

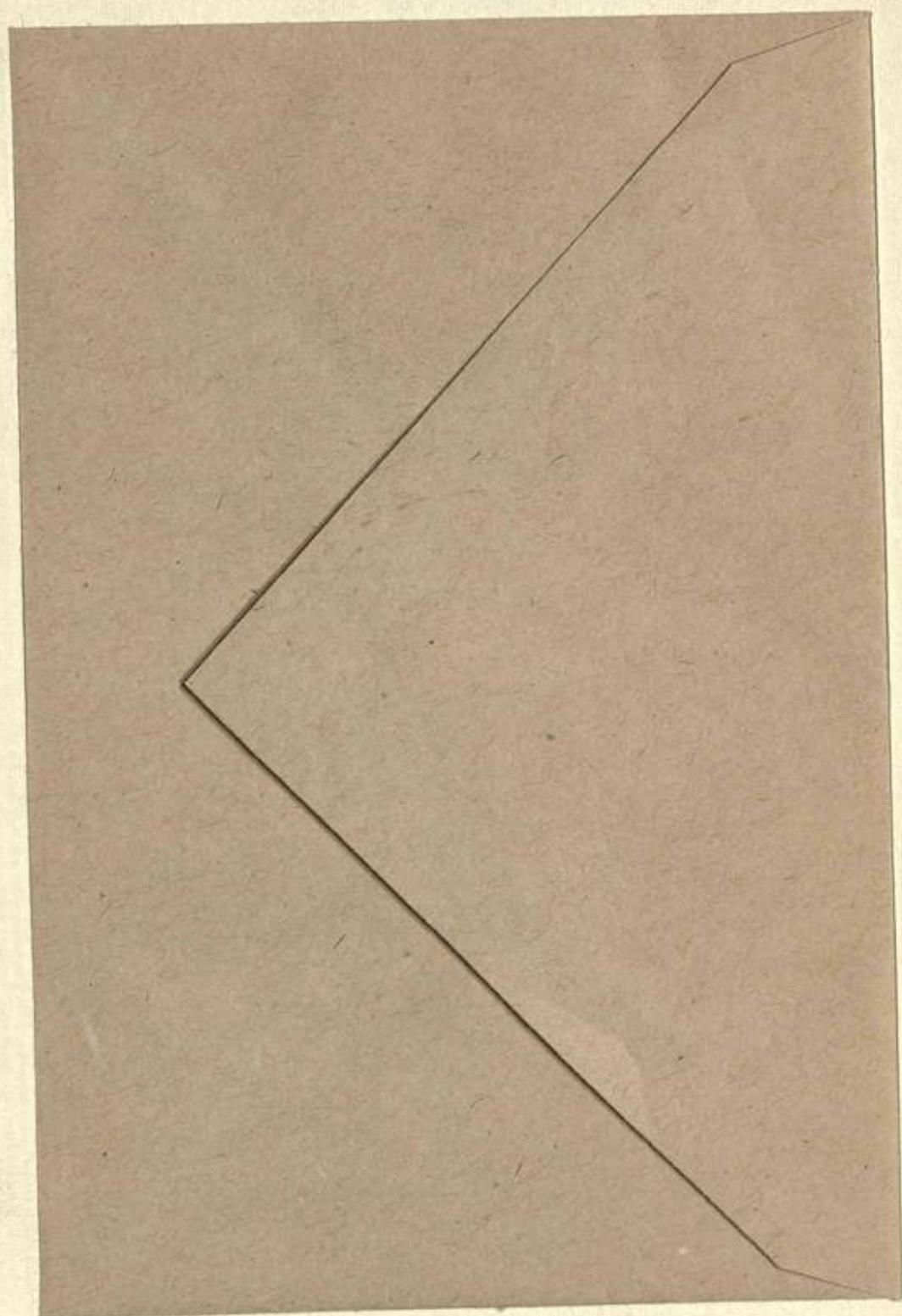
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THE
DOMESTIC DICTIONARY
AND
HOUSEKEEPER'S MANUAL.

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THE

DOMESTIC DICTIONARY

AND

HOUSEKEEPER'S MANUAL:

COMPRISING

EVERYTHING PERTAINING TO COOKERY, DIET, ECONOMY
AND MEDICINE.

BY GIBBONS MERLE.

THE MEDICAL PORTION OF THE WORK

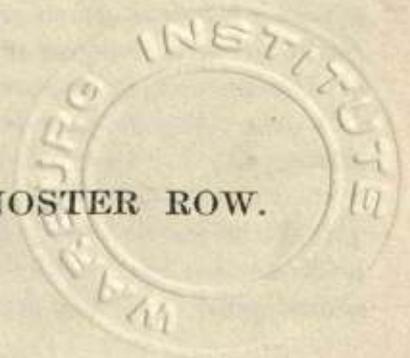
BY JOHN REITCH, M.D.

LONDON:

WILLIAM STRANGE, 21, PATERNOSTER ROW.

1842.

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THE

DOMESTIC DICTIONARY

AND

HOUSEKEEPER'S MANUAL

CONTAINING

EVERYTHING PERTAINING TO COOKERY, BREAD, ECONOMY
AND MEDICINE

BY GIBBONS MERRILL

THE MEDICAL PORTION OF THE WORK

BY JOHN MITCHELL, M.D.



LONDON:

WILLIAM STRANGE & PATRICKSON, PRINTERS, BOW

1875.

PREFACE.

If we could dispense with a preface, we should do so; for, generally speaking, it is that part of a book which is least read. In this work, however, the preface is essential to the reader, and we shall endeavour to make it as little tedious as possible, by saying just so much of ourselves as the reader may wish to be acquainted with, and no more.

We will not begin, as most authors do, by saying that we were induced to print and publish at the urgent entreaty of private friends, who, having had the high delight of reading the work in manuscript, benevolently opposed the idea of excluding from the same enjoyment the public at large; we will be more candid. We consulted no private friends; we thought the work would be useful, and our publisher, who has an eye to business, thought it would sell.

And now a few words as to our grounds for thinking that the work would be useful, and as to our mode of execution. Within the last twenty years we have had thrice that number of books on the various subjects which are treated of in this; but there has hitherto been no attempt to bring the information which they contain within the range of every purse, and every man's time. There are treatises upon cookery enough to fill several shelves of a library, and several of them are very well done; but they are, for the greater part, compilations from each other; and where men like M. Ude and M. Carême have chosen to give to the world the results of their experience in the culinary art, they have taken care to make people pay dearly for the information, and they have also treated with contempt the domestic cookery which must be of the greatest importance to nine-tenths of those civilized beings who, whilst they agree with those gentlemen in thinking that it was not intended for man to devour raw food, do not appreciate dishes exactly in proportion to their cost. On the other hand, there has been no want of works on domestic cookery, but the authors have, for the greater part, fallen into the opposite extreme, and, either from ignorance of the culinary art, or from a belief that it is not possible to prepare rich dishes unless one be actually rich, have neglected to borrow from the autocrats of the kitchen some of this knowledge of fashionable life. We have endeavoured to avoid both extremes. Every work of real merit on cookery has been consulted, and those articles which are mere compilations

have been revised by practical cooks, whilst several hundred hitherto unpublished recipes for the preparation of food have been supplied by cooks equally eminent with those who have figured in print. Thus far, then, our work will be useful; and not the less so for being in a condensed form. We have consulted every work on French cookery, from Vatel and Carème to the *Cuisinier Royal*, the *Cordon Bleu*, and the *Cuisine Bourgeoise*. Everything that they contain, and which our culinary collaborators knew from experience to be good, is given here. And if we have not given M. Carème's four hundred modes of dressing fish and making soups, it was because nine out of ten are silly modifications, made from affectation, or for the purpose of swelling out the book. The works of other countries, where good cookery is known, have also been consulted; and as regards English cookery, no expense has been spared to obtain the best information that could be procured, at the same time endeavouring to introduce economy throughout; for economy should be aimed at in the preparation of the richest, as well as of the plainest food. Here, indeed, lies the true science of the good cook; for with an outlay of five shillings he can prepare a savory dish, which a bungling *artiste* would be unable to prepare at a cost of fifteen. Everybody has heard of the French general, who, when besieged, invited the besieging general to dinner, in order to convince him that there was still an abundance of good cheer in the garrison, instead of its being, as reported, on the point of starvation. The besieging general was regaled with no less than twenty dishes, all equally good; great, therefore, was his astonishment at learning subsequently that he had been dining on horseflesh, variously cooked. This is given as an instance of what may be achieved by a good cook, even with the worst materials. How must his science predominate, therefore, when his materials are good.

But if in the portion of the DOMESTIC DICTIONARY which relates to food we merely gave the most approved known preparations, enriched by the new stores of knowledge which our culinary collaborators have laid open to us, we should have but half performed the mission which we imposed upon ourselves. The great feature of this portion of the work is, the attempt to render health compatible with enjoyment, and to shew how the most atrabilious dyspeptic may eat without dread, and digest what he eats. Here we have felt it our duty to explode absurd prejudices, and to lay down new rules. So far, the work is a true *Dictionary of Health*. Without asserting that men may eat and drink what they like, and be none the worse, or denying what is good in Mr. Accum's warning of *Death in the Pot*, we endeavour to lay down precepts, by following which the most delicate may indulge in savory food, and the digestive organs be rather invigorated than impaired. In this, everything like quackery has been avoided; there have been quacks enough the other way, and we have not attempted to substitute for the harsh and unfeeling rules of the dietetic practitioner, who would make his patient drink by measure and eat by weight, extreme notions, having no other claim to notice than their novelty. More than one practical and really eminent physician has contributed articles and general information as to the things which may be eaten with safety, enjoyment, and benefit; and we may assert, without fear of refutation, that this portion of the work is good as well as new.

As far as it has been found practicable, every article relative to cookery is alphabetically arranged; and where variations are made from the general rule, the object is to assist the reader. Thus, for instance, *oyster soup* will not be found under the letter O, nor will *hare* be found under the letter H, but the one under S (soups), and the other under G (game): and this is also the case with *fish, pastry, &c.* This arrangement will be understood and appreciated by supposing that a lady intends to give a dinner party, and has (as every lady will, we trust, have) a copy of the DOMESTIC DICTIONARY in her practical library. She sends for her cook, male or female, and concerts as to the fare to be provided. "What fish shall we have?" says the lady. Now, if the different kinds of fish mentioned in the Dictionary were classed under their separate letters, she must run through the whole of it to find them, whereas, by looking under F, for *fish*, she finds them all. So it is with *game, soups, sauces, pastry, jellies, &c.* She is to refer to each general head, and under that she will find the various articles alphabetically arranged. The index at the end of the volume will also aid her in her search, and render the reference the affair of a moment.

Great care and attention have been bestowed upon all the vegetables which are used as food. Their medicinal qualities, when they possess any, are pointed out, as is also the mode of raising them, for it is not necessary to have a gardening book with this Dictionary in hand; and then follow the various modes of dressing vegetables in different parts of the world.

In *domestic economy*, everything that the head of a family, a housekeeper, a cook, or a common serving maid should know, is given. There are practical treatises, by writers of experience, in each art, on *brewing, baking, the manufacture of liqueurs; the mode of choosing foreign, and of making domestic wines; the making of coffee, butter, cheese, jellies, preserves, &c.; the mode of economizing fuel and light*; in fact, all that is connected with the cares and duties of a family. There are also instructions for the rearing of domestic animals, the preservation of meats and vegetables; and these are not compiled from other books, but articles written expressly for this work, with references to printed authorities where they are good.

In minor matters, the *Domestic Dictionary* will be found to contain much useful information. Our readers must not expect to find in it any attempt at domestic medicine, except as connected with the management of a house; but in this respect nothing has been omitted. Thus, under the head *baths*, all that relates to warm bathing, whether of foot-baths or general baths, is given, because that is a portion of domestic economy. So are remedies given for burns, scalds, &c., because a female may burn or scald herself in the duties of the household, and the remedy should be immediately at hand. There is a treatise on poisons, also; for a member of a family may be poisoned by verdigris from saucepans, by poisonous mushrooms, by certain kinds of fish, by arsenic obtained for the destruction of rats and inadvertently mixed with food: where an accident in domestic economy can occur, the remedy is pointed out.

The washing of silks, and other articles of apparel; the dying of articles, where it is practicable in a private way; the removal of stains, and the various information necessary for the good housewife, are not omitted: and, in this

respect, nothing is recommended that has not been tried by experience, and been crowned with success. All that a lady of the highest rank, at the head of a family, and a servant, of whatever degree, should know, is here taught. The aim of the author has been to give, as regards domestic economy, a *Practical Cyclopædia of Practical Things*.

Not one of the least interesting features of this work is that which relates to the toilet. All the secrets of the perfumer are opened to the public. The lady may now make her *Eau de Cologne*, her *lavender water*, her *essences*, *pomatus*, *poudres dentifrices*, &c. &c., with economy, and with a degree of excellence which many perfumers would be glad to attain. The instructions are from various, but approved sources; and when the process of distillation can be dispensed with, the mode of operating by infusion is given; but as distillation is sometimes indispensable, the instructions under that head are so plain and practical, and the process is rendered so interesting, that many ladies will become distillers whether we would or not.

Long as our preface is, we have but glanced at the general features of the work. We trust that what we have said is fully borne out by the contents, and that our readers will allow that we might have said more.

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AT HOME AND ABROAD.

SINCE the peace of 1814, many thousands of English have been in the habit of residing on the Continent of Europe for purposes of economy. These persons are of two classes; firstly, those of large incomes, who, having plunged into dissipation, and displayed a luxury beyond even their vast resources, and who, wanting the firmness of character which enables persons to sink considerations of false pride, abandon their native country, where they can no longer keep up a display above that of persons of more moderate means, and resort to other climes, where, with less expenditure, they are able to make, according to the scale of display amongst foreigners, an appearance still more attractive than that which they made at home; and, secondly, those of limited income, who hope to find in foreign countries comforts and luxuries which they cannot obtain in England, and also the means of educating their children at a cheaper rate. For the first of these classes, there can be no sympathy amongst right-minded men. Their conduct is full of egotism, and totally destitute of patriotism. They care nothing for the distress of the industrious classes of Englishmen, who depend for support, in a great measure, upon the expenditure of the fortunes of the wealthy in the country from which they are derived; and it is a matter of utter indifference to them whether the middle classes, who depend upon the rich, live in comfort, or close their shops and starve. For the other class of emigrants, however, to whom we have made allusion, more is to be said. There are thousands of persons in England with incomes of from one to five hundred pounds a year, who leave it only with the view of husbanding a portion of their resources for the future welfare of their children, and with whom the cheap but good education of those children is a leading motive for emigration. Our observations, therefore, will be directed chiefly to this class, and we think we shall be able to shew that they fall into a lamentable error when they deprive their fellow-countrymen of the good which the distribution of their income at home would create, by emigrating under the impression that they will, at least, do good to themselves.

At the commencement of the present peace, the comparative prices of living and education abroad and at home were very different from what they are now. Everything in England, at that time, was exorbitantly dear, whilst abroad everything was comparatively dirt cheap. Things have gradually undergone a vast change; peace prices have succeeded in England to war prices, and abroad the prices of provisions, house-rent, &c., in the places which are generally preferred by the English as places of residence, have risen fifty, in some instances, a hundred, per cent. We will begin with Paris, because it was to

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Paris that the English first flocked. It is not necessary that we should place the prices of the two capitals in juxtaposition, for our readers who are housekeepers will be able to make the comparison themselves; neither is it necessary for us to trace the causes of the rise in prices which has taken place in this part of France. It may be attributed partly, perhaps, to the influx of foreigners, but the main cause appears to us to be in the increase of the commercial movement which has increased the population of large towns, and made the inhabitants larger consumers of the comforts of life than at a period when money, the sign of exchange, was comparatively scarce. With the cause, however, we have little to do.

