and applies for examination as an *auscultator, or hearer of law.* If upon such examination his attainments in the subjects of the university study prove sufficient, he is admitted as auscultator, to the practical study of the law under the judges of the court. In this capacity he takes notes, makes abstracts of proceedings, draws up reports, and acts in many capacities as clerk, or assistant to the judges.

After spending two years, or even more in this capacity, but without official function or pay, he applies to be examined for his advancement to the higher preparatory station, namely, that of *referendarius.* If found competent he enters upon a more direct participation in the business of the court, though as yet under the strict superintendence of the judges, but still without recognised function or pay. At this stage, however, he is competent to take upon him the duties of a notary or advocate; but if he aspires to the judicial dignity, he has to undergo a third, and last examination, of a much more general and searching nature, touching upon all the subjects of previous study, and testing his power of applying them in practice. If he succeed in satisfying the examiners, no easy task, he is named assessor to some court of the first instance; yet still without pay or emolument until the minister of justice shall find an opportunity of transferring him to the bench.

All these studies usually occupy seven or eight years of a student's life; and it is not till he has passed through these successive trials, and is fortunate enough to find a vacant place at the bar, or on the bench, that he enters upon the profitable exercise of his profession.

In the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, any one intended for the profession of the law, after passing his examination in belles lettres, must undergo a course of examination before a board of the professors of law in one of the universities of the kingdom. The examinations are on the following subjects:—1. Jus naturæ et gentium. 2. civil law. 3. Neapolitan civil law. 4. Neapolitan criminal law. 5. Commercial law. The examination in canon law is optional. The student, having passed these several examinations in a satisfactory manner, obtains a diploma called the Laurea, which enables him to practise in all the courts of the kingdom. This preparatory course takes four or five years.

In the United States, where, seemingly, the greatest latitude exists as to the admission to the bar, though generally speaking no attendance at schools, colleges, or lectures, nor any particular course of study is absolutely required, yet an examination as to professional knowledge must be submitted to before a person is allowed to practise.*

"Society," says Dr. Warren, "has a deep stake in the personal character and qualifications of attorneys and solicitors, a body of men exceeding at this moment, in England and Wales, the number of 12,000; to whom are intrusted the dearest and most important interests upon earth, of persons in every station, from the highest to the lowest, from the peer to the peasant: the property, liberty, character, and even the life itself, of every member of the community, and the welfare of those unborn. An attorney or solicitor is perpetually called upon to afford his confidential assistance in cases of the

* Report of Inns of Court Inquiry Commission.

utmost delicacy, difficulty, and often danger; occasionally requiring him to possess a high sense of honour and incorruptible integrity, as well as discretion, experience, and ready, accurate professional knowledge. The great proportion of an attorney's and solicitor's employment is wholly irrespective of *litigation*, which it ought to be his object to *prevent* if possible." *

The solicitor, or attorney, is indeed no longer a mere pettifogger, he is the business man of all classes: as executor or trustee; as adviser, not only on legal, but also on personal conduct, in the pressing emergencies of life. He occupies, in relation to temporal affairs, the same position that the medical man does in regard to health. For this purpose alone the solicitor is now required to be a man of education and gentlemanly feeling. But even in his own profession the solicitor has of late years been by circumstances much raised. The old technical business of the courts has in a great measure been lost or abolished, and business of a wider view has taken its place. In commercial cases, for example, the attorney now requires a considerable knowledge of commercial and common law, before he can even ask the advice of counsel, and in *patent* cases, of scientific knowledge.

He is now constantly the agent, and often the life and spirit of elections; more frequently the projector of new and enterprising schemes; and since the opening of the bankruptcy and county courts, he has often to take upon himself the character of an advocate.

The solicitor is in consequence every day taking a more important position. The heads of this branch of the profession are men of high education and extensive acquirements, and generally highly respected in society. Much of this is the result of the establishment of a heavy revenue fee for admission to the profession, and the necessity of passing a close examination. A great deal, however, is due to the establishment of the Incorporated

* Warren's Law Studies, 2nd ed., p. 901.

Law Society in the metropolis, in the year 1832: whose operations are now combined with that of the Attorneys' and Solicitors' Act.*

Any person wishing to become an attorney, must be bound in the first instance to a practising attorney or solicitor, to serve as a clerk for and during the term of five years. The person must duly serve this clerkship, and must finally be examined and sworn in. The clerk may, however, serve one year of his time as the *bonâ fide* pupil of a barrister or special pleader, or as clerk to the London agent of his original master, if he is articled in the country.

An exception is made in favour of persons who have taken the degree of B.A. within six years of matriculation, or of Bachelor of Laws within eight years after matriculation, in any of the universities of Oxford, Cambridge, Dublin, Durham, or London, and who enters into articles within four years after taking the degree. These persons are required to serve only three years.

First class attorneys, when taking articled clerks, generally require a heavy premium to be paid to them for the trouble of instructing the young man in his business. This varies from 300*l.* to 500*l.* The articles of clerkship also require a stamp of 100*l.* These form the principal items of expense, but in addition the articled clerk requires a few law books, and as he is generally away from his family, 150*l.* or more annually to support him during his five years' clerkship. During that period he generally receives no salary. If he thinks it advisable to read with a barrister, or a special pleader for a year, that will be an additional expense of 100 guineas, besides the further expense of residing in London. The articled clerk pays no additional fee to the London agent.

Before being admitted an attorney, the articled clerk has to pass an examination, which is by law under the management of the judges, but is in fact controlled by the Law Institution.

* Statute 6 and 7 Vic., c. 73.

The establishment of the Law Incorporated Society, in the metropolis, in 1832, exercises an influence over the fortunes of the attorney from the time of his first becoming an articled clerk to the termination of his professional career. On the establishment of the Society, it consisted of 800 members; but lately its numbers have more than doubled, and include a great number of the most eminent members of the profession. Those by whom the management of the society is carried on, are persons of long established professional eminence; and since the passing of the attorneys' act, their duties have become both important and responsible. The first charter granted to the society on the 22nd December, 1831, was surrendered, and a new one obtained on the 26th February, 1845, incorporating its members under the name of "The Society of Attorneys, Solicitors, Proctors, and others (not being barristers), practising in the Courts of Law and Equity of the United Kingdom."

The society is now governed by a President, Vice-President, and Council, which consists of not more than thirty, nor less than twenty members; the entire management of the society and its affairs being vested in a council, subject to the control of the general meeting of the society, which is held in the month of May.

The council direct their attention to all bills in parliament calculated to affect the administration of justice, or the interests of the legal profession. The new rules and orders of all courts of justice are subject to the same scrutiny. Questions concerning professional usage, often of a very important kind, are submitted by practitioners to the council of the society. The council also keeps a watchful eye upon all cases of malpractice on the part of attorneys and solicitors in town and country; and in flagrant cases oppose the admission, re-admission, or continuance on the roll, of persons guilty of gross professional misconduct.

The last and most important function exercised by the society, is with reference to the examination into the

professional fitness, and capacity of all applicants for admission to practise as attorneys and solicitors. This is an authority delegated to them by the judges by whom it was formerly exercised (as the natural scrutineers of the officers of their courts), and subsequently recognised by Act of Parliament.

The examinations are conducted by four members of the council, over whom one of the masters of the courts presides. The following is the course of procedure adopted. On the appointed day, in each term, candidates for examination repair to the hall of the institution in Chancery Lane, and each, having a number given him, takes his seat at a table on which such number is placed.

A paper of questions is then delivered to him, with his name and number upon it, containing questions to be answered in writing, classed under the several heads of—

1. Preliminary.
2. Common and statute law, and the practice of the courts.
3. Conveyancing.
4. Equity, and the practice of the courts.
5. Bankruptcy, and the practice of the courts.
6. Criminal law, and proceedings before justices of the peace.

Each candidate is expected to answer all the preliminary questions (No. 1); and it is expected that he should answer in three or more of the other heads of the inquiry,—common law and equity being two of them.

The answers under the above six mentioned heads must be written on separate papers for each head, prefixing to each answer the number of the question; and each paper is to be written in a plain and legible manner, and *signed*. The candidates are expected to finish their papers by four o'clock.

When the candidate has finished his answers, he must deliver them, together with his printed copy of the questions, and the ticket given on his entrance, to the secretary, at the examiner's table; and he will then

receive another ticket, which he is to give to the person at the door when he goes away.

After the examination has begun, no candidate is allowed to leave the hall (without permission obtained from the examiners), until he shall have delivered his answers; and any candidate who leaves the hall without permission will not be permitted to return.

The number of candidates rejected is about one in every two-and-twenty.

The examinations are searching. The questions have been from time to time published. This, although of great aid to the honest student in preparing for a special examination in the large amount of knowledge that he has to prepare, has also opened the door to a system of "crammers," who by a little ingenious management, contrive to prop the weaker candidates so as often to pass a good examination.

Lectures are given in the hall of the society, by gentlemen of the bar, appointed for that purpose, on conveyancing, equity, bankruptcy, common law, and criminal law. The attendance on these lectures is voluntary; but the average number of attendants is two hundred. By permission of the council, the articled clerks of members are admitted to the library of the institution on the payment of one pound annually; and the students have a room appropriated to them free of expense, for the discussion among themselves of legal questions.

The usual premium paid by articled clerks in the country is 200 guineas; but with the more eminent attorneys and solicitors in London it is from 300*l.* to 500*l.*; added to which is the stamp duty of 120*l.* on the articles, and 25*l.* on the admission, independently of divers other court fees and office fees.

Thus the highest expense of becoming an attorney is 625*l.*, in addition to the cost of living for five years. Comparing this with the other professions, it will be found that it is by no means one of the cheapest to become a member of. Yet it presents one advantage over

the other branch of the profession, in presenting a more immediate return in employment after being sworn in; indeed, the author has known more than one instance in which articled clerks having made themselves specially useful to their masters, have received a salary even during the term of their clerkship.

The income of the solicitor in the direct pursuit of his business, though more readily obtained, bears no comparison with the large amounts acquired by the leading members of the bar, or even of the medical profession. There are firms as firms making very large incomes, especially those engaged in official or parliamentary business, but then these incomes have to be divided among the members of the partnership. A solicitor not going beyond the pure practice of his profession must be very well aided to make 2000*l.* a year, and for that will himself have to work hard, and endure much anxiety, and undertake great responsibility. Yet there are opportunities of making money presented to the legal man of business, that in many cases compensate for the small emoluments accorded to an employment demanding so much knowledge, experience, labour, and care. Solicitors and attorneys, if endowed with even a small capital, have great opportunities of successful and safe speculation. They are generally almost the first persons that hear of new projects and undertakings. They know when promising little pieces of land are going cheap, and have been known to borrow, buy, and mortgage, as it were, "almost in the same breath."

It may be said, that where a choice is afforded that the profession of a solicitor or attorney is the least desirable of any, and it is possible that it would not be as full as it is, had the number of young men that flock to it any other natural opportunity. It is a profession that requires a long servitude to learn, and a still longer practice to master. To the most practised adept it presents a life of labour, and is endangered with legal, as well as with moral responsibility. Surrounded with temptations, it

has yet a right to be considered an honourable calling comprising a body of honourable men, nevertheless, its position is one of unpopularity; it is continually the object of unjust attack, and malicious aspersion. From the world it receives every deference when in need, and every ingratitude when not required. The aid of its powers are sought by the vicious and foolish to rescue them from the consequences of their faults and follies; and the good and provident to guard them against the evils and the uncertainties of an unknown future; both, however, combine to deprecate the merit and honesty of those exertions, so necessary to the completion of their own complicated designs.

Nevertheless, there are many things to reconcile the young articled clerk to his choice. The profession has of late years been much raised, and holds a position in society only one half-pace lower than the bar, and that more from a kind of antiquated etiquette than from any real distinctions of families, manners, station, or education. The same families send cadets in the present day, indiscriminately to both branches of the profession of the law. The attorney is every day more and more assuming the employment and position of an advocate. Though this branch of the profession leads to few honours, it enjoys unbounded influence, and maintains in its own body a vigorous and gratifying *esprit de corps*. It is, in fine, an employment that has the advantages of affording an early and ample competence, is intellectual in its pursuit, necessary to society, great in influence, and regarded as both respectable and honourable even by its greatest detractors.

Questions as to due Service of Articles of Clerkship, Extracted from the Regulations approved by the Judges.

QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED BY THE CLERK.

I. What was your age on the day of the date of your Articles? *Answer.*

II. Have you served the whole term of your Articles at the Office

where the Attorney or Attorneys, to whom you were articled or assigned, carried on his or their business? and if not, state the reason.

Answer.

III. Have you at any time during the term of your Articles been absent without the permission of the Attorney or Attorneys to whom you were articled or assigned? and if so, state the length and occasions of such absence.

Answer.

IV. Have you during the period of your Articles been engaged or concerned in any profession, business, or employment, other than your professional employment as Clerk to the Attorney or Attorneys to whom you were articled or assigned?

Answer.

V. Have you since the expiration of your Articles been engaged or concerned, and for how long time, in any and what profession, trade, business, or employment, other than the profession of an Attorney or Solicitor?

Answer.

Name. _____

Present address. _____

Questions to be answered by the Attorney, Agent, Barrister, or Special Pleader, with whom you may have served any part of your time under your Articles.

I. Has served the whole term of his articles at the office where you carry on your business? and if not, state the reason.

Answer.

II. Has the said , at any time during the term of his articles, been absent without your permission? and if so, state the length and occasions of such absence.

Answer.

III. Has the said , during the period of his articles, been engaged or concerned in any profession, business, or employment, other than his professional employment as your articled clerk?

Answer.

IV. Has the said , during the whole term of his clerkship, with the exceptions above mentioned, been faithfully and diligently employed in your professional business of an Attorney or Solicitor?

Answer.

V. Has the said , since the expiration of his articles, been engaged or concerned, and for how long time, in any and what profession, trade, business, or employment, other than the profession of an Attorney and Solicitor?

Answer.

And I do hereby certify, that the said hath duly and faithfully served under his articles of clerkship [or assignment, as the case may be], bearing date the day of , for the term therein expressed, and that he is a fit and proper person to be admitted an Attorney.

Dated the day of 185 .

CHAPTER VI.

THE MEDICAL PROFESSION.

We now turn to the Physician; his business is entirely with "man" as an earthly creature, consisting of a body and soul, or rather mind. His principal concern is with the "body," and with so much of the "mind" as relates to its health. He neither deals with the mind as an "immortal and responsible being," or as a subject for education; he approaches it only so far as it influences the body's health, or is influenced in its own health by the body.

The career of the body during its whole life, indeed even before that life commences, and after it ceases, is the object of a continuous scientific worship. The minister of the Gospel has been called the "physician of the soul;" the physician is the "priest of the body." In watching the condition of its earthly parent, studying the descent of hereditary disease, registering the evils of marriages too early, or too late, as well as of intermarriage, he cares for its healthy conception. Its fœtal growth and birth have been the study of his craft for ages. Brought to life, he aids the tenderness of the mother in the conduct of its nurture and physical education. As it advances to maturity, he carefully inspects the diseases incidental to its growth; corrects by his art the consequences of folly, excess, or vice; binds up its wounds, repairs the effects of accident, blunts the sharpness of the pains that accompany its decay; and, finally, guides the hand of affection in its trembling office about the bed of death.

In all this he generally acts in a private capacity, a

situation that peculiarly distinguishes his office from that of the priest or the lawyer. This holds good as long as he is only called upon to deal with the individual; directly, however, he is called upon to come in contact with the masses, he becomes a public character.

In such a capacity his duties are to give a scientific prophecy as to the period of the body's probable dissolution; after its death, to reveal by the power of medical inquiry the mysteries of its past history; as an inferior medical officer in the army, to combine the moral resolution of the civilian with the physical courage of the soldier; and as a superior officer, to display many qualities necessary also in the commander, the commissary, and the quartermaster, in the discipline and distribution of large bodies of subordinates, the provision and purveying of stores, and in the regulation and management of large hospitals. As an officer of public health, he has to study the influence of atmosphere and weather, the systems of ventilation, of sewerage, and of providing water; and thus to a certain extent becomes a statician, a chemist, and an engineer.

As the guardian and physician of the lunatic, he extends his knowledge from the body to the mind, and turns his attention to the nature of human actions, and thus is partially allied to the lawyer in his speculation.

With so great an amount of duties, embracing the study of a great variety of sciences and arts, the medical man naturally occupies a high position in the ranks of educated men, even when he follows his profession in its most private capacity. His profession must be characterised as one of the most universal: the priest is confined to his parish, the advocate to the places where the code he has studied is recognised as law; but the physician is at home in his profession all over the world,—amongst civilised nations a man of science, amidst barbarians regarded as a magician,—he is the friend of all mankind.

It is of great importance, therefore, that those who are to practise medicine should be persons of enlightened

minds, accustomed to exercise their intellectual powers, and familiar with habits of accurate observation and cautious reflection; and that they should be possessed of such a degree of literary acquirement, as may secure the respect of those with whom they are to associate in the exercise of their profession. But a good preliminary education is directly useful to the acquirement of medical knowledge. Any person who has ever been engaged in the education of young men, not only for the medical profession, but for other employments also, will agree to the assertion, that those, whose minds have been formed by a good preliminary education will, on the whole, be found to be more diligent, and to gain knowledge more readily than others.

The moral as well as the intellectual advantages belonging to a well-trained mind are nowhere, indeed, more conspicuous than in the various departments of the medical profession. They are a protection to the student, and an aid and comfort to the practitioner. For example, an ill-educated young man comes to London to "walk the hospitals." His previous habits have given him no powers of attention or industry. He has never practised the "art of study." He finds his way into a lodging. Unadvised, unable to guide himself either morally or in the conduct of his studies, he soon falls in with other idle students, by whose example he enters into the little miserable dissipations by which he is surrounded. He passes his examinations by the aid of a "crammer," and thus enters the world no better than a quack.

But in order to determine more in detail the qualities necessary for success in this profession, it is necessary for a moment to revert to the actual position of the physician by the bedside of his patient. To take an extreme case. He is called in to minister to active, perhaps dangerous disease. The sufferer, we will suppose, to be in bed, and momentarily thrown on the consideration or affection of those around him. The

medical man on first entering the house meets with the friends or relations, perhaps amongst them a mother or a wife. He may either find them in a state of alarm, or a condition of indifference. In the first instance, it becomes his part by considerate, but calm attention to the description of symptoms exaggerated by love and fear, to allay, at least silence, as far as possible any anxiety, that if expressed might influence the mind of the sick man; to obtain, if possible, before questioning the sufferer, as full an account of the case as lies within the knowledge of those around; and to inspire confidence in himself by the suppression of all feelings of doubt and impatience. Having obtained this knowledge, it is next his duty to ascend to the sick-room, and here he has a delicate point to decide, as to the persons whom he will permit to accompany him thither. In this the younger physician will use his natural tact, to which his elder brother may add daily experience. A quiet balance of circumstances must quickly be run over in his mind, and to this must be added all that he can observe of the characters around him. Thus, in general, the mother or a favourite nurse should be present on a visit to a young child, which might otherwise be tongue-tied at the presence of the strange gentleman. A rough master should be forbidden access on the examination of an apprentice, who may be suspected of malingering; generally a husband should not be a witness to the visit to the bedside of his wife, delicacy may embarrass the doctor in asking many necessary questions in that presence, and consideration for the feelings of her partner may deter a wife from detailing all her sufferings. These are only examples amidst innumerable varieties of circumstances, on which the physician must decide. Having decided, he must adhere to his opinion firmly but respectfully. He will generally find it acquiesced in.

Here occurs the application of his medical knowledge and skill in using it; first in ascertaining the diagnosis, and then in determining the disease and its immediate

treatment. All this will have to be determined on the spot, and he will not have the aid that appertains to the lawyer of previous preparation, or the sermon-book of the preacher; all that custom allows him is a pen and ink to write his prescription, and perhaps a pocket conspectus, as a reference to doses and incompatible drugs. Some physicians, indeed, in the first instance, prescribe for the symptoms only, leaving the general treatment to be determined on before the next visit, but this could scarcely apply to an extended practice. The system of immediate decision on the part of the physician, though it may seem a tax on his powers and knowledge, is indeed necessary to maintain that confidence that is so great an aid in the cure of disease, and necessary to his authority in the house of the sick. The general practitioner is let down more easily, in cases where he sends his medicine from his own house, and writes no prescription.

In examining the person of the patient, the physician is required to be delicate-minded, but not refraining from inspection on account of any morbid refinement; giving no unnecessary physical pain, but not heeding it when necessary to attain a particular end. When called upon to operate or use an instrument on the spot, it must be done with decision, but with an endeavour to avoid alarm. We thus see that he will be called upon to exercise many important qualities of the mind on every visit to the sick,—discretion, firmness, kindness, and a ready perception; and clearly, a power of producing and using easily and promptly, even a small stock of knowledge will avail him more than any ponderous mass of learning that remains hidden in the recesses of his memory.

The medical man, in order to obtain obedience to his directions, has often to combat with the arrogance, or prejudices of the highly placed and the wealthy, as well as with the superstitions and habitual negligence of the poor and ignorant. This part of his duty will task his discretion and temper, and constantly bring to bear any amount of natural ingenuity that he may possess. Thus, should

he desire the head of a young lady in a fever to be shaved, he will probably find objections, and must combat them with proper argument.* With the poor, he will have to assume a high, almost a commanding tone, and bring to bear all the authority that attaches to knowledge and education, if, indeed, he would keep at a distance the nostrums of gossips, quacks, and retail druggists.

There is yet another duty of great delicacy that he may have to perform. There is no class of men, not excepting the family solicitor or the priest, who so often become the depository of family secrets. It is easy to conceive how great an influence sickness has on family affairs. For example, a father anxious about a delicate son, in consulting his medical man on the future career suited to the constitution of the youth, must to some extent open to his hearer his own worldly matters. Again, the last sickness of the head of a family, must of necessity expose hopes, fears, exultations, and sorrows, in ordinary locked in the cabinet of the mind; on such occasions the greatest secrets of the household come to light.

Not seldom it may even become his duty to probe the most hidden thoughts, the most sacred feelings of the heart. How often has the physician had to express his suspicions that an illness, having all the symptoms of an ordinary disease, is solely the result of a passionate longing ungratified, or of the struggle to hide a sorrow unknown? How often to point out that delicate symptoms, wearing a common aspect, are beyond the reach of medicine, and spring solely from some tender disappointment, jealously concealed by the daughter even from the confidence of the mother? How often has it been his duty to tell the ambitious, the prosperous, or the rising man, that his course of energy must by his own will be terminated, or that death will end it for him? All these

* He should hesitate before he adopts the practice of a late celebrated physician, who always carried a large pair of scissors to execute this operation himself, in case the "Mamma" refused or neglected to have so reasonable an act performed.

things he is bound to look for, and to attend to, as much as to the beating of the pulse, or the soundness of the lungs, and it becomes his part to give expression to them in words. In fact, it may be generally said, that it is almost impossible for a medical man to visit a house professionally for a length of time without becoming to a great extent the confidant of its inmates. Much must be told him that is told to no one else, and, as he is perhaps the only stranger who knows these secrets, and being presumed to be experienced and intelligent, his advice is naturally, constantly asked.

Before I conclude this outline of the physician's general duties, and proceed to point out the qualifications necessary to fulfil them, I must mention one other position, though it may possibly never occur to the practitioner,—I mean the position of medical witness in a court of justice. In this situation he will be exposed to the examination of his powers and knowledge, not only medical, but general; his discretion may be called in question, even his integrity, and with no little probability his medical knowledge, and woe to him if he gives the least occasion, by ignorance, proved neglect, over-confidence, or over-diffidence of himself, to an exposure on any one failing; it will form a lever for the competition of his rivals that he may never be able to remove.

Thus we see that the medical practitioner must in every respect be a man of general tact, though he may not require that quality in so pre-eminent a degree as the barrister. He must have a ready use of his knowledge, and it is therefore an error to send a young man to this profession simply because he displays an early taste for chemistry bottles, or fitting together dead men's bones; he ought to show more practical qualities than a simple love of science. As the necessary knowledge must be obtained before entering on the labours, the greater the love of labour the greater the hope. As a depository of family secrets, he must be capable of reticence, and should watch himself in this respect. Some men never can conquer,

with all their efforts, a propensity to blab all they know.

Any unconquerable or peculiar defect of temper would be a disqualification to the exercise of a calling especially demanding kindness, consideration for, and tenderness towards others. Similarly, a very anxious disposition is unfavourable, as operating to destroy the necessary firmness required, to say nothing of the peculiarly catching nature of this disease of the disposition, and therefore its highly injurious effect when communicated to the invalid; this profession requires both physical and moral courage.

In looking to habits and manner, a man will be under disadvantage who shows any strong tendency to habits disagreeable to women, such as intemperance, and want of cleanliness. Any natural defect of manner that seems incurable by time and education should be taken into view, especially if it is that determined awkwardness, that stubbornness against the elegant, which afflicts some men, whose souls are defective for beauty, as some ears are for music, and some eyes for colour.

A man should think twice before taking up medicine as a calling who has nervous habits, or is deformed, or particularly frightful. These misfortunes are no very great drawback at the bar, they sometimes have the effect of putting a mark on a man, but it is quite necessary for a medical man to be at least moderately pleasing in person, with the use of all his faculties, particularly the use of his eyes and hands; and, since the invention of the stethoscope, he will be embarrassed if he has no capacity for appreciating delicate sounds.

In fact, a fair average man, rather above the ordinary standard in most of his qualities, and no peculiar defects, may reasonably look with confidence to success in the profession of medicine.

With this premise, I will turn to the profession itself.

The first medical school that was established in Europe was at Salerno, toward the end of the seventh century; the second was probably at Montpelier, founded about a

hundred years afterwards. Their course of medical education is unknown; but they doubtless exercised a most beneficial influence on the acquirements, and therefore on the personal rank and consideration of the physicians of the age. For a long time however the profession of medicine was almost entirely confined to the clergy, who were indeed the only persons in those days that possessed any share of learning. Surgery was given up to the laity, as the clergy were prohibited from undertaking any bloody operation.

Hence arose the distinction of the three regular orders of the medical profession; physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries. The two last are now generally combined under the name of general practitioners, and the modern order would be,—physicians, general practitioners, and pure or operative surgeons. This latter order, however, is only according to practice and education; the legislative distinction being according to the first order.

First, with regard to physicians. The degree of "bachelor of physic" seems to have been known at Oxford soon after the Conquest; and in the fourteenth century we find that the degree of doctor of physic was by no means uncommon. The English colleges could not of their own authority prevent any one from undertaking to practise, though they had not obtained a degree in physic. On this account, therefore, in the ninth year of the reign of Henry V. (1422), our universities proposed an act of parliament should be passed to confine the practice of medicine to bachelors in that science.

This measure had not the desired effect, and it is doubtful if it ever obtained the force of an act of parliament, on account of being referred to the privy council for confirmation. In the third year of the reign of Henry VIII., 1511, was passed an act, which is generally received as the first operative law on the subject, and which takes no notice of the supposed statute of Henry V. By this act (which was specially aimed against the sorcerers, witches, and smiths, "who ken no letters on the book")

no person within the city of London, nor within seven miles of the same, could take upon him to exercise or occupy the calling of a physician, except he were first examined, approved, and admitted by the Bishop of London, and the Dean of St. Paul's, calling to him, or them, four doctors of physic.

In the fourteenth year of the same reign, another act was passed, by which the examination of physicians was taken from the persons appointed for that purpose by a former statute, and reposed in the college instituted by a charter of the king. Under this, the university graduate who might desire to practise in London, was included.

At the present day, the first class of medical practitioners in rank and legal pre-eminence, is that of the physicians. They are by statute (32 Hen. VIII.) allowed to practise physic in all its branches, among which surgery is enumerated. The law, therefore, permits them both to prescribe and compound their medicines, and to perform operations in surgery as well as to superintend them; yet the practice of physicians is universally understood, as well by the public as by their college, to be properly confined to the prescription of medicines, which are to be compounded by the apothecaries; and in so far superintending the proceedings of the surgeon as to aid his operations by prescribing what is necessary to the general health of the patient, and for the purpose of counteracting any internal disease.

It is quite beyond the limits or intention of this work to enumerate the legal qualifications required for the degree of physician, or doctor of medicine, by all the different European universities; it will be sufficient to mention those recognised in the British dominions, and to give a general account of our various schools of medicine.

In Oxford, medical education is conducted by the Regius professor of medicine, and the Aldrichian professors of anatomy. The former was founded by Henry VIII., and is endowed with a royal stipend of 40*l.* per annum, and the mastership of the hospital at Ewelme. The latter

were founded in 1803 under the will of Dr. George Aldrich, a physician of the county of Nottingham; and to that of chemistry, an augmentation of salary has been made, by a grant from the crown. The professors of medicine and chemistry are elected by convocation.

The remaining professorship is annexed to the prelectorship of anatomy: an anatomical lectureship, which was founded by one Richard Tomlins, in 1626.

The following are the requirements and fees for degrees in the university of Oxford.

For the degree of bachelor of medicine without proceeding through arts, all students in that faculty are eligible when they have completed twenty-eight terms from the day of matriculation; and for a doctor's degree, three years must elapse from the time of the candidate's having taken his bachelor's degree.*† The fees are for M.B. 14*l.*, and for M.D. 40*l.*

At Cambridge, a student, before he can become a bachelor of physic, must have entered his sixth year computed from the date of his first admission at the university, have resided nine terms, and have passed the previous examination. A bachelor of arts may become a bachelor of physic after having entered his sixth year, computed from the date of his entry to the university, with one year's interval at least between the two degrees.

The university of Cambridge also grants licences *ad practicandum in medicinâ.* The degree of doctor of physic is granted to a bachelor of physic of five years, or a master of arts of seven years' standing; and if a licence, *ad practicandum in medicinâ*, has not previously

* Oxford University Calendar, 1855.

† In medicine, all students (besides undergoing the examination appointed for bachelors of arts) are examined by the Regius professor of that faculty, and two examiners of the degree of doctor of medicine, who are appointed by the vice-chancellor, in the theory and practice of medicine; in anatomy, physiology, and pathology; in materia medica, as well as chemistry, so far as they illustrate the science of medicine, and in two, at least, of the following ancient medical writers—Hippocrates, Aretæus, Galen, and Celsus. For a doctor's degree in medicine, a dissertation upon some subject to be approved by the professor of medicine, is to be publicly recited in the schools, and a copy of it afterwards delivered to the professor.

been obtained, the candidate is required to pass the examination for that licence.

A student, who has declared for physic, may put on a full-sleeved gown, when those of the same year, who go out at the regular time, have taken their degree in arts. He is then styled a Harry-Soph. (ερισοφος.)

Medical education in Cambridge is conducted by the Regius professor of physic, aided by the Downing professor of medicine, the professors of chemistry and botany, and the lecturers on medical and surgical practice at Addenbrooke's Hospital. There is also a valuable anatomical museum, collected and maintained by the university.*

In the university of Dublin, a school of physic was instituted by act of parliament (40 Geo. III. c. 84), and consists of three university professors; viz. the professor of anatomy, the professor of chemistry, the professor of botany, together with the king's professors of the city of Dublin, on the foundation of Sir Patrick Dun. The university has added to these a professor of surgery, and the College of Physicians a professor of midwifery, and one of medical jurisprudence.

In this university, the candidate for the degree of M. B. must be a graduate in arts, and may obtain the degree of bachelor in medicine at the same commencement as the degree in arts, provided the requisite medical education has been completed.

* Cambridge University Calendar, 1855.

For particulars of medical examinations, I must refer the reader to that Calendar.

Fees.—University, M.B., 10*l.* 16*s.* 0*d.*; incorporatus, 11*l.* 18*s.* 6*d.*; M.D. prius M.B., 11*l.* 12*s.* 0*d.*; incorporatus, 13*l.* 13*s.* 0*d.*; prius A.M., 15*l.* 2*s.* 0*d.* Every candidate for M.B. pays the professor 7*l.* for his act; and if on or before the first of February in his fourth year, he does not declare, in writing to the master of his college, that it is not his intention to proceed to B.A., he forfeits 3*l.* to the university chest, over and above the usual fees: and if, *after* this declaration, he proceeds to B.A., he also pays 3*l.* extra to the senior proctor. M.B.'s pay on admission 10*s.* to the school-keeper, and M.D.'s 1*l.* 6*s.* 0*d.*, and 7*s.* to every doctor their faculty present on their creation.

College fees for these degrees vary; for M.B. the highest are 15*l.* (Trinity Hall); and the lowest 4*l.* (Emmanuel College). For M.D. the highest 20*l.* the lowest 6*l.* 4*s.* 0*d.* (King's College). At Caius College, the principal school for medicine, the fees are—M.B. 7*l*; if previously B.A., 5*l.*; and for M.D. 8*l.*

The medical education in this university is on the most liberal scale, and comprises a course of four years.

The doctors in medicine must be M.B.'s of at least three years' standing, and must perform proper exercises.

This university, as far as medicine is concerned, has connected itself closely with the College of Physicians of Ireland. It also issues diplomas in surgery, and has taken advantage of the hospitals in Dublin in aid of medical education.*

But of late years by far the most important school of medicine in England has been the university of London; its origin and constitution have been described in a former chapter, as well as the public colleges and schools affiliated.†

The great London hospitals are now a portion of the medical department of this university. These celebrated institutions all follow much the same plan, founded on the requirements of the graduating bodies. Their fees, also, are nearly all the same. They all, except King's College Hospital and University College Hospital, contain schools of medicine within themselves, where the complete course can be gone through without aid from any other institution.

The following are its requirements in the faculty of medicine. For the degree of M. B. four years' professional study at one or more of the institutions or schools recognised by the university, one of these years at least to have been spent at a recognised school in the United Kingdom. Two examinations must be passed;—the first, not earlier than the nineteenth year after having previously taken a degree in arts in some other university, or matriculated in this; and to have spent two years in one of the recog-

* 106 doctors, from 1823 to 1854; 500 bachelors, from 1823 to 1854; nine diplomas in surgery in three years, and has furnished an Aldrichian professor to Oxford.

† There are in all 75 institutions from which the university receives certificates for degrees in medicine. In *England* from Bedford, Birmingham, Bristol, Haslar, Hull, Leeds, Leicester, Liverpool, London, Manchester, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Northampton, Nottingham, Sheffield, and York. In *Scotland*, Aberdeen, Edinburgh, Glasgow. In *Ireland*, Queen's Colleges, Cork; Dublin, Maryborough; also from *Malta*, *Ceylon*, *Bengal*, and *Canada*.

nised institutions or schools subsequent to a degree in arts, or to matriculation.

They are further required to have attended four courses of lectures on medical subjects, and to have dissected nine months; as well as attended courses of practical chemistry and pharmacy. The fee for examination is £6.*

The second examination is consequent on passing the first, after an interval of two academical years, which are to be spent in attending only two courses of lectures, in order to admit time for more practice in dissection, as well as in midwifery, and attendance on the medical and surgical practice in a hospital, besides clinical lectures, and practical medicine; for all of which studies accurate regulations are laid down. The second examination comprehends six general medical and surgical subjects,† as well as translations from the Latin pharmacopœia in English and *vice versâ*.‡

Bachelors of medicine of the universities of the United Kingdom may be examined for the degree of M. D. on the conditions of having completed the twenty-third year of their age, and having two years' hospital practice; or one year's hospital practice, and three years in private practice; or five years' private practice.

For the degree of M. D. and the second examination of M. B. a certificate of morality from the teacher of the school the candidate has attended is required. No morality is demanded for the first examination.

The university has also granted honours in medicine, accompanied with gold medals, and some valuable scholarships.§

The number of medical degrees granted by this univer-

* For details, see the London University Calendar, 1855, published by Taylor and Francis, Red Lion Court, Fleet Street.

† Physiology, including questions in comparative anatomy, general pathology, general therapeutics, hygiene, surgery, medicine, midwifery, and forensic medicine.

‡ London University Calendar, 1855.

§ For details and regulations, vide London University Calendar, 1855.

sity since its foundation in 1840 has been—M. D. above 120, and about 150 degrees of M. B.

In Scotland, the medical educating bodies are the universities of Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Aberdeen. Of these, the first is most distinguished, and comprises a very complete course of medical education. The candidate must have been engaged in medical study for four years, during, at least, six months of each in the university of Edinburgh, or in some other university where the degree of M. D. is given. One of these years, however, may be satisfied by attending during six winter months the medical and surgical practice of a hospital of, at least, eighty patients, and during the same period a course of practical anatomy. Thus students of other universities may graduate in Edinburgh, provided that they study for one year previous to their graduation in the university of Edinburgh. A candidate has to show by examination that he has a competent knowledge of Latin. He also has to write a medical thesis, and to defend it in the presence of the faculty before he is finally admitted to his degree by the senate.*

In Glasgow, the course of lectures is also four years, one year of which must be spent in the university. In each year he must attend two courses of lectures of six months each; but if he spend only one year at Glasgow, during that year he must attend three courses, one of them six months. In addition, he must attend a general hospital two years, one year of which must be in the physician's wards: he must also show a competent knowledge of Latin.† The university also grants degrees in surgery; the course is four years, including two years' hospital practice.

At University and King's College, Aberdeen, the medical course is similar, but this school requires the candidate, in addition, to have studied classics and mathematics at an university, or at an academy of

* Details can be obtained by letter, addressed to the secretary of the university.

† The person to address for information is the clerk to the senate.

acknowledged reputation, and to show a competent knowledge of Latin by a translation from Celsus. The university and King's College is the only institution in Aberdeen which has a legal power of granting degrees in medicine. All medical diplomas purporting to be from the University of Aberdeen, and not signed by the principal and professors of King's College, are illegal and void.

A very similar medical course obtains at the university of St. Andrew's, with the addition of testimony of a liberal and classical education is required. This university also admits to their examinations for the degree of doctor of medicine the following persons, on producing their diploma or licence: fellows, members, and licentiates of the Colleges of Surgeons of England, Edinburgh, and Dublin—of the College of Physicians of London—of the Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons of Glasgow—and of the London Apothecaries' Company. The examinations take place twice a year. The graduation fee is twenty-five guineas. Five guineas is forfeited if the candidate is found unqualified.

In addition to these educating bodies or colleges, there are several corporations whose licence to follow a certain class of practice is either enforced by law or recommended by custom.

The principal of these chartered medical bodies is the College of Physicians, founded through the instrumentality of Dr. Linacre, who obtained by his interest with Cardinal Wolsey letters patent from Henry VIII. dated in the year 1518. The constituted officers of this corporation are eight elects, of whom one is the president, and four governors, who have generally borne the name of censors. The body of the society consists of fellows, licentiates, and extra-licentiates. Only the fellows and the licentiates are entitled to practise within the jurisdiction.

The College of Physicians possess under their charter (confirmed by acts of parliament) a monopoly of their class of medical practice in the metropolis, and within the distance of seven miles from it; and they in many instances have instituted legal proceedings against the unlicensed physicians,

by whom these privileges have been invaded;—but the legislature regarding this privilege as a boon, not to the public, but to the college, threw on the latter the whole expense of the prosecution. The power with which the college was thus invested never amounted to much, and is now merely nominal. It has not been exercised for many years. The examiners for the licence are the president and the censors. The examinations take place at, or about, Christmas, Easter, Midsummer, and Michaelmas. The examiners for the extra-licence are the president and three elects. The examinations for the extra-licence take place at the same time as the former.*

The following are the regulations concerning examinations (dated 1838) now in force :—

Every candidate for a licence or extra-licence must produce evidence,

1. Of unimpeached moral character. 2. Of having completed the twenty-sixth year of his age. 3. Of having devoted himself for five years, at least, to the study of medicine.

The course of study ordered by the college comprises :—

Anatomy and physiology ; the theory and practice of physic; forensic medicine ; materia medica, and botany ; and the principles of midwifery and surgery.

Attendance for three entire years on the physician's practice of some general hospital or hospitals in Great Britain or Ireland containing at least one hundred beds. Candidates who have been educated abroad, in addition to the full course of study specified, must have diligently attended the physician's practice in some general hospital in this country for at least twelve months.

Candidates who have already been engaged in practice, and have attained the age of forty years, but have not passed through the complete course of study above described, may be admitted to examination on presenting to the censors' board such testimonials of character, general and professional, as shall be satisfactory to the college.

The first examination is in anatomy and physiology ; the second includes all that relates to the causes and symptoms of diseases; the third relates to the treatment of diseases. The examinations are carried on usually during three days in writing, and two days

* Fees.—*Licence* 56*l.* 17*s.*, including 15*s.* stamp. *Fellowship*, 55*l.* 1*s.*, including 25*l.* stamp. *Extra licence*, about 25*l.*

vivâ voce. The *vivâ voce* part of each is carried on in Latin, except when the board deems it expedient to put questions in English, and permits answers to be returned in the same language.

A competent knowledge of Greek is recommended, but is not indispensable, if the other qualifications of the candidate prove satisfactory. The candidate is called on to translate *vivâ voce* into Latin, a passage from Hippocrates, Galen, or Aretæus; or to construe into English, a portion of the works of Celsus or Sydenham, or some other Latin medical author, having been previously required on three separate days, to give written answers in English, to questions on the different subjects enumerated above, and to translate, in writing, passages from Greek or Latin books relating to medicine.

There are annually delivered at the College fifteen lectures on different medical subjects; the Harveian Oration is delivered annually about the 25th of June.

The fellowship of the college is considered to be an honour in the profession. It was formerly granted almost as a matter of course to medical graduates of Oxford and Cambridge; that, however, is now changed, and the fellows are now elected only from amongst the distinguished members of the profession. The president of the College of Physicians is, like the Attorney-General, the head of the practising members of his profession.

With respect to surgeons, the three colleges (of England, Scotland, and Ireland) are authorised to examine those who present themselves for the purpose, as to their surgical qualifications. Of these the Scotch college has some very limited powers, which have not been exercised for more than a century. The other two colleges have absolutely no power of any description. Any one may inscribe himself "surgeon" over his door; and having done so, he has as good a right to practise surgery as any one of the members.

The London College of Surgeons have no monopoly, no privileges, no power to prosecute. But the college is of royal foundation, and the diploma which it grants has affixed to it the signatures of many of the leading surgeons of London; and so necessary has it become to any one

who makes the least pretension to practise surgery, that there are few, either in England or in the colonies (with the exception of those who have a similar diploma from the colleges of Dublin or Edinburgh) who venture to call themselves surgeons without it.

The advantages, therefore, conferred by the diploma of the College of Surgeons are little more than honorary in practice. The only real privileges of the college are that their diploma qualifies them for examination before the army, navy, and the East India medical boards; that they have access to the library, the museum, and the lectures at the college; and that, in the majority of cases, they alone are eligible to hold surgical appointments in public and charitable institutions.

In 1844 the college obtained a new charter, and the society now consists of a president, two vice-presidents, a council, various courts of examiners, fellows, and members. The regulations for admission are too minute to be entered on here at length, but the general outline will be found in the note below.* Candidates for the membership must be

* The following are the regulations of the Council of the Royal College of Surgeons, respecting the professional education of candidates for the diploma of Member of the College :—

Candidates will be required to produce the following Certificates—viz. :—

1. Of being twenty-one years of age.

2. Of having been engaged during four years in the acquirement of professional knowledge.

3. Of having studied practical pharmacy during six months.

4. Of having attended at a recognised hospital or hospitals in the United Kingdom the practice of physic during one winter session of six months, and one summer session of three months, including not less than one clinical lecture on medicine in each week during the winter and summer sessions.