The first thing to be considered in housekeeping is, necessarily, house rent. The English housekeeper will say, after having read the following statement, whether there is anything to be saved on this head by a residence in Paris. There are not in Paris, as in London, entire houses, varying in size and price, according to the classes who inhabit them. In Paris, all the houses are large, and are divided into apartments, which are let out. In the same house may be found a coal-shed on the ground floor, a prince on the first floor, and water carriers, and street vendors of fish and vegetables on the fifth or sixth floors. A porter, who has a lodge on the ground floor, has charge of the house, receives the rent when due, and takes care to prevent any lodger from removing his furniture before his rent is paid. As building is more expensive in Paris than in London, from the nature of the materials employed, and the slowness of French workmen, as compared with those of England, and as landlords are not satisfied unless house property yields six or seven per cent. upon the capital invested, the rents are comparatively high. This is equally the case, whether the situation be one of fashion or business; and although in secluded quarters, which are neither fashionable nor commercial, rents are comparatively low, they are much higher than in London, in cases which are similar as to the position of house property. We will begin with a fashionable situation. In the month of January, 1842, a large house in the Rue Chauveau la Garde was completed, and bills were put up for letting the apartments, unfurnished. The house is what is called a double house, having complete sets of apartments in front and at the back. In the present case, there is no difference in the value of the front or back apartments, for although the Rue Chauveau la Garde is in a fashionable quarter, it may almost be considered a back street. Each apartment of seven or eight rooms, on the ground floor, is let at 3000 francs (120*l.*) a-year; on the first floor, at 6000 francs, on the second floor, at 5000 francs, and on the third and fourth floors, at 4500 and 4000 francs. The whole house, thus parcelled out, produces to the owner 42,000 francs, (nearly 1700*l.*) a-year. The house is large and elegant; but what a large and splendid house it must be, and how fashionable must be the situation, to produce 1700*l.* a-year in London, unfurnished! At the entrance of the Palais Royal from the Rue Vivienne is a house, neither commodious nor well built, which is let out as follows:—There are on the ground floor four small shops; one of them, which is only ten feet in length and four in breadth, and which has not even a fire-place, and no room or even closet connected with it, is let for 1750 francs (70*l.*) a-year, and the others are let at the same rate; on the entresol, a single large room, but so dark that, even in the summer, it is necessary to burn a light, is let for 630 francs. This room is occupied by a hair-dresser; the other rooms on the same floor are smaller, and are let at from 400 to 500 francs each. The first floor over the entresol is occupied by the owner of the house; but the second floor, which in England would be called the third, as the entresol is in reality the first floor, is let in two apartments, neither of them of more than five or six rooms, and those not good, at 3500 francs each. It will be said that an Englishman coming to Paris for economy, would not think of living either in a fashionable quarter, or a business quarter. He would look out for an apartment, not too distant from the centre of Paris, but in a situation where the rents are comparatively low, such as the streets in the neighbourhood of the Strand, or of Soho Square. We

will go, therefore, for the purpose of comparison, to what is called the cheap quarter of Paris, without being at the same time a low one—viz., the Faubourg St. Germain. Here, in a respectable street, a good first floor of six rooms may be had, unfurnished, for about 1800 francs a-year (72*l.*); and a fourth floor of the same size, for 1000 francs. In London, a pretty eight-roomed house, in an equally good position, can be had for 35*l.* to 40*l.* per year. True it is, however, that the taxes, as regards the tenant, are higher in London than in Paris; not that taxation is so much higher in England than in France, but it is differently levied. The taxes upon a house of 40*l.* a-year in London, exceed, perhaps, on an average, with the poor-rate, 10*l.* a-year; in Paris, the taxes upon an apartment (and here it is necessary to remark, that in France the occupier of an unfurnished apartment is liable to taxes, which is not the case in England,) of 1000 francs a-year do not exceed two or three pounds sterling; but there is one inevitable tax in Paris, which is not known in London. In the English capital, the tenant who occupies an entire house has to pay a water rate, which varies according to the size of the house, but the lodger has no burthen of this kind. In Paris, all the water is supplied by carriers, at the rate of a sou (a halfpenny) per pail; not one house in a thousand is supplied with water through pipes. For a family of eight or ten persons, at least four pails of water are required daily, and this, for the year, amounts to 73 francs, or nearly three pounds sterling. Some houses, indeed, have wells, but the water is not potable, and it is too hard for most household purposes.

We have alluded to taxation, and it may not be uninteresting to our readers to know what are the principal direct taxes in France. In the first place, there are no direct taxes on luxuries. A man may have as many carriages, horses, dogs, and servants, as he pleases, without the payment of a tax; but no person can carry on trade of any kind without a *patente* (licence.) This varies from five or six francs per annum to 500 francs, according to the nature of the occupation, but it is in most cases apportioned to the rent, and in Paris it amounts to about ten per cent.; consequently, if a tradesman pays 10,000 francs a-year to the owner of the premises which he occupies, he has 1000 francs to pay for his *patente*. Then there is a tax upon all the operations of commerce for which a written agreement may be necessary, and which averages five per cent. upon the amount for which the agreement is made. The owner of property has a land tax and house tax to pay; the tenant pays taxes upon doors and windows, and upon his furniture, which is called the *impôt mobilier*. There are no direct compulsory poor-rates, but a very large sum is raised for the support of the poor, from the receipts of theatres, &c. Every theatre, or other place of public amusement, pays an eleventh of its gross receipts to the government, and this is also the case with stage-coaches, omnibuses, &c. The indirect taxes are very heavy, for there are very few of the necessaries of life which are not heavily taxed. All articles imported from foreign countries not only pay a heavy custom duty, but are also subject to what is called the *octroi* tax on entering towns. Thus wood, coals, butter, wine, butchers' meat, poultry, fish, &c., pay a duty on entering a town, although they are native produce. This tax is very heavy in cities, and is particularly so in Paris. Wine, for instance, of the ordinary kind, pays an *octroi* duty on entering the capital, which is nearly as high as its first cost.

Let us now state the average prices in Paris of the principal necessaries of life:—

BREAD fluctuates between three and four sous (three halfpence to two-pence) per pound.

BUTCHERS' MEAT. Beef and mutton, fifteen to twenty sous; veal and pork, twenty to twenty-two sous; lamb, twenty to twenty-five sous.

WINE. The ordinary kind, which is called *vin ordinaire*, and is used for dinner beverage, as beer is in England, costs from eight to twelve sous per quart. In point of strength and nourishment, this wine is very inferior to a quart of good London beer at four-pence. The finer wines are cheaper in proportion than in London, but no good wine can be had at less than two

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francs per bottle, and many wines cost five and six francs. (The wholesale prices only are given.) An Englishman accustomed to Port and Sherry will not be able to supply the place of these wines in Paris with anything approaching to their nature, at a lower price than in London. Wine, as a necessary—namely, as a dinner beverage, is dearer in Paris than beer is in London; consequently, as far as economy is concerned, there is nothing gained by the English resident on this head.

FISH. This is rarely fresh and good in Paris, and is always dear. When a cod's head and shoulders can be had for four or five francs, it is considered cheap, and a small pair of soles is not reckoned dear at two francs. A good-sized turbot costs, when cheap, ten to twelve francs; and salmon is thought cheap at two to three francs per pound. The only cheap fish of which there is always an abundant supply, are the skate and the conger eel. The latter, cooked in the French way, is not a bad dish. Shell fish is very dear; a good-sized lobster, for four or five persons, can rarely be had for less than six or seven francs. Oysters are six and eight sous per dozen, but they are very small; they are not fed and fattened as in London; in point of bulk, a London native is equal to three of the small oysters which are eaten in Paris. There is a large kind of oyster which is comparatively cheap, but it is too coarse to be eaten raw; it is only fit for soups.

POULTRY. In point of quality, the poultry which is brought to the Paris market is, perhaps, the finest in the world; but it is very dear. When fowls for roasting, and of good size, are at seven to eight francs per couple, they are not thought dear; and a common price for small ducks is five to six francs a pair. Turkeys are comparatively cheaper; a good-sized one may, in the season, be had for six or seven francs. Geese are three to five francs each; but geese are little eaten in Paris, except by the lower orders. Pigeons are dear, seldom less than ten sous each, and frequently twenty-five sous.

GAME. Partridges are not dear; they vary from thirty to fifty sous a brace. Pheasants are scarce and dear; a full-sized pheasant is considered cheap at eight to ten francs. A full-sized hare costs five to six francs; and rabbits, which are game in France, are thought very cheap when they are only thirty sous each. Wild game is not plentiful in the Paris market; but the price is about the same as in London.

FRUIT AND VEGETABLES. These are certainly much cheaper in Paris than in London. On an average, fruit is only half as dear as in London; and vegetables, with the exception of potatoes, which are much dearer than in London, although bread is cheaper, are still cheaper, as compared with the London prices, than fruit. Potatoes are so dear, probably because, although the use of them is becoming more and more general, they are not yet used extensively as a substitute for bread, and therefore large tracts of land are not yet planted with them. In England, where little bread is eaten at dinner, a large dish of potatoes is indispensable; but a Frenchman, who eats four times as much bread at his dinner as an Englishman, does not require the substitute. Indeed, potatoes are in most French houses served rather as a luxury, *à la maitre d'hotel*, and *en salade*, &c., than plain boiled (*au naturel*), as a substitute for bread. The vegetables are, generally speaking, much better, as well as cheaper, than they are in London; and this is particularly the case with those which are used as salad. The cheapness arises chiefly from the land around Paris being divided into small lots; there is, consequently, much competition amongst the growers, and their poverty compels them to make the most of their ground, and to effect immediate sales. The fruit is not so fine, generally speaking, as that which is brought to the London market.

GROCERIES. With the exception of sugar and coffee, groceries in Paris are dearer than in London. Sugar is cheap, (very fine loaf sugar can be had at 20 sous per pound, and here it must be remarked that the French pound is heavier by twelve per cent. than the English pound,) and excellent coffee is sold at two francs to two francs and a half per pound. The low price of sugar arises from the extent to which the manufacture of sugar from beet-root has

been carried in France. During the war, sugar cost six francs per pound in Paris; for at that time half the vessels laden with sugar, in the few colonies then possessed by the French, were captured by the English; and even since the peace, and before the manufacture of beet-root sugar became general, the price was forty to fifty sous per pound. It is said by some persons that beet-root sugar is not equal in sweetness to West India sugar. This is a mistake. If a pound of the best beet-root sugar, and a pound of the best colonial sugar, be dissolved and submitted to the test of the saccharometer, one will be found to contain as much saccharine matter as the other. The coffee in Paris is very good; and being more roasted than the coffee in London, it goes further in domestic use. Tea is dearer than in London, and, generally speaking, it is not so good, for the demand is not sufficient to keep up fresh supplies.

CHEESE, BUTTER, AND MILK. There is very little good cheese made in France. The best is the *Roquefort*, which resembles good Stilton, and is sold at two francs per pound. The cheese most in use is the *Gruyere*. The best is made in Switzerland; but it is pretty well imitated in many parts of France, and is sold in Paris at twenty to twenty-five sous per pound. There is a cream cheese, called *fromage de Neufchatel*, made in Normandy, which is very good, but dear; it is not sold by the pound, but in little cakes, weighing about an ounce and a half each, at three to four sous. Butter is dear in Paris. In the summer the average price of good fresh butter is thirty-four sous per pound; in the winter, the best fetches forty-five to fifty sous. Milk is eight sous per quart, and it is certainly very superior to the London milk; for the police keep up a rigid surveillance as regards the milksellers, and inspectors are appointed, who, from time to time, examine the quality of the milk offered for sale. Cream is not sold as it is in London. What is called *crème* in Paris is milk rendered more rich by the addition of a little cream; this is sold at about double the price of milk. What we call cream is by the French called *crème double*, and must be specially ordered from the dairy. In this case, it is about as dear as it is in London.

FUEL. This is a most expensive article in Paris. Coals are sold at from sixty-five to seventy francs per ton, (these are the Belgian coals, which are as good as those of Newcastle; French coals may be had in Paris at fifty francs per ton, but, from their bad quality, they are comparatively dear.) At seventy francs per ton, coals in Paris are as dear again as in London; and wood, which is still the chief fuel, although the use of coals is becoming more and more general every day, is very much dearer, for a ton of coals, costing seventy francs, will give one-third more heat than two *voies* of wood, costing eighty francs. There are very few apartments in the lodging-houses in Paris with the fire-places fitted up for burning coals.

CLOTHING. Female clothing is certainly, on an average, thirty per cent. dearer than in England; for cottons are twenty-five per cent. dearer, woollens are, quality considered, fifty per cent. dearer, and silks are not cheaper. In men's clothing, nothing is cheaper, except boots and shoes; very good boots may be had at twenty to twenty-five francs per pair. As woollen cloth, however, is dearer than in London, clothes are also dearer, and fashionable tailors in Paris are quite as exorbitant in their own charges as those of London. The charge for a coat by a fashionable Paris tailor is 120 to 150 francs, and for a pair of trowsers, fifty to sixty francs. The charge by a nonfashionable tailor is 90 to 110 francs for a coat, and 30 to 35 francs for a pair of trowsers. This is rather more than would be charged by an ordinary tailor in London. Linen is somewhat dearer than in London.

HORSE KEEP. The cost of feeding a horse, in one's own stable at Paris, is about three francs ten sous (about three shillings) per day, if he be kept in good condition. The oats are not so good as in England, and the hay is very inferior. At livery, the charge is not higher, but the horses are half starved.

SERVANTS' WAGES. A good (comparatively good, for the Paris servants are the worst in the world) man servant expects 400 to 500 francs a year, and

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his board, lodging, and livery. The wages of housemaids vary from 250 to 350 francs, with board, lodging, and two to three bottles of wine per week. A good female cook expects 350 to 400 francs a-year, *and what she can make*. A man cook must be paid from 600 to 1000 francs a year, if he be clever in his art; but there are many men servants in Paris who cook pretty well, without calling themselves professed cooks, who are to be had for 400 to 500 francs a year. Good French grooms are very scarce; French stable servants take no pride in the horses entrusted to their care. If an Englishman in Paris has a horse, and wishes it to be well treated, he must hire an English groom.

EDUCATION. A very mistaken idea prevails in England as to the expense of education in France. In no part of that country is it much cheaper than in England, for localities similarly circumstanced; and, generally speaking, it is quite as expensive in Paris as it is in London. There is no good boarding-school for boys at which the charge is less than 1000 francs a-year, without extras, and the ornamental parts of education—such as drawing, dancing, fencing, music, &c.; and at many of the boarding-schools for females, the charges are even higher than in London. It must be confessed, however, that parents who reside in Paris, and who wish to have masters at their own houses, may effect a considerable economy. Good masters may be had at the rate of two to three francs per lesson, whereas masters, whose acquirements are not superior, in London, charge nearly double that amount. Females may, therefore, be educated well and cheaply in Paris; and there are classical schools and colleges to which boys may be sent for a certain number of hours per day, and at which the charge is little more than one half what it is in London; but if recourse be had to boarding-schools, nothing is gained by bringing children to France for education.

If the reader will take the pains of comparing the different heads of expenditure in the capital of France, for what is actually necessary in a respectable family, he will, we think, find that, as far as saving is concerned, he would do well to stay at home, instead of adding to the enormous drain upon the resources of England, to enrich foreigners at the expense of the middle and labouring classes of England.