5. Of having attended during three winter and two summer sessions, the practice of surgery at a recognised hospital or hospitals in the United Kingdom, including not less than one clinical lecture on surgery in each week during the winter and summer sessions.

6. Of having studied anatomy and physiology, by attendance on lectures and demonstrations, and by dissections during three winter sessions.

7. Of having attended, during two winter sessions, lectures on the principles and practice of surgery.

8. Of having attended during one summer session, lectures on materia medica, and lectures on midwifery ; practical midwifery to be attended at any time after the conclusion of the session; attendance on not less than twenty labours being necessary for the licence in midwifery.

9. And of having attended one course of lectures on the practice of physic, and one course of chemistry.

twenty-one years of age. Four years engaged in the acquirement of professional knowledge, according to the curriculum of the college, under these and certain other regulations, members, licentiates, graduates, and students of almost every medical school, home or colonial, where the surgeons or teachers are members of one of the legally constituted colleges of surgeons in the United Kingdom, are admitted on proper certificates and examination.

For the fellowship the main rules are, that the candidate must be twenty-five years of age—must have a certificate that he is a fit and proper person to be a fellow signed by three fellows—be able to pass an examination in Greek, Latin, French, and mathematics—and have been engaged six years in the acquirement of professional knowledge in some recognised hospital or schools of surgery and medicine, at home or abroad; and that three such years at least have been passed in one or more recognised hospitals or schools in London. Persons who were members before September 14, 1844, may be examined without this additional medical education, at eight years from his diploma, and on proof of having been eight years in private practice. For members admitted after that date the period is twelve years.

There is, however, a third order of persons who, much more than the downright and acknowledged quacks, excited the jealousy of medical associations. This was the class of medical practitioners termed apothecaries. Their proper practice consists in preparing with exactness, and dispensing such medicines as may be directed for the sick by any physician lawfully licensed to practise physic by the president and commonalty of the faculty of physic in London or any of the English universities; and in applying and administering those medicines. They are also at liberty to administer medicines on their own authority, and without the advice of a physician.

There was an ancient guild in London called indiscriminately the grocers or poticaries. By a charter of James the First, the poticaries were separated from the grocers,

and constituted a distinct company, by the more dignifie name of pharmacopolites; and certain privileges of exclusive business were granted to the new corporation. But the pharmacopolites or apothecaries soon became practitioners on their own account in the following manner.

It appears that from the time when the London College of Physicians was established the English physicians were too high in station, and too costly, to be the medical attendants on the poor, except in charitable institutions, and in the way of private charity. But the poor were as desirous of being cured of their complaints as the rich; and as the vendors of medicine were supposed to know something about the qualities of drugs, it is not very remarkable that they should have resorted to them when wanting of better advice. It is said that in the time of the plague the greater number of the London physicians (Sydenham among them) quitted the metropolis. The apothecaries remained, and did what they could in their absence, and from this moment were regarded by the public as regular practitioners. The physicians were sufficiently jealous of this invasion of what they considered to be their peculiar rights; but there was no remedy. Such a class of practitioners was required, and that which the public stood in need of they could not, or would not, prevent. The apothecaries having thus acquired a new station, found it expedient to make themselves qualified to fill it; and from the time that medical schools were first established in London, the great majority of students in attendance on them were of this class. No specific plan of study being laid down for them, they pursued their own course, each according to the extent of his means, his inclination, and aptitude for learning. Not a few devoted two, three, or even more years to their attendance on the hospital and lectures; whilst others were satisfied with a single season. Many took a degree in surgery, whilst others aspired to nothing more than to be mere apothecaries.

Such was the state of things, when rather more than forty years ago an association of apothecaries was formed,

having for its object the obtaining an English act of parliament, requiring that all practitioners of this class should be regularly educated, examined, and licensed, and to prevent all others from practising. The associated apothecaries proposed to the London College of Physicians, that they should undertake the examination of the candidates for the apothecaries' licence. But the college was at that time one of the most inert corporations in the kingdom, wrapped up in the contemplation of its own dignity, and feeling little interest in anything except occasional disputes with licentiates. They refused the offer, which was then made to a trading company, known as the London Society of Apothecaries (at Apothecaries' Hall), and by them accepted. The result was a parliamentary enactment, known as the Apothecaries' Act of 1815.

Under this act the apothecaries require the candidate to have produced testimonials of having served an apprenticeship of not less than five years to an apothecary legally qualified to practise as an apothecary, or to surgeons practising as apothecaries in Scotland and Ireland.

The Apothecaries' Company had from time to time been empowered to exercise a control over the uttering of medicines in London, or within seven miles of it, but had never attempted to extend their jurisdiction beyond the metropolis and its neighbourhood. But in 1815, this act of parliament placed the society in an entirely new position, by giving to the court of examiners,—then increased to twelve members,—a sole right of examining and licensing apothecaries throughout England and Wales, excepting such only as were then in practice.

From the circumstance that in country places, with very few exceptions, no person can practise medicine without keeping a supply of drugs for the use of his patients, or in other words acting as an apothecary, this statute has given the Company of Apothecaries the complete control of the medical profession in England. Every general practitioner must not only have purchased their licence, but must have served an apprenticeship with one of their

members. The price of a licence to practise in London or ten miles of it, is ten guineas, and any other part of the country is six guineas. The principal regulations of the company require the candidate to be twenty-one years of age, to produce testimony of good moral conduct, and to have pursued a course of medical study in conformity with the regulations of the court of examiners; and they also require a preliminary examination in classics and mathematics.*

There is a Royal College of Physicians in Edinburgh, who admit doctors of medicine to their degree on examination.†

The Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh grant diplomas on the completion of a course of study in an established school or university. The whole term may be followed out at Edinburgh, Glasgow, London, Dublin, or Aberdeen. At other schools, it is competent to take

* The course of study is as follows, according to the regulations of the Society of Apothecaries:—

Every candidate for a certificate of qualification to practise as an apothecary, will be required to produce testimonials—

1. Of having served an apprenticeship of not less than five years to an apothecary.
2. Of having attained the full age of twenty-one years.
3. Of good moral conduct.
4. And of having pursued the following course of medical study, each winter session to consist of not less than six months, and to commence not sooner than the 1st nor later than the 15th of October; and each summer session to extend from the 1st of May to the 31st of July.

First Year. — *Winter Session*—Chemistry; anatomy and physiology; anatomical demonstrations. *Summer Session*—Materia medica and therapeutics; botany and vegetable physiology; midwifery and diseases of women and children.

Second Year—*Winter Session*—Anatomy and physiology; anatomical demonstrations; dissections; principles and practice of medicine; medical practice. *Summer Session*—Medical practice; midwifery and diseases of women and children; forensic medicine; practical chemistry; morbid anatomy; clinical medicine.

Third Year.— *Winter Session*—Dissections; principles and practice of medicine; medical practice; morbid anatomy and clinical medicine.

Practical midwifery, at any time after the conclusion of the first course of midwifery lectures.

The above course of study may be extended over a longer period than three winter and two summer sessions, provided the lectures and medical practice are attended in the order prescribed.

† Vide British Medical Directory, p. 38.

only two winter and one summer session of the course of study. The period includes twenty-seven months. This college also demands preliminary instruction in the elements of mathematics, mechanical philosophy, and Latin.*

The university of Glasgow grants degrees in medicine. The curriculum covers four years, one of which must be spent in the university of Glasgow. The same university also grants degrees in surgery. There is also at Glasgow a Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons, who grant diplomas. The candidates for these diplomas must, either previously to or during medical education, have received regular instruction in the elements of mathematics; and must have subsequently attended a course of mechanical philosophy, of at least three months' duration, and of not fewer than sixty lectures; he must also be well instructed in the Latin language. With regard to professional instruction, the candidate must have been engaged in attending several appointed courses of lectures during twenty-seven months. The examination is partly oral and partly written, without the use of books. He must translate Latin, write prescriptions, and be examined in preparations.

The University and King's College, Aberdeen, and University of St. Andrew's, also grant degrees in medicine.†

Everything being completed in the way of education, the next question which arises is, "How shall I best commence practice?" The answer is different for the country and London physician, the country and London general practitioner, and the operative or pure surgeon, who seldom practises out of the metropolis.

The first commencement of a young physician, even in his native place, is very trying, and still more so in a country to which he is a stranger. The criticism and speculations on the new-comer, the ennui of solitary walks, the fatal consequences of peculiarities and supposed

* Fees:—Resident Fellow, 120*l.*; Non-resident, 80*l.*, including Stamp duty; Resident Licentiate, 100*l.*; by a Non-resident, 55*l.*, exclusive of tax. Annual subscription for residents, 1*l.* 1*s.*

† For details, see British Medical Directory.

opinions, the sense of desolation before one understands others, or is understood oneself; the misery of the attentions of people, the wretched list of petty etiquettes and jealousies, the forms to be endured, the arts to be submitted to, and last, but not least, the obstinacy with which the old established Æsculapius lingers on, and wears out his successor under that "hope deferred which makes the heart sick" in the absence of all other sickness.

He must begin, therefore, by sacrificing to the graces of the place, however distasteful—if it gains him favour, and submit to the tedium of card-tables, and feline tameness of bowling.* He must let his accomplishments be well seen, and fully appreciated; but at the same time, by assiduous labour in his profession, he must take care to counteract the suspicion of ignorance in, or indifference about it—a suspicion which in every profession is the inevitable consequence of other attainments and pursuits.

The great struggle is for a connection, and every art is necessary to extend it, as far as it can be done without seeking favour by compromising the integrity of the mind. To enable him to do this he should, if possible, be a married man. In fact, a wife is almost a necessary part of a physician's professional equipment. The female portion of the population supply the greater portion of the invalids, arising from causes easily suggested. Delicacy will in most instances deter them from asking the advice of an unmarried man. Again, in order to conciliate, especially in sickness, this class of patients, an intimate knowledge of their prejudices, fancies, and caprices is required, a kind of information which can never be completely attained by a man who has not had at least one subject for complete private study. The society of a wife also gives to a man much of that refinement of moral feeling so necessary to the medical profession. There is always a certain roughness about even the highly-educated and best bred bachelors; a woman seldom fails

* The celebrated Dr. Currie, of Liverpool, was a member of two card-clubs and of a bowling-club.

to convey to a husband some part of her own gentle feeling and feminine graces.

A country physician has not the means of showing his medical knowledge that belongs to his brother in the metropolis, but he may endeavour to extend his circle of supporters by obtaining a connection with the infirmaries, hospitals, or asylums in his neighbourhood. He will find it difficult to obtain a paid office, but the unremunerated offices are more attainable.

Few things will gain him more favour than a prompt and kind attention to the poor—that is, to those who are clearly unable to pay for themselves; but in this he must be careful not to trench on the practice of those who may, by such gratuitous practice, become either his best friends or greatest enemies. It is advisable (except in cases of emergency) to consult the practitioners of the immediate neighbourhood as to the condition of those asking charity in the form of advice, and if he finds any attempt unfairly to squeeze that from him, steadily to refuse it. The general practitioner will thus perceive and honour the motive, at the same time that he will be grateful for assistance in a thankless task; and the physician will have gained a supporter.

The rising physician should touch with great caution upon politics, if not altogether eschew them, unless his opinions coincide with the predominant and more numerous part of the population; but at the best he will find politics such edge-tools as require great skill in the handling. Above all, he should avoid religious discussion; for one lukewarm friend, it will create a dozen bitter enemies. He should, moreover, strictly watch his own moral conduct.*

Many of the above remarks apply also to the London physician. There is, however, this distinction: the Londoner has no neighbourhood, the great metropolis (and to the successful, England itself), is the field of his

* Amongst minor details, a medical man ought not to be "a smoker."

action. He has little opportunity of pushing himself by personal connection. He has not the same means of personal advertisement as his country brother, though a conspicuous house and a central position are considered favourable to his views.* His means of advancement in the absence of a private connection, are by obtaining favour, reputation, and connection amongst the general practitioners. Much the same relation exists between the London physician and the general practitioner, that attains between the barrister and attorney, with the exception that no etiquette debars the physician from direct communication with his client. This connection, though it may partly arise from the friendship of old college or hospital chums settled in London, must rest principally on a high reputation for medical knowledge. This reputation is obtained and published to the world, either by hospital practice, attendance on and contributions to the transactions of medical societies, writing medical works, or the peculiar study and knowledge of some particular class of diseases. Of these, hospital practice would seem to be the most favourable; there are few indeed of the great physicians of the present day who have not been, or who are not, connected with some hospital or infirmary, either as physicians or lecturers. This opening is now generally attained by success and industry as a student (the lower medical officers of the hospitals being now in most cases chosen from the most distinguished students of these institutions), and then gradually working the way on to the higher appointments. At the same time, at the moment of achieving his best hopes, he is liable to be ousted by some more distinguished competitor. Thus distinction as a student has a direct effect on the professional career of the London physician, a circumstance not so directly applying to the

* A house in the district lying between Oxford-street, Regent-street, Piccadilly, and the Park, is considered the best *locus* for a physician, though many other parts—even to the out-lying districts of Tyburnia, and the unknown regions of the east—are occupied by the profession.

church or the bar. The advantage of a position in a public hospital applies still more pointedly to the pure surgeon, whose qualifications can only be ascertained by the open exhibition of his powers as an operator.

The mode of getting into practice as a general practitioner is very much the same. It is managed either by buying a partnership or a practice—working as paid assistant to a gentleman in extensive practice, in the hope of being taken in as partner in the course of time, or by starting on speculation in a new or rising neighbourhood, or a neighbourhood where a sudden and unexpected vacancy has occurred, or one which is not in the opinion of the aspirant sufficiently stocked with medical practitioners.

Of course, to buy into a partnership, a practice, or to start speculatively, requires money, and therefore should be undertaken carefully, especially in those cases in which the whole capital of the young man is embarked. It is always advisable to have a personal knowledge of a practice before making a purchase, to observe if it has been a rising or falling practice, and to endeavour to discover, in the event of a fall, whether the decline is owing to the waning of the powers of the vendor or of the wealth of the neighbourhood. Do not be simply contented with the present condition of the practice, ascertain its past, in order to comprehend its future. Inquire minutely the occasion of the sale, particularly if it is owing to the Nestor being beaten from the field by some young Achilles lately arrived. You do not pay your money for a race of competition with a young man of your own age; may-be with better endowments than yourself, and no scruples. Beware of a practice, or even a partnership, that is too cheap; two to three years' purchase is the usual price. Take care lest you are entrapped unawares into awkward conditions.

I give it as the opinion of a late physician,* that, if a young man of an aspiring turn has but a small sum to purchase a practice with, it is much better for him

* Dr. A. T. Thomson, of University College, London.

to forego that temptation, and to employ his means in starting on his own account, than be connected with a practice that is small, either from the neighbourhood being starved, or (when that is not the reason) become connected with a man who has made no great reputation with those around. Indeed, there are so many new suburbs constantly springing up around London and the provincial cities, where the ground is unoccupied, that almost any man has a chance if he will but manage to be the first or nearly the first comer.

The pure surgeon seldom resides out of London or some great provincial capital. It is a branch of the profession not often pre-chosen, but is fixed upon by the candidate, after entering upon his noviciate, from some peculiarity of taste, or unexpectedly developed aptitude for surgery. To success, it requires a continued connection with some public institution, where frequent displays of skill to those members of the profession who are the patrons of this branch, are afforded. The practice is confined, but the fees are often large, and large incomes can be made.

In estimating the expense of commencing practice,* it

* The fees for education are very much according to the following scale in the great London schools; they are less in the provincial schools :—

Winter Session.	Fee for the Sessional Course.	Fee for Unlimited Attendance.
Anatomy	£6 6 0	£9 9 0
Chemistry	7 7 0	9 9 0
Physiology	6 6 0	9 9 0
Medicine	5 5 0	7 7 0
Surgery	5 5 0	7 7 0
Natural Philosophy	3 3 0	
Logic	2 2 0	
Summer Season.		
Midwifery	£4 4 0	£6 6 0
Materia Medica	4 4 0	6 6 0
Comparative Anatomy	3 3 0	4 4 0
Botany	3 3 0	4 4 0
Practical Chemistry	4 4 0	8 8 0
Forensic Medicine	3 3 0	4 4 0

THE HOSPITAL.

Perpetual Admission to the Medical and Surgical Practice :

For matriculated students	£31 10 0
For those not matriculated	36 15 0

is clear that unless a young physician or operative surgeon is sufficiently fortunate to obtain an office in a public institution, or can rely on the very doubtful support of medical literature, he must have an independence of his own for several years. Whether in town or country, a single man will require at least 200*l.* a-year; for, although London is more expensive, more show of appearances will be required in the country. It is not necessary on commencing in London to take a whole house. It is easy to make arrangements to take a floor, and a street-door, for a plate; but these things are not so easily managed out of town.

Medical Practice:	
Three months	£6 6 0
Six months	10 10 0
Eighteen months	15 15 0
Perpetual	21 0 0
Surgical Practice:	
Three months	£10 10 0
Six months	15 15 0
Twenty-one months	21 0 0
Perpetual	26 5 0

The fees for matriculation amount generally from two to four guineas, and must be paid on entrance.

The course of study required by the College of Surgeons and the Society of Apothecaries, comprises the following lectures, of which the terms are annexed:

	Number of Sessional Courses.	Payment.
Anatomy, Descriptive and Surgical, with Dissections	3	£9 9 0
Physiology: General and Morbid Anatomy	3	9 9 0
Chemistry	1	7 7 0
Botany	1	3 3 0
Materia Medica	1	4 4 0
Medicine	2	7 7 0
Surgery	2	7 7 0
Midwifery	2	6 6 0
Forensic Medicine	1	3 3 0
Practical Chemistry	1	4 4 0
		61 19 0
Students are recommended to take out a *perpetual* ticket for Chemistry, by paying the additional sum of		2 2 0
		64 1 0
Hospital fees, as above		31 10 0
		£95 11 0

A general practitioner commencing on his own account will require scarcely less, and will need also about 60*l.* for a laboratory and stock of medicines. The number and class of patients, compared to those of the higher branch, as well as the laboratory, preclude him in general from taking lodgings; a house of his own will therefore be necessary, and consequently he will have upon his shoulders the expense of furniture, which even for a small house will cost from 150*l.* to 200*l.* He will also require at least two female servants, and a boy as messenger. Thus commencing life as a general practitioner is probably more expensive than entering the lists of the higher grade.

Of course, if a practice or a partnership is purchased, many of these expenses are included in that purchase.

Our medical man being now supposed to be educated and started with a proper establishment, and fair hopes, it becomes now incumbent on me to point out the result that he may expect.

The numbers of the medical profession are 22,383, or, exclusive of students and assistants, 18,728; of whom 2328 are returned as physicians, 15,163 as surgeons and apothecaries. The best oculists, aurists, and dentists, have the licences of surgeons, and are included in the last number. But besides these are 14 oculists, 4 aurists, and 1167 dentists, many of which latter are mechanists. The profession is aided in its lower branches by 15,333 druggists, and 430 surgical instrument-makers; and have to run the gauntlet with 256 male, and 65 female empirics of various kinds,—worm doctors, homœopathic professors, herb doctors, and hydropathic practitioners.

Passing from the numbers to the emoluments of the profession, it must be observed that there are no public documents, as in the case of the church, or open data, as in the case of the bar, that will enable us to ascertain them. The practice of the profession is almost entirely private, and confined to their own knowledge. In one thing medicine differs from the law, that nearly all

medical men *bonâ fide* in practice live by their profession; and if we examine the medical lists, and deduct those marked as "retired," and not "practising," we shall find that one in twenty is about a fair deduction from the numbers of the profession, and if we make a similar allowance for those struggling into practice, excluding also assistants, I estimate the number of those making a profitable use of their time at about 16,000, of whom 2000 would be physicians.

The income of a successful physician in London ranges from 800*l.* to 3000*l.* a-year, though undoubtedly there are men of eminence making much more than the latter sum. That of a provincial or country physician from 500*l.* to 1500*l.* a-year. The numbers may seem understated to many persons, but I am convinced that the incomes of medical practitioners are generally very much over-estimated, owing to the amount of appearance that it is necessary to maintain. If we reckon, then, the average profits of the physician to be 500*l.* annually, the professional income may be reckoned at 1,000,000*l.* The profits of the surgeon or general practitioner are smaller individually, but, as may readily be supposed, more easy to attain to. The physician flies at high game, and unless backed up by a large connection, is longer getting at it than his brother of the lamp. I fancy that there are many general practitioners in our great towns making 2000*l.* a-year, and not a few attaining even 3000*l.* or 4000*l.* a-year, though in those cases it is probably by a class of practice that differs from that of the physician only in name. The ordinary range of incomes is from 300*l.* to 1200*l.* a-year, and the average 500*l.*—which latter income will give over 5,000,000*l.* as the whole profits of this branch, or 6,000,000*l.* for the whole profession.

I append to this chapter the regulations of the three Services requiring medical assistance, viz., the Queen's Army, the Queen's Navy, and the Army of the East India Service. It will be seen in the regulations that a very high state of efficiency is asked for, although an adequate reward for the demanded requirements is offered only in

the service of the East India Company. The service is tedious in peace, and undoubtedly not less dangerous in war than any other branch of military employment.

Regulations of the Ordnance and Army Medical Departments.

A candidate for an assistant surgeoncy in the Army is required to fill up a blank form of certificate, which may be obtained at the office by written application to the Director-General, specifying by whom he is recommended, his Christian name and surname at full length, the course of study he has pursued, viz., the lectures, the lecturers' names, places where the lectures were delivered, and the number of months during which he attended, in accordance with the regulations, together with any others in his possession. If he possess any university degree, he must also state its nature, whether A.M., A.B., M.D., or a diploma in surgery, and when and at what college or university it was obtained. The number of months' attendance at a hospital or infirmary must also be stated; and if he has attended at hospitals for mental derangement and diseases of the eye, or a lying-in institution, particulars of such attendance must also be furnished.

The candidates must be unmarried, not beyond twenty-six years of age, nor under one-and-twenty years; must possess the diploma in surgery of a recognised school, and must produce the following testimonials:—

Eighteen months' hospital practice; twenty-four months' anatomy; twelve months' practical anatomy; six months' physiology; twelve months' surgery; eight months' clinical surgery; twelve months' practice of physic, or six months' practice of physic and six months' general pathology; eight months' clinical lectures on the same; twelve months' chemistry; three months' botany; three months' materia medica; three months' practical pharmacy, or apprenticeship; three months' natural history; three months' midwifery; three months' practical midwifery; one course natural philosophy; one course logic.

Candidates who have had an university education, and have the degree of A.B. or A.M., as well as that of M.D., will be preferred, but a liberal education, and a competent knowledge of the Greek and Latin languages, are indispensably requisite in every candidate; and the greater the attainments of the candidates in the various branches of science, in addition to competent professional knowledge, the more eligible will they subsequently be deemed for promotion in the service; for selections to fill up vacancies will be guided more by reference to such acquirements than mere seniority. Before promotion from the rank of assistant-surgeon to

any higher rank, every gentleman must be prepared for such other examination as may be ordered before a Board of medical officers.

Regulations of the Medical Department of the Navy.

No person will be admitted as assistant-surgeon in the Royal Navy who shall not produce a certificate from one of the Royal Colleges of Surgeons of England, Edinburgh, or Dublin, or from the Faculty of Physicians of Glasgow, of his fitness for that office; nor as a surgeon, unless he shall produce a diploma or certificate from one of the royal colleges or faculties, founded on an examination to be passed subsequently to his appointment of assistant-surgeon, as to his fitness for the situation of surgeon in the Navy; and in every case, the candidate producing such certificate or diploma, shall undergo a further examination, touching his qualifications in all the necessary branches and points of medicine and surgery for each of the steps in the Naval Medical Service. Candidates will further be required to produce proof of having received a preliminary classical education, and that they possess in particular a competent knowledge of Latin; also that they are of good moral character, the certificate of which must be signed by the clergyman of the parish, or by a magistrate of the district;—that they have served an apprenticeship, or have been engaged for not less than six months in practical pharmacy;—that their age is not less than twenty, nor more than twenty-six;—that they have actually attended a hospital in London, Edinburgh, Dublin, Glasgow, Aberdeen, Manchester, or Bristol, for eighteen months subsequently to the age of eighteen, in which the average number of patients is not less than one hundred;—that they have been engaged in actual dissections of the human body twelve months; the certificate of which, from the teacher, must state the number of subjects or parts dissected by the candidate;—that they have attended lectures, &c., on the following subjects, at established schools of eminence by physicians or surgeons of the recognised colleges of physicians and surgeons in the United Kingdom, for periods not less than hereinafter stated, observing, however, that such lectures will not be admitted if the teacher shall lecture on more than one branch of science, or if the lectures on anatomy, surgery, and medicine be not attended during three distinct winter sessions of six months each.

	Months.
Anatomy (or General Anatomy, 12 months; and Comparative Anatomy, 6 months) . . .	18

	Months.
Surgery (or General Surgery, 12 months ; and Military Surgery, 6 months)	18
Theory and Practice of Medicine	18
Clinical Lectures on Surgery	6
Ditto on Medicine	6
Chemistry (or Lectures on Chemistry, 3 months ; and Practical Chemistry, 3 months) . .	6
Materia Medica	6
Midwifery	6
Botany	3

Regulations for the Admission of Candidates for the Appointment of Assistant-Surgeon in the Service of the East-India Company.

All natural-born subjects of her Majesty, between twenty-two and twenty-eight years of age, and of sound bodily health, may be candidates for admission into the service of the East-India Company as assistant-surgeons.

They must subscribe and send in to Dr. Scott, the physician to the Honourable East India Company, ten days before the period fixed for each examination, a declaration to the following effect :—

"I (Christian and Surname at full length), a candidate for employment as an Assistant-Surgeon in the service of the East India Company, do hereby declare that I was years of age on the day of last, and that I labour under no constitutional disease or physical disability that can interfere with the due discharge of the duties of a medical officer ; and I also attest my readiness to proceed on duty to India within three months of receiving my appointment."

This Declaration must be accompanied by the following documents :

1. Proof of age, either by extract from the Register of the Parish in which the candidate was born, or by his own declaration, pursuant to the Act, 5 & 6 Will. IV. cap. 62.
2. A certificate of moral character from a magistrate, or a minister of the religious denomination to which the candidate belongs, who has personally known him for at least two preceding years.
3. A diploma in surgery ; or a degree in medicine, provided an examination in surgery be required for such degree ; from some body competent by law to grant or confer such diploma or degree.

4. A certificate of having attended two courses of lectures, of six months each, on the practice of physic, and of having attended, for six months, the practice and clinical instruction of the physicians at some hospital containing at least, on an average, one hundred in-patients; or of having attended one course of lectures, of six months, on the practice of physic, and clinical instruction for twelve months.
5. A certificate of having attended, for three months, the practical instruction given at one of the public asylums for the treatment of the Insane.
6. A certificate of having attended, for three months, one of the institutions, or wards of an hospital especially devoted to the treatment of Ophthalmic disease.

Candidates who may not have been able to attend the practice of an asylum for the Insane, or of an Ophthalmic hospital, for three months previous to their offering themselves for examination, will not be excluded from examination, but will, if successful in obtaining recommendation for appointments, be required to produce certificates of having attended such practice during the interval between the examination and the time of proceeding to India.

7. A certificate of having attended a course of lectures on midwifery, and of having conducted at least six labours.
8. A certificate of having acquired a practical knowledge of cupping.

Candidates may also, at their option, send in certificates of attendance at any hospitals, or on any courses of lectures, in addition to the above. Attendance on a course of military surgery, and the practical study of surgical operations on the dead body, are recommended.

The examination will include the following subjects :—

1. Surgery in all its departments.
2. Medicine, including the diseases of women and children, Therapeutics, Pharmacy, and Hygiene.
3. Anatomy and physiology, including comparative anatomy.
4. Natural history, including botany and zoology.

The following are the books recommended in—

Zoology and comparative anatomy—

Outlines of the Structure of the Animal Kingdom, by Rymer Jones, or
Cours Elémentaire d'Histoire Naturelle, par Milne Edwards.

Botany—

Lindley's School Botany, or
Lindley's Elements of Botany.

The examination will be conducted—

1. By means of written questions and answers.
2. By object examinations and experiments, when the subject admits of such tests.
3. By practical examination of patients, and by operations on the dead body.
4. By *vivâ voce* examination.

The persons who shall be pronounced by the examiners to be the best qualified in all respects, will be appointed to fill the requisite number of appointments as assistant-surgeons in the East India Company's service, and so far as the requirements of the service will permit, they will have the choice of the Presidency in India to which they shall be appointed, according to the order of merit in which they stand on the list resulting from such examination.

All Assistant-Surgeons are required to subscribe to the military or medical, and medical retiring funds, at the Presidencies to which they may be respectively appointed, and to the Military Orphan Society also, if appointed to Bengal.

All Assistant-Surgeons who shall neglect or refuse to proceed to India under the orders of the Court of Directors, within three months from the date of their appointment, will be considered as having forfeited it, unless special circumstances shall justify a departure from this regulation.

A copy of these regulations, and any further information, may be obtained on application to the secretary of the military department, East India House.

The examinations will take place in the months of January and July in each year, and due notice will be given by public advertisement of the days appointed, and of the probable number of candidates to be selected.

CHAPTER VII.

THE PROFESSION OF ARMS—THE ARMY.

THE motives that draw the young man towards the profession of arms are often the very opposite of those that attract him towards peaceful professions. Fortune, safety, comfort, the enjoyment of domestic affections, must be almost entirely erased from the pictured future of the military cadet. Yet the alternations of hope and fear, the bustle and activity, which belong to a soldier's life—"the pomp and circumstance of glorious war"—the brilliant, though fleeting reputation, or, as it is termed, "honour" to be won by military achievements, have irresistible charms for a large portion of mankind. It is principally through their influence that the ranks of the army are filled; nevertheless, it is true that many enter it in obedience to an hereditary family feeling in favour of this profession;—there are many families in England whose sons have almost to a man joined this profession. Undoubtedly, in the time of peace, the commission of the officer has been too often used by the *parvenu* as a passport into good society, but this rarely happens in time of war. Many, too, have lately taken commissions from a patriotic feeling.

The military profession has in all ages been esteemed honourable, yet there are not wanting those who are ready to attach to it the worst of epithets. These persons are more strong in the positiveness of their assertions than the vigour of their arguments. If self-defence is just and noble, and it is necessary that, for the purposes

of self-defence, the profession of arms should exist, then it stands to reason that that profession is both lawful and honourable.

"The principle," says the Edinburgh Review, "that it is unlawful to engage in the profession of arms, is founded on a *literal* interpretation of certain texts of Scripture, requiring men to love and bless their enemies, and to turn one cheek to him that smiteth the other, &c. It is commonly believed that these expressions are only intended to shadow out, by a kind of figure, that amiable and gentle disposition by which men are actuated in their ordinary intercourse with each other, and by no other means to be made the formal directors of their conduct through life. In any other sense, indeed, they would evidently amount to an encouragement of all sorts of violence and injustice, and would entirely disable and annihilate all civil government, or authority among men. If evil is not to be resisted, and if a man who takes a cloak is to be pressed to take a coat also, it is plain that the punishments of thieves and robbers may just be as unlawful as the resisting of invaders. It is remarkable that the Peace party do not carry their argument of literal submission quite to this length. They struggle manfully for their cloaks; and, instead of giving the robbers their coats also, would be very happy to have them imprisoned and flogged. If they can get rid of the letter of the law, in any case, there are occasionally stronger reasons for dispensing with the supposed prohibition of war than with any of the others.

"If they would be justified in killing a wild beast that had rushed into their habitations, they must be justified in killing an invader who threatens to subject them, and the whole community, to his brutal lust, rapacity, and cruelty. It is a degrading superstition that would withhold the hands of man in such an emergency."

The British army has always borne the highest character both at home and abroad. It has been well said, "that this army as far surpasses all others in bravery, as

British seamen surpass all others in skill." At the same time it has been urged, that though the British officer is inferior to none in courage, talents, or in attachment to his profession, that he is so in military attainments. But in apology of this, it is said that, "the military is essentially a practical art; its wants and necessities are soon brought home by actual experience and *suffering* to an army in the field. If it possesses the resolution to fight, and the discipline to obey, a very short time will supply the rest: there is no education so rapid and effectual as that which takes place in the presence of an enemy." * It is further said, in support of this view, "that a thoroughbred soldier is the mere creature of command." Yet, however just these views may have been in their period, they are not suited to the temper of present times, and the British public are not over ready to view with complacency the necessity of *suffering* as a precedent to military knowledge.

In every other respect but in the knowledge of military science, the superiority of the British officer has never been disputed.

The officers of our army are a body of *gentlemen;* and it is no small praise that, under all temptations which arise from idleness, or want of occupation—from a peculiar kind of social intercourse which often excludes female society—from an unsettled or wandering life—from ancient usages or example—and from a sort of license long granted by opinion—our officers are now as free from the ordinary vices of society as any class in England.

Much of this is referable to the system and government of the army—the young officer is under the control of officers whose views are the same, and whose character and estimation in society depend in a great measure on their professional deportment—our officers also are mostly drawn from classes of society whose moral and intellectual condition have of late years greatly improved.

* Alison's Hist. of French Rev., vol. vi., p. 637.

The army has followed these classes in expelling from their companionship the followers of gross and ostensible vices. Nor has the army been wanting in emulating the civil classes in that pursuit of literature that is so memorable a feature of the present age. The army occupies a strong position in the republic of letters. Many works of standard value have lately proceeded from followers of the profession of arms, recording facts and scenes that in former times would have passed unnoticed.

Although the system of purchase still exists, and the influence of the often cited "cold shade of aristocracy" exercises its baneful effects upon the army, yet it is equally certain (especially in time of war) that the profession of arms is with us one in which a man may, by mere personal merit, rise to all those offices which are filled by rank, even of the highest degree, and to the very highest stations which birth itself can confer. The most superficial knowledge of English history will enable any one to recapitulate Marlborough, Albemarle, Schomberg, Lake, Clive, Hill, Wellington, Raglan, and many others, as having risen by the army, from the position of commoners and from comparative obscurity, to be the ornaments of the peerage, and the founders of great families.

More numerous are the examples of soldiers becoming members of the legislature, and often, indeed, members of the cabinet, and filling the first offices in the ministry. More often, perhaps, than any other person, does a soldier become the governor of a town, a province, or a colony, wielding political and civil, as well as military power. In fact, the army has been said to be the very "nursery of governors." Many other posts are considered open to them, such as the offices of consuls, &c. The Queen's Messengers are almost always military men.

Another honour, almost purely military, is "the Most Honourable Order of the Bath." This ancient order was revived by George I. in 1725, and was until 1847 strictly a military order—no officer being qualified for admission unless he has received some badge of honour, or has

been mentioned in despatches as having distinguished himself in action.

By a new order, published in the "London Gazette" of 25th May, 1847, all the existing statutes were annulled and repealed; and the constitution of the Order of the Bath, before that time exclusively military, was by the new statutes opened to civilians.

The new Order consists of the Monarch, as Sovereign of the Order; a Great Master, or Principal Knight Grand Cross, who is to be a Prince of the Blood Royal, or such other exalted personage; and 925 companions, or members to be divided into three classes, containing each two sub-divisions, civil and military, both of which are to be composed partly of ordinary, and partly of honorary members.*

* The first class consists of 50 members of the military division, and 25 in the civil division, to be styled "Knights Grand Cross." The first must actually hold the rank of Major-General in the army, or the East India Company's Service, or of Rear-Admiral in the navy; and civilians must be distinguished by their personal services to the Crown, or by the performance of public duties havve merited the royal favour. This definition, in the case of civilians, extends also to the second and third classes.

The second class consists of 100 members in the military division, and 50 in the civil division, to be styled "Knights Commanders." Officers are not eligible unless they have attained the rank of colonel in the army or marines, or the East India Company's Service, or Captain in the navy.

The third class consists of 525 members in the military division, and 200 in the civil division, designated "Companions," to which all officers who have attained the rank of major in the army or marines, or East India Company's Service, or commander in the navy, are eligible, if their services have been marked by special mention in despatches published in the Gazette, as having distinguished themselves in action, or as the head of a military department, or by some active service under their own immediate conduct, have contributed to the success of such action.

The honorary members consist of foreign persons, unlimited in number, upon whom the Sovereign may think fit to confer the honour of bringing into the military or civil divisions of either of the three classes.

By a special statute, gazetted 16th August, 1850, officers of the commissariat and medical departments of the army and navy, and of the East India Company's armies and navy, are made eligible for admission into the military divisions of the second and third classes.

The two first classes are entitled to the distinction and style of "Knight." The three Secretaries of State are empowered to name persons for these distinctions to the Queen, and take the royal pleasure for preparing the necessary warrants for the sign manual; but previous to 1847, the Colonial Secretary, as war minister, had exclusively recommended for the honour of the Bath, and in practice the recommendations appear to be now restricted to the minister for war.

Medals and other decorations have from time to time been granted for distinguished services, and for presence at certain battles. They have always been awarded without any discrimination, and testified to nothing beyond the mere fact of presence in a campaign, or battle, or sometimes of being in the neighbourhood of one. This has been remedied by the establishment of the decoration of Victoria Cross.

There is little to look forward to in the army of Great Britain in the way of emolument among the general mass of officers—indeed, if an officer purchases all his steps, he may be said to be serving his country for nothing. This has been repeatedly pointed out by the public press. The higher an officer rises, the less is he paid—that is, proportionally. Thus the percentage that full pay, is of the money paid for the various ranks of the infantry of the line, is nearly as follows: Ensign, $21\frac{1}{4}$; Lieutenant, $21\frac{1}{8}$; Captain, $11\frac{3}{4}$; Major, $9\frac{1}{8}$; Lieutenant-Colonel, 6. In the cavalry, it is as follows: Cornet, $17\frac{3}{8}$; Lieutenant, $13\frac{1}{8}$; Captain, $8\frac{1}{3}$; Major, 7; Lieutenant-Colonel, $7\frac{3}{8}$. Thus in proportion to the sum paid for the commission, the cavalry is worse paid than the infantry, though better paid in actual amount. Making deductions for the necessary expenses attending the occupation of the officer, it is fair to say that the highest regimental officer obtains only a bare interest for his money, and that only the lower ranks obtain anything like a business-return. When the pay is regarded as a life annuity, which it in reality is, the regimental officer in the higher rank is an actual loser.* The officer is, besides, liable at any time to be reduced to half-pay. The only set-off he has under the present system is, where he has the good luck to get a step without purchase: as he may sell his commission, such a step is like a gain of capital.

* For table of pay and price of commissions, see the Appendix. The following are in round numbers the expenses of a subaltern's outfit, including everything: Cornet, about 180*l.*; Ensign, Guards, 120*l.*; Ensign, Line, from 50*l.* to 60*l.*

It is an important question, how far this pay is sufficient for the purposes of life? Is it necessary under the present system for the parents and friends of the subaltern to add anything to his pay? There is on this, as on all other points, a difference of opinion amongst military men, but the weight of opinion seems to be, that "military pay is in general insufficient for the officer's support."

It is said on the one hand, "That every military man knows that it is a hopeless, miserable condition for a young man to join a regiment without anything beyond his pay. That not one young man in ten thousand can do it without running into debt, getting into discredit, and consequently going on badly. That this is caused by that which is justly regarded as the great evil,—the bane of the service, viz., the expense and extravagance of military messes. Formerly, the officers' mess was very much what the serjeant's mess is now. Both classes of opinions bear testimony to the fact that before the present great expenses in regiments, subalterns did live on their pay, and even save money; but that in the late long peace things have been very much altered; the rates of subscription are high; the whole style of the mess table is magnificent; the *cuisine* even, is *recherché*, and the wines expensive." Sir Howard Douglas says that a young man must be endowed with a very rare, and almost scarcely-to-be-expected degree of self-denial, to live at mess without some resource besides his pay; that in the commands he has served in, he has known a great many most serious and distressing cases, really the ruin of young men from that very cause.

And yet it is an undoubted fact, that officers of the line are not generally wealthy men, although there are a great many wealthy men among them. It is said to be scarcely possible for a young man to live in the army, unless he has 60*l.* as a minimum, and 100*l.* as a maximum beyond his pay. This unfortunate tendency to excess of expenditure over means in the army, is further ascribed by all

to the generality of officers being unable to fill up the necessarily unemployed hours of the time of peace, by the occupations and habits of the educated man, and that, therefore, they betake themselves to expensive amusements. This view is exemplified in the conduct of the artillery, and engineer officers, whose conduct is highly regular. They enter the army in a different manner from the officers of the line—are from circumstances less open to temptation, very few of them being men of fortune—and they are practically obliged to keep up the education they have received at Woolwich. The general knowledge of the regimental officer, after joining the army, is confined to the mere duties of his regiment. Rules have ineffectually been made to keep down these expenses, but the best authorities seem to agree that, under the present system and social condition of the army, the thing is impossible.

Besides the general emoluments of his rank, the officer has it open to him to obtain increased pay by an appointment on the staff, i. e., employment in the departments of the quartermaster-general, and the adjutant-general, or as military secretary, or aide-de-camp to a general officer. These appointments are obtained either by passing through the senior departments at Sandhurst, or by high personal merit, or (as is more usually the case) by interest. Staff-appointments also open a readier road to promotion.

Half-pay is a reduced allowance or compensation granted to officers by the Crown, under the authority of Parliament, either on a reduction of forces rendering it unnecessary to retain their services, or upon their retiring from the active duties of the military profession. A full pay service of three years is indispensable to entitle an officer to the privilege of half-pay. Half-pay is in the form of a retaining-fee, granted for the express purpose of securing the future *military* services of the recipient, so that if he takes upon himself a position that would preclude him from again serving, he would lose his claim to half-pay. As, for example, if he become a clergyman, he

is no longer entitled to draw half-pay; but entrance to the other learned professions does not preclude.

Pensions are grants from the Crown made by royal warrant, the supplies being voted by Parliament, but they may at any time be withdrawn by the sovereign. They stand, therefore, on the same precarious footing as half-pay.

Neither pensions, nor half-pay can be assigned away. Half-pay is intended by the state to provide decent maintenance for experienced officers, both as a reward for their past services, and to enable them to preserve such a situation that they may be always ready to return to active service.

The officer is also entitled to pensions and gratuities for wounds and infirmities equivalent to wounds. Pensions, gratuities, and re-imbursements to officers' widows, and compassionate allowances to officers' children, as well as certain gratuities to other relatives.

An officer receiving a wound in action occasioning the loss of an eye, or a limb, or the total use of a limb, or an injury equivalent to the loss of a limb, is eligible to a gratuity of one year's full pay of the rank or appointment held by him at the time of being wounded. He may also, after inspection by a medical board, be recommended for a temporary pension according to a given scale for the rank held by him when he was wounded, and to commence one year after the wound; the continuance to depend upon subsequent examinations of a medical board.* If he has lost more than one limb or eye, he may be recommended for a pension for each limb or eye lost in action.

If an officer receives in action a wound so severe in its permanent effect as to be equal, but *not fully* equal, to the loss of a limb, he may be recommended for a gratuity of eighteen months full-pay, but in that case is entitled to no further wound pension.