If pleasure, folly, vain and frivolous amusements, be desired, they are certainly to be had cheaper and in much greater variety in Paris than in London; but let it not be supposed that these are to be had for comparatively nothing. The lover of theatrical amusements, if he be a single man, can gratify himself in Paris at a cheap rate, for the price of admission to the pit of a Paris theatre is low; but as ladies are not admitted into the pit of a French theatre, the economy does not extend to them. For less than four shillings, a person may go to the pit of the Grand Opera, or the Italian Opera, in Paris, and for less than three shillings he is admitted into the pit of the national theatre for the genuine drama—viz., the *Theatre Français*; let him have a lady with him, and he will find that the parts of a theatre which are frequented by respectable persons, and in which one can both see and hear well, are quite as dear, as in London. There is one point, however, on which we may observe, to the honour of the French character, and which is turned to good account by persons of fixed, large or small, incomes, who leave London for the purpose of residing in Paris. It is not the custom in France to measure hospitality by the purse. It is not the custom in Paris for a person who invites company to expend upon a single party the income of a month. The French do not, as a general rule, give suppers; they do not estimate the cost of each guest, therefore, as is the case in London, even among the upper classes of tradesmen, at ten to fifteen shillings. A cup of tea, a glass of *eau sucrée*, or a glass of orgeat, are the only refreshments offered or required; and the English residents in Paris have, with some exceptions, adopted the French practice. The necessary consequence is, that parties are more numerous, and a person of small income is not compelled to decline invitations, because he dreads the expense of inviting in his turn. Eighteen out of twenty of the evening parties in Paris do not cost more than a franc a head; eating and drinking are secondary considerations on

these occasions; in London they are primary ones. Neither are there those nice demarcations of rank which in London give formality and stiffness to evening parties, and which exclude respectable persons who do not hold a certain aristocratic grade in society. There is, indeed, an aristocracy in French parties, as there is in England; but there is none of the aristocracy within aristocracy, which is so contemptible a portion of the English character. Tradesmen in Paris do not mix much in the parties of the non-trading classes; but they are not necessarily excluded from them; and in what is called gentility, there are none of the distinctions which are observed in England. If a person be a gentleman by education and pursuits, he is admitted into the best society; he is not watched, to see whether he comes to a party in his own carriage, or in a hackney coach, or on foot. The French are above these petty distinctions: would that the English were the same! There is one of the outskirts of London, in which this separation into grades is carried to so absurd an extent, that carriage people only visit carriage people; those who can display only a gig, or who cannot go beyond a saddle-horse, must remain at home. There is nothing of this kind in Paris. The greatest recommendations to good society in that capital are education and the pursuit of science; an educated and scientific man, who has not an income of one hundred pounds sterling a year, is as well received, and as much honoured, as a duke who has twenty or thirty thousand pounds a year. It is one of the great calamities of society in England, that if a man of limited income would visit and receive, he must go to an expense beyond his means. Nor is this confined to the aristocracy and the non-trading people; there is the same distinction amongst traders. People look more at the means which a tradesman is supposed to have of giving dinners and suppers in an expensive style, than at his moral merit, and we therefore see men every day endeavouring to ape what are called their betters, but who are really in no wise superior to themselves, in expenditure. A man, instead of husbanding his resources for his old age, must keep his gig, and give dinners and suppers; and, in order to do this with éclat, he is not very scrupulous about running into debt. The conventions of society have a vast effect upon income; and, as far as they are concerned, the real superiority is all on the side of the French.

It may not be amiss, perhaps, now to say a few words of the comparative expense of living in London and Paris, for the single man of very limited income; and here we cannot do better than give an extract from a letter written from Paris to a friend in England, by a half-pay lieutenant of the English army. It is quite graphic in its way. He says—"You know that my income altogether does not exceed 120*l.* a-year. With this poor stipend, I fancied myself a very poor man in London; and having heard so much of the cheapness of France, I resolved on wintering in Paris. I arrived here in the month of November, and after having visited a hundred lodging-houses, I at length obtained a very good bed-room, and a bed-room only, for sixty francs (almost fifty shillings) per month. For three pounds a month, fifteen shillings a-week, you know, I had a very pretty sitting-room and bed-room in the vicinity of the University, and the good people of the house prepared my breakfast for me, and cooked my dinner if I wished to dine at home. The porter of the house in Paris at which I fixed my quarters, however, told me that nothing of this kind could be done for me there. Well, I installed myself; and as it was very cold weather, laid in forty francs' worth of wood, which I expected would last at least two months, for in my London lodgings I paid ninepence per day for a good fire, and was at least seven or eight hours daily at home; whereas it was evident that, as I must go out in Paris for my meals, I should be comparatively little at home. What was my astonishment, therefore, at the end of three weeks, although I had a fire only in the evening, to find that my wood was almost gone; and God knows I had never once been warm, for the d—d chimney smoked at such a rate, as all the French chimneys do, that I was compelled to sit with my door wide open, to avoid suffocation. On the first morning after my arrival, I went to a café to breakfast; I had a cup of coffee,

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which, to say truth, was very good, a small loaf of bread, certainly not enough for a man of good appetite, and a slice of butter, of which it would take nearly a hundred to make a pound. The charge for this was eighteen sous, which, with two sous to the waiter, made a franc. In London, I have frequently turned into a decent coffee shop, and in the upper room, which was visited only by respectable persons, had a large cup of tea and a roll and butter for fourpence halfpenny—just half what my breakfast cost me here. Then as to dinner. My first visit to a *restaurant* was rather an unlucky one for my purse; it was to the *Frères Provençaux* in the Palais Royal. As I knew nothing of the dishes, I resolved to be guided by two French gentlemen who took their seats at the same time, at an adjoining table. I ordered what I heard them order, and had seven or eight different dishes, each far too copious for me; for I was not then aware that, in order to dine well at these places, without paying enormously, and to have some variety, there must be two or three persons together, and the order should be given for a single portion, as it is called, for the party. By this means, three persons may have five or six dishes, and pay no more than would be paid by one person. My bill, with a bottle of wine, came to seventeen francs—rather an expensive outlay for a sub. on half-pay. On the following day I went to a *restaurant à prix fixe*—that is to say, at a fixed price per head, and I had what I then considered to be a pretty good dinner—viz., soup, four dishes, dessert, bread, and half a bottle of wine, for two francs. To this place I returned day after day, but I was soon disgusted with it; for I was informed that the cheap *restaurateurs* are in the habit of buying up what remains every day at the high-priced *restaurants*, and disguising it with sauces, or of purchasing the refuse meat and poultry in the markets. My taste for these *restaurants à tant par tête* was much lowered, also, by reading in the journals an account of the seizure of a quantity of horse flesh, from the slaughter houses for horses at Montfaucon, in the larders of several cheap *restaurateurs*; and of the condemnation of two scoundrels for killing a number of cats, and disposing of them at the low-priced eating-houses. I do not really believe that I ever ate either of horse flesh or cat's flesh at the two-franc shop where I had been in the habit of dining; but the idea of the possibility of such a thing was not pleasant; and, to say truth, the mode of cooking, even supposing all to be very good in its way, was not calculated to please for any length of time. There is a vast difference, certainly, in the style of the French eating-houses, even the cheap ones, and those of London. One does not see there splendid saloons, nor are we served with four dishes of fish, butcher's meat, and poultry, (not too much of either, of course,) and soup, and bread and wine, (the wine, indeed, not famous, as you may imagine,) and a dessert, for two francs, (twenty pence;) but in London, a man may have a good wholesome dinner from a well-roasted joint of excellent meat, with bread and vegetables, and a pint of porter, for about thirteen pence; and, as a permanent mode of living, give me such food in preference to that of all the *restaurants* of France. Completely tired of French eating-houses, at least such as I could afford to visit, I inquired whether there was an English eating-house in Paris, and was informed that there were two, one in the Neuve des Petits Champs, near the Place Vendome, kept by a man named Catcomb, the other by a Mr. Lucas, in the Rue de la Madeleine. I went first to the eating-house in the Rue Neuve des Petits Champs, but I was not tempted to go there a second time. At this place there is only one joint, roasted beef. For a franc, (tenpence,) one has an enormous slice, with potatoes, bread, and a pint of small beer. The dinner is cheap, and the meat is good; but the place itself is filthy, and the company is, for the greater part, composed of English grooms and coachmen, and of the lowest class of French lawyers' clerks, and other *employes*. How frequently the tablecloth is changed, I know not; but I should think it is like W——'s shirt,* with the difference that no attempt is made to conceal the dirt. At

* The writer evidently alludes to the following:—Sir C. W——, one of our most eminent conservative lawyers, is said to have a great aversion for a clean shirt; but this is a failing which he is anxious to conceal. An attorney, one of his clients, calling at his chambers one morning

Lucas's eating-house, in the Rue de la Madeleine, one may dine as well as at a respectable eating-house in London, but far less cheaply; for a good dinner at Lucas's, with half a bottle of fair wine,—very inferior, however, to a pint of good English ale,—costs twice as much as would be charged in London for the same fare.

“ You must not suppose that, in my disappointment as to French *restaurants* and English houses, I neglected to make trial of the *table d'hôtes*; on the contrary, I tried at least twenty, and I was, with two or three exceptions, dissatisfied with all. Some were good, but dear; others cheap, but bad. At the first *table d'hôtes*, the charge is five francs a head, without wine, and two francs more are charged for a bottle of *vin ordinaire*. Add to this ten sous for the waiter, and we have seven francs ten sous, a very moderate charge for a man of six or seven hundred a-year, but far too high for the pocket of a half-pay lieutenant. The two crack *table d'hôtes* are those of Meurice's Hotel and the Hotel des Princes; but I cannot say much in favour of either; the wines are not good, and the dishes, although in great variety, and all of the better sort, are half cold before they are served. The *table d'hôtes* of the other English hotels are, I think, equally well, if not better served, and at a much lower price; for I dined at the Hotel Victoria, and at the Hotel de Lille, for four francs ten sous, including a bottle of very good wine. There are certain *table d'hôtes* in Paris, at which the charge for dinner, and an excellent dinner, including wine and coffee, is only three francs; but, my dear friend, if you come to Paris, beware of going to them; for although you may not pay as much for your dinner as it really costs the master or mistress of the house, you will run the chance of being fleeced, as you will see by the piece of useful information I am going to impart. You are aware that, two or three years ago, the licenced gaming-houses in Paris were suppressed by the police. Since that time, a great number of persons, some of them titled, have set up *table d'hôtes*, splendidly and abundantly served, at unremunerating prices; but after dinner, the company are expected to adjourn to a saloon, where gaming is carried on extensively; and although everything is apparently fair, there are plenty of adventurers to lead on the unwary, and strip them of their cash. The police have put down several of these houses, but others contrive, by avoiding what are called prohibited games—such as, *bouillote* and *rouge et noir*, and confining the games to whist and *ecarte* and *loto*, to set the police at defiance; for these games are legal in private houses, and a person keeping a *table d'hôte* does not, in such case, lose the privilege of a private individual. Now, a man may be plucked at *ecarte* as well, and almost as expeditiously, as at *rouge et noir*; and there are very few who frequent these *table d'hôtes* who do not pay, in the end, ten times as much for their cheap dinners as if they dined at *Rocher du Caucaie*, or at the *Frères Provençaux*.

“ You see, then, that Paris is not quite the place for a man of small income to reside in, if his object be economy; and I would advise all my brother subs. in London to remain where they are.”

It may be objected to the statement which we have made of the expense of living at Paris, that we have taken the most expensive part of France as the point of comparison with England; and that, although it may be true that living is as expensive in Paris as in London, in everything excepting certain luxuries and vices, which are neither within the means, nor consonant with the habits of persons of moderate incomes, there are many parts of France in which a family

early, found him engaged in shaving, with a clean shirt airing on the back of a chair, before the fire. After a few minutes' conversation, Sir C. left the room to go into his bed-room. The attorney, who was perfectly aware of the habits of the learned gentleman, immediately marked the day of the month with his pencil, on a corner of the shirt. Ten days afterwards, the attorney called again, early in the morning, and found a shirt again before the fire. Watching an opportunity, when Sir C. W.'s back was turned, he examined the shirt, and found that it was the same that he had marked. “ Pray, Sir C.,” said he, shortly afterwards, “ do not stand upon any ceremony with me, for we are old friends; put on your shirt, and we can still continue to chat over our affair.” Sir C. replied, “ Well, if you will excuse me, I will do so, for I think my shirt must now be well aired.” “ I think so too,” said the attorney, “ if it has been at the fire every morning since I was last here, which is ten days ago, as you will perceive by my memorandum upon the shirt tail!”

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may economize, and yet have great enjoyment of existence. In answer to such an objection, we would say, that we have spoken only of the two capitals; and that if it be true, as it undoubtedly is, that there are places in France where living is cheaper than in Paris, it is also true that there are many places in England in which living is much cheaper than in London. The expense of living at Boulogne-sur-Mer, for instance, is much smaller than in Paris; for meat, poultry, and vegetables, are at least thirty per cent. cheaper, and house-rent is not more than half what it is in Paris; and Boulogne is, we must admit, a pretty town, with many advantages as a place of residence for the English. Nor is the economy of a residence at Boulogne confined to house rent and provisions. Education is to be had there at a very cheap rate. There is an excellent college, to which boys may be sent for a few hours in the day, at a cost of six or seven pounds a year, and masters may be had for female education, at home, in every branch, at one half of what is charged in Paris. There is no comparison to be made between Boulogne and London, or between Boulogne and what are called the fashionable watering-places in England—such as Brighton, Margate, Dover, Hastings, &c., on the score of economy. But are there not watering-places in England almost as cheap, if not cheaper, than Boulogne? Are there no towns on the sea coast in Cornwall, in which a family may live quite as economically as in Boulogne? To be fair in our comparison, as regards the expense of living, we must not put Boulogne and Brighton in juxtaposition. If pleasure and fashionable society are the objects, united with economy, Boulogne is infinitely to be preferred to either of the English watering-places which we have named; but if health and economy only are considered, they are to be had at quite as easy a rate in the west of England, as in that of France.

And there are, we admit, very many places in France which are infinitely cheaper than Boulogne. In some parts of Brittany, in many parts of the South of France, provisions, with the exception of bread, which is nearly as dear in the provinces as it is in the capital, are not half so dear as in Paris, and very much cheaper than in Boulogne. A house may be had, too, in the provinces, for a fourth, or even a sixth of the rent demanded in Paris; but is not this also the case in Wales, and in some parts of Ireland? Is it not, also, the case in the British islands of Guernsey or Jersey, where a family of ten persons may live in handsome style for 200*l.* a-year? It is not necessary to go abroad for mere economy; it may be had at home, with equal facility, and under similar circumstances. The great secret of the emigration of the English to the Continent is pride. People have not courage to economize where they have been extravagant; they do not like to appear poor in a country where the false, we may say wicked, conventions of society, make it a sort of crime not to be rich. Patriotism disappears under the influence of self-love, and men rush abroad with a view of appearing great, with means which at home would cause them to appear little. The false conventions of society may palliate, but they cannot justify, the tide of emigration.

It may be objected, also, to the view which we have taken of the comparative expenditure of a family in England and out of it, that we have spoken only of France. There are, it will be said, other countries in which house-rent and provisions are very much less expensive than they are in many parts of France. They are cheaper in Belgium; they are still cheaper in Germany; and they are even comparatively cheap in some parts of Italy. This is all true; it is even true as to some of the most fashionable places in Germany and Italy, at least as regards provisions; but it is not true as to house-rent in Naples, in Rome, in Florence, and in Nice; for there, in consequence of the great influx of English, house-rent is dear. It may be less expensive, nominally, but when we speak of comparative expense, we must take comfort and convenience into consideration. Allowance must also be made for the expense of removal; a family of eight or ten persons cannot be transported to a distant point without great cost; and the expense of travelling out and home, will, with a family of small means, be almost equal to one year's income. This, indeed, where the in-

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tention is to be absent for several years, is not an important consideration ; but in the present state of the political world, who, when he leaves England for the purpose of residing abroad, can say how long he may be able, with safety, to remain absent.

We would earnestly recommend to persons of limited income, to reflect before they resolve upon emigrating to the continent of Europe, for the purpose of economy, to reflect as to what would be practicable at home. If a man with a family, who has only 400*l.* a-year, has been in the habit of exceeding that sum in his expenditure, and has, consequently, incurred debts, let him seriously and honestly examine every item of his expenditure, and see whether he cannot reduce it without resorting to the unpatriotic course of emigration. Let the mistress of the family, also, exert herself in efforts of retrenchment. It is astonishing how much may be done in this way, merely by coming to a right understanding as to the terms, necessaries, comforts, and luxuries. Long indulgence in luxuries makes them, in the eyes of some persons, comforts, and comforts are by many regarded as necessaries. Where the income of a family is 400*l.*, 300*l.*, or even 200*l.* a-year, it will be needless to attempt any abridgment of comforts, for comforts are attainable by all but the absolutely poor, and God knows they abound in England ; but there must be no mistaking luxury for comfort. Females who have been accustomed to ride in their own carriages, may think it very hard to be deprived of their comfort ; they will not allow that it was a luxury. A hackney coach, however, is quite as comfortable, and, in reality, more so, for there is no longer any anxiety about a horse falling ill, or any annoyance with the insolence of male servants. And to those who have never known the luxury of a private carriage, but who have been able to indulge frequently in the expense of a hired carriage, there is no real calamity in being compelled to go on foot ; they gain in health, and health is a true comfort. If the master of the family takes his bottle of port wine daily, he calls that a comfort, forgetting that disease is the result of over-enjoyment, and that disease is not a comfort. Would he really have less comfort if he were to drink a bottle of wine in a week, instead of a bottle a-day ? And if the master and mistress of a family have been accustomed to what they considered the comfort of having company now and then to dinner, would they be less comfortable if they had them at the less expensive meal of tea, instead of dinner ? Would it not be a comfort to them to reflect that, if the circle of their acquaintance should become limited by the new principles of economy which they had adopted, they could reckon on having a few *friends*, where they had previously a great number of *acquaintances* ? If people had more true, and less false pride, they would not hesitate to economize, and in such case they would find it easy to live at home, and that comfortably, without emigrating, and robbing the middle classes and the poor of their own country, to enrich those of foreign countries.

The force of habit, and false pride, render it more difficult for people of moderate income to make both ends meet, than any real disadvantages of their position. We know a gentleman of 300*l.* a-year, and without family, who was always poor, although he lived in a third floor, and paid only fifteen shillings a week for his apartment ; but he was a great smoker, a great snuff-taker, and a great wine-drinker. He would not allow that these were luxuries ; he would not even admit that these were comforts ; habit, he said, had rendered them necessaries. A friend asked him how many cigars he smoked, how much snuff he took, and how much wine he drank, daily. His answer was, Six cigars, half an ounce of snuff, and a bottle of port wine. Being asked to say what he paid for them, he replied, that he smoked only the best cigars, for which he paid four-pence each ; that he took Lundyfoot, for which he paid eight-pence an ounce, being four-pence daily ; and drank only good port wine, for which he paid fifty shillings a dozen. " And how much," said his friend, " does all this cost you yearly ?" " Egad !" answered the gentleman, " I have never thought about it." His friend said he would make the calculation for him. " Your cigars, and your snuff, and your wine," said he, " cost six shillings and sixpence per day, which

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multiplied by 365, gives 118*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* per annum." The gentleman seemed perfectly astonished at this announcement, but at the same time declared that he was sure he could not, after such long habit, do without these enjoyments. His friend urged him to make the attempt, and to go very gradually in the work of improvement. The gentleman did make the attempt. Instead of six cigars, he smoked five; he reduced the quantity of snuff about one-sixth, and the very first day he left one glass of wine in the bottle. In the course of three months he got rid of the habit of smoking altogether, he took half an ounce of snuff weekly, instead of daily, and a bottle of port wine served him for four days instead of one. His annual saving, therefore, was nearly *one hundred pounds a year*. This gentleman had more than once talked of going abroad, *for economy*. He no longer talked of it, when he found that by the correction of bad habits he had acquired the means of remaining at home, and spending his 300*l.* a-year to his own satisfaction, and to the advantage of his country.

The case here given is, indeed, an extreme one, but it may be boldly asserted, that in nineteen instances out of twenty, the correction of bad habits, and the display of a little honest pride, are called for by the position of persons of limited income. If any such person should read this humble but honest appeal to the good sense and patriotism of Englishmen, he must not be offended at our observing, that there is true pride in economy, true courage in retrenchment.

DOMESTIC DICTIONARY.

ACI

ACETIC ACID, is distilled vinegar. It is sometimes used for pickling, on account of its strength; but it has a flavour which is far from agreeable. Its chief use is in medicine, where a pure acid is required.

ACETIFICATION. The term applied to wines and other liquids when they turn sour.

ACIDS. The various acids having reference to culinary preparations and domestic economy will be found under their different heads. For the effect of acids on the animal system, see **INDIGESTION**, **WINES**, &c.

ACIDULATION. This is the term employed in gastronomy for the mode of preserving food by the addition of vinegar. In most cases it is proper to use a salt pickle before the vinegar is applied; and wherever it is practicable, the meat to be preserved should be brought to as dry a state as possible before it is salted. A very strong brine is then made, in which the meat is laid for one, two, or three days, according to the length of time that it is to be kept. Vinegar, which has been previously boiled with spices or herbs, according to taste, is then put into a pan, with an equal quantity of water, also previously boiled, and the meat is laid in it to soak. When it has lain three or four days, it may be taken out and hung up, keeping it as long as it has not turned, when it is cooked by either boiling or roasting. In very hot weather, meat may be kept fresh for several days by drawing over the surface of it a fine brush, dipped in pyroligneous acid; in this case, however, the outer part of the meat, when

AIR

cooked, has a very unpleasant flavour. By first putting the meat in brine for a couple of days, and then steeping it for three days in water which has been boiled with spices, to which is to be added about a tenth part of pyroligneous acid, it may be kept for several days, and will eat tender, without unpleasant flavour.

AIR. The air which we breathe, in its pure state is composed of two simple substances, called oxygen and nitrogen, in the proportions of seven parts of the former to two of the latter, with a small proportion of carbonic acid, and water in the state of vapour. The two latter, however, are accidental, and their presence varies much as to quantity according to circumstances. In some experiments upon atmospheric air, only three parts of carbonic acid have been found in a thousand parts of air; and in other experiments, eight parts have been found; the quantity of water in the state of vapour varies considerably, but generally speaking is not two per cent. The proportions of hydrogen and nitrogen do not vary much. Many thousand experiments have been made with air, at different heights and in different localities, but the results as to the presence of oxygen and nitrogen have been nearly the same, although the effects upon dyspeptic patients in some localities had been so powerful as to lead to an opinion that the component parts of the air were greatly modified, as compared with that which they had been accustomed to breathe. Nature has proved herself a benevolent chemist in the mode in which the two great elements are mixed: a larger proportion of nitrogen would have

been injurious to health, and a smaller proportion would have been insufficient to correct the excitement which a greater preponderance of nitrogen would create. Our readers who are desirous of acquiring scientific information as to the exact proportions of the elementary and accidental parts of which atmospheric air is composed, and its mode of action, will do well to turn to those articles in a good encyclopædia; we shall treat of it only in connexion with its known effects in the digestion of food and the regulation of health.

An unlimited enjoyment of pure air is essential to healthful existence. If this be not the case, all rules for diet, and every course of medicine, however judicious, would be vain. Digestion is, in a great measure, regulated by the state of the blood, and the blood is regulated by the free action of the lungs; consequently the air which we breathe cannot be too pure. Copious inhalation of pure air, and the active exertion of the lungs, is, in many cases, a successful substitute for general muscular exercise; indeed, so important is the frequent and powerful action of the lungs, that we see frequent instances of longevity and good health in persons who pass the greater part of their time in a vitiated atmosphere. This is the case with actors, and lawyers who have great forensic practice, and whose otherwise sedentary pursuits would inevitably induce disease. Where a free evacuation of the pores is kept up by bodily exercise, a pretty good state of health may be kept up even when the air in which that exercise is carried on is not the best; but where both exercise and pure air are wanting, wonders are effected by the active exertion of the lungs.

Change of air is frequently recommended to invalids, and above all to those who are unable to digest well; and yet what is called change of air is sometimes merely nominal; for a man may remove to a place a thousand miles distant from his usual place of residence, and find great improvement in his health, eating without inconvenience things which he could not previously digest; and yet if the new air into which he had removed were to be analyzed, it might be found precisely similar, so far, at least, as analysis could go, as that which he had left. Change of air involves change of scene, and a variety of new and wholesome excitements of the mind, and, in most cases, an abstinence from injurious pursuits; it is not surprising, therefore, that wondrous results should be

attributed to what is called change of air. Such change is always to be recommended to dyspeptic persons; for whether there really be any modifications of air of which chemistry is ignorant, or the desired effect be produced by the various causes dependent upon a change of scene, the exercise of travelling, and a variation in the ordinary course of our occupations and pursuits, yet, as the effect is in most cases obtained, we must not omit such a curative process when it is within our means.

In order to restore and preserve health, frequent exercise in the open air is desirable; and although currents of air are to be avoided in rooms, we cannot be too careful in our mode of ventilating them, so that we may continually breathe fresh and pure air. The night air is to be avoided by persons of weak digestion; for it is frequently productive of injury, although we are not aware that it undergoes any other change than that of temperature, which, however, is of itself more than sufficient at times to affect the general health. That it is injurious is sufficient for the practical man; it is useless to inquire into causes in a matter of this nature, when it is so easy to guard against the effects. The windows of sleeping-rooms, however, should always be thrown open, for two or three hours during the day, particularly when the air is warm; and it is an excellent practice, on rising from bed, to throw off all the covering, and allow the air to act freely upon every part of the bed and clothing. Where many persons are assembled in the same room, it is advisable, if there be no other means of ventilation, to have a window opened, if the external air be not too cold for endurance; and in factories a perfect ventilation should always be maintained.

One of our best physicians, Dr. Loudon, is of opinion that not only is pure air essential for the healthy digestion of food, but that there is in the air itself a certain degree of nourishment independently of its mechanical action upon the blood. To what extent this may be true, it is perhaps impossible to determine; but the opinion is entitled to great respect from such a source.

When the air which we breathe in confined rooms cannot conveniently to the invalid be entirely renewed by allowing it to escape to the outside, and admitting a fresh supply, it is sometimes corrected by the burning of aromatic pastilles, or by mixtures which give out a large quan-

tity of gas, in which oxygen prevails; but these artificial means need never be resorted to, if care be taken in the first instance to secure perfect ventilation in the room. The sleeping rooms of even healthy persons should never be very small; but where this is inevitable, a door communicating with an outer room, in which no person sleeps, should, if practicable, be kept partly open; for although the external night air is to be excluded, as much of the air which the house contains, and that as far as possible from places in which the night air enters freely, should be enjoyed. If it be injurious to pass the day in an atmosphere of vitiated air, it is equally injurious to pass the night with an insufficient supply of what is pure; for the respiration of even a single individual is sufficient to alter the character of the air which he breathes; and if the same air is reinhaled, it not only has lost the character essential for a healthy action upon the system, but it may lay the foundation of severe disease.

ALBUMEN. This is the term used by medical writers for the white of an egg; those articles which approach in their nature to albumen, are called albuminous. The whites of eggs are of a cooling quality, and are therefore much used in the diet of invalids, as also in some external applications. They make, when mixed with rose-water, a good collyrium for the eyes, and they are also used with benefit in burns and fresh wounds. Dr. Chalmers, in his Encyclopædia, says, that the white of an egg being boiled hard in the shell, and suspended in the air by a thread, resolves and drops down into an insipid scentless liquor, which, although it contains nothing sharp, oleaginous, or saponaceous, will make a thorough solution of myrrh, which is more than either water, oil, spirits, or even fire, will effect. The whites of eggs are used for fining wines and other fermented liquors. See **WINES**.

ALCALIS. The effect and operation of alkalis in cookery and domestic economy will be found under different heads; and as regards their effects upon the system, see **INDIGESTION**, **POISONS**, &c.

ALE. See **BEER** and **BREWING**.

ALIMENTS. Under this head are comprised the various kinds of food provided by Nature for our support. They are animal and vegetable, and may be divided into nine classes; viz., 1st, **FARINACEOUS**, such as wheat, barley, sago, chesnuts, beans, potatoes, &c.; 2ndly, **MUCILAGINOUS**, as endive, spinach, lettuce,

asparagus, &c.; 3rd, **SACCHARINE**, such as honey, dates, figs, apricots, peaches, &c.; 4th, **ACIDULATED**, as currants, apples, lemons, oranges, and the various other acidulated fruits in which the acid predominates over the saccharine qualities; 5th, **OILY** articles, such as olives, and other productions abounding in this property; 6th, **CASEOUS**, as milk, and various kinds of cheese; 7th, **GELATINOUS**, as the white flesh of young animals, and certain fish, animal jelly, &c.; 8th, **FIBROUS**, these are often combined with gelatine and grease, and are furnished by the domestic animals which are raised for the supply of the table; amongst the most fibrous animals are the ox, the sheep, the duck, the pheasant, the partridge, the wild boar, the hare, the deer, &c.; and 9th, **ALBUMINOUS**, such as eggs, the brains of animals, oysters, mussels, &c. All these alimentary substances are not equally adapted to appease hunger and support the system. Those aliments which are the most easy of digestion do not remove the sensation of hunger for so long a period as others which are digested with difficulty, and acquire a certain volume in the stomach; for instance, venison is more rapidly digested than pork, goose, and some other meats, which are known from experience to be of slow and difficult digestion. Some very extraordinary experiments as to the comparative digestibility of different sorts of food were made some years ago, in one of the hospitals of Paris. One of the patients, a soldier, had received a wound which left an opening to the stomach from the exterior; and it was found that substances could be introduced into it by this artificial opening, without occasioning any serious derangement. Portions of different kinds of food, tied with silk, were successively introduced, and notes were carefully made of the quantity dissolved of each within the same given period of time. Mutton, venison, partridge, and some other sorts of game, were dissolved more rapidly than beef; beef more rapidly than veal, and the white flesh of domestic poultry; and these latter were digested more quickly than pork. Ham and bacon remained almost entire at the end of the time during which mutton was almost wholly dissolved. These experiments, although not entirely conclusive, as they were made only upon a single individual, go very far to confirm the received notions as to what are called digestible and indigestible aliments. There are, however, many

idiosyncracies to which no general rule can be applied. Some persons are seriously inconvenienced by the use of fruits, while others derive great benefit from them. One man will eat a large quantity of nuts, without inconvenience, whilst another will have an acute attack of indigestion from taking a very small quantity; some will digest pork with facility, and find difficulty in digesting those meats which are generally most rapid in their passage through the system. The celebrated Dr. Gall could not take mutton in any form, and, indeed, the very appearance of it on a table would bring on, with him, a sensation of sickness. On one occasion, some medical friends, with whom he was dining, and who concluded that the imagination had much to do with this repugnance, had a dish of mutton so disguised in the cooking that it was impossible to discover it. The Doctor having, of course, no suspicion, partook of it; but he had not taken two mouthfuls when he fell from his chair, and remained for some time seriously indisposed. An instance is mentioned, by a medical writer, of a gentleman who could not take a single oyster in its raw state without having an attack of indigestion, but could eat them cooked in any way without inconvenience, although they might become almost as hard as leather. Such instances, however, are the exception, not the rule. The process of digestion may be described as follows:—When the aliments arrive in the stomach, they undergo there their first elaboration, and are converted by the action of what is called the gastric juice into a greyish semi-liquid, called chyme. This chyme passing into the intestines, comes in contact with the bile, and is separated into two parts, one of which is the chyle, which is taken up by the absorbent vessels and distributed over the system for the nutrition of the individual, whilst the other, which constitutes the fœces, is expelled after it has lain a certain time in the bowels. This expulsion appears to be mechanical, and to arise from a certain degree of healthy irritation which rouses the muscles of that part of the body into action, and enables them to get rid of their load. When there is a want of tone to do this naturally, artificial means, such as purgatives, or lavements, are resorted to; the latter is the usual course on the Continent, and even the abuse of it is, as compared with the habit of purgatives, attended with little danger, or even inconvenience. It has been gene-

rally supposed that persons of very slow digestion have either a deficiency or defective quality of gastric juice, and attempts have been made in some cases to introduce a gastric juice taken from the stomachs of animals in order to assist in the process of digestion. It does not appear, however, that these attempts have been attended with any good results. The mode in which the gastric juice is secreted has been of late years a subject of discussion. Some medical men have contended that it is not formed during the period of repose of the stomach between meals, but that it is secreted at the time of eating; this, however, is not the general opinion. The most indigestible aliments are those which contain a large quantity of oil or grease; only a portion of these is thoroughly separated in the process of digestion, and a large quantity sometimes comes away in the evacuations, in their first state. Boiled meat, being more softened than roasted meat, digests with more facility, but it is less nourishing, as a large portion of the natural juices is carried off by boiling. Pastry is generally indigestible, both from the quantity of grease it contains, and the imperfect dressing of the gluten, but it has been remarked that when the crust of pastry is very thin, it is digested with much less difficulty. Smoked and salted meats are always unwholesome, if eaten by persons of a sedentary life, although those who take active exercise may safely use them in moderate quantities. Farinaceous food, although much recommended to invalids, is frequently very injurious to the stomach, unless a small quantity of animal food be taken with it. A weak stomach is frequently rendered still more feeble by the long and exclusive use of farinaceous food; wherever, therefore, there is no acute disease to make it improper to use animal food, a small portion, either in the solid form, or as strong gravy, should be taken occasionally by those persons who are living on what is called farinaceous diet. The albuminous food is, for the most part, a light digestive aliment, without being too exciting, thus it is that eggs agree with most weak persons, when the stomach will take scarcely any other food. The brains of animals are said to be light of digestion, as is also the sweetbread of the calf; this kind of food is a happy medium between a vegetable and an exciting animal diet. As regards what is called a vegetable diet, it is evidently not that which was

exclusively intended for man, as his organization proves; but, as far as health is concerned, it performs an important office in the economy of life when it accompanies animal diet.