Any officer receiving a severe and dangerous wound

* Queen's Warrant, p. 185.

not equal in its effects to the loss of a limb, may receive a gratuity for his cure (according to the nature of the case), of from three to twelve months' full pay.

Any officer who has held a wound-pension for five years, and has been twice examined before a medical board, may be recommended for the permanent continuance of his pension; if he so far recovers before the end of the five years that his wound is not equal to the loss of a limb, he loses his pension, and is only entitled to a gratuity of full pay according to the degree of his injury. Application for the pension, or gratuity, must be made within the five years; in the same way, application for pension for loss of the eye, must be made within the five years. Generally pensions are given according to regimental rank, unless the officer is employed in duties superior to the regimental rank at the time of the wound, and then, according to brevet-rank. All these pensions are tenable with pay.

Officers' widows receive pensions, but they are not claimable as a right—they are rewards for good and faithful services, and are conferred only on proper deserving objects, nor are they granted to widows in wealthy circumstances, and are liable to be discontinued in cases of misconduct.

They are granted to the widows of officers in the land forces, holding permanent rank, provided they are the widows of general officers, officers killed in action, or dying of wounds within six months of being wounded. To widows of officers dying while on full pay, and having served ten years on full pay, or from disease contracted in the colonies, and in certain cases when on retired full pay, and half-pay, as well as to the widows of retired, and veteran officers.

A widow is not eligible to this pension if her husband died within one year of his marriage, with certain exceptions, such as being killed in action, or being in the active execution of his duty. If he has taken the regulated difference on exchange, she is not eligible; or if he has been guilty of peculation, or bigamy, or died

in the service of a foreign state, unless serving with the Queen's permission, or has at his own solicitation been excused from service; or married above sixty years of age; or held temporary rank, on half-pay; or if the widow holds other pensions on account of military services.

If an officer is killed in action, or dies of his wounds within six months, his widow, or children, or both, may receive pensions.

A fixed sum may now be granted, in lieu of pensions, compassionate allowances, and gratuities, to the widows, families, and relatives, of officers killed in action, or dying of wounds received in the face of the enemy, within six months of being wounded. The sum granted is the regulation price fixed for commissions in the cavalry and the line, according to the following scale:—

		Cavalry.	Infantry.
To the widow, widow and children, father, mother, sister, or sisters of	Lieut.-Col.	£6,175	£4,500
" "	Major . .	4,575	3,200
" "	Captain .	3,225	1,800
" "	Lieutenant	1,190	700
" "	Cornet. .	840	—
" "	Ensign .	—	450

It is in no case to exceed the sum paid actually, in conformity with the regulation price, by the officer for the purchase of his commission or commissions.

The children of deceased officers are further provided for by "compassionate allowances." * They are given in cases in which the widow of the officer would be entitled to be placed on the pension list; provided it be shown that the children have no other allowance, pension, or provision from government; and that their pecuniary circumstances, and those of their family, are so limited, that they actually require assistance from the compassionate fund. The fund being limited to an annual sum,

* A most unworthy name for rewards fairly earned.

the claims of the children are taken into consideration, according to the length, nature, and merit, of the services performed by the father, in the following order:—to children of officers killed in action; orphans having neither father nor mother; children of officers dying on foreign service; children of officers dying on full-pay at home; children of officers dying on half-pay. The allowances are continued until sons attain the age of eighteen, or are otherwise previously provided for; and those to the daughters until they marry, or attain the age of twenty-one; except in special cases of mental or bodily infirmity rendering them incapable of any exertion for their own support, and that they are still in distressed circumstances.*

When officers die away from home on foreign service, or in action, they often leave valuable effects behind; the regulations provide for their proper sale, and transfer of proceeds to his surviving relatives. In this case the widow receives in addition to pension, a gratuity of one year's pay. If he leaves no widow, or child, a mother dependent on him may receive the widow's pension, similarly to his sisters.

In return for these emoluments and pensions, the officer gives services to the Crown, which he swears to perform even at the sacrifice of his life. To that sovereign power he surrenders his free will. The power accorded to his commander over him is, and ought to be, unbounded, and demands for its exercise an implicit obedience from the subordinate officer and the soldier. The subordinate officer is not permitted to judge of the danger, propriety, expediency, or consequence, of the order he receives; he must obey; nothing can excuse him but a physical impossibility. If he is called upon to be devoted to death, he must be devoted. In the day of battle, commanders must act upon delicate suspicions, upon the evidence of their own eye; they may find it

* Queen's Warrants and Regulations, p. 398.

necessary to give desperate commands; and they must require instant obedience.*

Every officer belonging to a regiment is, at all times, and under all circumstances, accountable for the maintenance and observance of good order, and the rules and discipline of the service according to the powers granted to him in his commission; and it is his first duty to afford, in these respects, the utmost aid and support to the commanding officer, who is responsible for the preservation of discipline and due subordination. It is by an example of ready obedience, and cheerful execution of duty, that that chain of responsibility and authority, so essential to the well-being and efficiency of the service, can alone be established. They are in fact the groundwork of discipline.†

Next to obedience and discipline, the subaltern has to learn his drill. On first joining, he is placed in the hands of the adjutant and sergeant-major; he has to attend to his drills until his person is properly set up, and he can march, and perform the manual and platoon exercises; and if in the cavalry, until he has made some proficiency with his sword. In the cavalry also, he will have to attend upon the riding-master. The first posting of a subaltern on joining, is under a superior, from whose example he may profit, and who will endeavour to lead him in the right way, and make him know the importance of attention to the regimental books, returns, and orders. When reported fit for duty, he is permanently posted; being subsequently removed from his troop, or company, as rarely as possible.

Promotion brings with it an increase of duties and responsibilities. As a captain, he is responsible for the state of his troop, or regiment, in every particular. When quartered in a town, he assorts the billets. The pay of the troop, or company, is entrusted to him. He takes charge of his men in every respect. He is the friend of

* Lord Mansfield.

† The sketch of an officer's general duties is extracted from the Queen's Regulations for the Army. For fuller particulars, see Macdougall's "Theory of War," Longmans'.

his men, attending to all their wants, both in barrack and in the field.

When second in command, as major, he has to be prepared at every emergency, to take the place of the lieutenant-colonel, and must be an accomplished soldier, and has many duties to perform. All these officers are continually called upon to attend courts-martial. Officers, who from incapacity, or habitual inattention, are deficient in this part of their duty, are liable, in the first instance, to suspension from promotion until proved equal to the performance of it, and free from any ground of censure.

Nor do the hard round of duties cease even with the highest commands, but seem rather to increase. Generals necessarily spend days together in the saddle, visiting, as they must do, all parts of an extended line of operations, where the most opposite reports have to be balanced and decided, the most elaborate combinations rapidly conceived and executed, in order to move and feed vast bodies of men in an unwilling or hostile country; to find the means of transport for the supplies of provisions and ammunition; to provide for the sick and wounded: to create, in short, with such materials as may be found, an organisation, any failure in which may result in a terrible sacrifice of human life, and may in the most critical moment, baffle the best conceived combinations. These labours require the exercise of the highest faculties, and also physical strength and powers of endurance to keep those powers unimpaired by bodily fatigue and privation.

It will be fortunate for the officer if he is permitted by fortune to exercise these important and trying duties at home or in the field of a campaign; they are more likely to be called for in the dreary garrison duties of the colonies. This may be judged of by the distribution of the army, when on the peace establishment, through the empire:—The three regiments of household cavalry, whose ordinary duties are principally confined to their attendance on the Queen's person, and consequently take no colonial duties whatever. Of the four and twenty regi-

ments of cavalry, four are employed in India; and as those regiments cannot be relieved under a period of from fifteen to twenty years, more or less, it is evident that no prominent share of colonial service falls upon the cavalry. The division of Guards, consisting of seven battalions, are also, in their ordinary duties, confined to the Queen's person and palaces, and have never been called upon to perform any colonial service whatever. Of the one hundred and three regiments of infantry, seventy-nine are generally abroad, and twenty-six at home; of those seventy-nine abroad, twenty are employed in India; and those employed in India are not relieved under a period of eighteen to twenty years. Those employed in our other possessions ought to be relieved once in every ten years, but it has not always been found practicable to carry that intention completely into effect; it sometimes occurs that there are regiments which have been abroad ten or eleven years, while the regiments which must relieve them have been at home a very short period, after a service abroad of not less than ten, and many above twenty years.

In the time of peace the position of the officer is not very favourable in respect of promotion. At this period, when a short but great war has just closed upon us, it may not be disadvantageous to revert to the ascertained position of the officer at the close of the war in 1815. The effective army at the conclusion of that war was 219,852 men, which was reduced as low as 91,756 in 1822. These reductions necessarily increased the half-pay lists, until they contained upwards of 10,000 officers, costing the country 974,000*l.* a-year. However, by filling vacancies in the effective by transfers from the non-effective or half-pay list, the natural equilibrium between effective and non-effective was gradually restored; until, in 1854, the number of officers on half-pay and retired full-pay had fallen as low as 2699.*

* Byerley Thomson's Military Forces of Great Britain.

This system, however, made promotion slow. In the lower regimental ranks employment was certain for any officer desiring it; but the moment he attained field-officer's rank, his chances of employment were very much diminished. This necessarily resulted from the constitution of a regiment, which consists, for the most part, of ten companies, with their ranks of officers each numerically the same. Thus the ten ensigns became ten lieutenants, the ten lieutenants ten captains; but for the ten captains there are but two majorities to be attained, and for the two majors but one lieutenant-colonelcy. A proportion of these ten captains, therefore, retired upon full-pay; that is, if they did not sell out, and there they but substituted another person. There was thus always in process of creation a fresh though a limited redundancy of field-officers standing between the captains and the general-officers, staying promotion, themselves too old for active service by the time they were on the generals' list. Thus, in respect of age, all the lieutenants were below thirty years of age; the majority of the majors divided nearly equally at the age of forty; similarly the lieutenant-colonels divided at an age between forty-five and fifty. Upon an examination, the return of the ages, and the services of the colonels promoted to be major-generals in 1851 showed an average of sixty years. The army is now again resuming a position similar to the above; the service is not now, therefore, in a favourable condition.

In speaking of the general education of the officer, it is sufficient to say, that as far as opportunity will allow, he should receive the education of a gentleman. In other respects, it is apparent that whatever kinds of knowledge are requisite in the upper ranks of life, or in all those whence individuals may be called to office under government, or assist in legislation, are equally requisite for the army. Many circumstances combine to render such a general education almost indispensable for those who mean to follow, without disadvantage, the honourable profession of arms. Yet it is much to be feared that many

young men declare for the army under the impression that there is less to be learned, and that more may be conveniently forgotten, than in any other profession. This mistake, though very general, is nevertheless an error. The young officer may be now required to have considerable acquirements in military knowledge, but also good general education. The habits, pursuits, education, and acquirements of the military man now almost completely conform to those of the mass around them. The profession of the soldier will no longer protect a member of society from that contempt which naturally falls upon the ill-informed; neither is the soldier, under the present principle of the interchange of conversation, good offices, and mutual regard between the civilian and the officer, any longer able to wrap himself up in scorn for the learned.

Turning to the professional part of military education, —to the special pursuits and duties of a soldier,—before describing the requirements demanded by authority, it may be permitted to make an observation on those acquirements that will enable an officer to possess a full and entire knowledge of all that can concern his profession.

To refer first to physical qualifications; it will be supposed that no man will enter the army unless he feels his personal courage to be of the right quality. It may happen, indeed, that he may never have had an opportunity of testing this point, and indeed it is almost impossible to predicate the existence of this quality until the actual day of battle. The timid man, even the man who thinks himself timid, will often in the hour of danger become the hero. Perhaps it may be laid down as a general rule, that most men reared in the true notions of honour, and who are of a constitution sufficiently sound to support the alternate excitement and depression attendant on peril, will not, in general, fail for want of courage.

Personal strength, though no doubt useful, is certainly of less importance than excellence of constitution—a power to resist disease, or to endure fatigue.

Amongst habits, the officer should have habits of order, early rising, and temperance.

Beyond these, he will require education to pass the established examinations.

Commissions are either general, that is, obtained (with or without purchase) by nomination, or are obtained by passing through the course at the Military College at Sandhurst.

The examination of candidates for general commissions, either with or without purchase, takes place at Sandhurst, and is made by the professors there in the presence of the Lieutenant-Governor.

The examination takes place in English, from dictation, in history, geography, arithmetic, algebra, fortification, and in one of three languages at the option of the candidate. It is conducted *vivâ voce*, when possible, and if the candidate answers the *vivâ voce* questions satisfactorily, he is at once passed. In case there be any doubt as to any particular branch, a number of questions are put to him on paper, of which he is expected to answer a certain proportion.

The decision on each branch is made separately, and if the candidate does not pass, the papers are forwarded to the Commander-in-Chief, with whom rests the ultimate decision. In cases where the Deputy-Governor and professors are of opinion that the candidate has had "the education of a gentleman," although he may have failed in some particular branch, their opinion is made known to the Commander-in-Chief by a special mark.

The Commander-in-Chief, if he still thinks the candidate ought not to receive his commission, gives him a second chance. A second examination takes place after a reasonable delay, and the candidate is examined in the branches in which he before failed. One branch only of the examination is military, viz., fortification; but it is said that the knowledge required can be easily mastered in a week.

According to Mr. Sydney Herbert, "this examination

is too technical, too limited, and within its limits too severe. It does not test the boy's general education, nor his habits of mind; but he crams up a few books which happen to be in use at Sandhurst, and by his familiarity with these he is entirely judged. So completely is this recognised, that the parents of boys in the army, as soon as they receive the announcement that their sons will have a commission at a certain date, forthwith remove them from the school, where they may be receiving an excellent education both as to intellect and character, and send them to a class of men known by the name of 'coaches,' who undertake to cram them in the text-books required for examination at Sandhurst, but who, in some cases, do not even profess to superintend their general or moral conduct."

Yet, although this pernicious system so extensively exists, Colonel Prosser, Colonel Adams, and Colonel Chepmell, have all given their testimony in favour of public school education, and against the cramming schools in respect of qualifications.

This examination for direct commissions takes place at the college, and is conducted by the Lieutenant-Governor, as president, with four professors, as examiners under him.

The examination is in history, geography, in arithmetic, algebra.

There is no *vivâ voce* in arithmetic and algebra, nor in fortification.

In history the candidates get eighteen questions, and if they answer twelve they pass. Three or four in Grecian history, three or four in Roman history, five or six in English or French history, and in general history two or three at the end. There are generally three dates in the eighteen questions, but they are not *sine quâ non*.

In geography they are given about the same number of questions as in history, orally, or written; and answering two-thirds constitutes a pass. The examination is confined very much to the modern geography of the Queen's

dominions in every part of the world, and to the capitals and rivers in other countries.

In arithmetic, the first four rules and fractions, and logarithms, in the multiplication by addition, and of division by the substraction of logarithms.

In algebra, the first four rules, and simple equations.

The examination in languages is rather strict; in French, he is required to translate from French into English, and from English into French; and in Latin, to translate from Latin into English, and to parse and scan.

In fortification, they are required to draw an outline of the front of fortification according to Vauban's first system, and the profile of a rampart and parapet according to the same system.

No person is eligible to a commission until the age of sixteen. Recommendations must certify the eligibility of the candidate with respect to education, connections, and bodily health, and must state also his christian name, surname, age, and address.

Applications for commissions must be made by letter to the military secretary at the Horse Guards. The name of the applicant is then placed at the bottom of the list, where it may wait for ever, unless he has interest to push it up, or it is a time of war. At the commencement of the late war there were only one thousand names on the list, not many months after the declaration there were twelve times that number. The prices, that is, the total prices of commissions, will be found in the table at the end of this chapter; but the following are the necessary payments on entering the army. In the cavalry, as cornets: Life Guards, 1260*l.*; Royal Regiment of Horse Guards, 1200*l.*; Dragoon Guards and Dragoons, 840*l.* In the infantry, as ensigns: Foot Guards, ensigns with the rank of lieutenant, 1200*l.*; regular regiments of infantry, 450*l.*; regiments of Fusileers and corps formerly* having first and second lieutenants, 500*l.*

* Second lieutenants are now ensigns, G. O., June 6, 1854.

When the cadet has been nominated to a commission by purchase, in all cases either he or his sureties will almost immediately be called upon to lodge the purchase-money with the agents of the regiment he is appointed to.

Her Majesty's pages generally receive commissions in the Guards without purchase on attaining the age of fifteen.

These are the principal rules concerned in commissions obtained direct by purchase or patronage, and not through the military college.

The Royal Military College at Sandhurst owes its foundation to the exertions of General le Marchant. It commenced as a place for the instruction of officers in 1799. In 1801 the junior department was organised; the united departments took the name of the Royal Military College, and George III. appointed a supreme board of commissioners for the purpose of managing the affairs of the college.

The senior department was established for the purpose of instructing officers in the scientific part of their profession, with the view of enabling them better to discharge their duty when acting in command of regiments, and at the same time of qualifying themselves to be employed in the quartermaster-general and adjutant-general's departments.

The junior department is appropriated to the instruction of those who from early life are intended for the military profession, and who by this means may be grounded in science previous to obtaining commissions in the army. This department is also intended to afford a provision for the sons of meritorious officers who have fallen, or been disabled in the service of their country, and the means of education to the sons of those officers who belong to our regular service.

The government of the college is vested in the board of commissioners. The official members, in addition to the governor and deputy governor, are the Commander-

in-Chief, the Secretary-at-War, the Master-General of the Ordnance, the Quartermaster, and Adjutant-General.

A boy, to be admitted to any of the classes of the junior department, must make an application to the governor; his name is then placed on the list, and he is brought forward in his turn; the rule of rotation is strictly adhered to. No applicant can be put on the list after ten years of age; no candidate can be admitted into the college under thirteen, or above sixteen.

Previous to entrance he must produce a certificate of good conduct from every master under whom he has been for the last three years. He is examined by the surgeon, who is to report whether he has any physical defect, which might render him unfit for the service. He then passes an examination, in which he is required—

1. In English: to write from dictation.

2. In arithmetic: four first rules, simple and compound, vulgar and decimal fractions.

3. Algebra: addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.

4. Languages: either in Latin, to construe a passage in "Cæsar;" or in French, one in Verlôt's "Revolutions of Sweden:" or in German, from Schiller's "Revolt of the Netherlands;" in each case with parsing.

5. Geography: counties, chief towns, and rivers of Great Britain and Ireland.

6. To print the ordinary Roman character and Italics with neatness and facility.

This examination is conducted by the professors in presence of the collegiate board, and appears to be made with considerable indulgence. On passing it, the candidate is admitted on probation for one year, and he is informed that if, during any part of that period his conduct is such as to make it obvious that his longer stay would be either hurtful to the institution, or wholly unprofitable to himself, he will be sent back to his friends.

The attention of the cadet is first directed to arithmetic and algebra; and as soon as he has gone

through the full course in these studies, he is examined; and if he passes, becomes so far qualified as to be removed into the upper school. A certain amount of French and history is also required to qualify the cadet to enter the upper school. In the lower school there are four classes and an examination in each.

On entering the upper school, the cadet begins Euclid, and when he has read six books, he is taken out by the professors to trace the ground problems. When he has done these, he is qualified to begin surveying and fortification, and to study trigonometry. He must also acquire a facility in drawing, and practical manipulation of mathematical instruments. No further mathematical acquirements are required by the course, but the extra time at the close is employed in the higher mathematics, in mechanics, and in the attack and defence of places.

The other studies carried on at the junior department may be best explained by stating the examination which takes place when the cadet goes up to pass, with the view of obtaining his commission. A cadet to obtain his commission, must pass in six steps; three are fixed in which he must pass, the other three are at his own choice out of the branches studied.

1. Euclid; six books.

2. Fortifications; by which is understood permanent and field fortification, theoretical and practical, including sapping and mining, pontooning, and field intrenchments on the field.

3. Surveying; in which he must have done four actual surveys on the ground, besides the amount of drawing required in the hall of practical plan drawings.

These three steps or courses of study are compulsory, and without passing through these no cadet can pass the final examination.

4. History; English, European, Greek, and Roman History.

5. Geography, including the working of geographical problems on the globes.

6. Latin; to translate Livy, with parsing, and to turn English into Latin.

7. Grammar; French into English, and English into French.

8. German; the same.

Out of these last five the cadet must take up three, in addition to the three compulsory. He is at liberty to select these three according to his own wishes.

The following are the classes and rates of subscription, upon which candidates are admitted to the military college:—

First Class.—The sons of officers in the army, under the rank of field-officers, including surgeons and paymasters, and the orphans of officers of whatever rank in the army, and of commanders, and of officers of superior rank thereto of the Royal Navy, who have died in the service, and are proved to have left families in pecuniary distress, 40*l.* per annum.

Second Class. The sons of regimental officers, and of captains under three years rank, and commanders of the navy, 50*l.* per annum. The sons of colonels, and lieutenant-colonels, having corps, and of captains of the navy of three years rank, 70*l.* per annum. The sons of all flag and general officers, 80*l.* per annum.

Third Class. The sons of noblemen and private gentlemen, 125*l.* per annum.

The whole number, according to the present regulations, would amount (if full) to 180; of these,—25 in the first class, 50 in the second class, 105 of the third; the numbers actually on the books were (on this book going to print) 23 of the first class at 40*l.*, in the second 22 at 50*l.*, none at 70*l.*, and 1 at 80*l.* In the third class 114 at 125*l.* The numbers at present are low, as, in consequence of the war, commissions have been given away with more than usual rapidity.

At present, the number of applicants in the first class are large, and exceeds the number of vacancies; and even when the nomination is obtained, the widow of an officer

who has fallen in the service of the country is compelled to pay 40*l.* per annum.

The next branch of the army is that of the artillery and engineers, a service that at present is under the command and appointment of the Master-General of the Ordnance, and not of the Commander-in-chief. Formerly, the candidates for these services were obliged to be educated at the Royal Academy at Woolwich, on the nomination as cadets of the Master-General of the Ordnance. A change has lately been effected, and the artillery has until recently been supplied by the examination of candidates from all parts of the Queen's dominions: the successful competitors being either appointed to provisional commissions in the artillery, or to the practical class at Woolwich, which embraces residence at the academy, on probation with further examination for the corps of military engineers. The whole system is however in a state of transition. The ancient system of Woolwich exists for those who entered before the change. That which at present exists may be best understood by the perusal of the annexed copy of an official document obtained from the Ordnance Office; but it must be understood that this is only a temporary document, and that there are at this time royal commissioners visiting the military schools on the continent, with the view to establishing a perfect system in England for admission to the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich. As a junior school on nomination it is now abolished, and no more direct appointments will be made to provisional commissions in the Royal Artillery, as was the system last year: instead, an examination for the admission of cadets to the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich will be held in London in the month of June, 1857.

Provided a sufficient number are found competent, thirty admissions will be made to that institution; candidates must be between the ages of seventeen and twenty years. Those, however, who have not exceeded twenty years of age on the 1st January next, will not be considered disqualified. The successful

candidates will remain under instruction until they are sufficiently advanced in scientific knowledge to pass a satisfactory examination, and they will then receive commissions in the Royal Artillery or Royal Engineers. They will be required to pay a sum of 22*l.* 10*s.* on admission, to cover the expense of uniform, books, &c., and a contribution of 62*l.* 10*s.* for each half-year of the time during which they remain at the academy. The half-yearly contributions, however, for sons and orphans of naval and military officers, will be regulated at the following rates, as heretofore :—

For sons of admirals and of generals having regiments	£40
Sons of generals without regiments . .	35
Sons of captains and commanders of the navy, and of colonels and regimental field officers of the army	30
Sons of all officers of the navy and army under the above ranks	20
Sons of officers of the army and navy who have died in the service, and whose families are proved to be left in pecuniary distress	10

The sons of general officers paid only on their commissions as field officers, will pay the same contribution as the sons of field officers.

The sons of officers on full and half-pay will pay alike ; but the sons of officers who have voluntarily retired on half-pay, or *received the difference*, will only be admitted on the terms prescribed for the sons of private gentlemen, viz., 62*l.* 10*s.* for each half-year.

The sons of officers of the civil departments of the army, are admissible to the academy, upon the same terms as those prescribed for the sons of naval and military officers.

The admissions will be determined by the result of a competitive examination, the subjects of which will be as follows :—

	Marks.
Pure and mixed mathematics, *i.e.*, statics, dynamics, and hydrostatics	3,500
English language, literature, composition, history, and geography	1,250
Language, literature, geography, and history of ancient Rome, and of ancient Greece .	1,750
Language, literature, geography, and history of France	1,000

	Marks.
Language, literature, geography, and history of Germany	750
(The examination in French and German will be both written and *viva voce.*)	
Experimental sciences, *i.e.*, chemistry, heat, electricity, including magnetism . .	1,000
Natural sciences, mineralogy, and geology .	750
Moral and political sciences . . .	1,000
Drawing, *i.e.*, elementary geometrical drawing, including the use of drawing instruments, and either machinery, architectural, engineering, or landscape drawing . . .	1,000

No candidate will be allowed to be examined in more than five subjects, of which one must be mathematics, and no one who does not obtain at least one-fifth of the allotted number of marks in this subject will be eligible for an appointment.

From the other subjects of examination each candidate may select those in which he desires to be examined; but no one will be allowed to count the marks gained in any subject, unless those marks shall at least amount to one-sixth of the total number of marks allotted to that subject.

No candidate will be admitted into the Royal Military Academy unless he obtain an aggregate of 3000 marks at least.

Any candidate who shall not select French and drawing among the subjects for his examination, will be required to satisfy the examiners that he has such knowledge, at least of the elements of those two subjects, as shall afford reasonable expectation that he will perfect himself in both during his residence at the academy.

The following papers will be required to be transmitted by each gentleman to the War Department, before the 1st June, with his application to be noted as a candidate, unless he shall notify that he has been a candidate at a previous examination, in which case the statement of subjects only, need accompany the application:—

1st. An extract from the register of his baptism, or, in default of that, a certificate verified by affidavit.

2nd. A certificate of good moral character, signed by a clergyman of the parish to which he belongs, and by the tutor or head of the school or college at which he has received his education for at least two years, or such other proof of good moral character as will be satisfactory to the Secretary of State.

3rd. A statement of the subjects of examination in which (in addition to mathematics) he may desire to be examined.

All candidates will be required to present themselves at the

place of examination, hereafter to be determined, in order to be inspected by military surgeons, that it may be ascertained that they are free from any bodily defects or ailments calculated to interfere with the performance of military duties.

Notice will be given a month previously, in the public papers, of the place and days appointed for holding the examination.

The next military service in connection with the British Empire is that of the East India Company. This splendid army, great in emoluments, and eminent in services, though looked down upon by the Queen's officer, can afford to hold its own, both on the ground of the magnificent empire it has won and keeps for Britain, and the high character and military talents of its officers. Despised as it is by the pretender, there is little doubt that in military qualities the East India Company's officer is equal, and in military science even superior to the Queen's officer. It is the only service that has been continually engaged in active warfare since the peace of 1815. The supercilious Queen's officer, whilst affecting to despise the *servant* of the Company, is forgetting his early training in London drawing-rooms, and has few opportunities of showing his supposed superiority to his fighting brother of the Company, except in black-balling him at his club. At the same time the Company's officer is winning empires in the East, and enjoying a hearty grumble that an ancient professional jealousy excludes him from general command. It is hoped that the days of so unfair a distinction are numbered. The service of India is no longer that of a company of merchants, empowered by an extraordinary charter to raise soldiers, but the service of the Queen's empire, though in a form that carries the mind back to the peculiar and romantic origin of this portion of the British armies. The Company's officer has, indeed, a Queen's commission for a certain part of the world, and there ranks equal with his worse paid brother-in-arms. With the exception of this invidious distinction, the Company's officer is far better off than the royal soldier. His pay is better,

his pension more liberal, his promotion more certain, his opportunities of great employment more numerous, and the appreciation of his abilities and zeal more certain to be rewarded. He is, indeed, expatriated from England, but he returns to it almost as often as officers in the royal army, and he is not hurried from colony to colony, from the tropics to the pole, in all disregard of his property and constitution. He can afford to marry early, and if a man of talent, can often accumulate a fortune. He is from the first a person of importance, and with proper conduct is certain to obtain fair success.

The appointments in the army of the East Indies are by indirect or direct cadetships. The former consist of nominations to the Military College of Addiscombe; the cadet obtaining his commission after having passed through the college course.

There is another order of cadetships, or direct cadetships, for officers who are appointed without the preliminary education at Addiscombe. These were the original cadetships, when the Company first began to form an army. The following are the preparatory instructions which now form the rule under which these appointments are given.

The East India Company.

A candidate must have attained the age of sixteen years. He is not eligible to be appointed a cadet after having attained the age of twenty-two years, unless he shall have been, for the space of one year at least, a commissioned officer in Her Majesty's service, or in the militia or fencible corps when embodied, and hath been called into actual service, or shall have been in the company of cadets of the royal regiment of artillery. Such persons are eligible for the appointment of cadets in the Company's service, provided their age does not exceed twenty-five years. [A commission in the Guernsey Militia, or in other corps similiarly circumstanced, is not a qualification. (Resolution of Court, 3rd April, 1844.)]

A candidate who has been so employed must produce his commission, together with a certificate from the War Office or

commanding officer of his regiment, of his having actually joined and done duty with the regiment for the full term of one year and upwards; and that he was neither dismissed nor resigned his regiment in consequence of any misconduct.

No person who has been dismissed or obliged to retire from the army or navy, the Royal Military College at Sandhurst, the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, or from any other public institution, on account of immoral or ungentlemanly conduct, can be appointed a cadet.

The following are the points upon which candidates are to be examined before they are passed as cadets :—

1. Each candidate will be required to write English correctly from dictation.

2. He should possess a competent knowledge of the ordinary rules of arithmetic, including the rule of three, compound proportion, simple and compound interest, vulgar and decimal fractions, and the extraction of the square root. He should also have read the first three Books of Euclid.

3. In languages he should be able to translate into English, passages from Cæsar's Commentaries, or from the first four Books of Virgil's Æneid, and he will be further expected to parse, and show his knowledge of grammar and syntax.

The candidate will be required to translate from French into English, an extract from one of the following works, viz.: Telemachus, Voltaire's Charles the XII., and Peter the Great. But the candidate will have the option of being examined in the Hindustani, in lieu of the French language, and in that case he will be required to translate from Hindustani into English, an extract from one of the following works, viz.: Bagh-o-Buhar, Tota Kuhanee.

4. In history he should be prepared to pass an examination in Keightley's Histories of Greece and Rome, in Gleig's History of England, and in the History of British India, contained in vols. i. and ii. of the Edinburgh Cabinet Library.

5. In Geography he should possess a competent knowledge of the modern divisions of the world; the principal nations in Europe and Asia; the names of the capital of each nation in Europe, and of the chief cities of Hindostan; and the names and situations of the principal rivers and mountains in the world.

6. In fortification he should have read some elementary work on the subject (Straith's Introductory Essay to the Study of Fortification, or Macaulay's Field Fortification), and have received some instruction in Drawing.

The evidence to be required from candidates of their having

acquired "some knowledge of drawing," is that they shall trace correctly upon paper, in presence of the examiners, a front of fortication according to Vauban's first system, and also the profile of a rampart and parapet.

The examination of the candidates will take place before a Board of Examiners to be convened for that purpose at the Military College at Addiscombe, near Croydon.

If not found qualified on their first examination, they may be allowed a second trial within the next ensuing twelvemonths ; and if not then found qualified, their nominations will revert to their patrons, and they will be deemed ineligible for another nomination for a direct appointment.

If the candidate has been confirmed as a member of the Church of England, he will be required to make a declaration to that effect. If not so confirmed, or if not a member of the Church of England, he will be required to produce a certificate from a minister stating that he has been well instructed in the principles of the religion in which he has been brought up.

The candidate will also be required to produce testimonials of good moral conduct, under the hand of the principal or superior authority of the college or public institution in which he may have been educated, or under the hand of the private instructor to whose care he may have been confided,—and the said testimonials shall have reference to his conduct during the two years immediately preceding his presentation for admission.

Extracts Resolutions of the Court of Directors.

Resolved,—That any person who shall in future be nominated to a situation, either civil or military, in the service of this Company, and who shall have obtained such nomination in consequence of purchase or agreement to purchase, or of any corrupt practice whatever, either direct or indirect, by himself, or any other person with or without his privity, shall be rejected from the service of the Company, and ordered back to England, if he shall have proceeded to India before a discovery of such corrupt practice be made ; and if such situation shall have been so corruptly procured by himself, or with his privity, he shall be rendered incapable of holding that, or any other situation whatever in the said service. Provided always, that if a fair disclosure of any corrupt transaction or practice, of the nature before described, wherein any director has been concerned, shall be voluntarily made by the party or parties engaged in the same with such director, the appointment thereby procured shall be confirmed by the court.

Resolved,—That all direct cadets appointed or sworn in before the committee for passing military appointments between the 10th March and 10th June, or between the 10th September and 10th December (or the days which may be fixed on for the public examination of the seminary cadets), do rank after the seminary cadets who may pass their said examinations, provided the latter sail for their respective destinations within *three months* after passing their said examinations.

N.B.—All cadets who may be appointed between the dates of public examination at Addiscombe and the 10th of March or 10th September, will be allowed to rank from the date of their sailing, provided this takes place within three months after their being passed and sworn.

By resolutions of the Court of Directors, dated on the 14th March 1786, 8th April 1807, 30th August 1826, and 8th January 1836, all cadets appointed to the Company's service in Bengal are required to be become subscribers to the Military Orphan Society, and to the Military Widows' Fund, at that Presidency.

By a resolution of the Court of Directors, dated on the 30th April 1823, all cadets appointed to the Company's service at Fort St. George and Bombay are required to become subscribers to the Military Fund at their respective Presidencies.

Resolved by the ballot,—That it be a standing order of the Court in future, that all cavalry and infantry cadets and assistant surgeons who shall fail to apply at the cadet office for their orders for embarkation within three months from the date of their being passed and sworn before the committee, or shall not actually proceed under such orders, be considered as having forfeited their appointments, unless special circumstances shall justify the Court's departure from this regulation.

The forms of certificate required may be obtained at the cadet office.

When the whole of the said certificates, duly filled in and signed, are delivered at the cadet office, the authority for the cadet's examination at Addiscombe will be issued to the candidate.

If no parish register can be found, it is provided as follows, viz. :—

"That if no register can be found, a declaration, pursuant to the Act passed in the 5th and 6th year of his late Majesty William the Fourth, of that circumstance, shall be made by the party himself, with his information and belief, that his age is not under sixteen

years, and doth not exceed twenty-two years." (Act of the 33 Geo. III.) Forms of the declaration may be had on application to the clerk for passing cadets, &c., at the East India House.

When the cadet is ready to embark, he must apply to Mr. John Hollyer, clerk for passing cadets, &c., for a certificate of his having passed ; which certificate will direct him to the secretary's office, where he will obtain the certificate of his appointment. He will then hold himself in readiness to embark, either previous to the ship's departure from Gravesend, or at the last port from whence the ship shall be ordered to take her departure from England.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE NAVY.

THE navy is perhaps the most popular profession amongst a large class of young minds. The English navy, the glory of the empire, and the wonder and despair of the world, has been rendered not only interesting, by the English love of the sea, and centuries of victory, but familiar and fascinating by its life and adventures having been the base of a large portion of our best native literature. De Foe, Smollet, Dampier, Basil Hall, and Marryat, have perhaps done as much for the love of naval glory in the mind of the English, as was effected by the battles of Camperdown, Nile, or Trafalgar. This is the more effectual, inasmuch as a boy is sent to the service at an age when fiction in his mind has still the form and colour of reality. A professional taste is seldom more distinctly marked than a boy's passion for a sea life. It is shown in his amusements and the choice of his reading; but it behoves a fond parent to watch this predilection with care; few boys fully feel or comprehend the responsibility he undertakes, and in many cases a disposition for the naval service arises, from the desire to quit school, and the delight of wearing the uniform. Nor is the temptation to the parent much less. If application is made sufficiently early, a nomination to a cadetship is almost a certainty; the expense is not greater than that of school, a profession is obtained at an early age, and all trouble and responsibility transferred to others.

Of course, in choosing a profession for a son, a parent

naturally looks to the social position he chooses for his child. In the times of the old school, "the service was a service of privations." The discipline of the navy was formerly much more severe than at present. Difficulties of command are very few in the present day, compared with what the officers of the last war had to contend with; viz., pressed men, sweepings of gaols, were sent on board for every cruise, and every sort of trash from the receiving ships just before going to sea. Stronger measures must have been required than in the present day, to keep such men in order; to add to this, the men were worse fed, worse clothed, worse paid, and had fewer comforts than in the present day, and yet in most cases much harder worked. In the present day a man goes on board of his own free will, and unless he can show a good character, a moderate good stock of clothes, and if not a fine, able-bodied man, and an able seaman, is often rejected. He volunteers for five years, with a feeling almost amounting to certainty, that he will not be kept more than three, during which time he knows he will be fed well, have cheap and good clothing, never be over-worked, will be well lodged, and in the case of sickness, well attended to.

Such advantages have led much towards cultivating a milder mode of discipline. The present race do not perfectly understand what were the hardships, privations and inconveniences of the service formerly. Midshipmen in four watches, were unknown, in fact, they were nearly as often in two or three watches, from going away in prizes and various other duties; under such circumstances they could not have had too much time for study. Live stock was as little known in the midshipmen's mess, as four watches were on the quarter deck; the midshipman's boy of those days is now turned into midshipman's steward; the midshipman enjoys the services of a cook, and a boy, with a man to take his hammock up and down, and a marine to attend upon him, and look after his chest. These and numberless other improvements

are just what they ought to be, as the Admiralty are anxiously desirous of making situations of junior officers in every way more respectable and comfortable.

It is of course no part of the intention of this work to describe a sailor's professional duties—they are numerous, and require time to learn. But an officer who wishes to make a figure in the service, is in the present day called upon to make full use of his mind and abilities; the higher his attainments are, previous to joining the navy, the more likely he will be to become an ornament to his profession. There are now many scientific branches of the service required of naval officers. The navy is used not only for war, but for maritime purposes, and as a great scientific school in the art of navigation.*

A naval man is also called upon to fulfil a variety of duties of an extra-professional nature;—if he is possessed of abilities and habits of resource—if the station he is on is far from home—and if the times he lives in be critical, the scope of his public employments has no limit whatsoever. It includes at one time all the sinuosities of diplomacy, as well as the direct and obvious walks of business, which all the world are parties to, and can judge of; at another time, it embraces the most extensive military combinations; at a third, it requires the incurring the heaviest weight of official responsibility, without the power of appeal, and yet under the necessity of coming to an immediate decision. Every one knows what a load of extra labour fell to the share of Lord Collingwood in the Mediterranean; again for many years the whole of the diplomatic and consulate duties of South America (with the single exception of Brazil), were entrusted to the naval commander-in-chief, Sir Thomas Hardy, formerly Nelson's captain.†

From these remarks it will naturally be collected that a cadet ought to have the foundation of a good education, as far as his age will permit previous to his joining the

* Liardet. † Edin. Rev., vol. lxix., p. 128.

navy; the want of it will always, more or less, impede his progress through life, and prevent his making the advancement in the higher branches he would have done.

The lowest rank of naval officers, is the naval cadet. Naval cadets are appointed by the Lords of the Admiralty; and are admitted into her Majesty's naval service between the ages of twelve and fourteen.

Each flag-officer, being an admiral, or commander-in-chief, and each commodore of the first class being a commander-in-chief, is allowed to nominate *two* cadets on his appointment, and a captain on commissioning a ship, *one;* all others are nominated by the first Lord of the Admiralty. They must be in good health, fit for service, and able to write English (usually a page of the "Spectator") from dictation, and must be acquainted with the first four rules of Arithmetic, as well as Reduction, and the Rule of Three.

At these years it is not expected that any extraordinary progress should have been made in the academical studies of the naval service; but when he is destined for her Majesty's naval service, the parents or guardians of the youth should take especial precaution that he is not deficient in arithmetic, geography, and astronomy. A proficiency in the French language is also desirable. Nor should the naval aspirant be ignorant of the rudiments of drawing. This, though seldom considered as more than a refined accomplishment, becomes to the sea-officer an acquirement of the first importance. To other studies should be added the acquirement of a knowledge of the Scriptures, ancient history, and of the records connected with the rise and progress of British colonies.*

All young gentlemen who receive nominations as naval cadets at home must pass their examination at the Royal College at Portsmouth within two months of the date of the letter of nomination, and a certificate signed by the professor or mathematical master of the Royal Naval Colleges, approved by the captain-superintendent, together

* Glascock.

with a medical certificate of physical efficiency, according to the prescribed regulations, will be required to be forwarded to the Admiralty before any candidate can be entered as a naval cadet. The commander-in-chief at Portsmouth is authorised to enter each naval cadet as a supernumerary on board the flag-ship at that port, from the date of the candidate passing the required examination (pending an appointment from the Admiralty to a sea-going ship), granting not more than a month's leave to an out-going ship.

No candidate is allowed a *second* examination, and nominations are considered cancelled, unless the party obtains his certificate within the specified time of two months.*

When a naval cadet has served long enough to be rated as a midshipman, and a vacancy offers to him, he is examined by the captain and commander, when both are borne in a ship, and in other ships by the captain and commander, and the first lieutenant of a ship to which he shall belong, assisted by the naval instructor, if there be one on board; he must produce to them logs for the period he has served as a cadet, and his certificate of good conduct during that period; he must also afford to them satisfactory proof of his being fourteen years of age when he is examined by them, and they are to ascertain that he has a due knowledge of arithmetic, geometry, and trigonometry, and a practical acquaintance with the use of the quadrant, and the manner of taking observations for ascertaining the latitude and longitude therewith, and that he can keep a ship's reckoning by the common rules, also that he has a due knowledge of steering and managing a boat under oars and sails, and of knotting and splicing, &c. If his proficiency in these points is such as to prove satisfactory to the examining officers, they are to give him a certificate to that effect, and the cadet may be afterwards

* The passing day at the Royal Naval College, for naval cadets, is the second Wednesday in each month, at 9 a.m.

placed in any midshipman's vacancy offering for him; but if there is no vacancy, he may be rated and borne as extra midshipman until a vacancy occurs for him in the complement of midshipmen; but his vacancy as cadet is not filled up so long as he remains an extra midshipman.

When he has served two years as a midshipman, he is examined by the same examining officers, or of the same rank, assisted by the master, as to his progress in the knowledge of rigging of masts, bowsprit, &c.; in getting tops over and placing a lower cap; in setting up rigging; and especially as to the precautions required in staying the lower masts; in hoisting a quarter or stern boat up in a strong breeze with a sea on; in making a course or topsail in bending at sea; in shifting top-masts, sails, and yards at sea, and the effect of the sails on the ship, both in tacking and wearing; and also as to the progress he may have made in navigation. A certificate whereof is to be given by the examining officers, and a report thereof is made to the Secretary of the Admiralty in the quarterly returns. He is also examined by a gunnery lieutenant as to his proficiency in the gunnery, musket, and cutlass exercises; and at this examination, the midshipman is to show that his quadrant, or sextant, is in good order.

"The minimum allowance to a cadet in the present day is 40*l.* a year. Arrangements are usually made with the captain, either by lodging the amount with his banker or agent, or by an understanding that bills may be endorsed to a certain amount. It is much to be regretted that almost unlimited means have often of late been accorded to young cadets, who, ignorant of the real value of money, have squandered it to their own injury, as well as to those of their messmates of limited resources. Captain Liardet, in his valuable advice to midshipmen, considers an allowance of 40*l.* with the cadet's pay of 16*l.* 14*s.* 7*d.* (less 5*l.* for the naval instructor) making an yearly allowance of 51*l.* 14*s.* 7*d.* to be ample. 'Nothing,' says he, 'that I

can at present recollect above that sum will add to your efficiency in becoming a good naval officer.' "*

On his first embarkation, the naval cadet has little else to do than to keep his eyes open and his wits about him. The first lieutenant or commanding officer hands him over to the caterer of the midshipmen's mess. A steady man is appointed to sling his hammock, and to take it up and down, morning and evening. A private marine (provided the man's services can be voluntarily obtained) is also permitted to act in the capacity of a servant. This indulgence is now altered. In ships which bear a naval instructor, the hours from nine to half past eleven in the forenoon are exclusively devoted to the study of geometry and navigation; but a close application to mathematics is particularly recommended. Astronomy, geometry, and mechanics, are the materials which form the skilful navigator, and superior seaman. The theory of navigation is entirely derived from the two former, and all the machinery and movements of a ship are founded upon the latter. By careful captains, a petty officer, who is a thorough seaman, is generally appointed to teach the young gentlemen the art of knotting and splicing.

The young naval officer should every way endeavour to improve his professional knowledge. Every step he advances in those meritorious employments will facilitate accession to the next step in order. He will have to learn to overcome sea-sickness, to accustom himself to go aloft, to keep his log (*i. e.* to commit to writing according to formula the diurnal proceedings of the ship), to become acquainted with the meaning and effect of the watch, station, and quarter bills; to become gradually broken in, in the practical tuition of keeping watch, and to learn to manage his pecuniary matters judiciously.

The last remaining examination in the navy is that for the commission of lieutenant. Whenever a candidate is desirous of passing the necessary examination to qualify

* Editor of Glascock, 3rd edition.

himself for promotion, the commander-in-chief may give orders for his being examined by the proper officers, according to the following system; enjoining the examining officers to be very particular in their important duty, and to grant the required certificate to the candidate without partiality or favour.

A candidate for a lieutenant's commission is examined by three captains or commanders; but as a midshipman is allowed to take rank as mate from the date of his passing his examination for lieutenant, and as the ship to which a midshipman belongs may be separated for a considerable period from the commander-in-chief, the captain or commander of the ship in which the midshipman may be serving, with the senior lieutenant or second officer, and the master or second master (according to the class of ship and rank of officers on board of her), assisted by the naval instructor, if there be one on board, may proceed to examine such midshipman as to his qualification, to perform the duties of a lieutenant of Her Majesty's navy; and if they find him to be in their opinion duly qualified, they are to give him a certificate to that effect, dated on the day of such examination, and the captain may forthwith give him an acting order as mate; and if, on the first opportunity that shall afterwards offer for his being re-examined, under the commander-in-chief's order, by three captains or commanders as before required, he passes successfully, he will receive from the commander-in-chief, or the senior officer, an acting order as mate, to take rank according to the date of the first certificate; and if he passes his examination successfully at the naval college, within two months after his return to England, or proves to the satisfaction of the admiralty his having availed himself of the first opportunity of passing such examination, he will be confirmed from the date of his first certificate, according to the Queen's regulations.* The candidates are, however, at liberty to select either the first, second, or third ex-

* Chap. 2, Art. 4, page 13.

amination-day at the Royal Naval College after their arrival in England, or being on a ship under orders to be paid off, on the first, second, or third examination day after having been so paid off. If rejected on any examination day, officers incur the forfeiture of *three* months seniority in their rank as mates, instead of being allowed to take seniority from the date of their passing in seamanship; a second rejection will incur the forfeiture of *six* months seniority, and a third rejection nine months (in the whole). All other cases are specially dealt with by the Board of Admiralty. The non-appearance of officers at examination has a similar effect on seniority. Similar rules apply to acting lieutenants failing or not appearing.*

In these examinations the college sheet, or examination papers at the Royal Naval College, contains questions on the theory of navigation and astronomy, also on the prevailing winds and currents of the ocean, and on the practical application of the rules of navigation and astronomy to surveying and other nautical purposes, in order to test the knowledge and qualifications of all officers passing at the Royal Naval College.†

When a candidate for the appointment of lieutenant is to be examined, the examining officers see that everything required by the Queen's regulations has been complied with, as regards the candidate, and that he produce certificates of good conduct from captains he has served under, for six years, and log-books kept by himself for the corresponding periods; and they are to satisfy themselves on the ability of the candidates to take charge of a watch at sea, to manage a ship in all situations, to steer her, and to rig her, to get tops and caps over head, to raise and secure sheers, &c. and to keep a reckoning, in order to ascertain her position by observation; that he has a due knowledge of mathematics, and of the theories of navigation, and of ascertaining the latitude and the longitude,

* Orders of Admiralty, August, 1853.
† Orders of Admiralty, Dec. 1855.

the variation of the compass, &c., by all the modes in use; also a competent knowledge of practical gunnery, and that he can generally exercise the various duties of a sea officer. In the examination, however, of a candidate while in England, his knowledge of navigation, astronomy, and gunnery, need not be inquired into by the examining officers, as he will have to undergo those branches of his examination at the Naval College, and on board the "Excellent."

Since the introduction of the steam-engine into the navy, the Lords of the Admiralty have taken into consideration the examination of officers on subjects connected with the steam-engine, with a view to ascertain their competency to be registered as "steam-officers." No officer is so registered, until he has passed an examination at the Royal Naval College at Portsmouth, on the subjects mentioned below. An officer, whether he has acquired his knowledge in one of Her Majesty's Dockyards, or at the factories of private individuals, or has studied at the Royal Naval College or not, is at liberty to present himself for examination on the days fixed for the purpose, on giving timely notice to the captain-superintendent of the college of his intention so to present himself. The examinations take place once in every three months, at the time fixed for the present quarterly examinations, and they are conducted by the professor of the college in the presence of the admiral-superintendent of the dockyard, and the captain-superintendent of the college. The examinations are now carried on at Woolwich as well as at Portsmouth. The printed examination papers embrace subjects of a practical nature, and are prepared at the college at Portsmouth, and are sent to Woolwich in order that the examinations may be similar.*

* The following is the curriculum of examination :—

1. The elements of geometry, mechanics, and dynamics.
2. The laws of heat.
3. The application of these branches of science to the steam-engine.
4. The name and use of every part of the engine, boilers, &c.
5. Construction and principle of the engine and boilers ; explanation of steam, economy of fuel, resulting from the application of the prin-

Another service connected with the navy is that of the marines. The cadets in that service are admitted to the Royal Naval College as fellows.

Each cadet * is expected to give security for the payment of such a sum to the accountant-general of the Navy as may be fixed upon, and to take with him, when he appears for examination, a certificate of his age, a certificate of good conduct from the masters of the schools at which he studied for the last three years, or (in the event of his having been privately educated) from the clergyman of his parish, or some person competent to judge of, and to certify to, general good conduct. A solemn declaration by his nearest of kin that, to the best of his or her belief, he does not suffer from, nor has been subject to, any disease, or infirmity of mind or body which may incapacitate him from the perfect performance of his duty as an officer in the Royal Marine corps, and a certificate from one of the principal medical officers of the Naval Hospital at Haslar, of sound bodily health,and that he does not stammer, and has no other physical defect.

No cadet will receive a commission unless he be able to go through at least the examination now required, together with the short course of theoretical and practical gunnery now established in the "Excellent," with a knowledge of the great gun exercise, the use of the sextant, nor unless he has acquired a competent knowledge of field fortification, and mechanical drawing.

Cadets will not be permitted to remain more than two years on board the "Excellent," or at the College, unless they have passed their final examination; but they will, during the second year of their cadetship, provided they

ciple, and under certain circumstances, from the employment of reduced power.

6. The nature, application, and uses of the indicator.

* Qualifications for marine cadets—age not less than 16, nor exceeding 21 years; height not less than five feet four inches; constitution approved by the inspector-general of the navy. Marine cadets must be nominated between 15 and 19 years of age, and must be prepared to pass such examination as the Lords of the Admiralty may deem fit to require.

can pass the requisite examination, be eligible for such commissions as may become vacant during the year. If appointments are made before the examination at the end of the second year, the half-yearly examination immediately previous to the occurrence of the vacancy is the test of ability; but, in all cases, the candidate must have reached the points fixed in paragraph numbered 2, to entitle him to an appointment, and will be placed on the list of officers according to the ability shown in such examination.

No cadet will be allowed to proceed to the College until he has passed through the whole plan of instruction laid down for marine cadets in the "Excellent," and he will not be received at the College unless he produce a certificate of good conduct from the captain of the "Excellent."

All the examinations are to be carried on by the professor at the Royal Naval College under the direction of the commander of the "Excellent."

4. Cadets, during the first year of their appointment, will not be eligible for a commission if there are any cadets in their second year who can pass the requisite examination.

5. Cadets are to be subject to naval discipline, to receive the same pay as mates, to mess with them, and to to be considered in all respects as quarter-deck petty officers.

6. Cadets are to wear the dress-coat of the corps of Royal Marines, without lace, ornament, or epaulette, in lieu of which they are to wear shoulder-straps of plain gold cord, trousers according to regulation, and dress cap.

7. In undress they are to wear the blue frock-coat of the corps, without shoulder straps, grey cloth trousers, or white drill-trousers, according to regulations. Forage-cap with cover.*

* Each cadet on presenting himself for examination on board H.M.S. "Excellent," should be prepared with a sum not less than 40*l.* for an outfit, and 10*l.* for mess, washing, and other expenses.

Plan of examination for candidates previous to admission as marine cadets on board H.M.S. "Excellent"—First four rules of arithmetic and algebra,

Among other advantages enjoyed by the officers of the navy, is admission for their sons to the upper school of the Royal Hospital at Greenwich.

By the regulations for admission, this school comprises two classes of candidates.

1st. One hundred sons of commissioned and ward-room warrant-officers of the royal navy and marines.

2nd. Three hundred sons of officers of the above or inferior rank, and of private seamen or marines, who have served, or are serving in the royal navy; and of officers or seamen in the merchant service; to be nominated in such manner as may from time to time be directed by the Lords of the Admiralty, such nominations to be filled up within six weeks after they are reported, or to be held as refused vacancies. The nomination thus presented is transmitted to the secretary, who causes the candidates to be summoned for examination, in order to determine their qualifications for admission.

The whole four hundred boys are subject to the same regulations as to education, diet, clothing, discipline, and destination.

No boy is admitted who is not possessed of the necessary qualifications, which are to read fluently, write small text well, perform the rules of addition, subtraction, and

tables of weight, measure, and money, reduction, and rule of three; to write correctly from dictation.

Examinations to be made at the college, subsequent to entry as marine cadets.

1st. Half-yearly examination: arithmetic, algebra, up to simple equations; Euclid, books 1 and 2.

2nd. Half-yearly examination: arithmetic, algebra, including quadratic equations; Euclid's elements, books, 1, 2, 3, and 4. Proofs of rules in trigonometry, and the construction of logarithmic tables.

3rd. Half-yearly examination: arithmetic, algebra, Euclid's elements, books 1, 2, 3, and 4, and portions of books 6 and 11; application of trigonometry to the determinations of heights, distances, &c., with the use of logarithmic tables. Half-yearly examination: arithmetic, algebra, Euclid's elements, trigonometry, theoretical and practical; mensuration of planes and solids; problems in gunnery.

No candidate is allowed to remove to the Royal Naval College until the first year on board the "Excellent" has expired, at the end of which time, if he pass a satifactory examination in the whole of the course proposed, he may commence study there.

multiplication, with facility and accuracy, and to be free from any infirmity of body or mind.

The age of admission is from ten to eleven years of age.

Not more than one child of the same father is admitted, unless under special circumstances by order of the Board of Admiralty.

The education in this school embraces such mathematical instruction as is necessary for a proper knowledge of the principles of navigation, nautical astronomy, the theory and practice of marine surveying, construction of charts, and the practical use of instruments for magnetical and astronomical purposes, together with the usual elements of an English education, and a proper regard to religious instruction. Children belonging to other religious denominations are allowed to attend their own places of worship.*

The disadvantages of the navy consist principally in the separation from home, the danger of the service, the number of years the officer is receiving only nominal pay. Another drawback is, that unless the officer has interest, or the country is at war, his promotion, after being regular through many steps, is likely to stop at that of commander, and he has a great chance of being ashore many years on half-pay without employment.

* It is necessary, in all cases, to produce the following certificates :—

1. Certificate of the marriage of the parents, or, if not attainable, other satisfactory proofs thereof.

2. Certificate of the date of birth, or a declaration thereof.

3. Certificate of the father's servitude at sea, which, if in the navy, will be procured by the clerk of the cheque; and if in the merchant service, the guardians of the boy are to procure it from the collector of customs at the port out of which his father sailed. List of patrons: For the first 100, who must be the sons of commissioned officers of ward-room rank, the Board of Admiralty.

The remaining 300 boys are nominated by rotation, as vacancies occur, by the Lords of the Admiralty individually, the Secretary of the Admiralty, Governor of Greenwich Hospital, Lieutenant-Governor of Greenwich Hospital, Commissioners of Greenwich Hospital, individually; to whom applications for presentations should be preferred.

But information to parents, as to the patrons who have presentations according to the description of claim possessed by the applicant, is given by the Assistant Secretary of Greenwich Hospital. When a presentation is obtained, due notice is given to the nominee to appear at Greenwich Hospital for examination and admission.

At the same time in point of pay, half-pay and emoluments the navy has the advantage of the army. The encouragement given to the navy from its first regular establishment has been marked as a popular service in the minds of the public. The sea-pay, and the half-pay, have always been superior, but subject to the fluctuations in every reign, and to frequent changes in the same reign. The pay of the army has remained more constant. Thus, King William, in 1693, gave to an admiral 4*l.* a day, a vice-admiral 3*l.*, and a rear-admiral 2*l.*, which, with the compensation for servants, amounted to more than their present pay; yet their allowances were still further increased in 1700, till a reduction took place in consequence of an address from the Commons. From that time to the present very little alteration has taken place. A table of navy pay will be found in the Appendix.

In addition to the half-pay, &c., the navy has more particularly the chance of prize-money, which but seldom falls to the chance of the army, except in conjoint expeditions. On the commencement of a war a proclamation is issued by the Queen, directing that the net produce of all prizes taken by any ships of war shall be for the entire benefit and encouragement of flag-officers, captains, commanders, and other non-commissioned officers, and of the seamen, marines, and soldiers on board at the time of the capture; and directing also in what manner the distribution shall be made. Many very handsome, and, in some instances, splendid fortunes have been made by the capture of enemy's ships.*

Another grand encouragement for young men to enter the naval services arises from the honours bestowed by the sovereign for brilliant exploits. Thus, in consequence of the skill and bravery which were exhibited in the great and glorious action of the 1st June, 1794, Earl Howe received the Garter; Admiral Graves and Sir Alexander Hood were made Barons of the Kingdom of

* Encyclopædia Britannica, Tit. Navy.

Ireland; and Rear-Admirals Bowyer, Gardner, and Paskey, together with Sir Roger Curtis, captain of the "Queen Charlotte," were created baronets. Gold medals and chains were also distributed to such admirals, and gold medals to such captains, as were particularised in Lord Howe's despatches. The first lieutenants of each ship were promoted to the rank of commanders, and pensions of 1000*l.* a year each were granted to the rear-admirals in consideration of loss of limbs.

For the action of the 14th of February, 1797, Lord St. Vincent was advanced to the dignity of an Earl, and a pension was granted him of 3000*l.* a year; Vice-Admirals Thompson and Parker were created baronets; Commodore Nelson received the order of the Bath, and Captain Calder, of the "Victory," the honour of Knighthood; and gold medals were distributed to the admirals and captains.

For the action of the 11th of October, 1797, Admiral Dundas was created a viscount, with a pension of 2000*l.* a year; Vice-Admiral Onslow was made a baronet; and Captain Fairfax had the honour of knighthood; gold medals were distributed to the admirals and captains.

For the action of the 1st of August, 1798, Sir Horatio Nelson was raised to the peerage, by the title of Baron Nelson of the Nile; the first lieutenant of the "Majestic" was made a captain; and the first lieutenants of the other ships were promoted to the rank of commanders. And for the attack of the Danish fleet at Copenhagen Lord Nelson was raised to the dignity of a viscount; and the order of the Bath was conferred on Admiral Graves.

So, after the victory of Trafalgar, in which Lord Nelson fell in the arms of victory, his brother was raised to the rank of an earl, with a pension of 5000*l.*; and the sum of 120,000*l.* was voted by parliament to purchase an estate to be annexed to the title. This person showed his sense of his vicarious honours by turning Lady Hamilton out of doors and leaving her to starve. At the same time Collingwood was made a baron, Lord Northesk

was honoured by the order of the Bath; and Captain Hardy was created a baronet. The captains received medals, five lieutenants were made captains, and twenty-four commanders; twenty-two midshipmen were made lieutenants; and the senior captain of marines was made brevet-major.

In the secondary victories of Sir John Warren, Sir John Duckworth, Sir Robert Calder, Sir Richard Strahan, Lord Gambier, and Lord Exmouth, and even for brilliant actions of single ships, appropriate distinctions have never been withheld (though often long delayed; the medals for the action between the "Chesapeake" and the "Shannon" were distributed only a few years ago, when most of the survivors had died from age). For the services of the fleet in the Black Sea, Sir Edmund Lyons has been made a peer. Exclusive of peerages and baronetcies, the honours bestowed for gallant conduct in the naval service consist of grand crosses of the Bath, knights commanders and companions of the Bath.

The officers of the navy are also eligible to the Victoria cross, which is a decoration accorded only to persons performing acts of valour in actual service; it carries with it a small pension, which is repeated for every clasp additional that is given for subsequent acts of courage.

As in the army, the officers of the navy are entitled to pensions for good services and wounds, and a provision is made for widows after the officer's death, provided she has been married more than one year, unless the husband has been killed or drowned in the service. The reasonability of this rule it is difficult to see—a young widow, with perhaps a young child, requires the necessaries of life quite as much as a more elderly matron. The object of the rule cannot be to prevent fraud. It is impossible to conceive a man fraudulently entering into matrimony with a view to his own death; or having honestly married, "of malice aforethought" leaving this world for a better, in order to provide his widow with a pension. Scarcely less reasonable is the rule that the

widow of the officer who marries after sixty years of age shall not be entitled to the Widow's pension. Is, then, the gallant sailor, worn out in the service of his country, to be discouraged from enjoying the well-earned comforts of home, by the reflection that his widow will want after his death? The widow's pension is a gift of grace, not a right. How much more gratefully might it be accorded to the woman who makes some sacrifice to comfort the declining days of a worthy man, than to the woman who married the husband of her choice in the days of youth and joy? The latter marries for her own happiness, the former for that of another. Such a rule must be of great discouragement to a service made up of toil and hardship. Under certain regulations, where the officer leaves no widow, and is killed in action, a provision similar to the widow's pension is made for his mother and sisters in distressed circumstances, and dependent upon the officer.

CHAPTER IX.

THE MERCANTILE MARINE.

A FEW years ago any attempt to deal with the mercantile marine as a profession would have been treated with contempt, especially by the Queen's officer, and also by that portion of the community, who are deeply indebted to it for prosperity—the mercantile world. With few exceptions, the ships were small in burden; and being built principally with a view to capacity, were clumsy in construction, and indifferently manned. Little more, therefore, than sufficient knowledge of navigation and seamanship to enable the master to reach the intended port was required of him. The profits of the undertaking were not such as gave an opportunity of high pay; unless the master was part owner he had little hope of raising his position in a worldly point of view. The officers of such vessels followed the system they had to deal with. They were ignorant almost of everything except practical seamanship, coarse in habit, vulgar in manners, little raised above the ordinary seaman. They had obtained their entrance to their calling as apprentices, or had as often been bred before the mast. The race of skippers consequently occupied no recognised position, and were abundantly despised by the owners and merchants in the ports they frequented.

It is the invention of steam that seems to have wrought the greatest change in this calling, in fact, raised it to the condition of a profession; though the opening of the India trade, and the building of vessels of large burden, and long

voyages, had already introduced a new class of seamen of superior manners and educated under an improved system. But with the invention of steam came the desire of speed in all classes of mercantile vessels, the consequent improvement of the form of the vessel, the introduction of great circle sailing, and the necessity for an accurate knowledge of navigation and other sciences. India, Australia, California, and Eastern America, have called for a large passenger traffic, employing great numbers of vessels of the largest and most admired construction, and requiring to be handled by a body of officers not inferior in instruction and knowledge to the Queen's officer. England now possesses a peaceful marine that is rival in the size and class of vessels to the navy itself. The development of passenger-traffic has necessitated an improvement in the manners of the officers, who have constantly to mingle with a refined class, that the skipper of former days seldom met with. Again the great wealth and success of certain owners have enabled them to create, as it were, private services of their own, educating their own apprentices, and promoting them in their own vessels according to a regular gradation.

But the size of vessels, the complication of machinery, and the wealth and lives interested in a single bottom are constantly increasing, and of course with the responsibility the consequent necessary acquirements of the officer.

All these things are patent to, and felt by the public: the mercantile marine has become a profession, and one in which both fortune and honour are to be gained. A different class of young men are becoming candidates for vacancies amongst the cadetships of the better class of ships,—young men of fair previous education, and good family, whose brothers are enrolled amongst the learned professions; and landed proprietors are the future commanders of our Himalayas and Great Easterns, and who in general society will in future assert their position, not in spite, but in consequence of their calling. The provincial merchant, who regards the curate as "a poor

beggar," may still pretend to despise the "skipper:" the rest of the public will not.

The usual age of entering the mercantile marine in the better services is between thirteen and fifteen years, so that there is time for a considerable amount of school education. Of course that education ought to be of a practical kind, especially arithmetic, mathematics, political and physical geography, languages, and perhaps the elementary portions of navigation. Some owners require a certain proficiency to be ascertained by examination before accepting apprentices.

To get a berth for a lad generally requires an introduction to the owner, and even then it is often difficult to find a vacancy.

After the youth is placed, if a premium is not paid for the whole term of servitude, it is paid for the three first voyages, generally 60*l.* the first voyage, 50*l.* the second, and 40*l.* the third. The apprentice receives a nominal pay which scarcely suffices for pocket money.

The expenses are those of outfit and subscription to the mess fund; both the sums vary according to the length of the voyage, the intended climate, and class of vessel that he is to sail in; but they are in general heavy, and for the first voyage, if we include the premium, a minimum sum of 150*l.* will be required, though it will in general amount to 200*l.*

Under the provisions of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854 no "foreign-going ship" nor "home-trade passenger Ship"* can obtain a clearance or transire, or legally proceed to sea, from any port in the United Kingdom unless the master thereof, and in the case of a foreign-going ship, the first and second mates, or only mate (as the

* By a "foreign-going Ship" is meant one which is bound to some place out of the United Kingdom beyond the limits included between the River Elbe and Brest; by a "home-trade passenger Ship" is meant any Home Trade Ship employed in carying passengers; and it is to be observed that Foreign Steam Ships when employed in carrying passengers between places in the United Kingdom are subject to all the provisions of the Act as regards Certificates of Masters and Mates, to which British Steam Ships are subject (s. 291).

case may be), and in the case of a "home-trade passenger ship," the first or only mate (as the case may be), have obtained and possess valid certificates, either of competency or service, appropriate to their several stations in such ships, or of a higher grade; and no such ship, if of one hundred tons burden or upwards, can legally proceed to sea, unless at least one officer besides the master has obtained and possesses a valid certificate, appropriate to the grade of only mate therein, or to a higher grade; and every person who, having been engaged to serve as master, or as first or second or only mate of any "foreign-going ship," or as master or first or only mate of a "home-trade passenger ship," goes to sea, as such master or mate without being at the time entitled to, and possessed of such a certificate as the Act requires, or who employs any person as master, or first, second, or only mate of any "foreign-going ship," or as master, or first, or only mate of any "home-trade passenger ship," without ascertaining that he is at the time entitled to and possessed of such certificate, for each offence incurs a penalty not exceeding fifty pounds.

2. Every certificate of competency for a "foreign-going ship" is to be deemed to be of a higher grade than the corresponding certificate for a "home-trade passenger ship," and entitles the lawful holder to go to sea in the corresponding grade in such last-mentioned ship; but no certificate for a "home-trade passenger ship" entitles the holder to go to sea as master or mate of a "foreign-going ship."

3. A certificate of service entitles an officer, who had already served as either master or mate in a British "foreign-going ship" before the 1st January, 1851, or as master or mate in a "home-trade passenger ship" before the 1st January, 1854, to serve in those capacities again; and it also entitles an officer who has attained or attains the rank of lieutenant, master, passed mate, or second master, or any higher rank in the service of her Majesty, or of the East India Company, to serve as master of a British merchant ship, and may be had by application to the

Registrar-general of seamen, Custom House, London, or to any shipping master in the outports, on the transmission and verification of the necessary certificates and testimonials.

4. Certificates of competency will be granted to those persons who pass the requisite examinations, and otherwise comply with the requisite conditions. For this purpose examiners have been appointed under the Local Marine Boards, and arrangements have been made for holding the examinations at the under-mentioned ports upon the days specified against them; and these days are so arranged for general convenience, that a candidate wishing to proceed to sea, and missing the day at his own port, may proceed to another port where an examination is coming forward. The days for commencing the examinations at the various ports are as follows:—

Places.	Days.
Aberdeen*	Fridays and Saturdays in the first and third week in each month.
Belfast	First and third Tuesday in each month.
Bristol*	First Friday and third Tuesday in each month.
Cork	Fourth Monday in each month.
Dublin	First and third Thursday in each month.
Dundee*	Saturday in each week.
Glasgow*	Thursdays, held alternately at each place.
Greenock	Thursdays, held alternately at each place.
Hull*	Second Tuesday in each month.
Leith*	Second Tuesday and third Saturday in each month.
Liverpool*	Monday, Tuesday, Thursday, and Friday in each week.
London*	Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, in navigation; Thursday, Friday, and Saturday in seamanship.
Newcastle*	First day of each month, not being Sunday.
Shields*	Tenth day of each month, not being Sunday.
Sunderland*	Twentieth day of each month, not being Sunday.
Plymouth*	Third Wednesday in each month.

5. Applicants for examination must give their names to the shipping-master, or to the Local Marine Board at the place where they intend to be examined, on or before the day of examination, and must conform to any regula-

* At these places extra examinations are held.

tions in this respect which may be laid down by the Local Marine Board; and if this be not done, delay may be occasioned.

6. Testimonials of character, and of sobriety, experience, ability, and good conduct on board ship will be required of all applicants, and without producing them no person will be examined. As such testimonials may have to be forwarded to the office of the Registrar-general of seamen in London for verification before any certificates can be granted, it is desirable that candidates should lodge them as early as possible. Upon application to the shipping-master candidates will be supplied with a form, which they will be required to fill up and lodge with their testimonials in the hands of the examiners.

7. The examinations will commence early in the forenoon on the days before mentioned, and be continued from day to day until all the candidates whose names appear upon the shipping-master's list on the day of examination are examined.

8. The qualifications required for the several ranks under-mentioned, are as follow:—

Qualifications for Certificates of Competency for a "foreign-going ship."

(*a.*) A SECOND MATE must be seventeen years of age, and must have been four years at sea.

In Navigation.—He must write a legible hand, and understand the four first rules of arithmetic and the use of logarithms. He must be able to correct the courses steered for variation and lee-way, and find the difference of latitude and longitude therefrom; be able to correct the sun's declination for longitude, and find his latitude by meridian altitude of the sun; and work such other easy problems of a like nature as may be put to him. He must understand the use of the sextant, and be able to observe with it, and read off the arc.

In Seamanship.—He must give satisfactory answers as

to the rigging and unrigging of ships, stowing of holds, &c.; must understand the measurement of the log-line, glass, and lead-line; be conversant with the rules of the road, as regards both steamers and sailing vessels, and the lights carried by them.

(*b.*) An ONLY MATE must be eighteen years of age, and have been four years at sea.

In Navigation.—In addition to the qualification required for a second mate, an only mate must be able to work a day's work complete, including the bearings and distance of the port he is bound to by Mercator's method. He must be able to observe and calculate the amplitude of the sun, and deduce the variation therefrom. He must know how to lay off the place of the ship on the chart, both by bearings of known objects, and by latitude and longitude. He must be able to use the sextant and determine its error, and adjust it, and find the time of high water from the known time at full and change.

In Seamanship.—In addition to what is required for a second mate, he must know how to moor and unmoor, and keep a clear anchor; to carry out an anchor; to stow a hold; and to make the requisite entries in the ship's log.

(*c.*) A FIRST MATE must be nineteen years of age, and have served five years at sea, of which one year must have been as either second or only mate, or as both.*

In Navigation.—In addition to the qualification required for an only mate, he must be able to observe azimuths and compute the variation; to compare chronometers and keep their rates, and find the longitude by them from an observation by the sun; to work the latitude by single altitude of the sun off the meridian; and be able to use and adjust the sextant by the sun.

In Seamanship.—In addition to the qualifications required for an only mate, a more extensive knowledge of seamanship will be required, as to shifting large spars and sails, managing a ship in stormy weather, taking in and

* Service in a superior capacity is in all cases to be equivalent to service in an inferior capacity.

making sail, shifting yards and masts, &c., and getting cargo in and out; getting heavy spars and weights, anchors, &c., in and out; casting a ship on a lee-shore; and securing the masts in the event of accident to the bowsprit.

(*d.*) A MASTER must be twenty-one years of age, and have been six years at sea, of which one year must have been as first or only mate, and one year as second mate; or two years as first and only mate.*

In addition to the qualification for a first mate he must be able to find the latitude by a star, &c. He will be asked questions as to the nature of the attraction of the ship's iron upon the compass, and as to the method of determining it. He must possess a sufficient knowledge of what he is required to do by law, as to entry and discharge, and the management of his crew; as to penalties and entries to be made in the official log. He will be questioned as to his knowledge of invoices, charter-party, Lloyd's agent, and as to the nature of bottomry, and he must be acquainted with the leading lights of the channel he has been accustomed to navigate, or which he is going to use.

In cases where an applicant for a certificate as master ordinary has only served in a fore and aft rigged vessel, and is ignorant of the management of a square rigged vessel, he may obtain a certificate on which the words "*fore and aft rigged vessel*" will be written. This is not, however, to apply to mates, who, being younger men, are expected for the future to learn their business completely.

(*e.*) AN EXTRA MASTER'S EXAMINATION is intended for such persons as wish to prove their superior qualifications. Before being examined for an extra master's certificate an applicant must have served one year either as a master with an *ordinary certificate of competency*, or as a master having a *first class certificate* granted by one of the former board of examiners.

* Service in a superior capacity is in all cases to be equivalent to service in an inferior capacity.

In Navigation.—As the vessels which such masters will command, frequently make long voyages, to the East Indies, the Pacific, &c., the candidate will be required to work a lunar observation by both sun and star, to determine the latitude by the moon and star, by Polar star off the meridian, and also by double altitude of the sun, and to verify the result by Sumner's method. He must be able to calculate the altitudes of the sun or star when they cannot be observed, for the purposes of lunars,—to find the error of a watch by the method of equal altitudes,—and to correct the altitudes observed with an artificial horizon.

He must understand how to observe and apply the deviation of the compass; and to deduce the set and rate of the current from the D. R. and observation. He will be required to explain the nature of great circle sailing, and know how to apply practically that knowledge; but he will not be required to go into the calculations. He must be acquainted with the law of storms, so far as to know how he may probably best escape those tempests common to the East and West Indies, and known as hurricanes.

In Seamanship.—The extra examination will consist of an inquiry into the competency of the party to heave a ship down, in case of accidents befalling her abroad; to get lower masts and other heavy weights in and out; how to construct rafts, and as to his resources for the preservation of the ship's crew in the event of wreck, and in such operations of a like nature as the examiner may consider necessary.

Qualifications for Certificates of Competency for "Home-trade passenger ships."

(*a.*) A MATE must write a legible hand, and understand the first four rules of arithmetic. He must know and understand the rules of the road, and describe and show that he understands the Admiralty regulations as to lights. He must be able to take a bearing by compass, and prick

off the ship's course on a chart. He must know the marks in the lead-line, and be able to work and heave the log.

(*b.*) A MASTER must have served one year as a mate in the foreign or home trade. In addition to the qualifications required for a mate, he must show that he is capable of navigating a ship along any coast, for which purpose he will be required to draw upon a chart produced by the examiner the courses and distance he would run along shore from headland to headland, and to give in writing the courses and distances corrected for variation, and the bearings of the headlands and lights, and when the courses should be altered either to clear any dangers or to adapt it to the coast. He must understand how to make his soundings according to the state of the tide.

General Rules as to Examinations and Fees.

9. The candidates will be allowed to work out the various problems according to the method and the tables they have been accustomed to use, and will be allowed five hours to perform the work; at the expiration of which, if they have not finished, they will be declared to have failed, unless the Local Marine Board see fit to extend the time.

Fees to be Paid by Applicants for Examination.

10. The fee for examination must be paid to the shipping-master. If a candidate fail in his examination, half the fee he has paid will be returned to him by the shipping-master on his producing a document which will be given him by the examiner. The fees are as follow:—

FOR FOREIGN-GOING SHIPS.

Second Mate	£1	0	0
First and Only Mate, if previously possessing an inferior certificate	0	10	0
If not	1	0	0
Master, whether Extra or Ordinary	2	0	0

FOR HOME-TRADE PASSENGER SHIPS.

Mate	£0 10 0
Master	1 0 0

11. Any one who has been one year in possession of a master's first-class certificate granted by one of the former boards of examiners, or of an ordinary master's certificate of competency granted under the present examiners, may pass an extra examination, and receive an extra certificate in exchange for his former one, without payment of any fee; but if he fails in his first examination he must pay half a master's fee on his coming a second time; and the same sum for every subsequent attempt.

12. If the applicant passes he will receive a document from the examiner, which will entitle him to receive his certificate of competency from the shipping-master at the port to which he has directed it to be forwarded. If his testimonials have been sent to the registrar to be verified, they will be returned with his certificate.

13. If an applicant is examined for a higher rank and fails, but passes an examination of a lower grade, he may receive a certificate accordingly, but no part of the fee will be returned.

14. In all cases of complete failure the candidate must be re-examined *de novo*, and in case of failure in *Seamanship* a candidate will not be re-examined *until after a lapse* of SIX MONTHS, to give him time to gain experience.

15. As the examinations of masters and mates are made compulsory, the qualifications have been kept as low as possible; but it must be distinctly understood that it is the intention of the Board of Trade to raise the standard from time to time, whenever, as will no doubt be the case, the general attainments of officers in the merchant service shall render it possible to do so without inconvenience; and officers are strongly urged to employ their leisure hours, when in port, in the acquirement of the knowledge necessary to enable them to pass their examinations; and

masters will do well to permit apprentices and junior officers to attend schools of instruction, and to afford them as much time for this purpose as possible.

Examinations in Steam.

16. Arrangements have been made for giving to those masters or first or only mates who possess certificates of competency, or who may apply for such certificates, and who desire it, an opportunity of undergoing an examination as to their practical knowledge of the use and working of the steam-engine. These examinations will be conducted under the superintendence of the Local Marine Boards, at such times as they may appoint for the purpose; and the examiners will be selected by the Board of Trade, from the engineer surveyors appointed under the Act. The examination will not comprise intricate theoretical questions, but will be such as to satisfy the examiner that the applicant is competent to control the working of the engine, and has such a knowledge of the ordinary parts of the machinery as will enable him to judge of the nature of an accident, and, in the absence of the engineer, to give the necessary directions in the engine-room. The practice will be as follows: The applicant must deliver to the shipping-master a statement in writing to the effect that he wishes to be examined in steam. If he is about to pass an examination in navigation, the statement must be on or annexed to the form EE;* if the applicant has a certificate of competency, the statement must be delivered to the shipping-master with his certificate, so that due notice may be given to the examiner, and so that the Board of Trade on receiving it may have the means of indorsing on his certificate and recording the fact that he has "*Passed in Steam.*" He must also, at the same time pay a fee of 1*l.*, which will be applied in remunerating the examiners. Notice will

* One of the forms to be filled up by candidates, and obtained from the Board of Trade, the shipping-master, or the Local Marine Board.

be given of the time at which the applicant is to attend to be examined; and if he passes, the result of the examination will be reported to the Board of Trade, and his certificate of competency will be issued or returned to him, as the case may be, with an indorsement as above-mentioned, showing that he has "*Passed in Steam.*" If he fails, no notice of the failure will be recorded on the certificate, but *no part of the fee will be returned.*

17. Full directions as to the course of examination in steam, and the qualifications required of candidates, are contained in the instructions issued to engineer surveyors appointed as examiners at the larger ports and from them therefore detailed information can be obtained.

CHAPTER X.

THE PUBLIC CIVIL SERVICE.—GREAT BRITAIN AND INDIA.

THE Civil Service is divided into two portions: 1. That portion which has to change with the political changes of the day; and 2. The permanent Civil Service. The latter is the only portion that we have to deal with here.

It cannot be necessary to enter into any lengthened argument for the purpose of showing the high importance of the permanent Civil Service to the country in the present day. The great and increasing accumulation of public business, and the consequent pressure upon the government, need only to be alluded to; and the inconveniences which are inseparable from the frequent changes which take place in the responsible administration, are matter of sufficient notoriety. It may safely be asserted, that as matters now stand, the government of the country could not be carried on without the aid of an efficient body of permanent officers, occupying a position duly subordinate to the Crown and the parliament, yet possessing sufficient independence, character, ability, and experience, to be able to advise, assist, and to some extent, influence those who are from time to time set over them.

It would be natural to suppose that so important a profession would attract into its ranks the ablest and the most ambitious youth of the country; that the keenest emulation would prevail amongst those who had entered it; and that such as were endowed with superior qualifica-

tions would rise rapidly to distinction and public eminence. Such, however, is by no means the case. Admission into the Civil Service is indeed eagerly sought after, but it is for the unambitious, and the indolent or incapable, that it is chiefly desired. Those whose abilities do not warrant an expectation that they will succeed in the open professions, where they must encounter the competition of their contemporaries, and those whom indolence of temperament, or physical infirmities unfit for active exertions, have hitherto been placed in the Civil Service, where they may obtain an honourable livelihood with little labour, and with no risk; where their success depends upon their simply avoiding any flagrant misconduct, and attending with moderate regularity to routine duties; and in which they are secured against the ordinary consequences of old age or failing health, by an arrangement which provides them with the means of supporting themselves after they have become incapacitated.

The comparative lightness of the work, and the certainty of provision in the case of retirement owing to bodily incapacity, furnish strong inducements to the parents and friends of sickly youths to endeavour to obtain for them employment in the service of the government; and the extent to which the public has been consequently burdened, first with the salaries of officers who are obliged to absent themselves from their duties on account of ill health, and afterwards with their pensions when they retire upon the same plea, is hardly to be credited.

The result naturally is, that the public civil service suffers both in internal efficiency and in public estimation. The characters of the individuals influence the mass, and it is thus that we often hear complaints of official delays, official evasions of difficulty, and official indisposition to improvement.

It was recommended as a remedy by the commissioners appointed on this subject, that the public service should

be carried on by the admission into its lower ranks of a carefully selected body of young men who should be employed from the first upon work suited to their capacity, and to be made to feel that their promotion depended on their industry and ability. That this should be effected by examination on a central system, and by probation.

At length, therefore, it was thought expedient to make provision for testing, according to fixed rules, the qualifications of young men from time to time proposed to be appointed to the junior situations in the civil establishments, and a commission was appointed for conducting the examination of young men so proposed. The commission has the power, subject to the approval of the Lords of the Treasury, to appoint assistant examiners, and such others as may be required to assist them in their duty.

All young men proposed * to be appointed to any junior situation in the Civil Service, must, before they are admitted to probation, be examined by or under the direction of the commissioners, and must receive from them a certificate of qualification for such situation.

It is the duty of the commissioners, before granting a certificate, to ascertain—

1. That the candidate is within the limits of age prescribed in the department to which he desires to be admitted;

2. That the candidate is free from any physical defect or disease which may be likely to interfere with the proper discharge of his duties;

3. That the character of the candidate is such as to qualify him for public employment; and

4. That the candidate possesses the requisite knowledge and ability for the proper discharge of his official duties.

* That is, those who have obtained a nomination to the vacancy required to be filled up, from the head of the department in which it occurs. This nomination is obtained by application to the head, backed by interest. Even in the competitive examinations, the candidate must obtain a nomination to compete.

The commission also directed that the rules applicable to each department under the above heads should be settled, with the assistance of the commissioners, according to the discretion of the chief authorities of the department; but, except that the candidates for admission to any of the junior situations in the Civil Service are required to obtain certificates of qualification, the examining board cannot make any alteration in the nomination or appointment of candidates by those charged with the duty of nomination and appointment.

The commission further directed, that after the candidate has passed his examination, and received his certificate of qualification from the commissioners, he shall enter on a period of probation, during which his conduct and capacity in the transaction of business shall be subjected to such tests as the chief of the department may determine. He is not to be finally appointed to the public service, unless upon satisfactory proofs of his fitness being furnished to the chief of the department after six months' probation. The commission, however, leaves one case open where examination is not required; that is in case the chief of any department considers it desirable to appoint a person of mature age, having special qualifications (for the appointment in other pursuits) to any situation for which there are no prescribed limits of age; such a person is not required to obtain a certificate from the civil service commissioners. The chief of the department causes the appointment to be formally recorded as having been made on account of special qualifications.

In following these instructions the commissioners placed themselves in communication with the several heads of departments, to receive their instructions and accordingly laid down regulations. These regulations attach to the points left to the control of the commissioners, but another point has most unexpectedly engaged the attention of the commissioners, *i.e.*, the discovery of efficient means for the prevention of personation, which

(from reports brought under their notice) they believed might be possibly attempted. The best check which they were able to suggest was, that the authorities of the department to which the candidate is nominated, should take measures for furnishing themselves with a specimen of his hand-writing, which may be compared with that of the person who subsequently presents himself at the office for examination. This is proposed to be effected by requiring the candidate to fill up the heading of the form A.*—In cases where the hand-writing is authenticated by the initials of an officer of the nominating department placed in the margin, additional security is obtained. The necessity of preventing by the most effectual means a fraud so gross, has been considered by the commissioners to justify them in establishing this regulation.

Taking the other regulations in order, the first is—

I.—EVIDENCE AS TO AGE.

Candidates may be divided into two classes—

1. Those born in England or Wales subsequently to the 30th day of June, 1837.

A.

* Statement respecting proposed to be appointed to the junior situation of in the department of

1. Are you related to the candidate; if so, what is the relationship?
2. Are you well acquainted with the candidate?
3. From what circumstances does your knowledge of him arise?
4. How long have you known him?
5. Is he strictly honest and sober, intelligent and diligent.
6. Do you believe him to be free from pecuniary embarrassments?
7. What do you know of his education and acquirements?
8. Has he ever been in the service of the Government, and if so, in what situation?
9. So far as you can judge, is his character in all respects such as to qualify him for public employment, and in particular for the situation which he now seeks?