ALMOND. This fruit, in its green or unripe state, and before the shell has become hard, is sometimes preserved in the same way as apricots, but its most common use is as dessert, or as a component part of many articles of pastry, &c. There are two sorts of almond, the sweet or Jordan almond, and the bitter; they both contain oil and mucilage, but the bitter almond has a much stronger medicinal property. This fruit is very nourishing, on account of the mucilage which it contains; but it is nevertheless indigestible, from its oily nature. The bitter almond owes its peculiar flavour to the quantity of prussic acid which it contains; it may sometimes be injurious, eaten in even small quantities, but, generally speaking, the addition of a few bitter almonds to a large quantity of sweet is not prejudicial; on the contrary, the principle which in excess would be poisonous appears to have a sedative and tonic property. Almonds yield a soft oil, which is used in medicine, and in the fine soaps. This oil may be obtained by crushing the almonds in a mortar until they are reduced to paste, and then placing the paste in a canvass bag, which is to be put into a press. If it is desired to have the oil colourless, the almonds should be previously blanched; this will take a small portion of the oil away, but not in a sufficient quantity to make it of any consideration. Another mode of obtaining the oil is by boiling the paste for some time, and stirring it continually; then set it by, and when cold remove the oil from the surface.

MILK OF ALMONDS FOR THE TABLE. Pound two ounces of blanched sweet almonds and two bitter; mix with the paste a pint of fresh boiling milk, and strain through a sieve; then add two eggs beaten up, and enough sugar to sweeten it, and put it over a slow fire to become thick.

For the use of almonds in pastry, see **PASTRY.**

AMBIGU. A term in French gastronomy applied to a repast in which all the dishes, hot and cold, are set at the same time upon the table, but in which soup does not appear. The ambigu is chiefly served to gentlemen who, meeting together on business, wish to discourse without the presence of servants. All

the dishes being placed on the table at the same time, with a supply of clean plates, knives and forks, glasses, &c., on a side-table, the parties are able to dispense with servants.

ANGELICA. A fine aromatic plant, used in confectionary, and also, in its green state for infusions, as it is supposed to have good stomachic properties. It grows freely on moist soils; the best kind is that which is called Bohemian Angelica. The seed must be sown as soon as it is ripe, for if kept, it loses its virtue. When the plants are strong enough to be removed, they are transplanted, and placed at a distance of at least two feet from each other. The same plant may be preserved for several years, by cutting the extremity of the stems in May.

PRESERVED ANGELICA. When the stems are of a good size, and before they run to seed, cut them into slices, and put them for some time into cold water, after having removed the rind; then boil them until they become soft, and wash them afterwards two or three times in cold water; boil them in strong syrup for an hour, then let them stand for twenty-four hours; now take them out of the syrup, and drain them. In the meantime strengthen the syrup, by the addition of sugar, and when that is done, let the angelica simmer in it for half an hour. It is then to be taken out, placed upon tins, and dried in a slow oven, or on a hot plate, powdering it well with white sugar. Angelica preserved in this way will remain good for several years, and is an agreeable addition to a dessert.

ANGELICA RATAFIA. Put half a pound of angelica shoots into two quarts of brandy, a pint of water, two pounds of sugar, a few cloves, and a little cinnamon. Let the angelica infuse for two months in a close vessel, then strain and bottle. This is a very rich and fine cordial.

ANTIPUTRESCENTS. Substances which arrest the decomposition of animal matter. Salt is the most useful for domestic purposes, but there are others of much greater power. Sir John Pringle mentions the following, with their respective strength—salt, 1; vitriolated and soluble tartar, 2; sal ammonia, 3; nitre, hartshorn, and wormwood, 4; borax, 12; salt of amber, 20; alum and myrrh, 30; bark, 120; camphor, 300; and pyroligneous acid, which is a still stronger antiputrescent than camphor.

APPLES. This is a most agreeable

fruit, and of more general domestic use than any other. Its medicinal properties vary with the species; apples of the sour kind are generally astringent, whilst others, particularly if cooked, are of a laxative nature. The best apples are those which keep the longest, for if gathered a little unripe, the ripening which they acquire by keeping improves the quality as regards wholesomeness. All apples, however, contain a large quantity of fixed air, and are very flatulent to weak stomachs, if eaten raw; but this property is, of course, entirely removed by cooking. Persons who are fond of raw apples, and are nevertheless compelled to abstain from eating them by the flatulency which they occasion, may obviate this inconvenience by a very simple precaution; instead of biting the apple, it should be scraped, as it is eaten, into a fine pulp; the juice is thus preserved, and all the agreeableness of the apple retained, without any unpleasant effect being produced, provided the bounds of moderation be not exceeded. Those who have strong digestive powers may, however, indulge freely in the apple in its raw state, particularly if bread be eaten at the same time. In many parts of the Continent an apple with bread is the common breakfast of the labouring classes; it gives stamina to the stomach, and enables the labourer to proceed cheerfully with his toil until the hour of dinner. The juice of apples also, if boiled with an equal quantity of sugar into a syrup, and used cold with water, is an agreeable and refreshing drink. The late Dr. M'Nab, who was physician to the Duke of Kent, relates three cases of patients whose stomachs were in a very debilitated state, and who were effectually cured by the frequent use of this beverage. The best mode of preserving apples for winter use is to lay them upon good clean straw, in a situation where they will not be exposed to the action of frost, but where there is a free admission of air, taking care, if space will admit, that they do not touch each other. Sometimes a very contrary course is adopted; the apples being packed in bran or sawdust, and kept from the air, but this is rarely found to be successful. Apples are found in almost all moderate climates, and form, in some countries, when made into cider, the common beverage of the people. In the greater part of Normandy nothing but cider is used at the dinner-table, and it is the only beverage of the laborious

classes. For this cider the small sour apple which grows on trees on each side of the large roads of Normandy is used. A few persons make a better sort of cider from the garden apple, but it bears a small proportion to the general quantity used. Cider is also made to a great extent in many parts of England, but scarcely any of it is of the inferior quality used in France. It is not found that cider, when taken as a beverage from youth, is more unwholesome than any other fermented liquor; but it frequently disagrees with persons who are not accustomed to it. For the mode of making this beverage, see CIDER.

APPLE JELLY. Take some fine reinettes, wash them well, and cut them in pieces, boil them with water and the juice of a lemon, without covering the saucepan. When the juice has become adhesive, strain it through a sieve, and add to it some syrup made as thick as possible; boil and skim, and when it is so thick as to fall in flakes from the spoon, put it into the jelly-glasses, and tie over. The quantity of sugar used should be the same weight as that of the apples.

APPLE MARMALADE. Peel the apples, and boil them in water, then pass them through a sieve. Now put the pulp into a stewpan, and let it evaporate over the fire until it is become nearly dry, stirring frequently. Then add thick syrup, making the proportion of a pound and a quarter of sugar to a pound of apples, and let them heat together until they are well incorporated, but without boiling.

APPLE PASTE. Peel some fine reinettes, take out the cores, and boil them in water. When quite soft, take them out and put them in cold water; having drained them, press them through a coarse cloth; put this marmalade into a pan on the fire, stir it frequently with a wooden spoon, and when it is nearly dry, take it out, and add an equal weight of sugar, mixing them well together. Press the mixture flat, of the thickness of an ordinary pie-crust, put it upon tins, and place to dry in a slack oven.

BUTTERED APPLES. Take as many apples as you may require, peel them, cut them into quarters, and take out the cores. Let the quarters be of an uniform shape and size. Then put them into a stewpan, with a bit of butter and some powdered sugar. As soon as any of them begin to break, take out those which are entire, and put them by on a plate. Then put all the pieces which you have cut off

to bring the quarters to the same form, to those which are left in the stewpan, and make them into a marmalade, adding half a pound of apricot marmalade. When done, make a layer of this, and place on it a layer of the entire apples which you have before taken out, then another layer of the marmalade, and so on till you have formed a pyramid, and cover the whole with some more of the marmalade. Put it into the oven, or under a brasing pan.

COMPOTE OF APPLES. Cut the apples into halves or quarters, according to their size, take out the core, and put them on to dress with a little water and as much sugar as may be sufficient. Let them stand on the fire until they get soft, then mash them in their juice.

TO PRESERVE REINETTE APPLES WITH SUGAR. Take ripe good apples, peel and blanch them; let them simmer for some time in strong syrup, the quantity of sugar employed being equal in weight to that of the apples; then put them in pots or bottles.

TO PRESERVE THEM IN A DRY STATE. Having prepared them as above, take them out of the syrup, put them upon tins, powder them well with white sugar, and set them in a slow oven or in the sun till they are quite dry.

APRICOTS. This is a very agreeable and wholesome fruit, being, when thoroughly ripe, easy of digestion. Prepared, and formed into paste and jelly, it is excellent for invalids, the marmalade, however, being rather more difficult of digestion than any other preparation of the fruit.

APRICOT JELLY. Take thirty ripe apricots, and having cut them in two and extracted the stones, break the latter and take out the kernels; pound them in a mortar with a glass of water and a little lemon juice. Having put the apricots, with an equal weight of sugar, into a stewpan, first crushing the apricots, add the kernels mixed in the way described, then proceed as with any other jelly. The number of kernels used should be in the proportion of twelve to each pound of jelly, and the juice of two moderate sized lemons must be used for the same quantity.

APRICOT PASTE. Set any quantity of the fruit you may require over the fire in a stewpan, and cook until they are quite soft; then take out the stones, pass the fruit through a sieve, and dry. Then take clarified sugar, equal in weight to the

fruit, mix and let them dress together, turn out into shapes, and dry in a slow oven, or in the sun.

APRICOT RATAFIA. Cut thirty apricots into small pieces; crack the stones and take out the kernels, which must be peeled and bruised; then put the whole together into a jar, with two quarts of good brandy, half a pound of sugar, a little cinnamon, eight cloves, a very small quantity of mace; close the jar well, and let it remain for three weeks, shaking it frequently; then strain it off into bottles, and keep in a cool place.

APRICOTS PRESERVED IN BRANDY.—Boil the apricots, which must not be too ripe, for a short time in water, then put them into cold water; repeat this operation twice, after which boil them for a short time in strong syrup; take them out again, and let the syrup be boiled until it has become much thickened, skimming it carefully. When it is nearly cold, the brandy is to be mixed with it and poured upon the fruit, in bottles or jars. For four pounds of fruit, there should be one pound of sugar made into syrup, and three quarts of brandy.

COMPOTE OF RIPE APRICOTS. If they are fresh, do not peel them, cut them in two and take out the kernels; put them in water over the fire, and when they begin to feel soft to the touch take them off, and put them into cold water; drain them, throw them into clarified sugar, giving two or three boils, and skimming it well. Remove the kernels from the stones, which blanch, and throw into the compote. When cold, serve.

COMPOTE OF RIPE APRICOTS ENTIRE. Slit the fruit just sufficient to allow the stone to be removed; prick them with a pin, put them in water over the fire, and stew until they begin to get soft, then throw them into cold water and drain them. Have ready some clarified sugar, and while it is in a state of ebullition, throw in the fruit; when they have boiled a few minutes, let them get cold. Drain and serve.

MARMALADE OF GREEN APRICOTS.—Take any quantity of the green fruit, and having removed the down, boil them in water until they become very tender, then take them out, throw them into cold water, and then place them to drain; then bruise, and pass them through a sieve. Put this marmalade over the fire to dry, turning it occasionally to prevent its burning. Have ready as much sugar as you have weight of marmalade, add a little

water, and boil and skim until it has become so strong a syrup as, when cold, to break; put the marmalade into it, and mix well together without letting it boil; when done, set it by in pots.

PRESERVED APRICOTS. Take some apricots which are not quite ripe, and remove the stones without entirely dividing the fruit, put them into cold water; then blanch them on the fire; when they become soft, take them off, and put them again into cold water. When they are cold, drain them, and throw them into some clarified sugar, while it is in a boiling state, and which has been made into thick syrup; let the whole boil again for a few minutes, and let them stand for twenty-four hours. Take out the apricots, and give the syrup another boil, then throw it boiling over the fruit, and let it stand another twenty-four hours; at the end of that time boil the sugar again until very thick, into which put the apricots, and, after having given them a boil, let them again stand for twenty-four hours; after which take them out, drain them, put them on dishes which have been well covered with powdered sugar, dry them in a stove, cover them well with powdered sugar, and lay them by in a box, placed in layers, with a sheet of paper between each.

For the use of this fruit for wines or pastry, see those heads.

AREOMETER. All liquids, although of equal bulk, do not possess the same specific gravity; for instance, wines, different kinds of spirits of wine, ethers, &c., are lighter than water; whilst certain mineral acids, and saline solutions, weigh heavier than that liquid; it is therefore possible to determine, whether by adulteration, or other means, the proportions of any liquors have been changed, and this instrument is employed to ascertain that point. It consists of a glass tube, with a bulb containing mercury: when plunged into distilled water, at its maximum of density, it will sink to a certain point, which may be described by No. 10; being next plunged in water containing ten parts of salt out of one hundred of bulk, the instrument will not sink so deep; the point at which it stops may be described by 0. Now divide the space between 0 and 10 into ten equal parts, and the space above 10 into as many equal divisions as the tube will contain. The instrument thus marked will sink deeper in the alcohol than in water. Thus, when we say that spirits of wine are 33 or 36 degrees, we

mean that the instrument plunged in this liquid has sunk to the 33rd or 36th division of the scale, whilst in distilled water it only sunk to the 10th above 0. If we now add a certain quantity of water to the alcohol, the instrument will not sink so deep, the density of the liquid being increased. Areometers are made for different descriptions of liquid, wines, acids, brandies, &c. The wine areometer indicates the quantity of alcohol contained in the wine; and the spirit of wine areometer, the quantity of pure alcohol contained in the spirit. The spirits of wine used in commerce is more or less weak, and when in its strongest state is pure alcohol.

ARRACK. Most of the arrack imported into this country is distilled from rice. It is but little used in England, except to flavour punch; the taste of it is very agreeable in this mixture. Arrack improves very much with age. It is much used in some parts of India. An imitation of arrack punch is made by adding to a bowl of punch a few grains of benzoin, commonly called flowers of Benjamin.

ARROWROOT. This is the dried root of a plant imported from the colonies. It is much used in the diet of invalids, being considered at once nutritious and light of digestion. It is also a favourite food for children. It is perhaps one of the best articles of vegetable diet. Arrowroot being imported from various parts of the world, it is not all of the same quality; the Bermuda arrowroot is generally considered to be one of the best. When arrowroot is taken by invalids, a very small portion of brandy or sherry wine should be added to it, if there be no inflammatory symptoms, as in this way the tendency to acidity is corrected. Mixed with chocolate (see CHOCOLATE) it forms a very fashionable breakfast article, called *Racahout des Arabes*.