(Signature)
(Address)
(Date)

B.

I certify that the answers above written, and the signature thereto affixed, are in the proper hand-writing of of and that the said is a person worthy of credit.
(To be signed a justice of the peace or recognised minister of some religious denomination.)

(*a*) Candidates included in this class should produce certificates from the Registrar-General of Births, Marriages, and Deaths, or his local officers.

(*b*) In ordinary cases no further evidence will be required.

(*c*) Every candidate not producing such certificate must account satisfactorily for its non-production, and must prove his age by the evidence hereinafter mentioned.

2. Those born in England or Wales before the 1st day of July, 1837. Those who, though born in England or Wales on or subsequently to that day, are unable to produce the certificate above mentioned. Those not born in England or Wales.

(*a*) Candidates included in this latter class should produce, if possible, a certificate of baptism, duly signed, and in the regular form.

(*b*) Where such certificates specify the time of birth, and no suspicion of irregularity exists, further evidence will not be required.

(*c*) Where a baptismal certificate is not produced, satisfactory reasons for its non-production must be assigned and verified.

(*d*) Where a baptismal certificate does not specify the time of birth, and where no baptismal certificate can be procured, the best evidence that can be given on the date of the candidate's birth must be obtained. For this purpose, in the case of Dissenters, the non-parochial registers, entered under the Act 3 & 4 Vict. cap. 92, and preserved in Somerset House, will be available. If such evidence be offered by a family Bible or record, an extract therefrom must be made and subscribed by some credible and disinterested person, with the following form of attestation :—

"This is a true extract from a Bible [or other book or
"document, as the case may be,] in the possession
"of , residing at
"and the insertion therein of the date of the birth
"of appears to have been made at
"the time indicated.

"(Signed)

"(Place of abode)

"Dated this day of

(*e*) Where such extract has been duly verified, and no suspicion of irregularity exists, further evidence will not be required.

(*f*) Should there be no record whatever of the date of the birth of the candidate, the evidence of some credible and disinterested person, who can speak to his age, must be obtained. Such person must be required to make a solemn declaration in the statutory form before a magistrate, as to the date of the birth of the candidate, and as to the particular circumstances which enable the party declaring to speak to it.

The rules as to age will be found in the note below.*

* Limits of age prescribed for admission to the various Civil Departments.

*** Departments not mentioned in this Table have at present no fixed regulations as to the age of officers on admission.

A general extension of the superior limits of age, applicable to candidates who have before been in the public service, may probably be adopted.

Department and Branch or Class.	Limits of Age.		Department and Branch or Class.	Limits of Age.	
	Inferior Limit.	Superior Limit.		Inferior Limit.	Superior Limit.
ENGLAND AND WALES.			Colonial Land and Emigration office:		
Admiralty:			Permanent Clerks . .	18	25‡
Establishment Clerks .	17	25*	Temporary Clerks . .	17	45
Temporary Clerks . .	17	None.	Commons, House of . . .	19	25
Audit Office:			Committee of Council on Education . .	18	25
Establishment Clerks .	18	25*	Customs:		
Temporary Clerks . .	18	None.	Clerks and extra Clerks	16	25§
Charity Commission:			Searchers, Landing-waiters, Coast Officers, Gaugers, Tidewaiters, and Weighers . . .	20	25§
First and Second Class Clerks	21	35	Ecclesiastical Commission:		
Junior Clerks	18	30	Senior Clerks	21	35
Civil Service Commission: Clerks	18	25†	Junior Clerks	16	25
Colonial Office (Downing-Street):					
Ceylon Writerships .	18	25			

(*Note continued on next page.*)

* Except in the case of persons temporarily employed, who may be nominated if under 30, provided they were under 25 when first temporarily employed.

† For candidates who have been previously in the Public Service the maximum limit shall be considered as extended to five years beyond the ordinary limit, provided the candidate was when he first entered the Service under the maximum limit fixed for the situation to which he seeks admittance.

‡ "Unless in cases where they have been already engaged in the Public Service."

§ Extra Clerks and Extra Officers, when promoted to the Establishment to be admitted up to the age of 40 years, provided they were first employed before they reached the age of 25, and they will be entitled to reckon such previous service, provided they have been employed for not less than six months in each year.

The next duty of the commissioners is to ascertain that the candidate is free from any physical defect or diseaes, and on this subject they have made the following regulations.

(*Note continued.*)

Department and Branch or Class.	Limits of Age. Inferior Limit.	Limits of Age. Superior Limit.
Exchequer	17	25*
Factory Inspectors' Department:		
Sub-Inspectors of Factories	25	40
Foreign Office:		
Downing Street . . .	18	24†
Unpaid Attachés . . .	18	25
Consuls	25	50
General Register Office: Clerks.	17	25
Home Office	18	25‡
India Board	18	25
Inland Revenue Department:		
Clerks	16	25
Temporary Clerks . . .	18	None.
Surveyors of Taxes . .	19	25
Lieutenants of Revenue Police	20	25
Expectants of Excise .	19	25
Metropolitan Police Courts	17	23§
Metropolitan Police Office .	17	25
,, Receiver's Office	17	25

Department and Branch or Class.	Limits of Age. Inferior Limit.	Limits of Age. Superior Limit.
Mint:		
Permanent Clerks . . .	20	30
Temporary Clerks . .	20	45
National Debt Office . . .	16	25
Parliament Office (House of Lords)	18	25
Paymaster-General's Office	18	25
Poor-Law Board	18	25
Post-Office: ‖		
Clerks in London, Edinburgh, and Dublin, and Surveyors' Stationary Clerks . . .	17	24
Clerks in Country Offices	17	28
Letter Carriers	17	28
Mail Guards	20	26
Labourers	21	30
Prisons' Department . .	18	40
Queen's Prison	16	20
Science and Art Department:		
Ordinary Clerks . . .	18	25¶
Supplemental Clerks, Temporary Clerks, other Parties . . .	17	30¶

(*Note continued on next page.*)

* With power, when a vacancy is filled up by transfer from another department, to extend the maximum to 30, provided the probationer had been appointed to his first office between 17 and 25.

† As regards those who have not a home in London or in the immediate vicinity the age should be between 20 years complete and 24 years complete.

‡ In the case of candidates already in the Public Service the maximum is to be 30, provided they were under 25 on first entering the Service.

§ Unless the nominee shall be a certificated attorney of one of the Courts of Law at Westminster, or shall have acted for at least seven years next before his application for such office as clerk to the Justices of any Petty Session.

‖ Candidates for Junior situations in this Department, who had been previously in the Service, are considered to be eligible, so far as their age is concerned, provided that their age did not, when they were first appointed, exceed the maximum age for candidates for the situations to which they may now be nominated.

¶ The limit to be 45 in all cases where there has been any previous Public Serv e extending beyond a period of five years.

II.—REGULATIONS AS TO HEALTH.

Every candidate must produce a certificate signed by a Member of the College of Physicians, a Member of the British College of

(*Note continued.*)

Department and Branch or Class.	Limits of Age. Inferior Limit.	Limits of Age. Superior Limit.
Stationery Office:		
Ordinary Clerks . . .	17	25
Other Parties	19	40
Trade, Board of: *		
Ordinary Clerks . . .	18	25
Supplementary Clerks .	17	30
Treasury:		
Establishment Clerks .	18	25
Clerks in the Solicitor's Office	20	30
Supplementary Clerks .	18	25‡
War Department:		
Permanent Clerks . .	18	25
Non-commissioned Officers (appointed Clerks at Out-stations) . . .	—	40
Temporary Clerks . .	18	40
Commander-in-Chief's Office:		
Supernumerary Clerks.	18	40
Quarter-Master General's Office:		
Permanent Clerks . .	16	23
Temporary Clerks . .	16	25
Adjutant-General's Office:	16	25
Woods (Office of)	17	25
Works (Office of)	18	25
SCOTLAND.		
Board of Fisheries:		
Clerks	17	25
Fishery Officers . . .	21	30
Board of Supervision . .	18	45
General Register Office:		
Clerks, Transcribers, and Sorter Indexer .	17	30
Queen's and Lord Treasurer's Remembrancer's Office	18	28
Royal Observatory, Edinburgh	17	35
IRELAND.		
Chief Secretary's Office . .	18	25
Constabulary:		
Inspector General's Office	18	25
Receiver's Office . . .	18	25
Directors of Prisons (Office of)	18	25
Dublin Metropolitan Police	18	25
General Register Office . .	18	25
Inspectors of Lunatic Asylums (Office of) . .	18	25
Inspectors of Prisons (Office of)	18	25
Loan Fund Board:		
Senior Clerk	—	35
Junior Clerk	—	25
Paymaster of Civil Services (Office of) §	16	22
Poor Law Commission . .	18	30
Registry of Deeds Office. .	17	25
War (Military Offices in Dublin):		
Permanent Clerks . .	18	25
Temporary Clerk . . .	18	40

* Including Registry of Seamen, Registry of Designs, and Registry of Joint Stock Companies.

† Persons already in the Public Service may be transferred to the Board of Trade; provided they were, at the time they fisrt entered the Service, under the maximum age for admission into the class to which they may be transferred.

‡ Unless they have been continuously in the Public Service since they were 25, in which case the maximum may be extended to 30.

§ The Junior Clerk in the Record Branch is not to be under 18.

Surgeons, or of the Apothecaries' Company, or a Medical Graduate of a University, dated subsequently to the nomination; and such certificate must contain the testaments following:

"I hereby certify, that I have this day personally examined "Mr. , proposed to be appointed to the junior "situation of in the department of , "and that I believe him to be free from any physical defects or "disease which would be likely to interfere with the proper "discharge of his duties.

"(Signed)
"(Address) ."

Special circumstances, with such explanations as may be necessary, should be introduced before the words "and that I believe him to be free," &c., and the certificate should proceed "under [*or* notwithstanding] the circumstances herein appearing, "I believe him to be free," &c.

The civil service commissioners reserve to themselves the right to require a personal examination of the candidate by their own medical officer; and will, if they think fit, make a confidential application to the medical referee named by the candidate.

The next point to be ascertained by the commissioners is, whether the character of the candidate is such as to qualify him for the public service; this certainly would appear to be one of their most special duties when we find them providing against so dishonourable an act as personation in the examinations.

The civil service commissioners reserve to themselves full discretion as to the evidence of character which they may in specific cases deem it expedient to require, but under ordinary circumstances they will limit themselves to the following requisitions:—

1. Candidates who have been previously employed in any department of the public service, should without delay communicate the fact of their having been so employed. The Civil Service Commissioners will then refer to the department named, and if the answer received should prove satisfactory, no further evidence will be required.

2. Candidates who have been previously in the employment of

private individuals, should name their last employer as one of the referees mentioned below.

3. Candidates who have left school within two years before their nomination, should name their last schoolmaster as one of the referees mentioned below.

4. Every candidate who has not been previously employed in the public service, should produce papers in the form (marked A.),* satisfactorily filled up by two or more referees, of whom two at least must be householders. The counter-signature of a justice of the peace, clergyman of the English or Roman Catholic Church, or of a recognised minister of some other religious denomination, must be obtained, where one of the referees is not himself a justice of the peace, clergyman, or minister. Such counter-signature should be appended to the form marked B.

5. The heading of the schedules should be filled up by the candidate in his own hand-writing.

In all cases where a certificate of qualification has been obtained by representations which afterwards turn out to have been untrue, the civil service commissioners deem it their duty to communicate the fact to the department to which the candidate has been admitted, and to take the best means in their power for fixing upon the referees the responsibility which they have incurred.

The reader will find in the notes and appendices of this volume, a complete scheme of the subjects for examination, but it may be advisable to state briefly and generally what is required by the majority of the offices.†

Good hand-writing, correct spelling, and some knowledge of arithmetic, usually including vulgar and decimal

* *Vide ante*, p. 239.

† In their Second Report the Examiners have added the following explanation :—

"The ordinary examinations which we superintend are instituted for a double purpose :

"1st. To ascertain the candidate's fitness for the actual duties which he will be called upon to perform upon his first admission to office.

"2nd. To test his education and intelligence.

"For the first of these purposes, he is almost invariably tested in writing, orthography, and arithmetic ; a lower or higher degree of proficiency being required according to the situation to which he is appointed.

"In this class of subjects may also be included, in some few Departments, book-keeping, and, as respects the clerkships in most departments, English composition, or the power of making a précis of official papers, or both."

fractions, are requirements which every department, almost without exception, has deemed to be necessary.

And with respect to candidates for clerkships or other analogous situations, most departments have, in addition to the before-mentioned subjects required the power of making an abstract or précis of correspondence or official papers, and some acquaintance with English composition.

When the business of a department has been mainly of a financial character, book-keeping, either by single or double entry, has been included amongst the necessary qualifications of a candidate.

Other subjects have likewise been prescribed by some departments, which have less direct relation to the business to be transacted, but which test the general intelligence and education of the candidates; amongst them are the outlines of history, geography, Latin, or as an alternative some foreign language, either previously defined or left to the option of the candidate.

Hand-writing. Most of the departments lay considerable stress on this accomplishment. There was some little difficulty in deciding what should be the minimum of hand-writing; the definition adopted is:—"That good hand-writing shall consist in the clear formation of the letters of the alphabet." Having regard also to the use of copying machines, the following requirement in several departments has been thought reasonable and useful:—"That the hand-writing shall be rapid, neat, and of that even stroke which allows legible copies to be taken by pressing." Hitherto it has been found impossible to place the standard of writing on this satisfactory basis. Had it been fully insisted on, the public service would have been obstructed by the rejection of too great a number of candidates. Yet defective hand-writing has formed part of the grounds for the rejection of forty-four candidates.*

* With regard to some departments, however, as in the Foreign Office, and the Committee of Council on Education, in which the rules established for the examination of candidates lay particular stress upon hand-writing, the requirement has been enforced with strictness, and on one occasion of a competitive examination for a clerkship in an important department, a

Dictation. The course pursued has been to select a passage of average difficulty, to read it through in the first instance with ordinary rapidity, in order that its general purport might be understood, afterwards to read it more slowly so as to allow of its being taken down, and then either to read it once more, or to give the candidates time to look over and correct their performances. Under this head may be mentioned also the lithographed MSS.* which have been given in cases where it was deemed desirable to employ a further test of orthography, and the copying of which, with the requisite emendations, will not be regarded as a task of any great difficulty. This exercise has not, however, been given to candidates for the lower appointments in the Customs' department, "tolerable" spelling only being in their case required.

Elementary papers on *Arithmetic* are given to tide-waiters and weighers, and to candidates for temporary employment in some departments. These papers commence with reduction, and proceed through the rules of arithmetic as far as compound division.

Papers commencing with reduction and ending with decimals, have been placed before candidates for permanent clerkships in most of the civil establishments, and before other classes of candidates nominated to temporary employment. In some cases it should be added, a portion only of the higher paper is given. Thus for example, from candidates for clerkships in several branches of the General Post Office, reduction, proportion, and practice only are required; in other cases vulgar fractions are not included.†

candidate was rejected in respect of bad hand-writing, notwithstanding he would otherwise have been successful.

* Specimens of these MSS. were given in the Report. They are lithographs of written documents, in which the hand-writing, spelling, and grammar are unusually bad. The candidate is asked to correct them.

† The elementary papers contain, on an average, about 15 questions, including reduction, simple and compound arithmetic, simple and compound subtraction, simple and compound multiplication, and simple and compound division.

The next series include reduction, proportion, practice, interest, vulgar fractions, decimal fractions. To answer these questions, a complete and accu-

The higher examination papers contain in some cases as many as forty questions; but either by the printed rules or by a memorandum at the head of the paper, candidates have been desired in the first place to answer *two* under each head, and then to proceed with any others which they might choose to select. The object of proposing so great a variety is to insure to each as far as possible an opportunity of satisfying the condition prescribed. No one who has complied with this requisition has been rejected on the ground of deficiency in arithmetic, and on the other hand, many whose performances have fallen below this standard, have received certificates of qualification.

Some questions have usually been prepared in these arithmetical papers beyond the range of knowledge required, with a view of giving to the candidate the opportunity of displaying his intelligence; but these questions have been sparingly introduced, and not being necessary portions of the examination, have not been attempted by those who had only moderate attainments.

With regard to decimal arithmetic in particular, the knowledge possessed by candidates has been, in the great majority of cases, defective. Many of the papers which have been set contain questions in division of decimals so framed as to present no difficulty whatever, except as to the position of the decimal point. Even these questions have been rarely attempted, and still more rarely attempted with success.

Book-keeping.—On reference to the tables it will be seen that in some cases "book-keeping simply," in others "book-keeping by double entry," and in others again "a

rate knowledge of weights, measures, and divisions of money is quite indispensable. In their Second Report the Examiners make the following remarks:

"In no case do the arithmetical questions which are required to be answered even by candidates for the higher class of junior situations, reach beyond vulgar and decimal fractions, and it is our wish and intention that they should present to the candidate nothing of a puzzling character, but that they should be just sufficient to ascertain whether he understands the principle and is acquainted with the practice in the portion of arithmetic to which the questions belong."

knowledge of the principles of book-keeping," has been required. The various papers are adapted, as far as possible, to these distinctions of phraseology, and in decisions on doubtful cases, regard is had to the degree of proficiency which the departmental authorities require. From candidates for situations in the Inland Revenue Department a higher degree of proficiency has been required than that which in some other cases has been deemed sufficient.*

The number of rejections on account of failure in book-keeping *alone* was only three, but in twenty-four other cases the deficiencies in this subject were sufficient to warrant the refusal of a certificate.

The examination in book-keeping consists, whether in single or double entry, of two classes of papers, *i. e.*, papers on principles, and a paper giving a detailed list of certain commercial transactions in the order in which they are supposed to occur, and requiring them to be,—journalised, posted, or balanced, as the case may be,—and to be able to show how to enter them in different kinds of books, such as a sales-book, cash-book, invoice-book, bill-book, journal, ledger, &c.†

Latin and Modern Foreign Languages.—The authors that appear to be chosen for the examination in Latin, for the ordinary examination in those offices that require that language, are Livy, Tacitus, Horace, and Virgil. The examination in Latin, as well as in modern languages, consists of translation into English, and translation from English into other languages; but the latter accomplishment is not treated as essential in any

* Book-keeping is now omitted from the prescribed subjects for expectants of Excise. *Sed vide* Appendix.

† The offices in which book-keeping is a prescribed subject are (omitting those from which no candidate has yet been sent)—Admiralty (Somerset House, dockyards, and temporary clerks), Civil Service Commission, Committee of Council on Education, Inland Revenue (offices of receipt and account and expectants of excise), Treasury (supplementary clerks), and Board of Fisheries, (Scotland). The papers have been set to candidates from the above-mentioned departments, and in no other case, except where book-keeping has been named as a voluntary or extra subject by candidates from other departments.

instance, except where specially prescribed by the department; nor has it been necessary that all the passages set for translation into English should be rendered by the candidate.* The modern languages generally required are French† and German.‡ Of these French is the most important, and next German. Greek, Italian, and Spanish are generally left to the choice of the candidate in those offices, in which one ancient and one modern language are required as a test of education, and not for the purpose of the office.

History and Geography.—Questions set on these subjects are of very different degrees of difficulties, and a most erroneous idea of the standard would be formed, if it were supposed that any large portion of any of the published papers are, in a single instance, required to be answered. The rejections are limited to cases in which these subjects are wholly omitted, or in which gross and discreditable ignorance is shown, with no accurate knowledge whatever to justify a favourable decision. The questions in history are principally confined to that

* The offices in which Latin is either a prescribed subject, or one of two or more subjects, one of which must be selected, are (omitting those from which no candidate has yet been sent), Admiralty (Somerset House branch), Civil Service Commission and the War Department (Secretary of State's office and Pall Mall offices). In the Admiralty and the War Department, Latin or a modern language is the prescribed subject. The papers have been set to candidates from the above-mentioned departments, and in no other case, except where Latin has been named as a voluntary or extra subject by candidates from other departments.

† The offices in which French is either a prescribed subject, or one of two or more subjects, one of which must be selected, are (omitting those offices from which no candidate has yet been sent) Admiralty (Somerset House), Civil Service Commission, Post Office (Secretary's office), and the War Department (Secretary of State's office and Pall Mall office). The papers have been set to candidates from the above-mentioned departments, and in no other case, except where French has been named as a voluntary or extra subject by candidates from other departments.

‡ The offices in which German is either a prescribed subject, or one of two or more subjects, one of which must be selected, are (omitting those offices from which no candidate has yet been sent) Admiralty (Somerset House), Post Office (Secretary's office), and the War Department (Pall Mall branch). In a special case, a candidate for the Army and Ordnance Medical Department was examined in German. The papers have been set to candidates from the above mentioned departments, and in no other case, except where German has been named as a voluntary or extra subject by candidates from other departments.

of Great Britain and Ireland; and in both subjects is not more severe than a boy from a modern school ought to pass with ease and credit.*

Précis-Writing and Spelling.—Spelling and knowledge of hand-writing are tested by the commissioners, by giving the candidate a lithographic copy of some very crabbed or irregular hand-writing, and in which occurs as much bad grammar and ill-spelling as possible, and then requiring the candidate to make a fair copy, correcting both the grammar and the spelling.

Précis-writing, or the art of making a correct abstract of official documents, is required by several departments.

Of the importance and utility of such an accomplishment no one can entertain the slightest doubt; and there is hardly any mode in which a clerk can render more efficient service to his superior in office, than by presenting before him a succinct, faithful, and intelligent abridgment of any document or correspondence upon which questions may arise; but it will not often occur that a candidate, unless he has previously been taught and exercised in this particular duty, will show any great proficiency therein; and considerable practical difficulty exists in effectively examining persons in this requirement owing to the length of time which must necessarily be occupied by a candidate, first in making himself master

* The offices in which history is either a prescribed subject, or one of two or more subjects, one of which must be selected, are (omitting those offices from which no candidate has yet been sent) Admiralty (Somerset House), Civil Service Commission, General Register Office, Inland Revenue (clerks), Metropolitan Police Courts, National Debt Office, War Department (Secretary of State's office, Pall Mall office, and out-stations), and the Chief Secretary's Office (Ireland). The papers have been set to candidates from the above-mentioned departments, and in no other case, except where history has been named as a voluntary or extra subject by candidates from other departments. The offices in which geography is a prescribed subject are (omitting those from which no candidate has yet been sent) Admiralty (Somerset House), Civil Service Commission, General Register Office, India Board, Inland Revenue (clerks), Metropolitan Police Courts, National Debt Office, War Department (Secretary of State's office, Pall Mall office, and out-stations), and the Chief Secretary's office (Ireland). The papers have been set to candidates from the above-mentioned departments, and in no other case, except where geography has been named as a voluntary or extra subject by candidates from other departments.

of the documents which he is called upon to abstract, and afterwards in concisely abstracting them.

The departments which have adopted this particular subject of examination, should not however be disposed to dispense with it; as when it is publicly and generally notified, those persons who are likely to enter into the public service, will take proper steps for procuring the necessary instruction.*

English Composition. — English composition is yet another and most necessary accomplishment required by some departments. An accomplishment unfortunately very rare even amongst the best-educated classes.

The examiners for the commissioners test the acquirements of the candidates in this branch by requiring letters or essays to be written on certain given subjects. Nothing but a good general education can prepare the candidate for this test.†

The papers on these various subjects are in general anything but severe, scarcely so hard as a fairly educated schoolboy might be expected to answer with ease; and when we observe that the number of rejections is nearly thirty in a hundred, we are naturally led to the con-

* The offices in which a Précis or abstract of papers is a prescribed subject are (omitting those from which no candidate has yet been sent) Admiralty (Somerset House), Civil Service Commission, Audit Office, Committee of Council on Education, General Register Office. India Board, Post Office (Secretary's office), War Department (Pall Mall office), Chief Secretary's Office (Ireland), and Director of Prisons Office (Ireland). The papers have been set to candidates from the above-mentioned departments, and in no other case, except where a Précis has been named as a voluntary or extra subject by candidates from other departments.

† Offices in which English Composition is a prescribed subject are (omitting those from which no candidate has yet been sent) Admiralty (Somerset House), Audit Office, Civil Service Commission, Customs (Solicitor's office), General Register Office, India Board, Inland Revenue (clerks), Metropolitan Police Courts, Poor Law Board (supplementary clerks), Post Office (Secretary's office), Stationery Office, Treasury (supplementary clerks), War Department (Secretary of State's office, all the Pall Mall branches, and Army and Ordnance Medical Department), Office of Works, Board of Fisheries (Scotland), Chief Secretary's Office (Ireland), Office of Director of Prisons (Ireland), and Registry of Deeds Office (Ireland). The papers have been set to candidates from the above-mentioned departments, and in no other case, except where English Composition has been named as a voluntary or extra subject by candidates from other departments.

clusion, that the classes that seek admission into the public service are, however respectable, by no means the most intelligent amongst the professional community.

The mode in which the examinations have been conducted in London has been the following: The arithmetic paper has in most cases been given on the first morning, the time allowed being three hours and a half, and the afternoon has usually been occupied with three or four sums in compound addition, with dictation and exercises in orthography.

By reference to the tables it will be seen that from candidates nominated to clerkships in almost all the branches of the Customs' department, and to various other situations, no further test of proficiency has been required. Others, whose examinations have included a greater variety of subjects, have occupied two days, and in some cases a third or even a fourth.

A candidate is generally rejected for failure in one subject; and, although more than one is specified as the cause of failure, it is understood that had it stood alone, it would have been sufficient to procure the grant of a certificate. Where, however, the performances of a candidate in any prescribed subject have been such as to render it doubtful whether he has done sufficient to allow of his passing, the display of proficiency in other branches has been permitted to turn the scale in his favour.

Every candidate who has been examined at the offices of the commission in London has been permitted to select, if he thought proper, other subjects in addition to those required for the situation to which he was nominated. The rules laid down with regard to these have been,—(1), That in the case of those that have passed in the prescribed subjects and acquitted themselves creditably in the extra subjects, honorary additions specifying the subjects and characterising in the terms which appeared appropriate the degree of proficiency displayed should be made to the certificate of qualification; and (2), That in the case of those who either failed in the prescribed sub-

jects or did not show any acquaintance deserving commendation with those selected by themselves, no notice should be taken of the voluntary portion of the examination. The range of selection allowed has been one of considerable extent.*

In several of the civil establishments departmental examinations had existed previously to the issue of the order in council. In the case of candidates nominated to appointments in the country, these examinations were usually conducted by the resident officers of the departments who were entrusted with the duty of framing the questions to be proposed, presiding over the examinations, and reporting on the merits of the candidates. In the Customs' department, the great majority of those so examined were tidewaiters and weighers; in the inland revenue, they belonged for the most part to the class termed "expectants of Excise." On the issue of the order in council, it became necessary that these local examinations should by some means be brought under control, but as it was undesirable that the number of candidates required to attend at the office of the commission should be unnecessarily increased until arrangements had been in some degree matured, it was thought best that the system previously in existence should, with the important modification about to be mentioned, be maintained for a time at least. The modification in question has been this:—In every case the questions set and the answers sent in, together with the specimens of writing

* The following summary shows, with regard to a few of the most popular subjects, the number of candidates who, at the end of 1855, had obtained honorary additions to their certificates:—

French	29	Candidates
German	7	,,
Spanish	4	,,
Italian	3	,,
Latin	14	,,
Greek	7	,,
Book-keeping	14	,,
History	7	,,
Geography	4	,,
Mathematics, elementary	9	,,

from dictation, have been transmitted to the offices of the commission, together with the necessary evidence as to age, health, and character, and on the papers thus brought under cognisance, the decisions have been arrived at.

In order that uniformity of standard might, as far as possible, be maintained, it has been thought desirable that these examinations should be conducted by means of papers sent from the offices of the commission.

Amongst other improvements, the commissioners have, to a limited extent, established competitive examinations. They have been twice tried in their own office, and seven times for situations in the establishment of the War department and its out-stations.*

In the examination of candidates *nominated to compete* for a single vacancy on the establishment of the War Office, two competitors were reported equal, and the performances of each having been highly creditable, the Secretary for War was pleased to give appointments to *both*.

An examination also of candidates nominated to compete for supplementary clerkships in the department of the Committee of Council for Education was held at the request of the Lord President. The examination was in this instance divided into two portions, the first two days being devoted to subjects of indispensable necessity, and the two subsequent days to others selected as tests of intelligence and general education. Out of thirty-one candidates, twenty-one were excluded as not having passed the preliminary examination; and to the ten who were admitted to the final examination, appointments were given by the Lord President.†

* This was at the time of the publication of the first Report of the Commissioners.

† The following scheme of a competitive examination may be useful, published in the second Report:—

An examination of twenty-one candidates nominated to compete for five supplementary clerkships in the office of the Committee of Privy Council on Education, was held at the close of January, 1857.

Most of the competitors on this occasion were nominated on the recommen-

To these remarks it may not be disadvantageous to add a few gathered from another report on the career of a young man in a public office. If we may judge from the tone taken in the last debate on the subject, is the system likely to be materially changed?

Those who enter the public civil service generally do so at an early age when there is no opportunity of trying their fitness for business, or forming a trustworthy estimate of their character and abilities. This, to a great extent, is the case in other professions also, but those professions supply a corrective which is wanting in the civil service, for as a man's success in them depends upon his obtaining and retaining the confidence of the public; and as he is exposed to sharp competition on the part of his contemporaries, those only can maintain a fair position who possess the requisite amount of ability and industry for the proper discharge of their duties. The able and energetic rise to the top; the dull and inefficient

dation of certain gentlemen connected with education, who had been invited by the Council Office to select from among the young men with whose conduct and abilities their position might have made them acquainted, such as should appear fitted for the public service, and able to undergo the requisite examination.

The majority of them were either mercantile clerks or school assistants, there being seven of the former (earning from 40*l.* to 60*l.* per annum), and six of the latter (including pupil teachers).

The examination was on this, as on a previous occasion which we mentioned in our first Report, divided into two portions, as follows :—

I. *Preliminary.*
1. Writing from dictation.
2. Arithmetic.
3. Book-keeping.
4. Précis, and digest of forms into summaries.
5. Making fair copies from rough notes.
6. Calculation of per-centages.

II. *Final.*
1. English composition.
2. Geography.
3. History.
4. Mathematics.
5. Natural science.

and six out of the twenty-one candidates were excluded as having failed in the first of the two, which comprised only subjects regarded as indispensably necessary.

The candidate who obtained the second place also passed a creditable examination in translation from French and German, and one of the unsuccessful competitors showed a creditable power of Latin translation and composition, and a fair facility in Greek translation and composition.

remain at the bottom. In the public establishments, on the contrary, the general rule is that all rise together. After a young man has been once appointed, the public has him for life; and if he is idle or inefficient, provided he does not grossly misconduct himself, the public must either submit to have a portion of the civil business inefficiently and discreditably performed, or must place the incompetent person on the retired list, with a pension for the rest of his life.

The feeling of security which this state of things affords necessarily tends to encourage indolence, and thereby depress the character of the service. Again, those who are inducted into it at an early age are thereby relieved from the necessity of those struggles which, for the most part, fall to the lot of such as enter the open professions; their course is one of quiet, and generally of secluded performance of routine duties, and they consequently have but limited opportunities of acquiring that varied experience of life which is so important in the development of character.

It is these circumstances that prevent the young government clerk from ultimately obtaining distinction for administrative capacity, except in rare instances. The young man, after his admission, is commonly employed upon duties of the merest routine. Many of the first years of his service are spent in copying papers, and other work of almost a mechanical character. In two or three years he is as good as he can be at such an employment. The remainder of his official life can only exercise a depressing influence upon him, and renders the work of his office distasteful to him. Unlike the pupil in a conveyancer's or special pleader's office, he not only begins with mechanical labour as an introduction to labour of a higher kind, but often also ends with it. In the meantime his salary is gradually advancing, till he reaches, by seniority, the top of his class, and on the occurrence of a vacancy in the class above him, he is promoted to fill it, as matter of course, and without any regard to his previous

services, or his qualifications. Thus, while no pains have hitherto been taken in the first instance to secure a good man for the office, nothing has been done after the clerk's appointment to turn his abilities, whatever they may be, to the best account. The result naturally is, that when the chief of the office has to make an appointment of visible and immediate importance to the efficiency of his department, he is obliged to go out of the office, and to appoint some one of high standing in an open profession, or some one distinguished in other walks of life, over the heads of men who have been for many years in the public service. This necessarily tends to discourage the civil servant, and tends to strengthen in them the injurious conviction that their success does not depend upon their own exertions, and that if they work hard, it will not advance them; if they waste their time in idleness, it will not keep them back.

There is one more peculiarity in the civil service which remains to be noticed, as it limits its operations as a *profession*. Unlike the military and naval, the medical and the commissariat services, and unlike the Indian civil service, the public establishments of this country, though comprising a body of not less than 16,000 persons, are regulated on the principle of merely departmental promotion. Each man's experience, interests, hopes, and fears are limited to the special branch of the service in which he is himself engaged. The effect naturally is to cramp the energies of the whole body, to encourage the growth of narrow views and departmental prejudices, to limit the acquisition of experience, and to repress and almost extinguish the spirit of emulation and competition.

The principle of competition has been applied with great openness, and it is trusted with great effect, to the numerous valuable appointments in the East Indies. As the offices are valuable, the competition is sharp, and the examinations very severe. The age being limited between eighteen and twenty-three, has the effect of excluding some of the best men from Dublin and Cambridge.

Twenty-five would be a more sensible maximum. It would give time for rest after the struggles of the university. Twenty-five is also, it is acknowledged, the best age for going to India, as far as constitution is concerned. The system is now in a transition state, but below is subjoined the regulations for the present year, and which may be a model for the future. Their official paper, printed below, was issued twelve months ago;—there has since been no alteration, and the following curriculum applies to the present system. Inquiry can be readily made to the Secretary, India Board, Westminster.

Owing to the great call for civil servants in India at present, the second examination has, on second considerations, been omitted, but as it is liable to become necessary in future years, its curriculum is subjoined.

Official Regulations for the Examination for the Civil Service of the East India Company.

1. In July, an examination takes place of candidates for appointments to the civil service of the East India Company. Notice will be hereafter given of the days and place of examination.

2. Any natural-born subject of Her Majesty, who shall be desirous of entering the civil service of the East India Company, will be entitled to be examined at such examination, provided he shall, before the 1st of May, 1856, have transmitted to the India Board, Cannon Row, Westminster:

(*a*) A certificate of his birth, showing that his age, on the 1st of May, 1856, will be above eighteen years and under twenty-three years.

(*b*) A certificate, signed by a physician or surgeon, of his having no disease, constitutional affection, or bodily infirmity, unfitting him for the civil service of the East India Company.

(*c*) A certificate of good moral character, signed by the head of the school or college at which he has last received his education; or, if he has not received education at any school or college since the year 1853, then such proof of good moral character as may be satisfactory to the Board of Commissioners for the affairs of India.

(*d*) A statement of those of the branches of knowledge, hereinafter enumerated, in which he desires to be examined.

3. The examination will take place only in the following branches of knowledge :

English Language and Literature :	
Composition	500
English Literature and History, including that of the Laws and Constitution	1000
	1500
Language, Literature, and History of Greece . .	750
,, ,, ,, Rome . .	750
,, ,, ,, France . .	375
,, ,, ,, Germany . .	375
,, ,, ,, Italy . .	375
Mathematics, pure and mixed	1000
Natural Science, that is, Chemistry, Electricity and Magnetism, Natural History, Geology, and Mineralogy	500
Moral Sciences, that is, Logic, and Mental, Moral, and Political Philosophy	500
Sanscrit Language and Literature	375
Arabic Language and Literature	375
	6875

4. The merit of the persons examined will be estimated by marks, according to the ordinary system in use at several of the universities, and the number set opposite to each branch in the preceding paragraph denotes the greatest number of marks that can be obtained in respect of it.

5. No candidate will be allowed any marks in respect of any subject of examination, unless he shall obtain, in respect of that subject, one-sixth of the number of marks set against that particular subject.

6. The examination will be conducted by means of printed questions and written answers, and by *vivâ voce* examination.

7. After the examination shall have been completed, the marks obtained by each candidate, in respect of each of the subjects in which he shall have been examined, shall be added up, and the names of the twenty candidates who shall have obtained a greater aggregate number of marks than any of the remaining candidates

shall be set forth in order of merit; and such twenty candidates shall be deemed to be selected candidates for the Civil Service of the East India Company. Their choice, so far as it can be allowed, of the Presidency in India to which they shall be appointed, shall be determined by the order in which they stand on such list.

8. In the year following the first examination of the selected candidates takes place in the following subjects:

Law, including the ordinary rules of taking evidence and the mode of conducting civil and criminal trials	1000
The History of India	400
Political Economy	400
Any Vernacular Language of India, to be previously fixed by the Board of Commissioners for the affairs of India	200

and such further examination will be conducted in the same manner as that above described. (The number set opposite to each subject denotes the greatest number of marks which can be obtained in respect of such subject.)

9. Any selected candidate who shall not, at such further examination obtain in each of the subjects above-mentioned, one-sixth of the number of marks set against such particular subject, shall be struck off the list of selected candidates.

10. The selected candidates who, at such further examination, shall be deemed by the examiners to have a competent knowledge (ascertained in the manner mentioned in the preceding paragraph) of Law, the history of India, Political Economy, and one language of India, shall be entitled to be appointed to the Civil Service of the East India Company; and the names of such candidates shall be placed in a list in the order of their merit in such examination, estimated, as above, by the total number of marks which they shall have obtained in respect of all the subjects in which they shall have been examined at such examination.

11. The seniority in the Civil Service of the East India Company of such candidates shall be determined according to the order in which they stand on the list resulting from such further examination.

12. No person will, even after such examination, be allowed to proceed to India, unless he shall comply with the regulations in force at the time for the Civil Service of the East India Company, and shall be of sound bodily health and good moral character.

13. The Commissioners for the affairs of India will be ready to receive, at any time previous to the 1st of May, 1856, the testimonials of persons desirous of being appointed to the office of

Examiner; but, with respect to the examinations above mentioned, no such appointment will be made until after the date above mentioned.

14. All papers relating to the above-mentioned examinations are to to sent, and all inquiries are to be addressed, thus:

"The Secretary,
"India Board,
"Westminster."

"E. I. C. Civil Service
"Examination."

CHAPTER XI.

PROFESSIONS OF ART.—THE PAINTER.

THE art of painting, which in Italy was indigenous, and may there be traced through the natural and various periods of its growth and decline, was imported into England. Before the birth of Hogarth, there were many centuries in which we relied wholly on foreign skill. With him, and after him, rose a succession of eminent painters, who have spread the fame of British art far and wide. Up to his time no British artist had arisen capable of leading the way in painting—no one who possessed at once talent for original composition and skill to render his conceptions permanent. The heart of the country had as yet been but little moved by this art; and all the splendid colouring, the academic forms, the fixed and approved attitudes and long-established graces, went for nothing, when a man appeared who sought lasting fame—and found it—in moral sentiment, nervous satire, sarcastic humour, and actual English life.*

The body of painters from his time began to take the form of an English profession, and so to be supplied by an acknowledged and regular system of education. Though even yet art is not advanced as other professions. The rich who take to the brush or the chisel are amateurs, and remain so. Very rarely indeed have men of fortune or title pursued art as a profession, in the same manner as they have mingled with the humble and poor labourers in the professions of learning and arms. Art has not yet become with us a fashionable profession for a gentleman and a scholar. The consequence is, that when time

* Allan Cunningham.

thins the ranks of the Academy, the vacancies are supplied by the chance children of genius, who have come from the plough, the manufactory, or the shop, to assert the truth of the great principle of nature, that talent, like sunshine, sheds its light on all conditions. Such is the story of most of our first-rate artists.*

The Edinburgh Review in criticising the book from which the above remarks have been taken,† has the following summary of the argument against *not* choosing art as a profession for the well-born :—

"The parents of the best-born amongst the artists have belonged scarcely to the class of gentry, and many have been of still more humble extraction. Sir Thomas Lawrence was the son of an innkeeper; Jackson, of a tailor; Gainsborough and Bird were the sons of clothiers; Opie and Romney, of carpenters, and Mortimer of a miller. No one of what is called a 'good family,' or nearly connected with persons of rank, has ever yet become a painter; nor is painting considered a *liberal* profession, and one of those which the junior members of our aristocracy are at liberty to embrace. The first nobleman in the land may practise painting as an amusement, may devote to it much of his time, and may even attain a proficiency equal to that of a professional artist, without its being considered derogatory to his rank; but if the tenth son of the lowest baron were to follow painting as a profession, there would be well-meaning persons who would hold up their hands in surprise and horror at the degradation of such a step. They would scarcely be more shocked at his keeping a shop, than at the idea of his painting for money. Painting is treated as a mechanical art, and the man of rank would be considered to lose caste by following it. Now, without summoning to our aid that undeniable principle, that there is no real disgrace in an honest calling, or taking a higher and sounder ground of argument than the customs and prejudices of society, we may say, that there seems to be

* Allan Cunningham. † Vol. 53, p. 65.

something very unreasonable in the exclusion of the art of painting from the list of such professions as a gentleman is considered at liberty to follow. Why should the announcement, that one of his younger sons discovers a strong bent for painting, and therefore will become an artist by profession, be answered (as it would be) by a stare and a shrug, and remain a theme for wonder and reproach? Society admits that a peer may, without shame, sell the productions of his pen: why might he not dispose of the productions of his pencil?

"If the honourable Mr. Such-a-one, the barrister, may take guinea fees without contamination: why may he not, equally without disgrace, paint a picture, send it to an exhibition, and sell it for a hundred pounds? But literature and law, it is said, are more dignified, useful, and important, than painting. True; nor do we claim for painting an equality with them in those respects; we only mean to show that what is analogous in the mercenary part of the profession, has no adverse effect in the case of literature and law; and we can conceive no other grounds on which the profession of painting can be placed under the ban of society at all.

"There is nothing degrading in the course of study which is necessary to prepare the successful painter. He need to undergo no humiliating apprenticeship to art. It is no dull drudgery to which he is bound. He must love his art, and follow it with enthusiasm. He must be naturally gifted, and be directed to painting by the bent of his genius, if he would hope to be successful. It is not unrefined, or unintellectual. On the contrary, it is allied to refinement and intellectual pursuits. Every branch of painting requires somewhat of a poetical turn of mind—many require imagination—and some, that the artist should be conversant with society. The highest excellence in portrait painting, for example, is unattainable without that delicate perception of manner and expression, and the graces of deportment, which only habits of society can give. Painting is no bar to the

cultivation of the mind; on the contrary, it is often found connected with literary ability. Our own brief history of the fine arts contains a larger proportion of instances of the combination of pictorial with literary talent than that of any other country. Hogarth, Richardson, Reynolds, Gainsborough, Opie, Barry, Romney, Lawrence, Fuseli, Northcote, and Allan Cunningham, were all men who, if they did not employ the pen much, at least evinced the power of using it with respectable ability. But the caprice of society is the more remarkable and unreasonable, because, though it refuses to smile upon the painter's outset, and frowns upon the adoption of painting by those who are of gentle blood, it warmly hails the successful artist, and accords him a social position as secure and honourable as to the untitled followers of other professions. Sir Joshua Reynolds, West, Cosway, Hoppner, and Lawrence, were the companions even of royalty, and mixed with the most aristocratic society in the land; and the same may be said of the most eminent artists of the present day."

But such is the prejudice of society, that however just may be the argument against it, it will no doubt deter the weaker-minded of this world from choosing art as a profession. Apart from this drawback, the profession of the artist is in no unprosperous condition. It has undoubtedly been affected by the war, but is rapidly reviving; and the more universal taste for art in this wealthy country has opened a great field for artists, if not indeed for high art.

Academies appear to have been originally designed to prevent or retard the supposed decline of elevated art. Political economists have denied the advantages of such institutions, and artists themselves have of late years more than doubted them. M. H. Vernet, the celebrated director of the French Academy at Rome, even went so far in this opinion as at one time to recommend the suppression of that establishment. It was maintained by Dr. Waagen, in his evidence before a committee of the

House of Commons, that what is called the academic system gives an artificial elevation to mediocrity, and that the restriction of academic rules prevents the artist from catching the feeling and spirit of the great master whom he studies; like the regulations of those literary institutions of former times, who set more value on scanning the metres of the ancients than on transfusing into the mind the thoughts and feeling of the poet. Many artists concurred with Dr. Waagen, that academies ought to be schools only, wherein such instruction may be given as is not attainable in the studio of the private master. It is said, that when academies go beyond this, their proper province, they degenerate into mannerism, and fetter genius; and when they assume too exclusive and oligarchical a character, they damp the moral independence of the artist, and narrow the proper basis of all intellectual excellence—mental freedom.

It is suggested by the same Report, "that it is probable that the principle of free competition in art (as in commerce), will ultimately triumph over all artificial institutions." The increasing number of independent exhibitions, both in London and in the provinces, who hold themselves out as rivals to the Royal Academy, has justified this opinion. Governments may at some future period content themselves with holding out prizes or commissions to the different, but co-equal, societies of artists, and refuse the dangerous gift of pre-eminence to any. It is more probable that the Royal Academy is indebted to the distinguished names which adorn its annals to the necessity of competing, as a private society, with other institutions, rather than to the extraneous distinctions and privileges with which it is decorated, and perhaps encumbered. As it stands, it is not a public national institution, like the French Academy, since it lives by exhibition, and takes money at the door. Yet it possesses many of the privileges of a public body, without bearing the direct burden of public responsibility.

With respect to the education of an artist,—suppose

a young man feels inclined to become an artist. We will take the case of the provinces first—he looks round him for means of study and for an instructor; the fact is, he can find neither the one or the other; at best he can get lessons from some drawing-master; such drawing-master being, it may be said, in *every* case, an artist of very mediocre powers, indifferently educated in any way, probably illiterate, and who teaches on no principle, but places before his student loose sketches, and tells him to copy them.

The young man works away in the dark, probably taking in poison when he seeks healthy food; he gets no hints as to reading, or any study of literature connected with art, but he is surrounded by very ignorant people, who think his crude attempts wonderful, consider him a genius and flatter him, and so he works on, and probably comes to nothing but to be a bad drawing-master.

But it is *very rare* for young people to choose the profession of artist who are not sons of artists. In the provinces, however, the following is generally the history of the case. There are occupations which lead up to art; these are, house decorating, lithography, scene painting, pattern drawing, perhaps some others, but these principally. Young people enter these as apprentices, and learn a sort of drawing, a sort of colouring, all very limited it is true, but still it developes certain feelings in those having a disposition for art, and they acquire certain powers and a wish for greater skill; they attempt works of art, influenced by the example of older hands (*shop artists* with yearnings, but who never get beyond the shop, and fear to desert a moderate certainty for absolute uncertainty). Amongst these the lithographer probably does most; his occupation is directly artistic, and, if he is able, he gets into its higher branches.

If these young people wish instruction, they can only have it after working hours, if it is to be obtained at all.

In some towns, the youth who has the aspirations adverted to obtains instruction in the schools of design

established by Government; but these were established for the promotion of design as applied to manufacture, and the scheme of instruction is such as is most likely to improve industrial design. It is true that this education is admirably suited to lay a good foundation for an artist's (professor of fine arts) future career; it resembles the training of the old masters, who entered the schools of masters where they had to study and practise ornament, and were only led up by degrees to higher branches of study.

It has not, however, been an object with schools of design to train artists; they have not produced men of capacity in fine arts. A few perhaps have become artists, but these could easily be counted; they have, however, helped the increase of a low class of artists,—some pattern drawers and artisans have made it their chief object to gain in these schools some knowledge of the drawing of the human figure, with a view to giving up pattern drawing, and taking to fine art; they get a little knowledge and skill of rather an ordinary kind, and start as *cheap portrait painters*. Could inquiry be prosecuted into this, it would be found to be surprising how much there is of this sort of thing. For example, one artisan, a pattern maker for smiths, showed some aptitude, and acquired such knowledge of the figure as irregular attendance and short study permitted; his wages were from fifteen to eighteen shillings a week; he took to making cheap chalk portraits, and realised two pounds two shillings a week by this means. Another student, a pattern drawer, attended very irregularly at the school of design; got a little knowledge of the figure; he appeared to have very mediocre ability, but is now obtaining countenance and employment as a cheap portrait painter; nothing can be more vulgar and bad than his productions, but he gets employment of a low description. Let us trace such *artists*. They are very moderately educated, in the general sense of that term—their manners are those of their class—they invariably become conceited at an early

stage of their studies—they have no just notions about art—they are not accessible to advice, because in provincial towns the art they generally see is low, and they fancy it will not be difficult to do as well—they get employment—sometimes are taken up as persons of genius by ordinary people, and paint wretched portraits—they do not continue to study from the antique, or take any advantage of the school of design—they work on, acquiring a small practice, and improve up to a certain mark, and become established as artists of a very mediocre standing—very common men, with no true ideas of art, and illiterate. This state of things does not say much for the state of art-education in the country. There is no fault in the schools of design in all this; they were not established to make *artists* in the higher sense of the term.

Leaving provincial towns, let us take a capital, Edinburgh, for instance. In this city a school was established about 1760 by the Scottish board for the promotion of manufactures; it has had a very eminent series of masters, nearly all artists of distinction. As Edinburgh is not a manufacturing city, this school has always had some difficulty in finding *industrial* pupils, pursuing art with reference to industrial pursuits, and besides, till the year 1836, the teaching was almost exclusively limited to that of the human figure. The artists who presided over it had no knowledge of manufacture or design for manufactures, and, except in the case of one of the masters, the late Mr. Andrew Wilson, few appear to have thought of the original object of the school; most Scottish artists of the modern school were instructed in this school. The hours of attendance were from six to eight o'clock four nights a week, and this *was all* that for many a year was provided for public instruction in art. This was utterly inadequate for its purpose. The system of teaching the figure exclusively did next to nothing for industrial design, and turned all the best students away from industrial pursuits to become artists.

Certain students in the school attended to study art as artists, others as house painters and artisans. These drawing, perhaps, as well as the former, were naturally led to leave mechanical pursuits and become artists also. At a later period, about 1828 or 1829, or thereabouts, the members of a Royal Institution for the encouragement of the fine arts, devoted their funds, somewhere about 2000*l.*, to the purchase of pictures by the old masters in Italy; most of these were bought by Mr. Andrew Wilson in Genoa and Florence; and when it is considered that the cost was some 1800*l.* for the pictures purchased, it is a very excellent collection; it contains some really fine pictures, particularly Vandykes and Tintorets. This collection was a new advantage for Edinburgh, added to the school already mentioned, the Trustees' Academy, which possessed a superb collection of casts.

It is to be noted that the same trustees built a magnificent series of galleries in a Greek temple-like edifice for exhibitions for the school, and in part of these rooms the pictures purchased by the Royal Institution were located. About 1836, Mr. William Dyce and Mr. C. Heath Wilson submitted a plan to the board of trustees for the extension of their school, for a more decided promotion of industrial art or design, as applied to manufacture; and consequently a school of ornament and a school of painting were opened, and the time of instruction became four hours instead of two, and three masters were appointed—for drawing the figure, Sir William Allan; painting, William Dyce; ornament, C. H. Wilson. This was a great step in advance.

Under the old system many eminent Scottish artists had studied in the Trustees' Academy, and large claims have been advanced in its favour on this account; but although two hours' study of the antique for four days per week is better than nothing, it does not merit the title of provision for the instruction of artists of any grade. Little as it was, students came from different parts of Scotland to attend this school; but the numbers were for

long limited to some forty. As supplementary to the instruction given, students who attracted the master's attention by their talents, had pictures lent to them, and they brought their efforts to him for criticism and advice; thus a sort of erratic course of study was pursued, and artists were gradually formed.

There was in this system little that was really digested and adapted to the *real* promotion of art; there was no literary study inculcated, and the artists so educated are *mere painters*, not remarkable in any way for general attainments.*

* To sum up these Scotch efforts briefly :—

1st. An academy under the auspices of the Honorable Board of Manufactures, established in Edinburgh in the last century (first school of design in the kingdom); the funds provided from the forfeited estates of Scottish adherents of the rebellion, 1745. A very modest school, provided with a few casts from the antique and prints of the human figure.

2nd. Collection of casts, extended about 1822 by purchases made in Paris by Mr. A. Wilson, master.

3rd. A Royal Institution for encouragement of fine arts by ancient and modern exhibitions, established in Edinburgh somewhere about 1819. The charter making it Royal was not, however, obtained till some years after that period.

4th. A magnificent building, with galleries, erected and opened about 1825. Trustees' Academy established there, and modern exhibitions by the Royal Institution. This last association employed Mr. A. Wilson to lay the foundation of a library, about 1825, for the benefit of artists, chiefly consisting of engravings bound up in volumes.

5th. Gallery of casts increased from time to time. School presided over by Sir William Allan.

6th. The artists having gathered strength, and made considerable strides in art, began to feel that they could manage the exhibitions themselves, and a Scottish Academy was formed, before which the Royal Institution retired, and gave up its functions. The academy obtained a Royal charter, became a very flourishing institution, formed a life academy, which, however, had a fitful existence; established a library, and has been collecting works of art, purchasing very fine pictures by the late William Etty, R.A., Mr. Lewis, and others.

7th. In 1836, Mr. Dyce and Mr. C. H. Wilson gave an impetus to the Trustees' Academy—now an important school of design, with a large number of students; large additions made to collection of casts by agency of Mr. C. H. Wilson.

8th. To go back to 1828 or 1829, Royal Institution having given place to Royal Scottish Academy, spent subscriptions of its members on old pictures.

9th. About 1837 or 1838, a fine collection of old masters left to the college, but deposited with the Royal Institution pictures.

10th. 1855 and present year, grand new edifice provided by Government, for exhibitions of Royal Scottish Academy, and the *National Gallery of Scotland*. This last, not yet opened, will contain the pictures known as the Royal Institu-

The process by which a knowledge in England of the arts of painting and sculpture is attained is this:—A young man receives tuition from a private master; he draws from the antique at the British Museum for a certain time, and when he shows that he has sufficient talent to qualify him for a student of the Royal Academy, he is admitted; but the expense of acquiring that preliminary knowledge is considerable, and the young artist must be supported by his relatives during the time that he is acquiring it. The fee to a private master is from 200*l.* to 500*l.*, according to the rank of the artist with whom he is apprenticed. This portion of his study is generally undertaken between the ages of fourteen and twenty-one. The principal private school in London is at 21, Bloomsbury Street, Bedford Square.

This school, established and carried on many years by Mr. Sass for the education of artists, and the instruction of amateurs in drawing and painting in oil and water colours, modelling, etching, &c., and possessing every requisite as a probationary school for the Royal Academy, is now conducted on the same principles as heretofore by Mr. F. S. Cary. The gallery and studios contain an extensive collection of casts from the antique, drawings, and works of art. Instruction is given in figure and landscape drawing, anatomy, perspective, light and shadow, colour, and composition.*

The schools of the Royal Academy are intended to provide the means of studying the human form, with respect both to anatomical knowledge and taste of design. They consist of two departments,—the one appropriated to the

tion pictures, the Torry bequest to the college, and the pictures by Etty belonging to the Royal Scottish Academy, five in number, and very large in size.

There is thus in the capital of Scotland a great provision for education in art, but it is not well organised. The schools do not work on any grand and intelligible plan under first-class men, but are open for brief periods; and it cannnot be said that they present any remarkable results, considering the immense provision made in galleries, casts, pictures, and engravings. Few schools in Europe have better means; few, perhaps, produce smaller results.

* There are two other schools in London, the addresses of which the author has been unable to obtain.

study of the best remains of ancient sculpture, and the other to the study of living models. To these has been added a school of painting.

Any person who desires to become a student of the Royal Academy, must present a drawing or model of his own performance to the keeper, which, if considered by him a proof of sufficient ability, is laid before the council, together with a testimony of his moral character from an academician, or other known person of respectability. If these are approved by the council, the candidate is then permitted to make a drawing or model from one of the antique figures in the Academy, and the space of three months from the time of receiving such permission is allowed for the purpose. The time of his attendance is from ten o'clock in the morning until three in the afternoon. This drawing or model, when finished, is laid also before the council, accompanied with outline drawings of an anatomical figure and skeleton, not less than two feet high, with tests and references on each drawing of the several muscles, tendons, and bones contained therein, together with the drawing or model originally presented for his admission as a probationer; if approved, the candidate is accepted as a student of the Royal Academy, and he receives in form the ticket of admission from the hand of the keeper in the antique school. But if the specimen presented be rejected by the council, he is not allowed to continue drawing in the Academy.

A sufficient number of examples are at all times kept in the antique school and placed before the students.

When sufficiently advanced, the student is transferred to the school of the living model, and thence to the school of painting. Eight visitors are annually elected from among the academicians who are painters, and attend in rotation in the painting school twice a week, for two hours each time, to superintend the progress of the students, and afford them such instruction as may be necessary.

A great many premiums are given by the Royal Academy, which are annually distributed.

The students of the Royal Academy have free access (for the purpose of study) to the schools to which they have been regularly admitted, at all the stated hours, during the space of ten years. They have also the privilege of attending the lectures of the professors, the library, and, under certain regulations, the annual exhibition. Those who obtain premiums, retain the privileges of a student for life; but although, except in this case, the privileges of a student cease at the expiration of ten years, the council have the discretionary power of granting admission to the schools, the library, and lectures, for one year, to those who have been formerly students; which indulgence may be from time to time renewed.

The Royal Academy, in times of peace, enable a student from among those who have obtained a gold medal to pursue his studies on the continent for the term of three years. He is elected from each of the classes—painting, sculpture, and architecture—in rotation; and is allowed the sum of 80*l.* for his journey and return, and the sum of 130*l.* annually for his expenditure.

Within two years the student is obliged to send home some original work of his own, otherwise the remainder of his allowance will be withheld. The fortunate or unfortunate pensioned student, as the case may be, is sent to Italy, a raw youth full of ignorance and prejudice. In Rome he is utterly uncared for: studies as his ignorance dictates. Few of the students stand high.

"They manage these things differently in France." The French Academy has a prize called the "Prix de Rome." The students who obtain this prize go to Rome, find a palace there ready to receive them, with a director, a first-class French artist,—every convenience provided, even polite society. Their studies are directed. They must produce certain works every year in painting, sculpture, and architecture; if meritorious, the nation retains them, and very great works are frequently produced. Their travelling expenses are paid,—they are politically aided and

protected. The architects are provided with scaffolds for measuring monuments. Some very great French artists have held the "Prix de Rome;" very few R. A. travelling students have turned out great men.

English artists generally seem to be dissatisfied with the whole system of art-education in England. It is alleged that we have no substitute for, or anything to compare with, the system of the old masters, each of whom had his school, in which young aspirants were trained, from grinding colours, upwards,—studying the whole mechanism of art, its application to decoration, to manufacture, to building (for artists were then often architects also), becoming assistants in public works, and finally independent artists, and heads of schools.

Thus the old master knew everything—he invented on sound grounds—drew admirably—understood everything accessory to his art, for he could draw everything well. He thoroughly comprehended all the necessary laws of his art, and all its mechanism.

An English artist has no traditional mechanism; he knows nothing of his materials, which he buys from a colourman, who probably adulterates them; he knows nothing of their chemical composition, or any means, even the simplest, of detecting adulteration. His knowledge of art is generally limited to a fixed series of subjects. If he draws the human figure, he soon falls into a mannerism, and repeats himself constantly, as much from ignorance as from lack of imagination. If he can draw architectural subjects, or landscape, well, he puts in figures which are hardly human in form—all such accessories to his main subject he draws and paints like a child. Indeed, most of our great (and they are really great) landscape and architectural painters introduce figures into their pictures which are below criticism.

The portrait-painter, on the other hand, cannot draw the architectural details of his backgrounds with the commonest accuracy, barely puts his tables, chairs, &c., and

other accessories, in good perspective. Indeed, very many artists will be found ignorant of optics and the laws of gravitation.

Few of our artists are acquainted with the history of art, or that of its greatest professors; most are illiterate as compared with the generality of gentlemen of professional standing. Of course there are many brilliant exceptions to these general remarks, as graceful in their manners and as highly accomplished as Reynolds or Lawrence, but these remarks are only too just as to the mass. It may be, indeed, that the artist does not hold the position that it has been contended in this chapter he ought to hold,—not a little on the account that his want of education makes him uninteresting in society, out of his art.

The inference from these facts is, that there is really no great and judicious scheme of art-education in this country, wide, comprehensive, and worthy of the name. When an artist is met, who has risen high in art, it is by the power of his own genius; and the narrowness of his field, as compared with the wide field of the old master, is especially indicative of a bad system.

CHAPTER XII.

THE PROFESSIONS OF ART.—THE SCULPTOR.

WERE there any profession that might be omitted from the scheme of this work, as one that is seldom entered upon by a preconsidered selection, it would be that of a sculptor. Noble and wonderful profession as it is, it is one that seldom, if ever, would come into the consideration of a parent or guardian. The sculptor almost invariably takes to his calling from some combination of unforeseen circumstances, or if he deliberately chooses it, it is from an irresistible bias towards it.

A very little consideration will point out the reason of this. The profession of the sculptor is a profession of masters—there is no success but in excellence; it admits of no mediocrity. Like some of those colleges that admit none but fellows, all must be of the highest order, or of none. The produce of the sculptor's skill is of the most costly description, within the reach only of a few, who are able to pay a high price, and consequently expect the highest excellence in that which they purchase. Were it less costly, the art would still be confined. Sculpture calls into play one taste only, that of form, a taste seldom existing in any exalted degree, except in the best cultivated minds. It occupies one faculty, and that must be in the highest condition. The painter has colour, and light and shade, to give variety to his creation. He may be mediocre in all the several requisites of an artist, namely, form, colour, and light, and yet may produce a pleasing combination. People in general are more ready to admit

mediocrity in painting than in sculpture. An inferior artist may obtain a good living by painting portraits, or taking some line suited to the tenuity of his capacity, but no such door is open to the sculptor. The bust-likeness even, is so expensive, that none but the master can hope for employment.

Accordingly, we find that sculptors are generally either persons who have worked their way up from the lower grades of workers in stone, or are persons who have taken the profession from the possession of a decided natural genius for this employment, a genius that generally displays itself in very early life. The larger number of sculptors have been supplied from the working men; everybody knows the humble origin of Grinling Gibbons, Flaxman, and Chantrey. Whenever a man is more than usually successful in carving in wood or stone, he immediately aims to become a designer, and probably so far succeeds; his next aim is to be a sculptor, but marble is very expensive, and workmen's wages have to be paid for cutting and carving the ambitious ideas of the rising man. When the statue is finished, a sale is very uncertain—even a chance of exhibition doubtful, so that the would-be sculptor pauses before executing a conception without an order; and orders for sculpture are angels' visits. Thus this profession, which promises fortune, title, and fame to the super-excellent, is one that must be gradually worked into or embraced with much fear and trembling.

The education, as far as England is concerned, is just the same in method as that held out to the painter, both by the craft and the Royal Academy. The expense is similar, except that if the student does more than practice in clay, he may empty his pockets in spoiling a few good blocks of marble.

With all its disadvantages, there can be little doubt that, as a pecuniary profession, the sculptor's profession has of late improved. The wealthy of England who can afford sculptures, are increased in number, and the taste for this kind of art has been wonderfully developed by a

few excellent great exhibitions, where there was room for the exhibition, and also not a little by the beautiful invention of the Parian. There are few drawing-rooms without a copy of Danneker's "Ariadne," or Power's "Greek Slave;" and who would not, had they the means, purchase the originals? There is, however, one source of work to the sculptor, in connection with which the purse-strings of the wealthy loosen, and that is, monumental memorials. No small portion of the sculptor's profit is derived from this source. The sculptor has ostentation and affection coming to his aid, as well as wealth and pride, in this branch of his employment.

The right of copy is another advantage lately opened to him, not only as it permits him to repeat his best designs without fear of robbery by others, but enables him to let out his design for repetition in cheaper materials, as plaster or Parian. It is said that Power repeated the "Greek Slave" nine times, and certainly, had he been an English subject, an interest in all the copies of his great work that have been sold would have realised no mean sum for him.

The sculptor of late years has obtained a kind of universal public; he does not now depend upon the applause of his own countrymen for his fame, but if he produces one great work, his reputation soon spreads over the whole of Europe and America. Examples of this may be remembered in Canova, Thorwaldsen, Danneker, Chantrey, Power, Marochetti, and many others. When, then, one great work is produced, orders will come to him from the wealthy of all lands: he has a public in the world at large, and fortune rapidly follows on the heels of fame. If a man, when he determines on this most difficult of crafts, can be sure of that one great work, he may take up his chisel with some safety, but if not, he had better leave it alone.

CHAPTER XIII.

PROFESSIONS OF ART.—THE ARCHITECT.

ARCHITECTS are either civil, naval, or military. To a civil architect, the term is applied simply, without the qualifying adjective, and to the others with the distinctive adjective prefixed. Architecture requires of its professor that he be both a man of science and an artist. He has to study it as a useful science, and as a decorative art; the former requires a more than ordinary knowledge of that which natural philosophy teaches, together with a technical knowledge and acquaintance of the mechanical arts used in building; and the latter, a fine perception of that which is competent to produce pleasing effects, and the manner in which they may be combined to produce grandeur and beauty. It often happens, and particularly on the continent, where, indeed, they do not profess to be otherwise, that architects are totally devoid of all technical knowledge of the details of their profession, in which case a surveyor, or supervisor, is required to carry the architect's designs into execution. Such architects are little better than mere draughtsmen. In this country there is a large class of persons called surveyors, most of whom are in fact mere measurers. They, too, assume the office and distinction of architects, and are frequently employed as such. Country builders, again, who are for the most part simply carpenters, masons, or plasterers, are not unfrequently allowed to execute designs of their own, the result of which passes with the vulgar for architecture, and their authors are called architects. Vitruvius, who, whatever may be his merits as an historian of architecture, certainly well

understood what an architect should be, requires him to be versed in almost every branch of science and art that was taught at the time he wrote.

"Very few names of the architects of antiquity, most deserving of celebrity, have descended to us through authentic channels. Vitruvius was himself so obscure as not to be mentioned, or in any way referred to, by any ancient author whose works remain to the present time. Of the authors of the splendid architectural monuments of Egypt and India, we know absolutely nothing. It is, indeed, but with difficulty and uncertainty that we can indicate the architects of the middle ages, the inventors and perfectors of that magnificent and beautiful style which, in the absence of a better generic name, has been called Gothic. They were mostly ecclesiastics, frequently bishops and abbots.

"When learning began to extend itself beyond the cloister, and science and the liberal arts were allowed to shed their influence on the minds of men, their application to useful and agreeable purposes became the occupation or profession of distinct classes. These had, of course, to derive reasonable emolument from their respective professions. It was generally made in the form of fees. Fees, however, could not be well determined in some professions, and among them that of architecture. At first the architect was paid so much for a design, and a salary as supervisor, or surveyor, to its execution; but the established custom of the country now is, that the architect shall be paid a commission of five per cent. on the cost of the structure he is engaged to design and execute. For this he makes the design; an estimate of the expense if required; a specification of everything required to be done by the builder by contract or otherwise; with working drawings of details. He superintends the execution of the structure, and measures and values the whole of the work if necessary, when completed, to check the builder's account."*

* Encyclopædia Britannica.

The position of the architect in England is an anomalous one; he is by the great mass of the community looked upon as something between the professional man and the trader, his function being often usurped by the builder, and by unqualified and inferior men. His present position is inferior to that to which he is entitled. In no profession are there so many unqualified practitioners as in architecture; men who live on the brains, the talent, and the hard-work of the educated but poor and unassisted. There are architects who can draw, but know little of construction, materials, or surveying; and others who, with little knowledge of the matter, cannot even draw.

The usual mode of educating an architect is to article the young man to an architect in practice for a period of from four to five years. The premium varies from 100*l.* to 500*l.*; when the higher premium is given, it is because the pupil, at the expiration of his articles, is usually installed in some situation where he is at once in the receipt of an income. The pupil's outfit is of a very inexpensive kind, not exceeding a few pounds for the purchase of drawing instruments, &c.

The first business of a pupil is to become an expert and neat draughtsman, and a good and quick arithmetician; unless he knows something of these matters (especially the rudiments of arithmetic) before he enters into his articles, it will take him at least eighteen months to learn them. The most expeditious and usual method employed to educate the pupil is to allow him to trace from original designs; by their means his hand is guided at once in the right way, and he becomes accustomed to express technically and accurately all architectural ideas on paper. He must study closely geometry, and learn to project on paper the most difficult object. He will not however attain much proficiency in the latter before he can thoroughly read and decipher geometrical drawings. Tracing therefore from correct drawings here comes to his assistance very materially, and he stores up for himself a vast amount of original matter, which will be

sure to serve him in after life. Although this method is usually very distasteful to the pupil, he should not fear it, but work steadily and thoroughly: the apparently slow way is the quickest in the end.

It will be seen by this, that the young man intended for an architect should be prepared by a good commercial education, including mathematics, and foreign languages, especially French and Italian, most of the foreign works on architecture being in those languages.

A journey to Greece and Rome is thought a great advantage; the pupil should be away about two years. As living is very cheap in these countries, 100*l.* a-year, with the expenses of transit, ought, with care, to be sufficient. The pupil should not go abroad until he is out of his apprenticeship, or before he has a good knowledge of his profession, and is capable of criticising with a practical eye what he will see, otherwise he will do himself no good whatever, and will return with notions as crude and vague about the real construction and artistic merit of a building as are but too often found in all guide or handbooks.

It has at times been urged, then, in order to learn construction, that the young architect should pass some of his time with a builder; but the author has found that all architects that he has talked with on the subject condemn the practice on various grounds, but not a little on the evil influence the necessity of associating with a lower class, who are rather given to drink and taverns, has not only on the morals, but even on the personal taste.

The system of architectural education does not seem to give much satisfaction to the profession at large. It is said that "the young architectural pupil enjoys but few more advantages than he did fifty years ago. A young man is put into an architect's office (perhaps with a large premium) for four or five years, and during that period he has little or no attention paid by the principal to his education as an architect, or to qualify him for one. He is left to pick up what knowledge he can from the paid

clerks, surveyors, and drawers in the office. He seldom has an opportunity of visiting buildings to study construction or the finishing of an edifice; he is left to draw out orders, and to find the best way of accomplishing this; he has seldom any explanation given, either in this or any portion of the routine business. After he quits the office there is no institution open to him of an evening for practical instruction,—no general architectural library, —no collection of working models or drawings to refer to, —no models of buildings,—no practical experiments, or lectures in a lecture room."

The latter part of this censure is exaggerated; there are now excellent lectures given by Professor Donaldson at University College, London. There are also occasional lectures at the Institute of British Architects, and at the Architects' Association.

The Royal Academy admits students in architecture. Each candidate to be a student in architecture must present an architectural design, and also a specimen of his drawing in plaister, to the keeper; if these be approved by the council, he will be permitted to make another architectural design in the presence of the keeper, and also a drawing from one of the antique figures, or some portion of ornamental sculpture; both of which drawings, together with the usual testimony of his character, must be laid before the council, and, if approved, he will be admitted in the same manner as other students.

The students in architecture are eligible to the travelling studentship; the travelling students being elected from the classes of painting, sculpture, and architecture in rotation.

A number of British architects having associated themselves together for the purpose of forming an institution for the general advancement of architecture, and formed a collection of books and works of art, and established correspondence with learned and scientific men in foreign countries, for the purpose of inquiry and information upon the subject of this art, were incorporated by

William IV., under the name of the Institute of British Architects. It contains three classes of members: fellows, associates, and honorary fellows. The fellows are architects, who have been engaged as principals for at least seven years successively in the practice of civil architecture. The associates are persons engaged in the study or practice of civil architecture for a less term than seven years, and who have attained the age of twenty-one years; but such associates are not eligible to hold any office in the society, except that of auditor, and are not permitted to interfere in the regulation of the affairs of the society. There is a president and a council. The Earl De Grey was the first president.

It will be observed from the above that the period of studentship in this profession is at the lowest four years, during which period the student, not living at home, will require at least 150*l.* a year, and he must on that be economical, or, in all, at least 600*l.*; if to this we add 400*l.* for premium, and 100*l.* for books, instruments, and apparatus at starting, the whole expence of education will be found to be not under 1100*l.* In this sum no saving can be made, except in the premium, and to save there is a very false economy. The name and reputation of the master, in this as in other unprivileged professions, supply the place of the college. It is useless to send a pupil to a man of mean reputation; he may, indeed, be a man of talent and integrity, but his opportunity of showing practice to a student must of necessity be small. But, further, when the course is done, and the youth prepared for his start in life, the certificate of a man of high importance in the profession is of all consequence. It is necessary also to be cautious in apprenticing young men in this calling; there are many delusive persons professing to be called architects, but who are persons whose only business is to entrap pupils. The character of Pecksniff is founded on reality.

The architect's is not a rapid profession, and much on the same grounds that the bar is slow, as no one will trust

his rights, his character, or his liberty to a man of little experience; so when a proprietor has determined to lay out a large sum, perhaps a large portion of his fortune, in the building of a house, he hesitates before he calls to his aid any but a man of great name. The introduction of the system of competition has no doubt given great opportunity to the young men; but when this system was first introduced, it was found that it was seldom conducted with strict fairness, the design of some favourite competitor being well known to the "committee of taste;" afterwards, when, upon public clamour, a greater integrity was introduced into the selection, the older and celebrated artists, often finding that they were outbid by the young and unknown, began to confine themselves to their private practice, so that the committees of great buildings missed in the list of competitors' names those of the higher professors; consequently, the design-room was crowded with plans, it might be of great beauty, but useless for the purpose in hand. The competitive system has of late much declined, although it still exists to a great extent. It appears to be unpopular with architects; disappointment is always unpleasant, especially when tinged with suspected unfairness; besides, a considerable amount of labour and expense remains unremunerated.

The qualities required by an architect are not in themselves rare, but the combination that the profession demands is rare; it requires taste for design, mechanical inventiveness, and business qualities,—a very rare combination indeed. It is easy for many persons of taste to design a building, but can such freaks of taste be adapted to the useful purpose intended? That is always the first question. The architect is, in the first instance, required to be a scientific man, and then, if possible, to engraft his sense of beauty on his utilitarian stock. Of not less advantage to him are those business qualities, that tact that enables him, not only to produce the best and most beautiful design for a given purpose, but also with the least possible means. Sir Christopher Wren combined,

in the highest excellence, a power over the scientific with a sense of the beautiful; but we have little evidence of other qualities; he was generally well backed up with money, and never seems to have wanted the means to carry out a given purpose to the full extent of his design. In the present age he would not have been afforded so excellent an opportunity, when architectural taste is growing more rapidly than the means of gratification.

The architect is now often called upon to produce a sufficient and beautiful building on spare means. He must substitute beauty of general form to luxury of ornament, and skilfully suggest a style or a plan that will satisfactorily fulfil all conditions. Examples will be found of such an adaptation of architecture to means in many of Pugin's chapels, and particularly in a very beautiful but simple church by that architect, in Liverpool, built upon penny subscriptions. In selecting the profession of an architect, it is not sufficient for the aspirant to have simply a taste for design, or a talent for form, but power for mechanics, and an aptitude for arrangement and economic adjustment.

The pecuniary rewards held out to the successful are undoubtedly great, but not in private practice easy of attainment; those at the head command nearly all. Of late a new class of emoluments, in the form of railway appointments, has been opened to this profession. There is constant building or repair going on on every railway, and each company of sufficient importance employs one or more superintending architects. Many other companies also now employ salaried architects.

CHAPTER XIV.

PROFESSIONS OF SCIENCE.—CIVIL ENGINEERS.

THE civil engineers form a modern profession. It first began to acquire importance after the formation of the Bridgewater canal by Brindley. The success of that undertaking brought forward prominently a new class of public works, and demanded with them a body of scientific men, before that time comparatively in obscurity, or regarded rather as road-makers and surveyors. All the great works previously existing had been constructed by persons who had not practiced engineering as a profession, or studied it as a science. A few monuments of individual genius, such as the Eddystone lighthouse, were scattered over the country, and around the coasts; and roads of an improved kind were, in the midst of much opposition, gradually extending through the land. England, at the beginning of the present century, was without her great works, and consequently without that talented and energetic body of engineers, that have made their fame permanent in their wondrous operations all over the world. It had been left to the present century to construct docks, to clear estuaries, to light the coasts, to drain large tracts of country, to supply towns with water, and to cleanse them by systems of sewerage, and lastly to provide internal traffic by canals and railways.

As the system of great works now overspreading the country has risen rapidly and irregularly, so has the profession which their necessity called forth been drawn from all ranks of life, from all its periods, from numerous

other occupations, and endowed with every variety and amount of acquirement. Very few, indeed, if any, of the older engineers now in practice, have received anything approaching an education for their calling. They have been military engineers whose occupation peace had destroyed, intelligent foremen of works, successful builders, and land-surveyors. They have often risen from the lowest occupations, as in the case of Telford, who began life by building dry dykes, and in a great number of cases have proceeded and proceeded to brilliant success with very meagre acquirements in the science of the subjects they dealt with, trusting most generally to the rule of thumb and their own intelligence.

Amongst such a body of men, practical in their minds, and practical in their callings, anything but a purely practical education has always been regarded with disfavour. Telford looked upon mathematics as little better than useless for an engineer's purpose;—perhaps, not without reason, in an occupation that has to deal in everyday business, not with reasons, but with results. Provided an engineer knows the law of the lever, what matters to him the delicate theory of couples of forces by which that law has been established, or the balance of forces which sustain an arch, when he has ascertained a rule by observation, that will enable him to cut his voussoirs. At least, so seem to have thought the older race of engineers, and the education that they have given to the present generation has been founded on that plan. The pupil has been taken into the office, put to drawing, made a perfect draughtsman, sent into the field to work out the drawings of others, set to calculate work from a few simple rules, that may have taken generations to discover. The engineer is essentially the "heir of all the ages, and the long result of time." He takes a discovery, applies it to his own purpose with intelligence, and ends in despising the science and genius that gave him the facts that he works with, just as the accomplished carver forgets the toolmaker who made his chisels, or the public the mint that

coined their guineas. It was a hint of Dr. Black's theory of the expansion of gases, in the hearing of the practical James Watt, that added the vacuum-chamber to the steam-engine, and established the invention. Henry Cort's scientific enquiries into the nature of iron, led him to the puddling-furnace and the rolls, and the engineer to the railroad. The well-known truths of magnetism, when touched by the practical mind of an engineer, gave the world the electric telegraph; and a few of the simpler facts of geology, in a similar manner, led to the Artesian well. The almost dilettanti speculation of Huyghens produced the suspension bridge.

From the above we observe what the engineer is—he is a combiner of facts, not a discoverer of new ones; his mind is synthetical, not analytical; and it is this consideration that leads us to the kind of person best suited to this calling. It is generally what is called a practical mind, because it is that class of mind that can directly apply its results to the business of life, a privilege not extending to the analytical or imaginative. It is a mind that presents an ability for invention rather than discovery, and it is discovered not only by this faculty, but by a taste for operation rather than for study. If a young man has a genius of this kind, he may with safety be made an engineer, provided he is not wanting in some other qualities noticed below. It may be almost said that this, of all professions, is the one in which originality is wanted even for respectable success—the profession in which strength of intellect and experience cannot supply everything. The greatest success is not here referred to: of course the minds that could conceive such works as the Britannia Bridge, the Thames Tunnel, and the Bell Rock Lighthouse, require no selection, they mark out for themselves their own destiny. But even in this, the most original of professions, not excepting Art, there must be a number of mediocre minds, mediocre, at least, in comparison with the great ones.

It is asserted that a certain amount of originality,

shown in a power of invention, or readiness of resource, is a necessary quality for the engineer. Skilful and well-concealed imitation may succeed in other professions supposed to demand originality; but the engineer has to enter into a contest with nature, and, as she often deals with him without precedent, so she must be met in the same way. Education and a store of facts may do much for him, and, in after life, experience may bear him up, but his contest with nature has to commence—it may be at the period of life when his knowledge is smallest.

The engineer has to deal with nature, and has, therefore, to be acquainted with, or at least with the results of, most of the physical sciences. He must be more or less conversant with mechanics, both statics and dynamics, hydrostatics and hydrodynamics, the laws of heat and light, the structure of the earth, and the last discoveries in mineralogy and geology, inorganic chemistry, and, for some purposes, even plain astronomy and the laws of the tides. In all these subjects, he will constantly have to deal with problems that do not occur in the ordinary text-books, and if they have not been touched upon by any other engineer, he must solve them himself. Thus, though very eminent engineers have existed without any regular scientific education, it is impossible not to perceive how important a complete education in mathematics and the physical sciences must be to the accomplished engineer, the more so when we observe that previous calculation is daily becoming a more and more important feature of engineering, and that the ancient and primitive system termed "the rule of thumb" is rapidly disappearing. Because one man succeeds without an advantage, it does not follow that another man should not have it. A blind lieutenant once travelled over the whole of Europe,—yet who would support him if he asserted that, because he had succeeded without eyes, eyes are a disadvantage to a man that wishes to see the world; and so, because some great men have succeeded

in travelling to their goal without the use of the eyes of a previous scientific education, it is equally unreasonable to assert that aid to be useless.

Not less important than an aptitude for appreciating scientific truths, is a knowledge of and power for numbers. There is scarcely any branch of human learning more generally useful than numbers, to all professions and to all occupations, yet there are few more inefficiently taught, indeed, almost neglected. It is the subject of all others that ought to be completed at school; perfection in classics may require a more mature development of the taste, mathematics a power of concentration possessed by few very tender minds, but "number" is peculiarly the faculty of young boys, and has found its highest perfection, not in men, but in "calculating boys." Yet it is thought sufficient if a boy leaves school with a knowledge of a few antiquated methods or old rules imperfectly learnt, soon forgotten, because useless for any practical purpose in life. If a boy ought to leave school with anything complete, it ought to be arithmetic.

But, however this may be, power of number is of the last importance to the engineer, and it ought to be a power acquired by early practice, and completed in the high studies of mathematics.

From what has been said, it will be seen that the intended engineer ought to be one that has a talent for acquiring, appreciating,—in fact, a taste for physical science, or, rather, for the physical portions of science; a mere analyst, however talented, has not the right form of mind. This power and direction of mind can only be tested by the study of the physical sciences, or by shown aptitude in a purely practical education; some time must be lost in the trial. This synthetical faculty must be accompanied by a power of number, and a certain readiness of invention, as I have before explained.

A knowledge of languages ought also to form part of the preliminary education of the civil engineer, especially French and German, not only that he may be able to read

the celebrated works of other engineers in those languages, but many of his best opportunities may be laid in foreign countries.

The curriculum of his previous education should therefore be—mathematics as high as statics, dynamics, and hydrostatics, modern languages, some of the experimental and natural sciences, such as chemistry, heat, electricity, mineralogy and geology; and finally, another accomplishment that should always be commenced early, namely, drawing, including elementary geometrical drawing, and the study of form from nature.

Turning to the moral qualities required by the engineer, there cannot be a doubt that success will not attend him if he does not possess more perseverance and enterprise than is required for most other callings. We have said before that he has to deal with nature, and therefore with obstacles hidden from his view, or, at least, conjectured only, and but partly understood; from this circumstance he is liable to constant disappointment. An unexpected flood breaks his coffer-dams, and bears away the unfinished piers of his bridge; his railway has to pass over a morass, which was, perhaps, examined in the summer, but when winter comes appears to have no foundation, and has an almost inexhaustible appetite for every kind of ballast that can be thrown into it; or an unfortunate adit opens the bass of his chalk well into a new series of fissures, and robs him of the water even that he had already obtained. In any such circumstances, if he will retain his character, he has often to begin again. Telford first extended his renown by calmly recommencing a single-arch bridge that had given way on removing the centering, and which had been regarded as an impossibility. The outcries of his detractors were loud on the fall of the bridge, but he succeeded in making it stand on a second trial, and it remains a beautiful model of skill and courage.* The fame of

* It is many years since the author read Telford's Memoirs, but he is inclined to think that the bridge fell *twice*, and was *three* times built.

Brunel mainly rests upon the Thames Tunnel; his perseverance alone enabled him to complete it. It was several times flooded, and was once abandoned for years, and, long before its completion, the engineer alone retained hopes of success. It was perseverance that established Brunel.

The engineer also requires great enterprise. This is a different quality from perseverance. The latter is a passive defence against circumstances, the former an active assault upon them. They very often go together, but not always. The persevering man, who has no enterprise, generally turns out a plodder; the enterprising man who has no perseverance, a schemer. A passion for scheming must not be confounded with true enterprise. Scheming is quick, perhaps inventive; rash, yet weak and facile, and easily discouraged. True enterprise is the very opposite of these. It is, indeed, quick in invention, but deliberate in action; cautious, but daring; never led astray by the opinions of others, depending much on its own internal resources, and impossible to conquer. The one is sanguine, the other merely hopeful; the one projects rapidly, and sees a result in the supposed excellence of its scheme, the other deliberates carefully, and determines on success by resolution as well as invention, when once its determination is taken. The resemblance between them is not real; it is as the rouge to the bloom, the counterfeit to the coin, and is readily detected on examination.

The engineer requires enterprise, for he must generally, if not always, be the projector of his own work; and having prepared a project capable of execution, and useful to the public, he then has to recommend it to the capitalist, to obtain supporters, to overcome objections, and to publish its advantages; in short, to conquer men, before he can be in a position to overcome nature. Even should it happen that he is not the projector of the work, but that it is brought to him by another, he will not improbably have been as much selected for his enterprise as for his

invention; an "enterprising engineer" is a common phrase, one who is determined not to see difficulties, and certainly not to create them.

In short, the engineer has to do with men almost as much as with nature. In England he has to watch his scheme through Parliament, to make it familiar to agents, to drum it into counsel, and to defend it before a committee. In other countries, he has to overcome the opposition of hostile and ignorant officials; and even if he has been originally retained in the project of another, he will have to bend the will of his employer to the necessities of the best form of undertaking.

Engineers are generally distinguished into military and civil; and the latter class into consulting, operative, and machine engineers. Consulting engineers are a class that have arisen from the advantage derived by the aid given to the young in the power and experience of the celebrated. A scheme is laid before the consulting engineer, often prepared by the engineer who is to execute the work. The consulting engineer is often a person of great reputation, or a person who has paid particular attention to the class of work proposed to be executed. He either approves or disapproves of the scheme, giving, in fact, a professional opinion, proposing alterations, &c. Often, and especially where the works are to be prepared in another country, the consulting engineer prepares the drawings in his office, by which the foreign engineer completes the work. Another source of profit to the consulting engineer is giving evidence as a professional witness before courts of justice, but more often before parliamentary committees. Being furnished with the required data, he expresses a verbal professional opinion on the matter at issue.