ARROWROOT JELLY. Pound three bitter almonds, and put them with the peel of a lemon into a large wine glass of water, and let them steep therein for four or five hours; then strain the liquid, and mix it with four table-spoonfuls of arrowroot, an equal quantity of lemon-juice, and two spoonfuls of brandy; sweeten to taste, and stir it over the fire until it becomes quite thick. When cold, put it in jelly-glasses, and set by in a cool place.

ARROWROOT CREAM. Mix two table-spoonfuls of arrowroot with about half a pint of water; when it has well settled, pour the water off. Boil two quarts of

milk, sweetened, and add the peel of a lemon, and some cinnamon. Strain it, boiling, over the arrowroot, stirring it well and frequently until cold. It is served to eat with preserved fruits or fruit tarts.

TO BOIL ARROWROOT. The arrowroot is to be mixed well in a little cold water, taking care that it be not lumpy; when this has stood a quarter of an hour, pour off the water, and add as much sugar as may be necessary. Then boil a pint of milk, and pour it gradually over the arrowroot, stirring it well. Three table-spoonfuls of arrowroot will be sufficient for the above quantity of milk. It may be made with all water instead of milk, if preferred, in which case a little lemon-peel should be boiled in the water. A little port, or sherry wine, may be added when eaten.

ARTICHOKES. There are five kinds of this vegetable which are well known, and more or less cultivated, viz., the white, green, violet, red, and the sweet Genoese. Of these the white, being very delicate, is little cultivated; the green is the one most in use, it grows to a very large size, and is tender and of a fine taste. The violet does not grow so large as the green, but is equally tender. The red is more delicate than either of the others; it is eaten raw when young, when older it becomes hard. The sweet Genoese kind far exceeds all the others for delicacy, but as it degenerates after the first year, it is rarely cultivated. When eaten raw the artichoke is not easy of digestion, but when cooked that objection is removed. Artichokes are dressed in a variety of ways. They are propagated by suckers, taken off early in April. They should be placed in a thick bed of light loam, and trenched to the depth of three feet, with an abundant supply of good manure at the bottom of the trench. They will yield in the first autumn, but not abundantly until the next year. When all the heads are gathered, the stems are broken off close to the ground; after which the plants are well earthed up, and some good long dung placed round them. It is also advisable for winter dressing to dig some rotten dung into the ground round the plants. Early in the spring the plants are to be examined, the earth and litter to be removed, and the weak shoots to be detached. If the artichoke bed is allowed to last more than from five to six years, the quality of the plant will be deteriorated.

ARTICHOKES IN THE ITALIAN WAY. Cut the artichokes into four equal parts, trimming the leaves, and taking away the choke, wash them carefully and put them into a saucepan with a little butter, adding the juice of a lemon and half a pint of white wine to every three artichokes; let them stew until thoroughly tender, then take them out and serve them with white Italian sauce.

ARTICHOKE BOTTOMS IN FRICASSEE. Cut off the bottoms of the artichokes, cook them in a white roux (see SAUCES) for a quarter of an hour, then put them into cold water, and warm them in the same way as for a fricassée de poulets.

DRIED ARTICHOKES. On the Continent the bottoms of artichokes are dried and kept for winter use; in this way they form a very nice addition to stews and fricassées, when they are no longer in season. The mode of drying is as follows: Having boiled them quite tender, take away the chokes, and put the bottoms upon a piece of wicker-work in a very slow oven. When perfectly dry, put them into paper bags, and keep them for use. They may also be preserved by putting them into strong brine after being boiled.

FRIED ARTICHOKES. Choose some young artichokes, and after having cut them into quarters, trim and wash them well, and throw them into a pan; season with pepper and salt and a little lemon-juice; then add to them four spoonfuls of flour, three eggs, two tea-spoonfuls of oil, and stir till the sauce is well mixed with the artichokes. Boil them in boiling lard; when done, lay them on a cloth to drain, and serve with fried parsley.

JERUSALEM ARTICHOKES. This agreeable root is propagated and planted in the same way as potatoes. The time for planting is in March, in a light soil. In September they are fit for use, and are dug up as wanted. The best way of eating the Jerusalem artichoke is plain boiled with melted butter; but they may also be served up with rich gravy, or be added in stews or ragouts.

TO BOIL ARTICHOKES. After having cut off the stalks close to the bottom, and half the leaves from the top, let them lie for two hours in cold water. They must be then put into boiling water, with a little salt, and boil gently for about an hour and a half, keeping the vessel well covered the whole time. Melt some butter and serve with them.

ASPARAGUS. This is considered to be one of the most wholesome, and at

the same time agreeable products of the garden. It is strongly diuretic, and at the same time sedative. The frequent use of it in its green state, as an article of food, has been strongly recommended, not only for persons who require diuretics, but also in affections of the chest and lungs. It is used medicinally, when no longer in season, by preserving it in the same way as any other green vegetable, or drying it and reducing it to powder, or making an extract. The extract is made by boiling the asparagus in water for several hours, then straining the liquor, and evaporating it slowly over a very slow fire, until it becomes exceedingly thick. Two or three table-spoonfuls of good brandy are then added to each quarter of a pint of this extract to preserve it, and it is put by in bottles for use. A table-spoonful of it may be used night and morning, in water or milk. The mode of raising asparagus requiring considerable experience, it is recommended, when a bed is made, to employ a good gardener. Any directions which might be given for the preparation of an asparagus bed, to persons who have not had experience, would rather do harm than good. The strong fetid smell arising from the excretion after eating asparagus, and which is exceedingly unpleasant to some persons at night, in a close room, may be removed by adding a few drops of turpentine, which will immediately change it to the smell of violets. Asparagus is used in various ways, but is generally, in the first instance, plain boiled.

ASPARAGUS EN PETIT POIS. Cut the heads of asparagus in small pieces, about the size of peas; cook, and serve in the same way.

ASPARAGUS RAGOUT. Scald the asparagus, cut off the heads, and put them into a saucepan, with a gravy made of veal and ham; simmer for some time, then add a little butter covered with flour, and a small quantity of vinegar, to give a flavour; when nicely thickened, serve up.

ASPARAGUS WITH GRAVY. Cut off the hard part, and dip what is to be used in melted lard; add chopped parsley and cerfoil, or any other herb, salt, pepper, and a little nutmeg; simmer in some stock for some time, then take out the asparagus, and drain it and serve it up quickly in the gravy from roasted mutton, made quite hot.

To BOIL ASPARAGUS. After washing and cleaning the asparagus, cutting off the harder portion of the white end, put

into boiling water with a little salt, and boil for about a quarter of an hour, if it is intended that the asparagus should be soft. On the Continent, where asparagus is always eaten rather firm, it is not boiled more than seven or eight minutes. It is then served upon toasted bread, and eaten with melted butter. Cold asparagus, not boiled quite tender, and eaten with vinegar, oil, salt, and pepper, is a favourite dish on the Continent; in this state it is called "asperges à l'huile."

To PRESERVE ASPARAGUS. If they are to be kept only for two or three days, it will be sufficient to put them in a cloth, which is to be frequently wetted. If they are to be kept for a week or so, they should be buried in rather damp fine sand. To keep green for winter use, take away the white part, and boil them for a very short time with salt and butter; then take them out, and put them in cold water for an hour. After this, let them drain and put them into a vessel with salt, a few cloves, a lemon cut in slices, and an equal quantity of water and vinegar; cover this to a good thickness with butter that has been previously melted, and set by in a moderately cold place.

BACHELOR'S LUNCH. Put into a small saucepan (an iron one is preferable) a small bit of butter; when it has quite melted, put in a small piece of beef-steak, a mutton-chop with the bone taken out, or a couple of sheep's kidneys; when the meat has become brown on one side, turn it; then cut a slice of bread about the size of the saucepan, butter it, place it on the meat, and cover close. Let it cook on hot ashes or a very slow fire for about twenty minutes, then turn it out on a plate, so that the bread will be underneath. A few minutes before taking it off, the addition of a small quantity of mushroom catsup, or some piquant sauce, will be an improvement.

BACON. See PORK.

BALM. Balm tea enjoys a high reputation as a wholesome beverage, and it does not seem to have any but beneficial properties, although these are, perhaps, much exaggerated. It grows freely, and the bed lasts good for three years; but in order to have green leaves all the summer, the stalks should be frequently cut down. It is easily propagated by slips in spring or autumn.

BARBERRIES. An acid fruit, little used except as a pickle. They are sometimes however, preserved in sugar, by

boiling, as for other fruits, and are also dried. For the latter purpose, they are put in bunches into boiling syrup made with sugar, in the proportion of two pounds to three of barberries, and simmered for a few minutes; then set by to get cold, and boiled again on the following day for about half an hour. When cold they are taken out and powdered with sugar, and dried under glasses in the sun. For barberries pickled, see PICKLES.

BARLEY WATER. Boil pearl barley for a few minutes, then throw away the water and add other, in the proportion of a pint to an ounce of barley. Boil quickly, and then let it simmer for an hour, when it is to be strained, and sweetened, and flavoured according to taste. This drink is very mucilaginous, and is much used as drink for invalids.

BATHS. Where the means of the housekeeper will admit of the expense of fitting up warm and cold baths, it ought to be incurred; for health and cleanliness (and the one does not exist without the other) require such an outlay. It is not however indispensable, as regards warm baths, that there should be any expense of fitting up, this being merely an arrangement of convenience. The possession of a wooden, tin, or zinc bath, and a small copper or large kitchen boiler, to heat the water, will be sufficient, and much boiling water is not necessary; for it is a great error in England to use warm baths too hot. Except in very particular cases, the water of a bath should never be warmer than what is just sufficient to prevent a sensation of chilliness; and it should be kept at the same degree of temperature, by means of a cock for hot water, if the bath be regularly fitted up; or if otherwise, a large pail, filled with very hot water, standing by the side of the bath, from which the bather can take water from time to time with a jug. A small quantity of boiling water is therefore sufficient to heat a bath. The bather should remain in the bath from thirty to forty minutes, to give time for the thorough relaxation of the skin; and if the water be only moderately warm, strength will be imparted to the whole system; whereas even ten minutes are sometimes too much with a very hot bath, bringing on debility of stomach, agitation of the circulation, and general derangement of the digestion. In France, where only tepid baths are used, an hour is not considered too long a time for remaining in the water; and it is customary to read in that position, and not unfre-

quently slight refreshments are taken. The use of baths is not, in that country, as it is too much in England, merely medicinal. A sense of propriety prescribes at least the monthly use of a warm bath; and there are not only very few of the middle classes who abstain from this practice, but even the servants bathe in this way once a month. The small expense of a warm bath in Paris (only eightpence, or tenpence English) naturally contributes to keep up this wholesome custom; and for a little more, a bathing tub, with a sufficient supply of water, is supplied at one's house. In England, where there are very few establishments of this kind, it is advisable to have a bath in the house. Generally speaking, plain water baths are all that is necessary, but they may be medicated at will; thus, if there be cutaneous disease, and a sulphur bath be recommended, three or four ounces of sulphur in powder may be boiled in the water with which the bath is to be heated; and if herbs are to be used, they are to be boiled in the same way, and the water strained off. The French go to a ridiculous extreme with their medicated and cosmetic baths, when they do take baths of that kind. Some persons pour into a single bath six or seven bottles of eau de Cologne; and what is called a beauty bath is made by boiling eight pounds of wheaten bran, two pounds of pea flour, and two pounds of almond paste, in the water, which preparation it is pretended has the effect of rendering the skin white and beautiful. Baths of chicken-broth have also been ordered to very feeble and wealthy persons; and, it is asserted (an assertion the truth of which is not guaranteed here), with great benefit. Mustard baths, made in the same way as sulphur baths, are prescribed for rheumatism; and sometimes equal quantities of mustard and sulphur. These are very good, but in order that they may be effectual, the bather should remain in the water for a long period, in order that absorption may take place. On leaving the bath, sharp friction with coarse towels should be resorted to, and the use of the flesh brush, when in the bath, is advisable. The best cold bath, as an article of domestic use, is the shower bath; but nearly the same effect may be produced by standing in a large washing-tub, and squeezing a large sponge, dipped in cold water, with which some vinegar and camphorated spirits should be mixed, several times over the head, allowing the water to flow copiously

over the entire body. Every person whose means will afford it should also have a vapour bath in the house; but this is an expensive article, and rarely required except in case of illness. Foot baths should be taken in the same way as ordinary warm baths. For a cold in the head, what is called a head bath is useful. All that is necessary is to fill a washhand-basin with boiling water, and to add an ounce of flour of mustard, then to hold the head, covered with a cloth, to prevent the escape of the steam, over the basin as long as any steam continues to rise.

BAVAROISE. A French mixture, much used in coffee-houses and evening parties. The bavaroise a l'eau is made by sweetening an infusion of tea with syrup of capillaire, and adding a little orange-flower water. The bavaroise au lait is made in the same way, using as much milk as tea.

BEANS. These are a very useful vegetable, and are cooked in various ways, both green and dry.

FRENCH, OR KIDNEY BEAN. This bean, which is elsewhere described under the head "Haricot," may be grown either in the open field or in gardens, but the soil must be of a light, good character. The dwarf bean should be sown in April, in drills, covered with about two inches of soil; as they advance they are hoed and cleared of weeds, the stems being protected from time to time by drawing the earth round them. If the mornings and nights be frosty, the beds should be covered with mattings. The scarlet runner is usually set rather later. In favourable seasons the green beans are generally ready to pluck about the end of June. Those which are intended to be used as dry should be left on the stems until the pods change colour. There are not less than fifty sorts of the dwarf French beans, but that usually cultivated is the dwarf haricot, or white bean. The broad, or Windsor bean is sown about the same time as the scarlet runner.

TO BOIL FRENCH BEANS. Having cut off the stalk and strung them, slice them into two or four, according to their size, put them into boiling water with a little salt, and let them boil for half an hour. Another mode is the following: Put a bit of butter, parsley, chopped shalots, salt and pepper, into a saucepan; when the butter is melted, take the beans which have been previously boiled in plain water, and having drained them, put them into the saucepan with the butter, &c.,

and let them cook for five minutes. A little lemon-juice may be added.

TO BOIL WINDSOR BEANS. Having shelled and washed the beans, put them into boiling water and boil for twenty minutes. Serve with parsley and butter. Broad beans may be made into a pudding, by pounding them in a mortar after boiling them, and taking off the skins, then seasoning with salt and pepper, and a little butter, and tying them up in a cloth that has been floured and buttered. The pudding must be put into boiling water, and boiled for half an hour. When done, squeeze the water out by pressing the cloth, and take out the pudding, to which you can give any shape you please. Yolks of eggs beaten up, and the crumb of a roll soaked in cream, may be pounded with the beans to make a richer sort of pudding. This may be either boiled in a basin, or baked in an oven.

FRENCH BEANS AS SALAD. When the beans have been boiled in salt and water and drained, season them with pepper, oil, and vinegar, and having covered them, let them stand for three or four hours. Then having drained them again, mix them with salad of any kind, seasoning in the usual way.

TO PRESERVE FRENCH BEANS THE WHOLE YEAR. String them, and let them boil for about ten minutes in a large quantity of water, with a sufficient quantity of salt. Take them out, and place them in a good quantity of cold water. When they are cold, let them drain thoroughly, and then put them into bottles, filling up the cavity with some fresh brine. Clarify some butter, and pour into the bottle to the thickness of an inch when cold, then tie up with parchment.

TO PICKLE FRENCH BEANS. See PICKLES.

BEEF. The flesh of the ox is one of the best and most nourishing aliments; there is no meat that furnishes so much nutritious juice, and is consequently so well calculated to recruit the body when hungry and fatigued from violent exertion. Beef, although not so easy of digestion as mutton, is considered to be next in the scale of flesh meat as to digestibility. When the stomach is weak, mutton is preferable; but beef, if well cooked, and kept a sufficient length of time before dressing to become tender, rarely disagrees with those who take it in moderate quantity. The most tender and digestible part of the ox is the under

part of the sirloin. It is a generally received notion that under-cooked meat is easier of digestion than when well done. This, however, is a popular mistake. Under-dressed meat is certainly more nutritious, as it contains a larger quantity of the animal juices; but in that state it is not easier of digestion.