The operative engineer is the engineer who executes the works; he is what is called a civil engineer in the ordinary sense; but generally, when he attains great eminence, combines the functions of a consulting engineer with his own.

The machine engineers are not strictly civil engineers, nor are they in the sense of our original definition, professional men; but they are so mixed up with the operations of the other engineers, that it is impossible not to refer to them. They are the makers of machines, engines, or machinery, on a large scale, and occupy an important feature in the manufacturing industry of the country.

The education of the young engineer, according to the plan at present pursued, follows the model of most of the unprivileged professions; it is carried out by a system of private pupilage or apprenticeship in the offices of the distinguished members of the craft. A college for civil engineers once existed, but it has long ago been broken up. The servitude under the present plan lasts from three to five years, and the premium paid varies from 200*l.* to 500*l.* It is advisable not to send a young man to this profession until a sound previous education has been completed, say at the age of eighteen, though it is customary to enter upon the duties much earlier. The youth is generally sent to the drawing-room, and the danger is, if he is idly inclined, that he will become little more than a correct draughtsman; if his master is not conscientious, he is likely to be encouraged in this, as his services as a draughtsman, after a few months, will become valuable.

The expense of his education and outfit will much follow that already detailed in the profession of the architect, to whom, indeed, he is allied in many points. Both build, but with different objects.

The best age, as has been said before, for commencing his professional studies is between seventeen and twenty, and, indeed, even at that age he will have to undergo great temptations if taken away from home, and thrown amongst a number of persons, with whom he must of necessity come in contact, whose habits are none of the best.

The condition of the profession of the engineer has undergone many changes within a few years; almost

unknown before the success of railways, it became one of the most important during a short period. It has now sunk again, but to an advanced normal condition. There are fewer public works to execute, but a greater number to be kept in repair, and a period is not far distant when a large amount of reconstruction, both on account of wear, and also of improvement, will be called for. At present a large number of salaried appointments attached to public works has been created.

The English possessions themselves, India and Australia especially, are opening out new and apparently almost inexhaustible fields for engineering enterprise.

The English engineer has a great *prestige* in foreign countries, and no small number of the great works of the continent have been constructed by them. This arises from a want of native talent to meet the demands of a general progress; but such a system cannot be expected to continue indefinitely. Every cause will begin to operate against the foreign engineer,—the inconvenience of employing the foreigner, the greater uncertainty of choice, national pride, and the coming into existence of a class of intelligent native subordinates, who must exist to second the foreigner, and will be anxious to rise to his place, and will avail themselves of his teaching.

On the whole, the engineer's is a good profession though still, no doubt, too much overcrowded. There is fortune to be made by it, and in its higher walks it leads to high reputation.

CHAPTER XV.

PROFESSIONS OF SCIENCE.—THE ACTUARY.

THE increase of insurance, both of lives and property, has brought into existence a new profession, that of the actuary. This profession may be said to have three branches:—1. The government actuary; 2. The private, or consulting actuary; and, 3. The insurance office actuary.

The first is an officer of considerable importance—his duties being to make all necessary calculations for the government in the department to which he is appointed. None but mathematicians of the highest order have any chance of these appointments at the present day. The appointment is given only after a severe competition, by testimonial, or examination.

The consulting or private actuary probably existed even before the institution of insurance companies, his business being to calculate the present value of reversions, deferred annuities, &c., or to settle the annual annuity at a given period equivalent to a given sum paid, and similar calculations incidental to commercial and legal business. A profitable portion of his business in the present day is advising insurance companies on points connected with their class of business. The consulting actuary is generally a good mathematician, and must add to that a knowledge of business.

The business of the actuary has, however, only lately assumed the position and consistency of a profession. This is in consequence of the great extension of the

system of life insurance. Most of the consulting actuaries are now more or less connected with some company of insurance. These societies are now so numerous and wealthy, that their principal officers, both in England and Scotland, have formed themselves into institutes, with the view of improving the character and tone of their honourable calling.

All actuaries, up to the present time, have educated themselves, and it has hitherto been extremely difficult for a student to pick up information from others, and they have had to make the best of the old books. A new set of writers have, to a certain extent, come to their assistance.

In order to give the profession a shape, a society called the Institute of Actuaries was formed in London, but it does not seem to have taken the confidence of the mass of the profession; in fact, the Scotch actuaries, being dissatisfied with its proceedings, left it in a body. Its object was to combine the profession, but it seems to have failed to do so. The Scotch actuaries then established an institute of their own, which includes the whole profession in Scotland.

The Faculty of Actuaries in Scotland is constituted—

For the purpose of associating professionally those gentlemen who are engaged in the management of life assurance institutions, or who are otherwise following the profession of an actuary: and

For promoting the study of the doctrine of probabilities; of vital statistics and statistics in general; of finance, as bearing on fluctuations in the value of money; and of all cognate subjects a knowledge of which is essential to the efficient discharge of the duties of a life assurance manager and actuary.

This institution divides itself into three classes,—matriculated students, associates, and fellows.

The matriculated students consist of any gentleman desirous of carrying on his studies in connection with the faculty, and ready to undergo a preliminary examination.

He is then entitled to attend the lectures and classes established by the faculty, and to have access to their library.

The next class is that of associates. They consist of any gentlemen not eligible for election as fellows, whom the council deem, from official position, or previous education, fit to be admitted. Also of matriculated students of the faculty, or any gentlemen who have been engaged four years in the office of a Scottish life assurance institution, or members of the Incorporated Society of Accountants of Edinburgh. These gentlemen must have attended the classes and lectures established by the faculty during at least two sessions, and who shall have attained the age of twenty-one. Previous to admission, this latter class are required to undergo two examinations, the one at an interval of not less than twelve months after the other, on such subjects as may be specified by the council; and if these examinations are passed to the satisfaction of the council, the candidate is admitted.

The highest class are the fellows. Any manager, actuary, or secretary of any Scottish life assurance institution at its principal establishment, and any professional actuary practising in Scotland, and associates of a year's standing, are eligible as fellows on the recommendation, in writing, of any four of the existing fellows. The institute also elects gentlemen distinguished by scientific acquirements on subjects connected with the objects of the faculty to be fellows or honorary fellows.

The following is the constitution and principal rules of the Institute of Actuaries in London:—

1. The Institute of Actuaries of Great Britain and Ireland is an association founded for the purpose of elevating the attainments and status, and promoting the general efficiency, of all who are engaged in occupations connected with the pursuits of an actuary; and for the extension and improvement of the data and methods of the science which has its origin in the application of the doctrine of probabilities to the affairs of life, and from which life assurance, annuity, reversionary interest, and other analogous institutions, derive their principles of operation. It embraces as its peculiar

province of inquiry, all monetary questions involving a consideration of the separate or combined effects of interest and probability.

2. The institute consists of contributing members, viz., fellows and associates (those of the latter who are, or may become, principal officers of any life assurance, annuity, or reversionary interest society, being distinguished by the title of "official associates"), and non-contributing, viz., honorary, foreign, and corresponding members.

3. It is governed by a president and council.

4. Every candidate for future admission as an associate must be approved by the council and proposed by two or more members, who shall certify from their acquaintance with him or his works that he is a fit person to be admitted. The certificate to that effect having been read, shall be suspended in some conspicuous place in the meeting room of the institute during an ordinary meeting, there to remain until the following ordinary meeting, at which a ballot shall be taken among all the members there present; and in the event of not less than three-fourths of the votes given being in the candidate's favour, he shall be declared duly elected; otherwise, not; and in the latter case he shall remain ineligible for renomination till the next session.

5. Any associate of the institute who shall hereafter obtain the appointment of actuary to the government, or to any life assurance, annuity, or reversionary interest society, and who shall previously to such appointment have obtained a certificate of competency from the institute, shall be at once admitted a fellow without ballot, subject to such regulations as may from time to time be appointed.

6. Upon the nomination of the council a ballot may be taken among the fellows and official associates for the admission, as a fellow of the institute, of any person who shall previously to the 8th of July, 1848, have been actuary to the government, or to any life assurance, annuity, or reversionary interest society, or who, although not an actuary, may be eminent for scientific attainments connected with the occupations of one; or, lastly, of any associate who shall have obtained the certificate of competency under the provisions of articles 40 and 41, and whom the council shall deem especially deserving of such distinction; and in the event of at least sixteen voting, and a majority of the votes given being in favour of the admission of any such person, he shall be declared duly elected a fellow; otherwise, not; provided always, that no person be elected under this rule until a certificate of his nomination by the council shall have been suspended in the manner provided under rule 4.

7. The council, at their first meeting subsequent to the annual

general meeting, shall appoint four or more members of the institute, of whom a moiety at least shall be fellows, as examiners, whose duty it shall be to examine candidates for certificates of competency, in accordance with a plan to be approved of by the council, and to report to the council the result of such examination.

8. The examination shall comprise at least the four following branches, viz. :—mathematical theory ; vital statistics ; computation and construction of tables ; book-keeping and office routine ; and it shall consist of three parts, separated from each other by an interval of at least one year, and no member shall be eligible for the final examination unless he shall be of the full age of twenty-one years.

These institutions have at present no legal sanction, and confer no exclusive privileges; nor, from the nature of the profession, would it seem to be necessary that they should do. But, at the same time, there can be no doubt that any institution, such as the Scottish Faculty of Actuaries, must exercise a decided influence over the fortunes of the young actuary.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE PROFESSION OF MUSIC.

Of all terms indicative of a profession, that of music is, perhaps, the most undefined and vague. We are told of one that he is in the church, the law, or in medicine, and we immediately assign to him a certain position in the social scale. Not so, however, with the musician. He may be, for aught we know, an itinerant fiddler, and of the lowest grade of society; or a man of the highest attainments, moving in the most exclusive circles, and occupying an exalted position in the literary world. Undefined indeed, is the status of the musician; nor can this be a matter of much surprise, since, unlike the professions above named, that of music is altogether unprotected. Its portals are open to all who choose to enter. And thus it must continue to be, until this beautiful science and art (for it is both) shall cease to be regarded as a mere accomplishment, and until it shall be replaced in the position it once occupied, both in this country and on the continent. Formerly, it was considered an indispensable branch of a learned education, being one of the sciences which constituted the *Quadrivium*, or highest class of philosophical learning, consisting of arithmetic, geometry, music, and astronomy, as the *Trivium* did of grammar, rhetoric, and logic. That music will eventually be re-instated in her proper sphere, there is, at the present day, every encouragement to hope. As yet, however, the musician, in the minds of many, scarcely ranks above an ordinary artizan, even

let him be ever so talented, or his character ever so irreproachable. In a pamphlet just published by Dr. Maurice, chaplain of New College, Oxon, in the form of a letter to the Earl of Derby, entitled, "What shall we do with Music?" the writer is most severe in his reproaches to the university, for her disrespect and neglect of this department of science, and its professors and graduates. "But, after all," he says, "music is not at fault. Where is a degree in any art so intrinsically real in either of our universities as the Master or Doctor of Music? It is the only high degree for which any qualification whatever is expected beyond that which time or money can lay claim to. A Doctor (or Inceptor) in Music must have studied and practised his art for a long term of years, though Oxford contributes not a mite towards his qualifications, but exacts, without taking any steps to ensure, the decent performance of those elaborate and finished compositions which a Doctor in Music must compose, and be present during its performance in that wretched room which is called the music school. It is now high time to hazard a few conjectures as to what we can, and what we ought, to do for music. We certainly ought to be just, if not generous, in the adjustment of the matter. Why not admit the musical tyro to the privileges and advantages of an academical student? We would not, for the time is scarcely arrived, propose the erection of a college or hall for musical students. Neither do we care to isolate the musical from the other elements which ought to characterise all departments of sound education in these so-called enlightened days. We do, however, long to see our Bachelors and Doctors of Music rising up within our own walls, that they may share in some of our privileges, and that we may for ourselves have opportunities of knowing what hard practice and regular studies ought to be. There is no cramming, no cribbing for the music school; no rising up to the highest class of excellence, without the diligent and painful attention to all the disciplines of the art and science. Why not

hold out some inducements to our own alumni? and there are hundreds flocking to our walls, who are rich in the promise of that particular talent. Why not have some fellowships, scholarships, exhibitions, or, at any rate, prizes, for the musical student? * * * * We trust that better things are in store for Oxford; neither do we fail to appreciate the first symptoms of a revival in this respect, or feel any scruple at acknowledging the honour conferred upon music as one of the arts and sciences, inasmuch as, by a recent amended statute, it is as yet the only art and science, or faculty, in which any inceptor, master, or doctor is distinguished with a degree, conferred after examination and due attention given to the studies of such sciences. The progress it has made of late years in the estimation of the public may, to a considerable extent, be inferred from the increase in the numbers of graduates the last twenty-five years. During the early part of the present century, up to 1830, only seven proceeded to musical degrees; whereas, during the subsequent period, to 1855, the numbers admitted were thirty-four, (including five doctors in music, thirty-nine,) being one-fourth more in number than the sum total of all who proceeded in those degrees during the previous 170 years, from 1660 to 1830 inclusive; so that we have every reason to infer that the study of the science is on the increase; and that the time is not far distant when it will bear a comparison with its most palmy days in England."*

UNIVERSITY DEGREES.

England is the only country in which degrees in music are conferred. John Hamboys, a celebrated scholar and musician, who flourished anno 1470, is said to have been the first upon whom the degree of Doctor in Music was conferred. But as to the antiquity of degrees in this faculty, they may be traced to the year 1463, in which year Henry Harington was admitted to the degree of

* Dr. Maurice.

Bachelor in Music at Cambridge; and in the same year Thomas Saintwix (Doctor in Music) was made master of King's College in the same university. Hence it would appear that at this time, music ranked with those arts which entitle their professors not merely to the character of learned men, but to the highest literary honours.

The music-professorship in Oxford was originally founded, among others, by Alfred the Great. The university being founded in the faculty of arts, degrees were granted in logic, geometry, &c.; subsequently, in all of them together, the degree of Master of Arts being the highest in the university. At length, however, the faculties of law and medicine coming into esteem, the lesser arts began to decline in their credit, as being less gainful, and degrees in most of them were entirely discontinued. But music still maintained its credit, and with this remarkable advantage over the rest of its sister arts, that, whereas in the latter the only degrees were Bachelor, or, at most, Master, music gave the title of Doctor.

Formerly, the first qualification for a degree in music was the reading and expounding of certain books in Boetius, a learned theoretical writer on music, who flourished in the fifth century. This was the case in both universities. At the present day, however, the proceeding is as follows:—

By the statutes of the university (of Oxford), it is required that every proceeder to the degree of Bachelor in Music, shall have been employed seven years in the study or practice of that faculty, and, at the end of that term, produce a testimonial of his having done so, under the hands of credible witnesses, and that previous to the supplication for his grace towards this degree, he shall compose a score of five parts, and perform the same publicly, with vocal and instrumental music, first causing to be affixed on each of the doors of the great gates of the schools a programme, giving three days' notice of the day and hour of the performance. On a Bachelor proceeding to the Doctorate, it is required that he shall study five

years after taking the Bachelor's degree, and produce the like proof of his having done so, as in the former case; and further, that he shall compose a score in six or eight parts, and publicly perform the same, "tam vocibus quam instrumentis etiam musicis."

Doubtless, from the fact of the universities not possessing the means of affording the necessary musical education, residence is not required; it is, however, of course compulsory on the candidate for academical honours that he enter a college. In Cambridge, the degree of Doctor may be taken by accumulation, the exercise being a cantata in eight real parts for voices, with accompaniments for a full orchestra, to be publicly performed in the presence of the Vice-Chancellor, &c. The expenses of a degree in music is from 70*l.* to 100*l.*

There can be but little doubt that the original office of the university music professor was to instruct those intending to enter holy orders in the principles of church music. Indeed, we have somewhere read, that the statutes of at least one of the universities require of all candidates for ordination, that they should have attained a respectable knowledge of music; and it is unquestionably owing to the disregard of this wholesome provision, that the state of church music in this country has for the last two centuries been so unsatisfactory. There is every reason to hope that the recent appointment of a new professor at both the universities will be attended with important benefits both to the musical art in general, and to church music in particular.

In the University of Oxford, the degrees in music from 1502 to 1800, are as follows:—

From 1502 to 1550	24, or at the rate of 1 every second year.
From 1585 to 1599	17, or about 1 a year.
From 1600 to 1644	28, more than 1 every two years.
From 1650 to 1750	10, or 1 in every ten years.
From 1750 to 1800	9, or about 2 every ten years.

ROYAL ACADEMY OF MUSIC.

Before the establishment of this Royal Academy, there was no public institution in this country where music was regularly taught. The cathedrals indeed, offered a certain degree of musical education, but this being confined to one branch only, and being only available for one class of students, viz. chorister-boys, it could scarcely be said to have any real effect upon the art in general. The first attempt of a really educational character was made by Dr. Burney, the celebrated musical historian, in 1774, but without success; nor was it till nearly half a century had elapsed that the experiment was repeated. To Lord Burghersh, now Earl of Westmoreland (himself an accomplished musician), the English Academy of Music owes its origin. In 1822, he drew up a code of laws for the purpose of submitting them to those who were, or might be, anxious to become patrons. After several meetings of the promoters, it was unanimously agreed that they should be adopted, and his Majesty, George IV., graciously condescended to be the patron. The institution was formed upon the plan of the British Institution for the encouragement of painting, its object being "to promote the cultivation of music among the natives of the country, and to afford the first facilities for attaining perfection, in this most neglected branch of the arts, to a certain number of pupils."

The first principal of the academy was Dr. Crotch, who was succeeded by Mr. Cipriani Potter, the present principal. It was opened for the first time, March 24, 1823. There are two scholarships founded by William IV., in whose reign a charter was granted to the institution, and it was fully recognised among the established institutions of the country. The system of instruction then established, a system framed upon the best arrangements of the continental conservatoires, and adapted to the wants of this country, still continues. The pro-

fessors employed are chiefly those who have themselves received a sound education in the Academy, and have so distinguished themselves as to obtain the confidence and approval of the committee.

The cost of musical education is from 300*l.* to 500*l.* Much more than the latter sum is very frequently expended, although hard-working, talented youths in the academy have acquired considerable proficiency for less than the former. About 100*l.* a year is the cost of the maintenance of a student at the Royal Academy, who has no friends in the metropolis, or other sources to depend upon.

The following are the principal regulations:—

1. All orders whatever for the government and regulation of the Academy, emanate from the committee, whose decisions are delivered, through their chairman, to the different officers of the establishment.

2. All branches of music are taught in the Academy. Should the particular branch for which the students enter, be harmony, singing, harp, or piano, the male students will be required to learn in addition, any orchestral instrument the committee may require.

3. There are three terms in the year; Michaelmas, Lent, and Easter, with a vacation of four weeks at Christmas, a week at Easter, and a long vacation of eight weeks in summer. The payments are to be made in advance.*

STUDENT'S PAYMENTS . . .	33 guineas per annum, or 11 guineas a term.
ENTRANCE FEE	5 guineas.

One term's written notice must be given when a pupil is to be withdrawn, or a term's extra payment will be required.

4. Students are admitted only at the commencement of each term. Candidates for admission must attend for examination on the Saturday previous at three o'clock, with a recommendation from a subscriber or an associate.

* All applications for admission to be made to the Secretary, Royal Academy of Music, Tenterden Street, Hanover Square.

5. The students are required to pay implicit obedience to all persons placed in authority over them, and to attend punctually at the hours appointed for their instruction, and at all orchestral practices, rehearsals, and performances.

6. All students are required to attend the singing school.

7. All students are required to learn harmony and piano.

8. Advanced students are required to give instructions in the Academy.

9. No student is allowed to undertake any public or private engagements, without first obtaining the sanction of the committee.

10. No student must publish any composition without the sanction of the committee; and a copy of all compositions so published must be presented to the library of the Academy.

11. On leaving the Academy, the students admitted under the above regulations must undergo an examination. Should the examination prove satisfactory, they will receive a diploma, and, in special cases, the additional distinction of being made an associate of the institution.

12. Any infringement or violation of the regulations, or any discreditable or improper conduct, will subject the student, at the discretion of the committee, to be dismissed from the institution; or an associate, to the erasure of *his* or *her* name from the register.

Two scholarships (one male and one female), called "King's Scholarships," have been founded by the institution, which will be contended for biennially at Christmas.

They are open to competition by pupils of the academy, in common with all other candidates, from the ages of twelve to eighteen.

The scholars receive their usual musical education gratuitously for two years, after which the scholarships are again open to competition, the late scholar not being excluded from competing a second time.

Candidates for these scholarships are to send in their names and addresses, to the secretary of the institution, accompanied by the recommendation of a subscriber, on or before the 13th of December of each year.

A scholarship, called the Mendelssohn Scholarship, was competed

for, for the first time, in the third week in June, 1856. The candidates were required to possess a talent for composition, and be natives of Great Britain.*

In referring to the principal divisions of the profession of music, it may be said that there has never been an acknowledged classification of the various departments of the musical profession; but, without impropriety, it may be said to consist of the three following divisions:—

I. The theoretical.
II. The practical.
III. The critical.

* "The Irish Academy of Music" has for its object, to establish a first-class school of music, instrumental and vocal, in the city of Dublin. It is confidently hoped that the nobility and gentry of Ireland will cordially support an institution so eminently calculated to develope and improve the national genius of the country.

The instruction given in the Academy will be found adapted, not only for those who may intend to devote themselves to music as a profession, but also for amateurs who may not otherwise be enabled to obtain the best musical education.

The course of education embraces English in all its branches, under a master resident in the Academy, the modern languages, and music.

To avoid interfering with private schools, none but children who manifest a decided talent for music will be received as pupils for general instruction. The musical classes only will be open to all who may desire to avail themselves of the advantages offered.

It is evident that the best education cannot be given on the very moderate terms offered by the Academy, without the support of a considerable body of subscribers.

The subscription is 1*l.* per annum, with the privilege of attending the concerts of the Academy, and of introducing visitors.

The terms are:—

For general instruction and music . . . £8 per annum.
For musical instruction only . . . . . £4 per annum.

Pupils attending the musical classes are permitted to attend one of the classes of modern languages for an additional payment of 1*l.* per annum.

Parents desirous of sending their children to the Academy, and persons willing to become subscribers, or to join the musical classes, are requested to apply to the resident master and secretary.

The greatest attention will be paid to the general education of the pupils, so as to fit them for their various professional or mercantile pursuits, independently of their musical education.

Arrangements have been made to open classes in the month of October for instruction to females in singing, and harmony, and composition, for which the services of Professor Smith and Mr. J. Robinson, assisted by Miss J. Cruise, have been secured.

The committee have arrangements in progress for the reception of a limited number of pupils as boarders, and will be glad to receive applications.

Donations of musical instruments, suitable for orchestral playing, will be thankfully received.

I. In the first division will stand—

1. The composer.
2. The theorist, or teacher of acoustics.
3. The teacher of harmony, counterpoint, &c.

II. In the second will be included—

1. The organist and pianist. Public performer and teacher, for they are generally combined.
2. The orchestral instrumentalist.
3. The vocalist.

III. In the third division will be classed:

1. The writers, engaged by the press, whose province it is to attend concerts, review musical works, &c. &c.
2. The lecturer on the science and practice of music.

By the "theory of music" is now generally understood the art of composition, *i. e.*, the laws of harmony, counterpoint, fugue, canon, &c. &c.; but, strictly speaking, all this belongs to the practice of music, the theory referring to the laws and properties of sound,—in other words, to acoustics.

It is to be regretted that this branch of the study of music receives, at the present day, so little attention; but the fact that the study would bring no pecuniary return, well accounts for its neglect. Indeed, most of the musical instruments in use at the present day (the human voice not excepted) demand such long-continued and incessant practice on the part of him who would attain to any eminence, that all else in the way of education, literary or musical, is but too frequently sacrificed. Exceptions are certainly to be found, men who, by their wonderful execution, have excited the admiration of the musical world, and who yet have contrived to acquire the highest literary attainments. But these are prodigies — are exceptions. The profession, however, at the present day, abounds with members who having been content to acquire a *sufficient* knowledge of the art, have yet not

allowed it to monopolise so much of their time as to necessitate the total neglect of every other kind of mental culture; and it may be safely asserted, that the musical profession now possesses a very fair proportion of literary as well as artistic talent.

What class of persons enter the respective divisions?

The departments of the musical profession being so various, and the profession itself being—as already stated—so unprotected, one would expect to find people of all grades within its circle. In the first and second division, however, we meet, almost invariably, with those who occupy a good position in society, and have received a liberal general education. Indeed, the profession offers ample scope for the exercise of the highest literary attainments, and we question much whether any great distinction, even in the practical department, would be possible in the case of an imperfectly educated mind.

The professional income of No. 1, in the first division, viz., the composer, simply as such, is usually nothing. He is, however, frequently found in two or three of the same division, and almost always in the second division. A respectable London professor of the pianoforte will make from 400*l.* to 800*l.* Several, however, occupying a high position, must realise by teaching alone at least 2000*l.* By far the largest incomes must be made by vocalists, such as Mario, Grisi, Jenny Lind, &c., and these are, as is well known, enormous.

The parochial organist appointments in London average about 50*l.* a year; cathedrals, about 150*l.*, and, sometimes, a house.

The value of such appointments is greater than would at first appear, especially to the youthful aspirant to musical fame, as they give a certain position, and are calculated to afford an advantageous introduction.

There are *no* "government" institutions for musical, or any other kind of training. It is a common mistake to talk of "government" schools; no such places exist, or ever have existed, in this country. The only partial

exception to this last statement might have been Kneller Hall, which, after an unsuccessful experiment of some five or six years, has been broken up recently.

The training colleges for schoolmasters, most of recent foundation, are all either partially connected with the "National Society" (*e. g.*, St. Mark's and Battersea), or are "diocesan" institutions, or else supported by independent dissenting bodies. In all of these, music is made an essential part of the curriculum,—singing *from notes* being, at least, taught; the elements of harmony sometimes, and occasionally the organ,—the latter, of course, in a very humble way. St. Mark's College and Battersea College are both under the direction of Dr. Hullah. The musical course and the results of both are similar: the students before leaving generally attaining a fair power of reading music, and a knowledge of the elements of counterpoint.

In the majority of the other similar institutions, Dr. Hullah's method of teaching is adopted—the teachers, in many cases, being his former pupils.

In the "Reports of the Committee of Council on Education," beginning from the years 1840-1, are to be found many interesting passages bearing on the introduction of music into elementary schools.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE PROFESSION OF EDUCATION.

THE profession of education, second to none in usefulness, the most grateful in the nature of its duties, and the largest in numbers, has the singular fortune, in highly-educated England, of holding only a secondary position in society. The causes of this are difficult to trace, but the continuation of this position, whilst the ranks of the community are marching by, is the result of the combination of many circumstances. The first is the unjust prejudice of the upper classes. A man may be a briefless barrister, a needy surgeon, or a starving curate, he is still a gentleman, and admissible into the society of the best of the land; but let him, though a gentleman by birth, education, and profession, break through the trammels of needy circumstances, and, for the sake of his wife and children, make himself independent and useful, by keeping a school, and he will be thought, even by his best friends, to have lost caste. He may become wealthy, important to his family and gain influence in his neighbourhood, and yet the folly of society will still persist in looking down upon him. But is he not much more worthy of its honour and respect? If less genteel, he is more independent; if tuition is humble labour, at least it need not be dirty work. His school, if good, will make its way without humiliation. He is never asked to prove black white, to mix a potion to an old lady's fancy, or to pervert the plain truths of the gospel that the squire's lady may hope for salvation. Why should the schoolmaster be despised?

He is generally a man of substance; his office is the gentlest that can be assigned to the good, namely, the leading the young in the right path. He is asked to continue that which the fond parent has commenced. Should he then, be lower than the parent? It is a discredit to the growing intelligence and extending liberality of the upper classes that this prejudice continues against even the most meritorious of a meritorious calling.

More, perhaps, is due to the vulgar assumption of the middling, mercantile, and trading classes, who, unable to comprehend the cultivated elegance of a man unfairly thrust down to their rank, and finding his intelligence, and the precise use of the letter "H," rather in their way, do then, after their kind, proceed to imitate their superiors, not in their graces, but in their faults, and, amongst others, in their contempt for the schoolmaster. They look upon the education of their children as something to be bought, and, unless it is produced to them in a form promising pecuniary profit, they seem to think themselves unfairly dealt with. The "crammer," accordingly, they can comprehend; but the honourable educator who has been forming their boy's mind silently for years, for the great purposes of life, and to be a decided improvement upon the parent, is looked upon almost as an enemy rather than as a friend. Accordingly, we find the schoolmaster occupying a more anomalous position in Liverpool, Birmingham, and Manchester even, than in the west-end of London. The contempt which the cotton-lord and corn-factor universally show for all intellectual labourers is expressed in a marked manner towards the schoolmaster. If admitted into their society, it is with a sufferance more offensive than exclusion. It is one of the petty triumphs of money over mind.

This false prejudice of society against the schoolmaster, which never seems to have attained its full scorn until society had become quite debased in the reigns of the Georges, has hitherto had the effect of preventing cadets of the better families from looking to this calling, and it

has accordingly been abandoned, with few exceptions, to not only an inferior class, but almost to the adventurers of the country. It has not seldom been a question with a ruined man whether he shall emigrate or start a school. Thus the false views of the genteel have created a reason and an excuse for their support. To the initiated it is well known that no calling has been so abused by idleness, neglect, want of faith, and plain dishonesty, as that of the schoolmaster, chiefly because society has forced it into an unnatural position, and thus deterred the proper classes from following this profession.

The members of the profession of education divide themselves into several classes, the first great division being that of sex, this profession, containing a larger proportion of the fair sex than of the sterner sex.

Amongst the manly sex rank highest the principals of endowed colleges and foundation schools. These gentlemen, reckoning from the Dean of Christchurch and the Master of Trinity, downwards, are the only portion of the profession who gain social position by their office. They are generally clergymen that have taken high honours at the universities, and their offices are often considered as passports to ecclesiastical honours. They are nearly always well endowed, though some of the grammar-schools are in a miserable condition.

Next follow the tutors, private tutors, lecturers, and private lecturers, of the universities, and such large public schools as Eton, Harrow, &c. College and public school tutors and lecturers, are paid by certain fees or salaries, and obtain often good incomes. The tutors in many public schools have profited largely by taking boarders into their houses. But the largest sums are made by the private tutors in Oxford and Cambridge, especially in the latter town. It is no uncommon thing for a young senior wrangler to make 1000*l.* a-year with ease for a few years previously to his entering upon another profession, and some of the more distinguished tutors, who have remained in the universities, are known to have saved fortunes.

From these we pass to the proprietors of private schools. A private school, well managed and properly pushed, is one of the most certain speculations in any profession. There are so many narrow-minded, stingy, mean, and negligent persons in this occupation, that any gentleman who does, by liberality and honour of conduct, establish a character, is sure of success, as far as his capital goes. The same establishment that is necessary for ten boys, is sufficient for twenty; or for fifty boys, is sufficient for seventy. After a certain number, all is profit. This branch of the profession requires business habits, and a capacity of management, in addition to educational attainments, which may be the reason why few are pre-eminently successful.

The remaining classes are the ushers, private tutors in families, governesses, and day-schoolmasters and schoolmistresses, whose position is too well known to require comment. The profession has of late been partially brought into a form in the following manner :—

Henry Stein Turrell, of Brighton, Esq., together with others, in the year 1846, associated themselves in an educational institute, called the College of Preceptors, for the purpose of promoting sound learning and of advancing the interests of education, more especially among the middle classes, by affording facilities to the teacher for the acquiring of a sound knowledge of his profession, and by providing for the periodical session of a competent board of examiners to ascertain and give certificates of the acquirements and fitness for their office of persons engaged, or desiring to be engaged, in the education of youth, particularly in the private schools of England and Wales; these gentlemen subscribed and collected considerable sums of money for carrying out these purposes. And were also desirous at the same time to provide a fund for the relief of distressed members of the College of Preceptors, and their widows and orphans.

Believing that the wellbeing and usefulness of the college would be materially promoted by obtaining a royal

charter of incorporation, the Queen granted to the members of the college her royal charter of incorporation, under such regulations and restrictions as might seem expedient to them.

They are constituted one body politic and corporate by the name of the College of Preceptors.

The corporation is capable in law to take, purchase, and hold any personal property whatsoever, and to take, purchase, and hold lands, buildings, and hereditaments necessary for the purposes of the college, not exceeding fifty acres, with power to demise, alien, and dispose of all or any such lands or personal property, and to do all other acts and things incidental or appertaining to a body corporate.

A general meeting of the members of the corporation is to be held twice in every year, on the 5th day of January, and the 24th day of June.

The secretary of the corporation is required to convene, at any time, a special general meeting, on being required so to do by any twelve members of the corporation, by writing under their hands, specifying the object or objects for which the same is to be convened; fifteen days' notice of the meetings must be given.

At every ordinary or special general meeting, before proceeding to other business, the members present elect a chairman, who has a casting vote.

There is a treasurer of the corporation, who is a member; and there are three auditors, members of the corporation, elected at the first ordinary general meeting in every year, retiring auditors being re-eligible.

There are also a dean and secretary of the corporation.

The affairs of the corporation are managed and directed by a council consisting of forty-eight members; one-fourth of the members of the council go out of office annually, on the day of the first ordinary general meeting, in order determined by lot or by agreement amongst the members of the council, until the whole forty-eight members to be elected have gone out of office.

The council must meet at least eight times in every year, at such periodical times as they appoint, and that no question can be decided at any meeting of the council, unless at least seven members are present and vote on such question: the members to supply the places of the members going out of office are elected at the first ordinary general meeting in every year; retiring members may be re-elected.

At the first meeting of the council after the first general meeting, the members of the council elect a president of the council, and three vice-presidents (all members of the council); and at every meeting of the council, the president, or, in his absence, the vice-president whose name stands first in the register of members takes the chair; and in case neither the president nor any of the vice-presidents are present, then the members present elect a chairman.

In case any member of the council dies, the council elects a member to supply his place; and if any member of the council does not attend any meeting for the space of six consecutive calendar months, he ceases to be a member of the council, and the council elects a member to supply his place.

The secretary must, at any time or times, call a special meeting of the council, on being required so to do by any six members of the council by writing under their hands, specifying the object; and must give ten days' notice of every such special meeting.

Every person (being a member of the said corporation) who has at any time filled the office of the president of the council, is a member of the council for his life, or so long as he continues a member of the corporation, in addition to the forty-eight members thereof.

The council, for the time being, has the custody of the common seal of the corporation, with power to use it for the affairs and concerns thereof; and has full power and authority to direct and manage such affairs and concerns, and to purchase and sell the property of the college.

There is a half-yearly report by the council, and an audit of the accounts by the auditors.

The council elect and remove all the officers except the auditors, nominate examiners, appoint their remuneration, and appoint the times, manner, and subjects of the examination, to grant diplomas or certificates, to fix the amount of subscriptions payable by members, and the fees payable on receiving diplomas or certificates, to make rules for the election of members, and, generally, to make all such by-laws for the management of the affairs of the corporation, and the furtherance of its objects, as to them may seem fit.

Any rule or by-law made by the council may be reversed or annulled at any ordinary or special general meeting: the council cannot make any rule or by-law contrary to any rule or by-law made at any ordinary or special general meeting.

The surplus funds of the corporation, after defraying the ordinary expenses, must be applied by the council, but with the consent and by the direction of a general meeting in every particular case, in the maintenance of poor or diseased members of the college, or of the widows or orphans of deceased members, or the founding or endowing of normal or training schools, or in instituting lectureships on any subject connected with the theory or practice of education, or in or towards founding branch institutions in connection with the college, or in any other manner calculated to advance the cause of education, or the interests of the scholastic profession, particularly within England and Wales.

Note from the Bye-Laws.

SECTION I.—OF THE MEMBERS.

1. All schoolmasters, and other teachers of any branch of literature, science, or art, are eligible as members of the College

of Preceptors; and shall be admitted either by election or examination.

2. Admissible by Election are,

I. Graduates of any University of Great Britain or Ireland, and gentlemen who have studied and graduated at any foreign university.

II. Principals of private, endowed grammar, and proprietary schools, who shall have been established prior to the date of the charter, or at least three years previous to application; but, in the latter case, the applicant must have had his school visited and approved by persons specially appointed by the council, or he shall have proved his eligibility by evidence satisfactory to the council.

3. Candidates for election shall be recommended to the council by a local board, or by a written certificate, signed by two or more members, or other persons of known respectability. Such certificate shall specify the christian and surname of the candidate, the date at which he established his school, and his place of residence, according to the following form :—

"We, whose names are underwritten, recommend Mr. , Principal (specify the class of school), established in the year , at , in the county of , as a fit person to become a member of the College of Preceptors.

"A. B., of , from personal knowledge.
"C. D., of ."

And such nomination paper, being delivered to the secretary, shall be laid before the next council meeting, together with the following form of obligation, signed by the candidate for admission :—

"I hereby agree, on being elected, to conform to the laws and regulations of the College of Preceptors so long as I continue to be a member. "E. F."

4. The right of election is vested in the council assembled at an ordinary meeting. No candidate shall be declared elected unless he receives the votes of at least three-fourths of the members of the council present.

5. All schoolmasters and teachers not included in the classes described in Art. 2, shall be admitted only after examination.

6. Ladies engaged in tuition shall be admitted members of the college, under the foregoing regulations, through their own committee.

7. Persons favourable to education may be elected honorary members; and from these a patron and vice-patrons may be chosen; but no honorary member shall be eligible as member of council, or shall be entitled to vote at general meetings, unless he become a life member, or subscribe one guinea annually.

8. A classified list of the members, specifying the date at which each was admitted into the college, shall be open for inspection at the office of the college; and such list shall be printed at least once in each year, and a copy sent to every member.

9. The council shall have power to expel any member whenever there shall appear sufficient cause: but an appeal may be made against such expulsion at the next general meeting of the college.

10. The library and rooms of the college shall be open daily (Sundays excepted) from 10 a.m. to 4 p.m., for the use of the members, and at such other times as the council may direct.

SECTION II.—OF SUBSCRIPTIONS.

1. All professional candidates for admission into the college by election, shall, on their application, deposit with the secretary an entrance fee of one guinea, together with the first annual subscription; which sum shall be returned in case of non-election.

Honorary members shall deposit the annual subscription only.

2. The annual subscription of each member admitted by *election* shall be one guinea, payable in advance; in default of payment for three calendar months, notice thereof shall be sent to the defaulter, and immediate payment requested; but if, notwithstanding, such notice, any subscription shall remain unpaid for six months from the time of its becoming due, the council shall, at discretion, either take legal means of enforcing payment of the arrears, or shall erase the name of the defaulter from the list of members.

Members desirous of discontinuing their subscriptions and memberships, may do so by giving notice to that effect, in writing, to the secretary, at the same time paying all subscriptions that may be in arrear.

3. A single payment of ten guineas by a member admitted by election, shall constitute life membership.

SECTION III.—OF EXAMINATIONS AND DIPLOMAS.

1. There shall be two examinations in every year; viz., in the Midsummer and Christmas vacations, the former between the 18th June and 12th July, the latter between the 18th December and the 12th January; within which period the examining board shall sit during a limited number of hours, on the days appointed for the examination of candidates.

2. The board of examiners shall be composed of certain members of the college, or others, who shall be recommended to the council on the grounds of eminent scholastic attainments. The examining board, when duly appointed by the council, shall carefully examine all candidates whose names are on the dean's register, and, at the close of the examination, furnish to the council, through the dean, a report of the result.

3. The subjects of examination shall be printed and circulated four months before each examination.

4. All candidates for examination shall produce such testimonials of character and practical ability in teaching as the dean shall consider satisfactory.

5. The results of each examination shall be registered in the college books.

6. The several grades of the College of Preceptors shall be Associate, Licentiate, and Fellow.

7. All candidates shall pass the examination for the diploma of associate, and take up the same before proceeding to the examination for the licentiate's degree.

8. All candidates shall pay, previously to their first examination, a fee of one guinea, and half a guinea for each subsequent examination; and the complement of five guineas previously to the associate's diploma being granted; this sum to include all fees for that degree, and entitle the associate to the privilege of life membership.

9. Every candidate shall be required to pass in the undermentioned subjects before he receives the diploma of associate:—

1. Theory and practice of education.
2. Scripture history.

3. English grammar and composition.
4. English history.
5. Geography, political, physical, and mathematical.
6. Mathematics.
7. Classics, or some one modern language.

10. Every member who shall have taken up the diploma of associate, and shall also have passed in the first or second class in the first five subjects of the foregoing list, and in three out of the four following, shall, on payment of two guineas, be entitled to the diploma of licentiate :—

1. Ancient and modern history.
2. One modern language or Hebrew.
3. Classics, with the mathematics of the third class.
   Or mathematics, with the classics of the third class.

11. Every professional member admitted by election, who shall have completed life membership, or shall have paid fifteen consecutive annual subscriptions, shall, upon the payment of two guineas, be entitled to the diploma of licentiate.

12. The council shall be authorised to confer the diploma of fellow on such life members of the college as possess unquestionable skill in the theory and practice of education ; or great distinction in science, literature, or art ; or who shall have passed the required examinations. The fee for such diploma shall be five guineas.

The qualifications for a fellow by *examination* shall be these :—

1. Candidates must produce their diplomas of licentiate.

2. They must pass in the first class in mathematics, and in the second class in classics, or *vice versâ*, and in the second class in two of the following subjects :—

1. Moral and political philosophy.
2. Natural history.
3. Chemistry.
4. Physiology.

13. The names of all persons proposed as fellows of the College of Preceptors, and also the names of members proposing them, shall be read at the meeting of council immediately preceding a half-yearly general meeting ; and in every list of *agenda* during the half-year following, their names shall be sent to every member of the council, and the election shall take place at the meeting of

council next preceding the subsequent half-yearly general meeting, provided the candidates have complied with the requirements of the council.

14. No person shall be eligible as a fellow unless recommended by four members of the college.

15. No person shall at any time be elected fellow, unless he receive the votes of at least three-fourths of the members of the council present.

16. All diplomas shall be signed by the president, or his *locum tenens*, and by the dean; and shall be countersigned by the secretary.

17. *Temporary By-law.*—Those members who have already received certificates entitling them, by such rules as were in force at the time of their examinations, to be associates or licentiates, shall be entitled to exchange them for diplomas of the same grade, on payment of an additional half-guinea, and shall be associates or licentiates as long as they duly pay their annual subscriptions.

18. Foreigners who shall pass an examination in the theory and practice of education, and the literature of their own country, shall be eligible as members.

SECTION IV.—OF THE COMMON SEAL, CHARTER, ETC.

1. The common seal, charter, deeds, &c., shall be deposited in a box, to be kept by the secretary.

2. The common seal shall not be set or affixed to any deed or writing but in the presence of the council; or by the secretary, in pursuance of an order or minute to that effect.

SECTION V.—OF MEETINGS OF THE GENERAL BODY.