ALAMODE BEEF. Take a piece of beef, weighing five or six pounds, and after it has been well beaten, lard it with bacon and put it into a stewpan with some rind of bacon, two onions, two carrots, some fine herbs, four cloves, and a little pepper and salt; add a glass of water, and let it stew over a very slow fire, closely covered, for five hours, or until quite tender. A glass of French white wine and a small quantity of brown roux may be added to the above sauce, which, before serving, must be strained.

BEEF, (EN MIROTON.) This is a very favourite article on the Continent, and is a valuable dish when economy is considered, as the cold beef of the preceding day may be used. The mode of preparing it is as follows:—Cut the meat into thin slices, put into the dish (which should be of metal) in which it is to be served two ladlefuls of cullis, a little parsley, chiboles, or young onions, capers, an anchovy, a little shalot, all chopped fine; salt and pepper: place the slices of beef upon them, and cover them in the same way. Now cover the dish and put it over a slow charcoal fire for about half an hour, and then serve.

BEEF OLIVES. Mix bread crumbs, suet finely minced, chopped parsley, a little nutmeg, pepper and salt, with the yolk of an egg, into the consistence of forcemeat; then, having cut the beef into long thin slices, cover each with the stuffing and roll up, tying round with thread. Fry them a short time, and then put them into a stewpan with some good stock, a little brown roux, a glass of French white wine, and a little cayenne. Let them stew gently for about an hour.

ITALIAN BEEF STEAK. Take a rump steak, not too fat, and score it transversely with a sharp knife, but without dividing it. Then lay it in a stewpan, with a very small bit of butter, and strew over it a shalot and a green onion, chopped fine, with a little pepper and salt. No water must be added, as it must stew over a very slow fire in its own gravy. Three quarters of an hour is sufficient time for a steak of a pound. An iron stewpan should always be used, if possible. This

dish is very much improved by serving with it rice boiled as for curry. See **CURRY.**

BEEF STEAK. In London, the rump of beef is almost exclusively used for cutting into steaks, and is by far the best part of the ox for that purpose, though on the Continent other parts are used. The fillets, or under-cut of the sirloin, is in greatest estimation, though the entrecôte, or slice cut from between the ribs, is very good. The best way of cooking a rump steak is on a gridiron; before putting on, it is always desirable to beat it well with a rolling-pin. In turning it, a fork should never be used, as it allows the gravy to escape. When taken off, put a bit of butter on it, and serve as hot as possible. The plate being rubbed with a shalot gives a very pleasant flavour to it for those who are partial to that vegetable. Oyster sauce, made as for fish, is served with rump steak.

BEEF STEAK PIE. This should always be made of rump steaks, and should not be too fat. Mix some black pepper and salt together, and season each steak well with it, and lay them in a pie-dish. Cover with a crust, and bake in rather a slow oven. When to be eaten hot, the crust is best made with suet; but if to be left cold, butter should be used. Put a small teacupful of cold water into the dish before the crust is put on. Some persons add a few oysters, which give a very fine flavour. In the West of England, where they are famous for pies of all sorts, the beef is cut into thin slices, and rolled up as for beef olives, but not tied, with a bit of fat in the middle of each roll.

BEEF STEAK PUDDING. Prepare and season the beef as for a pie, and put into a pudding basin previously lined with a moderately thick suet crust. Then close the crust over the top, and tie up in a cloth. It may be made without a basin, as an apple dumpling; but the use of a basin is in case of an accident, as it sometimes breaks in taking up. It will require slow boiling for many hours, keeping the vessel filled up with boiling water as it wastes. When done, open a round hole in the upper part, and put in a bit of butter and a little boiling water. A little bullock's kidney is a great improvement with the beef to those who like the flavour. In Kent, the beef is cut into small diamonds, and some pickled pork cut up and mixed with it.

BOILED BEEF. This article, in Eng-

land, is seldom or ever used in any other state than salted; but on the Continent, corned or salted beef is scarcely known, the fresh beef, from which the soup has been made, being generally eaten. Three or four days, according to the weight, is enough for the ordinary operation of salting beef, which is done by rubbing it well with salt for some time, and then putting it by in a cool place. It may, however, be prepared in twenty-four hours by placing it on two sticks across a pan of cold water, and rubbing it well with salt on the top and sides. The rump and round are the parts mostly chosen for salting, but the brisket is preferred by many parties; the latter is, however, eaten cold; and when taken up, should be placed under a heavy weight to press.

The vegetables mostly used with boiled beef are carrots, turnips, and parsnips, boiled and mashed together with a little butter, pepper, and salt. Pease pudding is also a common accompaniment to this joint. The beef should be always put in cold water, and a little salt. When it begins to boil, let the black scum be carefully removed, and a little cold water thrown in to bring up the white scum, which must be as carefully taken off. It should not be allowed to boil fast, or it becomes hard; indeed, when it is convenient, the best plan is to put it in an oven, to finish cooking, after it has once been scummed.

BULLOCK'S HEART. Make a stuffing as for veal, which introduce into the upper part. Roast it till well done. This dish should be either served on a water dish, or a dish with a spirit lamp. Serve with currant jelly, as for venison. The French cook a bullock's heart thus: cut the heart into slices, and soak it for several days, as for larded fillet of beef, then broil, and serve with pepper sauce.

ENTRECÔTE OF BEEF. Lay the entrecôte on a dish, and season it with pepper and salt, and pour over it a wine glass of salad oil. Let it soak in this for six or eight hours. Then broil on a gridiron over a clear fire, and when done, serve with sauce piquante.

FILLET OF BEEF STEAK. Cut the beef into slices, about the thickness of half an inch, season them with salt and pepper, then soak them in melted butter, and broil them over a clear fire. Serve with sauce piquante, truffle, or tomato sauce, or with gravy. Potatoes cut in long slices, and fried brown in butter, are generally served round these steaks.

ROAST FILLET OF BEEF LARDED. After rolling up the fillet, and larding it at each end, let it soak for two days in seasoning made of salad oil, parsley, chopped shalots, lemon juice, and pepper. Roast it before a clear fire, taking care it does not burn. Sauce espagnole, or any other that is preferred, may be served with it. Tomato sauce laid in the dish, and the meat served on it, is a favourite mode.

FILLET OF BEEF STEAK WITH FINE HERBS. The beef is to be prepared as above, and soaked for a short time in salad oil, seasoned with pepper and salt; then broil them over a clear fire, and serve them. Before serving, put a small piece of butter on the plate, with which has been mixed some fine herbs and parsley, chopped very fine.

HAMBURG BEEF. Take out the bone from a rump of beef, not too fat, rub the lean well with a pound of saltpetre, then place it in a large salting-pan, with bay-leaves, thyme, cloves, coriander seed, and a little garlic, cover it well with salt, and close the pan with a cover in such a way that the air may not enter. In about eight or nine days, take out the beef, wash it several times, then wrap it in a cloth and boil it for several hours. This beef is eaten cold.

HUNTING BEEF. This is a most useful dish in a large family, and, prepared agreeably to the following directions in Mrs. Dalgairn's "Practice of Cookery," will be found excellent:—Rub well into a round of beef, weighing forty pounds, three ounces of saltpetre; let it stand five or six hours; pound three ounces of allspice, one of black pepper, and mix them with two pounds of salt, and seven ounces of brown sugar. Rub the beef all over with the salt and spices; let it remain fourteen days, and every other day turn and rub it with the pickle; then wash off the spices and put it into a deep pan. Cut small nearly six pounds of beef-suet, put some into the bottom of the pan, but the greater part upon the top of the beef. Cover it with a coarse paste, and bake it in a slow oven for eight hours. When cold, take off the crust and pour off the gravy. It will keep good for three months. Preserve the gravy, as a little of it improves the flavour of hashes, soups, or any made dishes.

LOSS OF WEIGHT IN COOKING BEEF AS COMPARED WITH MUTTON. Sir R. Phillips, in his "Million of Facts," states, that 4 lbs. of beef lose 1 lb. by boiling, 1 lb. 5 oz. by roasting, and 1 lb. 3 oz. by

baking; 4 lbs. of mutton lose 14 oz. by boiling, 1 lb. 6 oz. by roasting, and 1 lb. 4 oz. by baking.

NEAT'S TONGUE. The tongue of the ox is seldom or ever used in England, except in a pickled state; but on the Continent it is dressed fresh in a variety of ways. To salt the tongue, the following plan is adopted:—Having rubbed it well with common salt, lay it longways in an earthenware pan, turning it every day for four days. At the expiration of that time, mix together one ounce of common salt, one of brown sugar, and a quarter of an ounce of saltpetre, with which rub it well, turning it daily for about ten days, when it will be fit for use. When boiled, put it on in cold water. When taken up, and before cold, remove the skin.

NEAT'S TONGUE WITH GHERKINS.—After having well washed the tongue, blanch it for a short time, and then let it cool. Then lard it with some strips of bacon which you have previously seasoned with salt, whole pepper, and some parsley and shalot chopped very fine, and put into a stewpan, with some slices of bacon, two or three carrots, two onions, a little thyme, a bay leaf, and a few cloves. Moisten the whole with some good stock, and let it stew very gently for three hours. The outer skin of the tongue must be removed, after blanching. Serve in some cullis, with a few gherkins chopped.

NEAT'S TONGUE WITH PARSLEY.—Having blanched the tongue, as above directed, lard it with bacon, and boil it. Take off the outer skin, and cut it lengthwise, rather more than half through, but without dividing it. Lay it open on the dish, and serve with some stock, pepper, and parsley shred fine, and a little lemon juice mixed together, and poured over the tongue boiling hot.

OX PALATES. Wash well three ox palates, and having boiled them a short time, in order to remove the skin readily, and take out all the part that is black, cut them in bits, and put them into a stewpan, in which you have previously turned an onion a few times over the fire in a little butter. Add to this a little good stock, fine herbs, pepper and salt, and a shalot cut fine. Skim the same well.

PICKLED OX PALATES. Prepare them as above directed; and having cut them into narrow pieces about three inches long, put them for an hour in a lukewarm mixture made of vinegar, salt, pepper, a shalot, and two bay leaves. When they have soaked in this mixture for the time

mentioned, take them out, dry and fry them to a good colour, and serve with crisped parsley.

TO ROAST BEEF. The ribs and the sirloin are the parts mostly used for this purpose, but the rump is also sometimes roasted, and is by some considered superior to the other joints, particularly of heifer beef. Care should be taken to balance the meat well on the spit, or otherwise one side will be burnt before the other is properly done. In roasting, as well as in boiling, beef, the time required for the proper cooking of the joint is regulated by the weight, allowing always a quarter of an hour to a pound. It should not at first be put too close to the fire, but put nearer as the cooking proceeds. It should be well basted with its own fat during the whole operation of roasting; but when first put down, until the fat begins to melt, use some butter. A short time before it is ready to take up from the fire, strew over it a little salt, and dredge with flour, basting until it froths well, and becomes of a fine colour. After the meat has been dished up, let the fat be carefully poured off from the dripping-pan, leaving only the gravy, to which add a little boiling water, some salt, and a teaspoonful of walnut catsup. This must be poured over the meat boiling hot. Garnish the dish with horseradish finely scraped.

SMOKED BEEF. Cut the beef into large pieces and cover it with salt. At the expiration of two or three days, press it, and hang it in a chimney where only wood is burnt, at a sufficient distance for the fat not to be melted by the heat. The wood should be green, as it gives a larger quantity of smoke. The beef must remain until it is dry, when it may be eaten in thin slices or grated.

SMOKED HAMBURG BEEF. Rub the beef with saltpetre and brown sugar, let it lie for three days, strewing it over from time to time with a very little common salt, and then press it. It is now to be hung in the chimney, and smoked with green wood. Where a little juniper wood can be mixed with the other wood, it gives a fine aromatic flavour. This beef may be dried where only a coal fire is kept, by hanging it near the fire, in such a way that the coal smoke may not reach it; but it will not have the fine flavour of beef exposed to the wood smoke.

TO STEW A RUMP OF BEEF. The beef should be well tied up with some clean strong twine, in order to keep it in shape,

and then put into a large stewpan, with as much cold water as will nearly cover it. Put slices of bacon in it, and add five or six onions, two bay-leaves, three carrots, two turnips, a bunch of sweet herbs, whole peppers, a pint of port or French red wine, six cloves, and a little allspice. When it has stewed gently for seven hours, take out the beef, strain the liquor, boil it up again, and pour it over the beef. This is very good hot, but better cold to eat with its own jelly. Brisket of beef may be stewed in the same way, adding a little mushroom catsup and cayenne to the sauce.

BEER. This name is applied generally to any preparation from malt and hops; but according to the mode of preparation, it may bear the name of ale or porter; the word beer, however, being in some cases used to signify porter. Beer is the general beverage in countries where the vine does not thrive, and where apples are not sufficiently abundant to make cheap cider. Beer, however, is much used in the wine countries; and it is a singular fact, that the best beer in France is that which is made at Tours and its environs, where wine can be made at a much cheaper rate than beer. The beer in Germany and Belgium has a good reputation, but it is decidedly inferior to that which is made in many parts of England. In Paris repeated attempts have been made to imitate the beer of London; and not only has malt been prepared in precisely the same way as that which is used in London, but on two or three occasions London malt has been imported. The same system of brewing as that adopted in England has been followed; but notwithstanding all these precautions, the beer so manufactured has not had the slightest resemblance to that which it was intended to imitate. The general opinion being that this variation was attributable to the water, which in Paris is strongly impregnated with gypsum, filtered rain water was tried, and even distilled river water; but still the desired result was not produced. In England it is still a very prevailing notion, that the peculiar flavour of the London porter arises from the use of the Thames water; but this opinion would seem to be unfounded from the fact that different kinds of water are used by different brewers, alike celebrated for the excellence of their beer. It is quite certain, however, that although in the manufacture of porter by the London brewers they may, by the use of particular in-

gredients, and the large quantity of hops, succeed in imitating each other pretty closely; it is impossible, in the manufacture of ale, to give precisely the same flavour, where a different kind of water is used. It is not in beer alone that these variations as to water are supposed to be produced; in dying, there is great difference of colour, in localities almost approaching each other; and these, too, have been attributed to the water; but it would appear that the air, as to fine colours, performs an important part of the operation. Some years ago a dyer, in the neighbourhood of Bolbec, in Normandy, had attained a high degree of reputation for his scarlet dye. The business of this person increasing, he purchased other premises, at a distance of about six miles, where he also carried on business, but found to his astonishment that his dye had no longer the same brilliancy of colour. The water of his new establishment, having been analyzed, was found to differ in a slight degree from that which he had been previously in the habit of using. By way of experiment, he brought several casks of water from his first establishment, but still found that there was a difference in the dye. This would seem to confirm the opinion that the difference of air produced a difference of colour. As regards brewing, it may be laid down as a general rule, that very good beer cannot be made with hard water, and that the artificial attempts to make water soft by chemical means do not answer the purpose. The properties of beer as an ordinary beverage, if it be not too strong, so as to disturb the brain or create over-excitement of the nerves of the stomach, are quite equal, if not superior to those of wine; and where the proportion of hop is sufficient to give a good bitter, beer is at once a tonic and a stimulant. The objections, however, which apply in common to all fermented liquors, have their weight as regards this beverage; but these objections apply more to the invalid, and even then rather in the abuse than in the moderate use of the article, than to the man in ordinary health. Beer, like wine, to be wholesome, must be well fermented, particularly if it be bottled; for in that case, unless it be previously well fermented, the quantity of fixed air which in a subdued state would produce wholesome excitement, will, in excess, produce great injury. New beer also is unwholesome, from the saccharine matter which it contains in a comparatively raw state. There