1. The general meetings of the college shall be half-yearly, viz., on or about the 24th June, and on or about the 5th January: fifteen days' notice of the same shall be given by the secretary to every member.

2. At the meeting in June, the members shall fill up the vacancies in the council, occasioned by the retirement of the fourth part; they shall also elect three auditors for the ensuing year. At each

half-yearly meeting, the auditors shall present a report of the income and expenditure of the college.

3. Auditors and persons proposed for the council shall be nominated by two members of the college, or according to the following form, which shall be forwarded to the secretary thirty days before the day of election:—

"COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS.

"We hereby nominate, as fit and proper persons to be members of the council, Messrs. ——; and Messrs. ——, as auditors; having received their consent to accept the offices, should they be elected at the next general meeting of the college."

4. The secretary shall prepare and send to each member, fifteen days before the time of election, a list of persons nominated for the council, and also for auditors, in alphabetical order; and should these candidates not be sufficiently numerous, the council shall place on the list such other names as to them appear most eligible from amongst the principals of schools who have had not less than ten years' experience in that capacity.

5. The vacancies in the council occasioned by twelve members annually retiring by rotation, shall be filled up by voting papers at the annual general meeting, thus:—

The secretary having supplied all the members with voting papers, they shall erase the names of those candidates whom they decline electing, leaving not more than twelve, and return the papers to the office, by post or otherwise, signed, sealed, and under cover, four days, at least, before the general meeting. The president or chairman, having appointed the scrutineers, shall deliver to them these lists, which they shall examine, and report to him the result of their investigation. The twelve candidates who have the highest number of votes shall be announced by the president or chairman to the meeting, in the numerical order of votes given, and declared duly elected members of the council.

6. The secretary shall be empowered to call a special general meeting in London, on a requisition signed by at least twelve members of the college, giving him fifteen days' notice of their desire, specifying the objects of such meeting, of which he shall give ten days' notice to every member of the college.

7. Every proposition for altering or annulling the present or future laws, or making new ones, shall be in writing, signed by at

least six members of twelve months' standing, and sent to the secretary thirty days previous to a general meeting. A copy of the proposition shall be printed and circulated for the consideration of the members.

The following scholarships are given away :—

Mathematics.—A scholarship of ten pounds is given to the best mathematical candidate at the periodical examination, provided he be found equal to a second class certificate at least; and a scholarship of five pounds is given to the second best candidate on the same condition.

Classics.—A scholarship of ten pounds value is given to the best candidate in classics at the periodical examination, provided he be found equal to a second class certificate at least; and a scholarship of five pounds is given to the second best candidate under the same condition.

The Junior or Commercial Test Prize.—A prize of three guineas, with exemption from the examination fee, is awarded at the ensuing examination to the candidate who obtains the highest certificate in the subjects of the commercial test, together with the first book of Euclid, or some Latin author.

N.B.—All candidates for the above prizes must pass, or have passed, in the theory and practice of education, and must be professionally engaged in tuition, and not members of any university.

Candidates are requested to signify their intention on or before the 7th of June and the 7th of December respectively.

No candidate is eligible to receive a second prize under the same class certificate; nor can a candidate pass in both classics and mathematics at the same session.

In the *Ladies' Department* the examinations comprise twelve subjects, in all or any of which candidates may obtain certificates according to the degree of their proficiency. A fee of half-a-guinea is charged for all the certificates required in each grade of eight subjects; so that, there being three grades, the total expense for certificates cannot in any case exceed one guinea and a half. A diploma involves somewhat higher charges.

Ladies engaged in tuition previously to the date of the charter are admitted by election.

LIST OF SUBJECTS.

N.B.—Gentlemen of the board examine ; ladies of the committee preside ; and it is optional with the candidates whether they be examined in two or more subjects at a time.

1. Scripture history. 2. Theory and practice of education. 3. English grammar, composition, and elocution. 4. History. 5. Geography, with elements of practical astronomy. 6. Arithmetic, Euclid, or algebra. 7. French, or any other modern language. 8. Latin or Greek. 9. Natural history, and physical science. 10. Physiology, as applied to health and education. 11. Drawing, and the fine arts. 12. Music, vocal and instrumental, in its theory and its practice.

DIPLOMAS.

The diploma of associate is granted to those candidates who have obtained third grade certificates in the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, and 10th of the above-named subjects. Concerning the diploma of licentiate, and any other matters of enquiry, candidates are advised to make early application to the Rev. the Dean, or to the Secretary, at the offices of the corporation, or to the Honorary Secretary.

It will be seen that the diploma of this college accords no exclusive privileges, but it is already become the fashion for the young educator to obtain it, most proprietors of schools requiring it as a testimonial before entering into an engagement with an usher. In this respect it is beginning to have the same moral force that the diploma of the College of Surgeons does in the medical profession.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE HISTRIONIC PROFESSION.

CONCERNING the profession of the "player," less is to be said for the purposes of this work than any other. The history of the career of the English theatre is one of the most interesting social histories of England; but, at the same time, the profession, as a profession, is quite without form. Exclusive, replete with tradition, technical in its business, and requiring great practice, this profession has yet none of the usual attributes of an organised occupation. It has absolutely no schools of special education, no recognised mode of entry, no institutions, and, beyond public approbation, no honours. Acting schools have been attempted, but have failed. The provincial theatres, formerly, to a certain extent, furnished a relay of actors to London, but the stage is not now much favoured out of London, partly owing to the growth of puritanical feeling, but more to the present easy access to the metropolis, created by railways;—everybody preferring to put off a visit to the theatre until they can see some great actor in London.

A very large number of actors belong to theatrical families, but beyond a small amount of nepotism, no two actors enter the profession in the same manner.

The average income of a good actor is about 500*l.*, though of course immense sums are made by the great "stars," and also by successful managers. In short, beyond noticing this profession, as one of the series, there is nothing to be said upon it, so entirely does it seem to be beyond the usual rules.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE PROFESSION OF LITERATURE.

THE "profession of literature" is a term that has been applied of late years to the large body of authors, journalists, compilers, and translators, who live by the pen. But this important occupation does, in fact, contain none of the elements of a regular profession. It has no form, no combination, no special education, and no linking society, with the exception of a charitable institution, termed the "Literary Fund." It is an occupation that is entered upon by chance rather than by design. A subject for illustration occurs to an educated and intelligent man, and the result is an article or a book, for which he has more or less difficulty in obtaining a publisher. If he succeeds, the incipient writer often then, and then for the first time, thinks of becoming an author by profession. Some, indeed, but not many, feel a natural wish to a literary career from their earliest years, and then embrace it with enthusiasm and success. These few are the only persons who may be said to follow literature as a profession in its higher walks. The chance author has generally some other calling, or even a private competence of his own, and leaves his path of letters readily on the first temptation to do so. Book-writing has never been looked upon by the public as a profitable calling, and with great justice. Yet there is no reason that it should not be so to a man of sufficient talent. Recent examples have occurred of the possibility of making a large income, or even a fortune, in the persons of Scott, Byron, Macaulay, Dickens, Thackeray, &c., in England; Dumas, Huc, and

others in France; and Longfellow and Prescott in America. These gentlemen have succeeded in realising the profits of a profession, because they have pursued literature in somewhat that form. Men of equal, or not inferior talent, have in their own days starved upon the products of their genius, greatly because they have not followed the same prudent course.

Whatever may be the amount of personal talent, success in a calling requires a long apprenticeship, and practice, and experience, as well as knowledge and ability. Every man who, therefore, when he discovers in himself a talent for writing, rushes at once into print, cannot expect to produce anything except that which is ephemeral and only of partial interest, and therefore of no great value either in fame, or pecuniary reward to himself.

But if, on the other hand, the aspiring author unhastily and carefully prepares himself for his literary labour, in the same manner as he would consider himself bound to prepare himself for following the law, or practicing medicine, he can promise himself some measure of success and reward. Even if he has the misfortune to be a dull writer, he may bring forth a work of great value in other respects, that will find favour with some classes of readers.

The large class of mediocre writers,—hasty intruders on the sacred soil of learning,—finding their frail labours unappreciated, are but too apt to exclaim that literature is not encouraged in their country. As well might the three thousand briefless barristers say that the law is not encouraged. Good literature is not only encouraged, but highly prized and amply rewarded; and, strange to say, indifferent literature receives no small amount of encouragement also. If it were otherwise, would there be such a continuous stream of trashy novels, travels over well-known lands, and shallow memoirs. It is impossible to show a single example in the present day of a distinguished writer neglected in the way suggested.

The enormous increase of readers, and the avidity of whole classes that of late years joined the reading community, has put a stop to any chance of the kind. Valuable literature will always receive a valuable reward.

Neither is there much difficulty in obtaining a publisher to undertake a speculation in what is really worth the risk. It is an error to suppose that a publisher is difficult of access; as a man of business, it is to his interest to read and consider everything that is brought to him; to encourage, and to be constantly aiding in introducing new blood into the ranks of literary men. When once fairly established, the high class author is in the favourable position of being able to produce whatever his genius may invent. He then has the making of his own opportunities. He becomes a great benefactor to many, in the way that the publication of his works calls printers, paper-makers, and bookbinders into occupation. A great book, too, has the advantage of stimulating the whole publishing trade, by raising the taste for reading.

But if great authors are few, literature is actively pursued in the inferior walks. One of the most profitable of these, is writing educational works. It is not every man who reads a book, but every child requires a primer, which he succeeds in destroying as well as learning. The market for this class of books is enormous, the writers numerous and well paid, generally connected with schools to which their literary labours serve as advertisements.

Almost as numerous are the writers of small religious works and tracts. A statistical report of the classes of books, published during two years, placed "divinity" at the head by a large majority.

Other writers are those professional men who write with a view of attracting notice in their professions. These are the various classes of hack book writers, to which must be added compilers, translators, and index-makers.

The other portion of the profession of literature is that

connected with the periodical press; comprising reviews, magazines, and newspapers. Reviews and magazines scarcely ever afford a means of entire livelihood to a man, unless he is also in the position of editor or sub-editor. Few reviews pay more than twenty-five guineas a sheet, and few magazines more than twelve, except to very distinguished contributors. Reviews and magazines are generally used by authors, either to forward particular views, or add an aid to other means.

The largest class of literary men subsisting on the pen are the editors, sub-editors, contributors, correspondents, and reporters of newspapers. The two former are, of course, paid by salaries.

The only class living by literature purely, with the exception of a few distinguished men, is this large one of "journalists," which may be said to extend from the editors of the great quarterly journals, down almost to the penny-a-liner. It includes men of all stations, all ranks, all grades of education and ability. It is pursued successfully by men of little talent, as well as by men of genius; and presents a variety of incomes as rewards, from a mere pittance to many hundreds.

The profession of literature, as has been pointed out, is seldom designedly chosen; nor is it one that a man would willingly enter, when a competence in another is open to him. The fame and reputation of an author is no doubt fascinating, but reputation in literature is not measured to the literary man with any greater liberality than to others. Distinguished names are few, very few, compared to the mass of authors; and, unless very successful, the author, perhaps, rather loses ground in character for intellect than gains it. He is open to everybody's criticism, and is the butt of envy. Of the remaining body of authors, the majority are absolutely unknown, except to their clique of associates or readers: clever journalists pass through life without gaining any reputation beyond that which every energetic man gains in the business he follows.

There is no intellectual work harder, or that is a greater draw upon the powers of sustained thought than literary composition. In other intellectual pursuits, the memory chiefly, and often only the memory, is called into play; the occupation even of the shrewd lawyer becomes, after a few years, almost a matter of routine, and he is saved much thought by the power of being able to refer back to something that has occurred before. But, in writing, the mind is called in action to its fullest extent. A few hours is as much as it can bear of this kind of strain, and if unnaturally forced to bear too much, soon begins to show signs of weakness, often followed by imbecility, and even insanity.

The high-class author may, perhaps, be able to economise his powers, to choose his time, and, by relaxation, recruit his wasted powers. But no such luxury is afforded to the professional journalist. With him his labour is almost incessant; the paper or the magazine must appear at its appointed time, whatever may be the exhaustion of its producers; the journalist is, indeed, wedded to his calling "in sickness and in health, for better for worse." Many annually break down under the labour, or seek repose in other employments.

The profession of reporting is one that has gradually arisen out of the opening of the galleries of the Houses of Lords and Commons. It is an occupation that requires more than a knowledge of short-hand. There are constantly amongst the reporters graduates of all the universities; often gentlemen on the progress to honourable professions. In the language of Sheridan, "there is no possible better course than that which they have adopted for the improvement of their minds, and the acquisition of political experience. They have adopted this course from an honest and honourable impulse, and have to boast the association of many great names, who have risen from poverty to reputation." This was long the employment, and the chief means of subsistence, of Dr. Johnson and Mr. Burke.

Several of the members of the corps of parliamentary reporters have been men remarkable for their talents and wit, and the "gallery" has always held a number of distinguished men. Amongst the recent literary instances, the names of Hazlitt and Charles Dickens are often quoted. The latter is described, by his old colleagues, as excellent in this, his first literary attempt, as he has since proved to be in the higher walks wherein he won his fame. He was for some years in the "gallery;" was very rapid; and it was said of him, that he once wrote out, from his notes, the copy of a column and a half of the "Morning Chronicle" in an hour—a feat almost unexampled in its way.

At present, the reporters are as quiet and as punctual as any other class of professional men, even though their late hours oblige them to seek refreshment and employment in places of public entertainment. The present occupants of the reporters' gallery are a very honourable body of men. Members have sometimes complained of the way in which their harangues are reported; but the truth is, that the speakers owe a great debt of gratitude to those who place their speeches before the public. The words as they are uttered, and the same as they are printed, are often a curious improvement, one upon the other; all the stutterings, the hesitations, the repetitions, are omitted; the arguments, the important illustrations, and the facts alone being preserved. Verbatim reports would read like burlesques.*

* Knight Hunt on the Fourth Estate.

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APPENDIX.

PAY OF OFFICERS IN THE ARMY.

THE first and most important emolument received by the officer is his pay. The rates of pay of the several regimental ranks are as follows :—

	Cavalry of the Line.			Infantry of the Line.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Lieutenant-Colonel	1	3	0	0	17	0
Major	0	19	3	0	16	0
Captain	0	14	7	0	11	7
Ditto, having higher rank by Brevet		...		0	13	7
Lieutenant	0	9	0	0	6	6
Ditto, after seven years' service as Lieutenant		...		0	7	6
Cornet	0	8	0		...	
Ensign		...		0	5	3
Paymaster	0	12	6	0	12	6
Ditto, after five years' service in that rank on full pay	0	15	0	0	15	0
Ditto, after twenty years' service; or after twenty-five years' service on full pay as commissioned officer, including not less than fifteen years as a Paymaster	1	0	0	1	0	0
Ditto, after twenty-five years' service as Paymaster on full pay; or after thirty years' service on full pay as a commissioned officer, including not less than fifteen years as a Paymaster	1	2	6	1	2	6
Adjutant, in addition to pay of subaltern	0	2	6	0	3	6

From these we obtain the annual rates of the ordinary regimental ranks :—

	Cavalry.			Infantry.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Lieutenant-Colonel	456	5	0	273	15	0
Major	320	14	5	292	0	0
Captain	266	2	10	211	7	11
Ditto, with brevet				247	12	11
Lieutenant	164	5	0	148	12	6
Ensign	145	12	6	95	16	3

ESTABLISHED PRICES OF COMMISSIONS IN THE ARMY.

Corps.	Rank.	Full price of Commission.	Difference in value between the several Commissions in succession.	Difference in value between Full and Half-pay.
		£	£	£ s. d.
Life-Guards .	Lieut.-Colonel .	7250	1900	...
	Major . .	5350	1850	...
	Captain . .	3500	1715	...
	Lieutenant .	1785	525	...
	Cornet . . .	1260	...	...
Royal Regiment of Horse Guards . .	Lieut.-Colonel .	7250	1900	...
	Major . .	5350	1850	...
	Captain . .	3500	1900 Gs	...
	Lieutenant .	1600	400	...
	Cornet . . .	1200	...	...
Dragoon Guards and Dragoons	Lieut.-Colonel .	6175	1600	1533 0 0
	Major . .	4575	1350	1352 0 0
	Captain . .	3225	2035	1034 3 4
	Lieutenant .	1190	350	632 13 4
	Cornet . . .	840	...	300 0 0
Foot-guards .	Lieut.-Colonel .	9000	700	...
	Major with rank of Colonel .	8300	3500	...
	Captain with rank of Lieut.-Colonel	4800	2750	...
	Lieutenant with rank of Captain . .	2050	850	...
	Ensign with rank of Lieutenant	1200	...	...
Regular Regiments of Infantry . .	Lieut.-Colonel .	4540	1300	1314 0 0
	Major . .	3200	1400	949 0 0
	Captain . .	1800	1100	511 0 0
In Regiments of Fusiliers and Corps formerly.	Lieutenant .	700	250	365 0 0
	Ensign . .	450	...	150 0 0
	1st. Lieutenant	700	200	365 0 0
	2nd. Lieutenant	500	...	200 0 0

FULL PAY OF THE OFFICERS OF THE ROYAL NAVY.

		Year. £	s.	d.
*Admiral of the Fleet		2190	0	0
*Admiral		1825	0	0
*Vice Admiral		1460	0	0
*Rear Admiral *Commodore of the First Class		1095	0	0
*Table Money to all the above, in addition, when Commanding-in-Chief, and whilst their Flag is flying within the limits of their Station		1095	0	0
Commodore of the Second Class, in addition to his Pay as Captain, if so ordered by the Admiralty	If Commanding-in-Chief	375	0	0
	If not Commanding-in-Chief	182	10	0
Secretary	To the Admiral of the Fleet	500	7	1
	To a Flag Officer, Commander-in-Chief	401	10	0
	To all other Flag Officers, and Commodores of the 1st Class	301	2	6
	To a Commodore of the 2nd Class	150	11	3
Clerk to the Secretary	To a Commander-in-Chief	66	18	4
	To a Junior Flag Officer, or Commodore of the First Class	54	15	0
Captain of the Fleet		1095	0	0
Captain	1st Class. To the first 70, when employed	701	2	1
	2nd Class. To the next 100, when employed	574	17	6
	3rd Class. To all other Captains, when employed, below the first 170	450	3	4
Commander		301	2	6
Lieutenant	In Command of any Ship or Tender other than those on the Packet or Surveying Establishment	200	15	0
	Of 7 years' standing in that rank, being, Senior of a sea-going rated Ship	200	15	0
	Ditto of a Flag Ship at the Home Ports	200	15	0
	Ditto of a rated Surveying Vessel, if he receive no additional Pay as Assistant Surveyor	200	15	0
	Ditto of Troop Ship	200	15	0
	All others	182	10	0
Master	Of the Fleet	365	0	0
	1st and 2nd (If 20 Years' Service, &c.)	328	10	0
	" (If 15 Years' Service, &c.)	273	15	0
	Store allowance when in charge: 1st, 2nd, and 3rd Rates	73	0	0
	Store allowance when in charge: 4th, 5th, and 6th Rates	48	13	4
	Store allowance when in charge: Sloops, &c.	38	0	5
	In all other Ships (If 10 Years' Service, &c.)	219	0	0
	In all other Ships (If 6 Years' Service, &c.)	200	15	0
	In all other Ships (Less than 6 Years' Service)	182	10	0
Chaplain	Above 10 Years' Service Afloat	200	15	0
	Under 10 " " "	182	10	0
	" 3 " " "	161	4	2

Full Pay of the Royal Navy, continued.			Year. £	s.	d.
Ditto, in addition if acting as Naval Instructor		Above 10 Years' Service as Naval Instructor	136	17	6
		" 7 " "	115	11	8
		" 3 " "	104	18	9
		Under 3 " "	95	16	3
		Tuition allowance for each young Gentleman Instructed	5	0	0
Surgeon	If employed on the 1st of July, 1840, or on the completion of 3 Years' Service from 1st January, 1838.	Of an Hospital Ship	328	10	0
		Above 20 Years' Full Pay Service, including Service as Assistant Surgeon			
		Above 10 Years' ditto	255	10	0
		" 6 "	219	0	0
		Under 6 "	200	15	0
	If unemployed on the 1st July, 1840, until the completion of 3 Years' Service from 1st January, 1838.	Above 20 Years' Full Pay Service including 3 Years' Service only as Assistant Surgeon	328	10	0
		Above 10 Years' ditto	255	10	0
		" 6 "	200	15	0
		Under 6 "	182	10	0
Paymaster	1st Class, 30 in Number		600	14	7
	2nd Class, 60 "		474	10	0
	3rd Class, 80 "		349	15	10
	4th Class, 130 "		249	8	4
Assistant-Paymaster in Charge			155	2	6
Assistant-Paymaster, 1st Class			127	15	0
" 2nd Class			91	5	0
Clerk			73	0	0
Assistant Clerk			45	12	6
Mate			66	18	4
Assistant Surgeon	In Ships in which no Surgeon is borne	Above 10 Years' Full Pay Service	184	0	5
		Under 10 " "	165	15	5
		Above 10 " "	174	17	11
	In Ships in which a Surgeon is borne	" 3 " "	156	12	11
		Under 3 " "	147	10	5
Second Master	In all Rates if qualified for Master		91	0	5
	If not qualified for Master but above 4 Years' Full Pay Service		73	0	0
	If not qualified for Master and under 4 Years' Service		66	18	4
	Store allowance when in Charge		27	7	6
If in Ships bearing a Master, and from his absence, or other cause, the Stores should be placed under charge of a Second Master, the same Store Allowance is to be made to the latter as regulated for the former; or when a Second Master or other Officer shall have charge of the Stores in a Tender, the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty will decide, according to the circumstances of the case, whether any or what portion of the Store Allowance shall be granted to such officer.					
Naval Instructor		Above 10 Years' Service on Full Pay as such	182	10	0
		" 7 " "	155	2	6
		" 3 " "	136	17	6
		Under 3 " "	127	15	0
		Tuition allowance for each young Gentleman Instructed	5	0	0
Midshipman	In all Rates		31	18	9
Master's Assistant	Ditto		47	2	11
Naval Cadet	Ditto		16	14	7

Memorandum as to the Pay and Allowances of Medical Officers in the East-India Company's Service.

Pay and Allowances and Time of Service commence from date of arrival at the Presidency to which they are appointed.

On first arrival and whilst attached to the General Hospital at the Presidency, they are granted Pay and Allowances (inclusive of Quarters valued at Rs. 25 per month) amounting per month to Rs. 220.

When posted to do duty with Corps, they receive the following allowances :—

		Within 200 miles of the Presidency.			Beyond 200 miles from the Presidency.		
			R.	A.		R.	A.
Including conveyance allowance of Rs. 30 a month.	Horse Artillery and Cavalry . .	per Mo.	364	6	per Mo.	395	4
	Foot Artillery .	„	264	4	„	295	12
	Infantry . .	„	255	12	„	286	10

When in charge of Corps as Assistant Surgeons, having passed the prescribed examination in Native Languages :—

		Within 200 miles of the Presidency.			Beyond 200 miles from the Presidency.		
			R.	A.		R.	A.
Including a Staff Salary of Rs. 165 a month.	Horse Artillery and Cavalry . .	per Mo.	499	6	per Mo.	530	4
	Foot Artillery .	„	399	4	„	430	12
	Infantry . .	„	390	12	„	421	10

When in charge of Corps as Surgeons, having passed the prescribed examination in Native Languages :—

		Within 200 miles of the Presidency.				Beyond 200 miles from the Presidency.			
			R.	A.	P.		R.	A.	P.
Including a Staff Salary of Rs. 300 a month.	Horse Artillery and Cavalry . .	per Mo.	821	11	4	per Mo.	863	0	4
	Foot Artillery .	„	692	5	0	„	733	10	0
	Infantry . .	„	674	1	0	„	715	6	0

Surgeons and Assistant Surgeons of European Corps are granted, in addition, an allowance of Rs. 25 per month for every 100 Europeans under their charge.

Surgical Instruments are provided by Government.

The Examiners for Assistant Surgeons in the Honourable East India Company's Service, having received many inquiries as to the object and extent of the Examination in Comparative Anatomy, Zoology, and Botany, have considered it desirable to announce that their objects are,—

1. To ascertain who of the Candidates have devoted especial attention to any of these sciences, and are hence qualified to undertake duties requiring a knowledge of them, as well as the general duties of their profession. Proficiency in these sciences will, in classifying the Candidates by merit, be entitled to great consideration.

2. To encourage all Candidates to acquire an elementary knowledge of the structure and affinities of the principal natural families of Animals and of Plants, with the general plan upon which these are constructed, and the functions and relations of their most important organs.

3. To promote the study of Natural History as a most important adjunct or preliminary to a liberal medical education; that of Comparative Anatomy, Zoology, or Botany, if properly cultivated, by means of specimens, for even a short period, being eminently calculated to develop habits of close observation, and to strengthen those powers of reasoning upon observed facts, which must be habitually exercised by medical men everywhere, but which must be exercised with the greatest energy and promptitude by those who practise in a tropical climate, and who are often thrown wholly upon their own resources.

The general examination in these sciences will be elementary, and will embrace a very limited range of technical terms. At the written examination, a considerable number of questions will be put, with the view of allowing each Candidate to select such subjects as he has attended to, and, thereby, of enabling the Examiners to ascertain the particular departments of science in which the verbal examination should be conducted.

With those Candidates who have attained proficiency in any branch of these sciences, the verbal examination will be pursued in the branch selected, so as to ascertain the full extent of their knowledge.

FURLOUGHS.

On Private Affairs—

For 2 years, after 10 years' service in India, with pay, if a Surgeon . . . . . 10*s.* 6*d.* a day.
if an Assistant Surgeon 6 6 ,,

A Second Furlough for 2 years after expiration of 10 years from date of return to duty from First Furlough, with pay as above.

On Sick Certificate—

For 18 months with Indian Pay and Allowances for 6 months. For the remaining time with Furlough Pay as above. Time may be extended on renewed Medical Certificate, with Pay, for 3 years in the whole. Assistant Surgeons returning to England on Sick Certificate receive Rs. 1,200 passage-money.

RETIRING PENSIONS.

After 17	years' service	. . .	£191	per annum.
,, 21	,,	. . .	250	,,
,, 25	,,	. . .	300	,,
,, 29	,,	. . .	365	,,
,, 32	,,	. . .	500	,,
,, 35	,,	. . .	700	,,

The full time of service must be completed in each case. Out of that time leaves of absence in India or Europe, or elsewhere, to the extent of 1 year and 8 months in 17 years,

2 years in 20 ,,
3 ,, 25 ,,
4 ,, 30 ,,

will be allowed to count as service.

Medical Officers compelled to quit the service by ill-health before they are entitled to retiring Pensions as above, may retire on the following rates of pension, viz :—

	PER ANNUM.
Assistant Surgeons, after 6 years' service in India . . .	£54 15*s.*
,, 10 ,, ,, . . .	73 0
And if they have attained the rank of Surgeon . . .	127 15

Assistant Surgeons compelled to quit the service by wounds received in action, or by ill-health contracted on duty, after 3 years' service in India, are permitted to retire on £73 per annum.

WIDOWS' PENSIONS FROM LORD CLIVE'S FUND.

Widow of a Member of the Medical Board, £114 1*s.* 3*d.* per annum; on declaration that the deceased Officer was not possessed of, or entitled to, the sum of . .			£4,000
,,	Superintending Surgeon	£91 5*s.* 0*d.* ,,	3,000
,,	Surgeon . . .	45 12 6 ,,	2,000
,,	Assistant Surgeon .	22 16 3 ,,	1,000

Note.—For information respecting the Pensions to Widows and Children, and other advantages, from the Military, Medical, and Orphan Funds; also for information as to the Annuities to Retired Medical Officers from the Medical Retiring Funds, and as to the rates of subscriptions, &c.; applicants are referred to the Agents of those Funds respectively, *viz.* :—

Bengal Military Fund . . .	Lieut. Col. H. B. Henderson, Old Jewry Chambers.
Bengal Orphan Society . . .	Lieut. Col. W. Turner, 69, Cornhill.
Bengal Medical Fund . . .	Messrs. Coutts & Co., Strand.
Madras Military Fund . . .	Messrs. Grindlay & Co., 63, Cornhill.
Madras Medical Fund . . .	Messrs. Alexander, Fletcher & Co., King's Arms Yard.
Bombay Military Fund / Bombay Medical Fund	Messrs. Forbes, Forbes & Co., King William Street.

STANDARDS OF QUALIFICATION FOR DIFFERENT DEPARTMENTS IN THE CIVIL SERVICE.

*** In the departments to which an asterisk is prefixed no examination of candidates has yet been held; and, with regard to some of them, the standard of qualifications (where given) cannot be regarded as precisely arranged.

ADMIRALTY.

I. Whitehall Branch.

1. Writing English from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. English Composition.
4. Précis.
5. Geography.
6. The leading points in English History.
7. Translation from French.
8. Translation from Latin or a second modern language.

II. Somerset House Branch.

1. Writing English from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. Book-keeping by Double Entry.
4. English Composition.
5. Précis.
6. Geography.
7. Either—
   (*a*) Latin or a modern language;
   (*b*) The leading points of English or Modern History;
   or,
   (*c*) Algebra, Euclid, or any branch of Mathematics or Science.

III. Clerks in Dockyards, Victualling-yards, or Naval Establishments at Home, and Temporary Clerks.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. Book-keeping.

AUDIT OFFICE.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. Correspondence.
4. Précis.

* CHARITABLE TRUSTS' COMMISSION.

Nothing fixed.

CHELSEA HOSPITAL.

1. Writing.
2. Copying from MSS.

CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, Interest and Annuities, Square Root, and the use of Logarithms).
3. Book-keeping.
4. English Composition.
5. Geography.
6. History of England.
7. Latin.
8. French.

COAL WHIPPERS' OFFICE.

Nothing fixed.

* COLONIAL OFFICE.

I. For Clerkships in Downing Street.

Preliminary Examination.

1. Exercises designed to test Hand-writing and Orthography.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. Geography.
4. Translation from one of the following languages, at the option of the Candidate — Greek, Latin, French, German, Spanish, Italian.
5. Précis or abstract of Official Papers.

FINAL EXAMINATION.

Any number not exceeding three of the following subjects, at the option of the Candidate.

1. Languages and Literature of Greece and Rome.
2. Languages and Literature of France, Germany, and Italy.
3. Modern History, including that of the British Colonies; with Exercises in English Composition, designed to test purity and elegance of style.
4. Elements of Constitutional and International Law; with Elements of Political Economy.
5. Pure and mixed Mathematics, not including the highest branches; with Accounts and Book-keeping.

II. FOR WRITERSHIPS IN CEYLON.

PRELIMINARY EXAMINATION:

1. Exercises designed to test Hand-writing and Orthography.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. Geography, particularly that of British India and its Dependencies.
4. Translation from one of the following Languages,—Greek, Latin, French, German, Spanish, and Italian—the selection being left to the Candidate.
5. The preparation of a Précis or Abstract of Official Papers.

FINAL EXAMINATION:

1. Languages and Literature of Greece and Rome.
2. Modern History, including that of the British Colonies and Possessions.—Exercises designed to test purity and elegance of style.
3. Elements of Constitutional and International Law.—Elements of Political Economy.
4. Pure and mixed Mathematics, not including the highest branches.—Mercantile Finance.
5. Geology, Chemistry, and Civil Engineering.

Of the five classes of subjects thus defined, Candidates are at liberty to select any number, not exceeding three, in which they desire to be examined.

COLONIAL LAND AND EMIGRATION OFFICE.

* I. Permanent Clerks.

1. Writing.
2. Arithmetic (a fair knowledge).
3. Précis.

II. Temporary Clerks.

1. Exercises designed to test Hand-writing and Orthography.
2. Elementary Arithmetic.
3. Exercises of a simple character in English Composition, designed to test ability to write an ordinary business letter.

* COMMONS (HOUSE OF).

Nothing fixed.

* COPYHOLD, INCLOSURE, AND TITHE COMMISSION.

Nothing fixed.

COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL FOR EDUCATION.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic.
3. Book-keeping.
4. Précis.
5. Making fair copies from rough notes.
6. Calculation of per-centages.

CUSTOMS.

I. Clerks in the Solicitor's Office; Searchers; and Landing-Waiters.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. English Composition.

II. Other Clerks; Extra Clerks; Coast Officers; Gaugers.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).

III. Tidewaiters and Weighers.

1. Writing.
2. Orthography.
3. Arithmetic (first four Rules, and the different Weights and Measures).

* DESIGNS (REGISTRY OF).

(The same as for "Supplementary Clerks" in the Board of Trade.)

* DUCHY OF LANCASTER.

Nothing fixed.

* ECCLESIASTICAL COMMISSION.

Nothing fixed.

* EXCHEQUER.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions and Practice).
3. Précis.
4. Book-keeping.
5. Correspondence.

FACTORY INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.

Sub-Inspectors of Factories.

1. Exercises designed to test Hand-writing and Orthography.
2. Arithmetic (to Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. Latin or one modern Foreign Language.
4. English History.
5. Geography.
6. Précis.
7. Elements of Political Economy.
8. English Composition.

FOREIGN OFFICE.

* I. Secretary of State's Office.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Précis.
3. French.

II. Unpaid Attachés.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Précis.
3. Geography.
4. Modern History.
5. French (Writing from Dictation, Speaking, and Translation).
6. Translation from either German, Latin, Spanish, or Italian, at the option of the Candidate.

* III. Paid Attachés.

1. A speaking and a writing knowledge of the Languages of the countries in which they have resided since their first appointment to the Service.
2. International Law.
3. Reports upon the constitution and condition of the countries in which they have resided.

* IV. Consular Service.

1. Arithmetic.
2. English Composition.
3. French (written and spoken).
4. The Language of the port at which they may be appointed to reside.
5. British Mercantile and Commercial Law.

* FRIENDLY SOCIETIES REGISTRY.

Nothing yet fixed.

GENERAL REGISTER OFFICE.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).

3. English Composition.
4. Correspondence.
5. Précis.
6. Geography.
7. English History.

* GREENWICH HOSPITAL.

Nothing yet fixed.

* HEALTH (BOARD OF).

Nothing yet fixed.

* HOME OFFICE.

Nothing yet fixed.

INDIA BOARD.

1. Writing.
2. Orthography.
3. Arithmetic.
4. English Composition.
5. Précis.
6. Geography.

INLAND REVENUE.

I. Offices of Receipt and Account; and Surveyors of Taxes.

1. Reading.
2. Writing from Dictation.
3. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
4. Book-keeping by Double Entry.
5. Correspondence.
6. Geography.
7. History of the British Empire.

II. Offices not of Receipt and Account. (*a*)

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).

(*a*) "The examination, as regards history, geography, correspondence, and the other heads, would extend much further than is thought necessary in the

3. Correspondence.
4. Geography.
5. History.
6. Latin [in the Solicitor's office only].

III. Lieutenants of Revenue Police.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).

IV. Expectants of Excise.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. Book-keeping by Double Entry.

* JOINT STOCK COMPANIES REGISTRY.

(The same as for "Supplementary Clerks" in the Board of Trade.)

* JUDGE ADVOCATE GENERAL'S OFFICE.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Accuracy in copying.

* LAND REVENUE RECORD OFFICE.

Nothing yet fixed.

* LORDS (HOUSE OF).

Nothing yet fixed.

* LUNACY COMMISSION.

Nothing yet fixed.

case of clerks in offices of account and receipt, and would be such as to ascertain whether or not the person had received such an education as would qualify him, after experience in the various business of the office, to be employed in duties of a superior description. In the office of the solicitor some legal attainments are required; but the proficiency of the party in that respect would not be tested on his admission, but during the probation of three months."

* METROPOLIS ROADS COMMISSION.

Nothing yet fixed.

* METROPOLITAN BUILDINGS OFFICE.

Nothing yet fixed.

METROPOLITAN POLICE COURTS.

1. Reading.
2. Writing from Dictation.
3. Arithmetic (including Vulgar Fractions).
4. English Composition.
5. Modern Geography.
6. English History.
7. Criminal Law (if the Candidate be a Certificated Attorney, or Justices' Clerk at Petty Sessions).

* METROPOLITAN POLICE OFFICE.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. Book-keeping.
4. English Composition.
5. English Geography.
6. History of the British Empire.
7. French.

* MINT.

Nothing yet fixed.

NATIONAL DEBT OFFICE.

1. Hand-writing.
2. Correct copying from MSS.
3. Arithmetic (including Vulgar Fractions).
4. Geography.
5. History.

* PATENTS OFFICE.

Nothing yet fixed.

* PAYMASTER GENERAL'S OFFICE. (*b*)

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, purchase of Stock and Exchange).
3. Book-keeping.
4. Précis.

POOR LAW BOARD.

* I. Superior Clerks. (*c*)

1. Arithmetic (to Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
2. English Composition.

II. Supplementary Clerks.

1. Hand-writing.
2. Accuracy in copying.
3. Arithmetic (elementary).
4. English Composition (ordinary principles).

POST OFFICE.

I. Secretary's Office. (*d*)

1. Writing from Dictation.

(*b*) "It is suggested to the Civil Service Commissioners, whether it might not be desirable to carry the examination of candidates a little beyond what it is at present, for the purpose of testing their general intelligence and acquirements." One of the suggestions is to require "a reasonable proficiency in one dead or modern language."—(E. A. Hoffay, Esq., to the Civil Service Commissioners.)

(*c*) "Candidates for clerkships of the superior class should be examined with a view to ascertain that they have received a liberal education and are personally intelligent. We do not desire to lay down any minute rules as to the manner of this examination, which may, to a certain extent, be made to depend upon the nature of the candidate's previous studies."—(Viscount Courtenay to the Civil Service Commissioners.)

(*d*) "There is a class of supplementary clerks in the Secretary's office whose duties are chiefly of a mechanical nature. The character of their examination may therefore be limited to penmanship, orthography, and the first rules of arithmetic."—(Mr. Tilley to Mr. Spedding, July 3, 1855.)

2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar Fractions).
3. English Composition.
4. Précis.
5. French or German

II. Other Offices.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Reduction, Rule of Three, and Practice).

PRISONS DEPARTMENT.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including the Rule of Three and Practice) with an accurate knowledge of the Arithmetical Tables.

* PRIVY COUNCIL OFFICE.

Inferior Clerks.

1. Writing.
2. Arithmetic.
3. English Composition.
4. French (such a knowledge as would enable the Clerks to copy and examine Documents in that language with accuracy).

* PRIVY SEAL OFFICE.

Nothing yet fixed.

* PUBLIC WORKS LOAN OFFICE.

Nothing yet fixed.

* QUEEN'S REMEMBRANCER'S OFFICE.

Nothing yet fixed.

* RECORD OFFICE.

Nothing yet fixed.

STATIONERY OFFICE.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar Fractions).
3. English Composition.

* SEAMEN'S REGISTRY OFFICE.

(The same as for "Supplementary Clerks" in the Board of Trade.)

TRADE (BOARD OF).

* I. Ordinary Clerks.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. Précis.
4. Geography.
5. Translation from one Ancient or Modern Foreign Language.

II. Supplementary Clerks.

1. Writing from dictation.
2. Transcribing correctly and expeditiously.
3. Arithmetic (the first four Rules, with Practice and the Rule of Three).
4. Grammatical structure of sentences of a simple character.

TREASURY.

I. Establishment Clerks.

1. Exercises designed to test Hand-writing and Orthography. Good Hand-writing to consist in the clear formation of the letters of the alphabet.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. First Three Books of Euclid.
4. History of England.
5. Geography.
6. Translation from one of the following Languages,—Latin, French, German, or Italian — the selection being left to the Candidate.
7. The preparation of a Précis or Abstract of Official Papers.

II. Supplementary Clerks.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. English Composition.
3. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
4. Book-keeping.

WAR DEPARTMENT.

I. Permanent Clerks.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. English Composition.
4. Précis.
5. Geography.
6. History (general outlines).
7. Latin, or one Foreign Language.

II. Permanent Clerks at Out-Stations. (*a*)

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (to Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. Correspondence.
4. Geography (outlines).
5. History.

III. Temporary Clerks.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (elementary).
3. Correspondence.

COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF'S OFFICE.

Nothing yet fixed.

Quartermaster-General's Office.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (first four Rules).

(*a*) The examination for retired Non-commissioned Officers of the Royal Artillery and Royal Sappers and Miners, nominated to Clerkships in the Royal Arsenal, Woolwich, is as follows :—1. Hand-writing ; 2. Writing from Dictation ; 3. Correspondence ; 4. Arithmetic, including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions ; 5. Properties of the Principal Articles used in the Royal Arsenal, such as wood and iron.

* Recruiting Department.

Nothing yet fixed.

* Adjutant-General's Office.

Nothing yet fixed.

WOODS (OFFICE OF).

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. Book-keeping (general principles).
4. English Composition.
5. Précis.
6. Geography.
7. English History (leading points).
8. French (some knowledge).
9. Latin (translation).

WORKS (OFFICE OF).

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Interest and Practice).
3. Correspondence.

DEPARTMENTS IN SCOTLAND.

BOARD OF FISHERIES.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (first four Rules and Rule of Three).
3. Correspondence.
4. Book-keeping by Single Entry.

* BOARD OF SUPERVISION.

1. English Composition.
2. Arithmetic.

* DIRECTORS OF PRISONS (OFFICE OF).

Nothing yet fixed.

* NORTHERN LIGHTHOUSES (COMMISSIONERS OF).

Nothing yet fixed.

QUEEN'S AND LORD TREASURER'S REMEMBRANCER'S OFFICE.

1. Exercises designed to test Hand-writing and Orthography.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. English History,
4. Geography.
5. Latin, or one modern Foreign Language.
6. English Composition.

* ASSINE OFFICE.

Nothing yet fixed.

DEPARTMENTS IN IRELAND.

* CHARITABLE BEQUESTS COMMISSION.

Nothing yet fixed.

CHIEF SECRETARY'S OFFICE.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. English Composition.
4. Correspondonce.
5. Précis.
6. Geography.
7. History.

CONSTABULARY OFFICE.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic.
3. English Composition.
4. Geography of Ireland.

DIRECTORS OF PRISONS (OFFICE OF).

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. Correspondence.
4. Précis.

* DUBLIN METROPOLITAN POLICE.

1. Reading.
2. Writing from Dictation.
3. Arithmetic.
4. Geography of the British Isles.

* EDUCATION OFFICE.

Nothing yet fixed.

* GENERAL REGISTER OFFICE.

Nothing yet fixed.

INSPECTORS OF LUNATIC ASYLUMS (OFFICE OF).

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. Correspondence.
4. Précis.

INSPECTORS OF PRISONS (OFFICE OF).

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (including Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).
3. Correspondence.
4. Précis.

* PAYMASTER OF CIVIL SERVICES (OFFICE OF).

I. Clerks in Pay Office.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic.
3. Book-keeping.

II. Clerks in Record Office.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic.
3. Book-keeping.
4. Surveying.
5. Irish and English History.
6. Latin.
7. French.

* POOR LAW COMMISSION.

Extra Clerks.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Copying.
3. Arithmetic (including Vulgar Fractions and Decimals).
4. English Composition.
5. Correspondence.
6. Précis.
7. Geography of the British Islands.

* PUBLIC WORKS OFFICE.

Nothing yet fixed.

REGISTRY OF DEEDS OFFICE.

1. Writing from Dictation.
2. Arithmetic (elementary).
3. English Composition.

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