is a consideration connected with making beer which is very important. Many brewers are in the habit of previously infusing their hops, and then adding the infusion to the brewing. In this way the entire bitter of the hop is obtained, but its narcotic property is also fixed; whereas, if the hop be boiled, allowing the vapour to escape, the tonic quality is retained, and a great portion of what is narcotic escapes. Those who are very particular as to the hygienic character of beer would do well to boil the hop separately, and for a long time, and add it during the process of brewing. The component parts of beer are water, saccharine matter, gluten, dissolved starch, carbonic acid, alcohol, and a volatile oil, arising from the hop. Amongst these elements, those which check the fermentation are the alcohol, the carbonic acid, and the oil; to them is principally owing the preservation of the beer. The saccharine matter may also contribute to its preservation, but it promotes the fermentation. The gluten and dissolved starch have a tendency to turn the beer, and the water favours the decomposition. Beer may undergo various changes. By its contact with the air it loses its carbonic acid; heat deprives it of its alcohol by evaporation, and consequently reduces its strength; the beer becomes insipid and viscous, and has a tendency to corrupt and become sour; when beer, thus weakened and inodorous, is exposed to the action of air and heat, the acetous fermentation is hastened by the gluten and starch. To prevent beer losing its alcohol and carbonic acid, it should be put into well closed casks, and surrounded, if possible, with sand; but as the best casks are liable to evaporation, they should have a coat of varnish on the outside; and if the quantity of pitch contained in the varnish be large, it will serve as a non-conductor against electricity. Where it is intended to keep beer a long time, it should be very carefully racked off; for nothing advances the decomposition so soon, after a certain time has elapsed, as the lees. The clarification of beer is very important for its preservation. This is done in various ways; either with hartshorn shaving, isinglass, or white of egg; but isinglass is decidedly the best, (see BREWING.) Many things are used, either when beer is first put in casks, to prevent its turning sour, or when it has already begun to turn. Alkaline salts, chalk, marble, or pounded shells, are used in the latter case; but this can never be done without injury

to the quality of the beer, as in proportion to the neutralization of the acid the beer is rendered vapid. One of the best means, perhaps, of preventing the turning of beer which is intended for a voyage, or which is liable from other circumstances to agitation and change of temperature, is to put entire eggs into the cask, in the proportion of one egg to four gallons of beer. The shell dissolves first, then the pellicle and the white, leaving the yolk intact. The albumen of the egg is said to act as an alkali, but without creating any effervescence, which has a tendency to make beer vapid. For weak beer, oatmeal, burnt sugar, or a portion of very strong beer, may be added in the summer; and in brewing beer of all kinds, it is found that a few handfuls of fresh oak leaves put into a large cask tends materially to preserve the quality. Strong beer, however, carefully made according to the instructions under the head BREWING, and sheltered from the action of the air, electricity, heat, damp, and excessive cold, will seldom require any of the additions above alluded to.

Mr. Storewell, an American, is said to have taken out a patent for a new mode of preventing beer from turning acid in hot weather. At the beginning of the fermentation in brewing, he suspends in the cask a linen bag, containing raisins in the proportion of a pound to one hundred and seventy-four gallons of beer. He leaves this for twenty-four hours, and then having withdrawn it, allows the beer to ferment in the regular course. It may be permitted, however, to doubt the success of this process. The choice and arrangement of the cellar (see CELLAR) are also highly important points to be attended to. For GINGER-BEER, SPRUCE-BEER, &c., see the different heads.

The beer which is made in France is generally much weaker than that which is made in England, and bears otherwise little resemblance to it. Some of the French beer, however, has a very agreeable flavour.

LILLE BEER. To six gallons of water add 7 lbs. of malt not bruised, 6 grains of socotrine aloes, and 1 oz. of juniper berries; boil very gently for an hour and a half, then add the hops and boil for another hour. Having strained the beer, add half a pound of treacle, and proceed as with Paris beer.

LYONS BEER. To the same quantity of water add 9 lbs. of whole malt, 6 grs. of aloes, and half a calf's foot; boil as

above, for an hour and a half, then add 7 oz. of hops, and boil for another hour; when strained, add half a pound of treacle and half a pound of moist sugar; finish as above.

PARIS BEER is made as follows:—put 6 galls. of water and 6 lbs. of bruised pale malt into a copper. Boil very gently for two hours and a half, then add 6 oz. of hops, an ounce of coriander seed, and half a calf's foot. Boil with this addition for another hour; taking care, during the whole of the boiling, to stir up the malt every ten minutes with a stick. After boiling, strain through a hair sieve into a cooler, and add half a pound of treacle. Let this cool for an hour, then put it into a cask, and add about four ounces of good beer yeast, mixed with a little of the wort. Ferment for twenty-four hours, then put the cask in the cellar, and fine with the whites of three eggs, beaten up with half a handful of salt; when the beer is clear, bottle it. In a few days it will be fit for drinking, and will sparkle and cream like Champagne wine; but it will not keep long.

BEEES. The management of bees is a subject to which some of our first naturalists have turned their attention, for it is one which is important in domestic economy, and interesting to the amateur. The best and most practical instructions are contained in the "Livre de tout le Monde," a French work, in four volumes, on domestic economy, and in the miscellaneous part of the work called the Practice of Cookery, by Mrs. Dalgairn. The following extract is from the French work:—

"The position to be given to the hives depends upon the climate in which the bees are reared. In very hot countries, they should be placed in the shade, and facing the north. With us, the best aspect is the south; and, considering the variableness of our temperature in spring, it is advisable to place the hives in such a way that the bees may leave very early in the morning, when the weather is fine, so as to be able to make an abundant collection as a provision for those days when the harvest would be small. In whatever position the hives be placed, it is important that they should be protected from the influence of strong winds, and at a distance of one or two feet from the ground, to secure them from damp. They should not be much higher, for in that case they would probably stray to a great distance and be lost. The hives should be on an isolated table, or platform, and so placed

as to give sufficient room between each. They should be under a roof to protect them from rain, wind, or the too great heat of the sun, and as distant as possible from noise. When the inhabitants of a hive are numerous, and well provided with food, they will be able to support the cold; but if the swarm be weak, they should be mingled with another hive. In order to effect this, in an evening, when the bees are grouped on the top of the inside of the hive, it should be struck sharply over a cloth spread upon the ground; and when the bees have fallen upon it, the hive, containing another swarm, to which they are to be transferred, is to be put over them, and left there for the night. The new inmates will settle themselves during the night. In sharp frosts, the hives are to be sheltered, and frequently watched, to see that the bees do not want food. If this be short, they must be fed by a mixture of a pound of molasses, or honey, and a pint of sweet cider; these are to be boiled and skimmed, and when formed into a thick syrup, the mixture is to be put into a pint bottle, the mouth of which is to be covered with coarse cloth, so that the syrup may drip out gently; this bottle is to be suspended, neck downwards, in the hive, from a hole in the roof. In the spring, the hives are to be cleaned, the entrance made thoroughly clear, and all the wants of the bees carefully provided for. Nothing beyond what is essential for the use of the bees should be left in their hives, which should be kept perfectly clean when the young bees begin to make their appearance, the head of the hive containing the store is to be removed and placed on another hive which is to be put over that in which the bees are, the junction being covered with a cloth to prevent their escape. The lower hive is now to be struck sharply to make the bees rise into the upper hive, or they may be driven out by a slight fumigation. When they have all entered the upper hive, it is to be placed on the spot formerly occupied by that from which they have been removed. By the end of June, the crown of the hive may be removed, and replaced by another. In this way their habitation is, as it were, renewed, cleanliness is secured, and full space is afforded to them for their labours, and for propagation. The best form of hive is that of an egg cut in two, and straw hives are generally preferred; but whatever may be the shape, or the material of which the hive is composed, it should be about fourteen inches wide, and eighteen

inches in height, and covered with a crown in proportion. This crown should be attached to the body of the hive from the outside, and when removed, the honey-comb must be carefully separated before the empty crown be put on. In the crown should be the hole previously spoken of, for the introduction of the bottle by which the bees are to be fed. The stopper should be so contrived that the hole may be opened all at once, or partially so, to give air to the hives in the temperate days of the winter season. In the general arrangement of the apiary there is much less danger of being stung than is generally imagined, provided gentleness be observed. If the bees settle upon the person, do not drive them off angrily, or betray any fear; it will be sufficient to blow upon them with the breath. They may even by gentle usage, and by giving to them, from time to time, the food of which they are most fond, become at length so familiar as to settle even upon the hands or face, without using the sting."

The following excellent recommendations for the management of the apiary are given in the English work to which we have referred:—

"The apiary should be situated so that the hives may have as much sun, and shelter from the wind, as possible. A few low trees or shrubs may be planted in the vicinity, to arrest the flight of the swarms, but all rubbish and noxious weeds must be carefully removed. The hives should be placed on pedestals, about two feet from the ground, and never less than five or six yards from each other. Of whatever form they be made, the material best suited for their construction is straw. When a hive is to be purchased, let it be chosen in the middle of the day; that which has the greatest number of bees going in with yellow pellets attached to their legs may be selected for further examination. The interior should be crowded with bees, the comb of a yellow hue, and the side ones filled; if there be many queen cells, which are like small inverted acorns attached to the sides of the combs, or if the wings of the bees should be ragged or torn, the hive is certainly old, and ought to be rejected. If a hive is to be purchased in spring, its weight should not be less than fifteen pounds; if in autumn, not less than thirty; and if it is a stock hive, the weight should not be less than forty pounds. A good hive having been se-

lected, it may be removed in the evening, and placed on its single pedestal; but it should not be plastered to the stool. The stand on which the hive is placed should be cleaned four times in the year, and sprinkled with salt. Dampness is very injurious to bees: in winter, therefore, the snow must be carefully brushed off the hives, and while it continues upon the ground, the bees must be confined. Should they at this season become unhealthy, a renovation of air may be beneficial; and were the hives to remain an hour turned up, it would be rather an advantage than otherwise. Where there is not a little running stream in the neighbourhood of the apiary, troughs with water should be placed near the hives. They may be made of stone or wood, the wood well pitched, of eight or ten inches in depth, and sunk in the earth. A few inches of mould may be put in the bottom, and some watercresses planted therein, to preserve the purity of the water, with which they should be constantly supplied; or put one or two pieces of wood in a basin of water, and place it near the hive.

"Spring and autumn are the seasons for feeding the weak hives, beginning in February, if the weather be fine. The food most approved of for them is a syrup composed of sugar or treacle, ale, and salt, in the proportion of two pints of ale to a pound of sugar, and about half an ounce of salt, the whole to be boiled a quarter of an hour, and carefully skimmed; when cold, it should be bottled, corked, and, to prevent its candying, kept for use in a warm place. In the beginning of the season, a little port wine incorporated with the food may prevent dysentery. When the bees to be fed are in a plain cottage hive, an eek must be provided, of the same diameter as the hive. When the sun is set, and the bees all returned from the fields, let the hives be gently raised, and the eek placed on the stool; fill an empty comb with the food, place it in the cell, and replace the hive upon it; the bees will be less disturbed, if a slip of the eek be made to open, large enough to admit the piece of comb. It should be removed on the following morning, if the cold has not prevented their taking their usual supply in the night. Should that be the case, shut them up for a day or two, to prevent the mischief which would occur from strange bees entering the hive while it is feeding, or remove the weak hive to a considerable distance. A well-

peopled hive will require about two pounds of syrup in the month. A new swarm ought always to be put into a new hive, which should be provided in April. Sticks in the inside are unnecessary, but the projecting straws must be singed off. Should any hive in May seem wholly destitute of drones,—in Scotland they do not appear till the end of May or beginning of June,—watch at the entrance of that hive which appears to have the greatest number of them, and catch forty or fifty; confine them in a box till the evening, when they may be easily introduced, and will be most thankfully received by the hive that appears to be without them. To supply a hive with a queen, cut out from some of the other hives that can be got at most easily a piece of comb that has eggs in it; turn up the queenless hive, and with the left hand, shed two of the combs a little asunder, then with the right hand put in the piece of comb between them, observing that the cells be put in the hive in the same order as in their native hive, that is, the cells that were uppermost to be so still; then let the hand be removed, and the hive replaced. In England, a swarm may be expected in May, but not till June in Scotland; preceding the swarming, may be observed, amongst other signs, small drops of perspiration at the entrance; and when the bees cluster on the outside of the hive, the bee-master must be constantly on the watch. In general, they will swarm with the first sunshine; but if they continue to lie out when the weather is favourable, a little water may be squirted on them. The swarm once on the wing, it should never be lost sight of. Ringing of bells, and other noises, are more likely to do harm than good. It is unnecessary to prepare the hive with anything sweet or odoriferous; but if the swarm does not remain in one hive, give them another. The easiest situation for hiving a swarm is that in which the hive can be held under the swarm, and the bees shaken into it. In all cases, a goose wing will be found of essential service to brush the bees off the post into the hive; but great care must be taken that none of the knots of bees which may contain the queen bee drop upon the ground. The hive, when the bees have been all shaken or brushed into it, should be placed on the board, and left near the place of the swarm's first settling, until the evening, when it should be carefully removed and placed on a pedestal, at some distance from the parent

hive. A second swarm may generally be looked for on the eighth or tenth day after the first; sometimes sooner, but never later than the twelfth day after. The day before the departure of the second swarm, the call of the queen bees may be distinctly heard; the note of the one is loud and clear; that of the other, the young queen, is lower, but equally distinct, and totally different from the hum of the other bees. As they give no other signal of their second swarming, it is necessary to keep a vigilant watch over the hives, to ascertain from which the swarm departs. It is generally necessary to return the second swarm to the parent hive immediately. They are seldom or never worth preserving as a separate colony, except when two fly off together, in which case they become, by an union, of little inferior value to a first swarm. Supposing the two swarms to have alighted upon separate branches, proceed to shake one of them into the empty hive, and then immediately shake the other into the same, leaving it to the bees to kill the superfluous queen bee, that is, if the proprietor has not the skill or courage to do it.

To join two swarms from different hives, it will be necessary to drench both with a mixture of beer, sugar, and water, made lukewarm, or with the fumigating bellows give them a little smoke from lime leaves or tobacco. When a second swarm is to be returned to the parent hive, turn down a chair, and place the back parallel with the entrance of the hive, over which a sheet or tablecloth may be spread; then holding the hive containing the second swarm over it, give it a few sharp knocks on the top, and the bees will fall immediately on the cloth; proceed then, either with the finger or a stick, to guide a few of the bees to the entrance of the parent hive, and they will instantly crowd into it: those who are acquainted with the person of the queen should take this opportunity of catching her. In regard to a third swarm, it would be folly to keep it. When the weather proves unfavourable after the hiving of a swarm, some food should be administered to the bees at night. When they lie out in clusters, and no more swarms are desired, an eek should be placed on the hive. If the heat be very great, it would be advisable to shade the hives, in addition to the common covering of straw, with which they ought always to be provided, as the best protection from the cold in winter, and the heat in summer. A particular value should

always be put on those hives that kill their drones the earliest. It sometimes happens that their numbers deter the bees from attempting any violence against them; therefore, when the other stocks kill their drones, let the bee-master place himself quietly by the side of the hive, in the middle of a fine day, and crush every drone with his finger or a stick, as it passes out or in. Every hive will be the better for a little assistance in this massacre, which may be looked for in the end of July or beginning of August.

Instead of following the general plan of suffocating the bees in August, the hives should be removed to the vicinity of a heath, and there allowed to remain from four to six weeks. July is the best season for depriving the hives of a part of their store. When a hive is to be robbed of its honey, remove it from the stool to some distance; procure an empty hive, invert it on that from which you wish to dislodge the bees, either to take the honey, or to unite them with another hive. Stop up the entrance, and then strike gently the under hive, on the side opposite to that to which the combs are fixed; in a few minutes, when the anger of the bees may be appeased, a piece of wood should be introduced, to keep the two hives about an inch apart on one side; for the purpose of preventing the bees, after being driven up on the one side, descending, which they might do, by the other, to the hive from whence they were dislodged, the knocking on the under hive must be continued, till the bees, terrified by the noise, take refuge in the upper hive; then, with the fumigating bellows, or common tobacco-pipe, blow into the hive a little smoke from lime leaves or tobacco. The same operation having been performed on the other hive, that is, the hive destined to receive the new colony, the dislodged bees are emptied into it, and swept with a brush of feathers into the interstices between the combs; the board being then put upon the hive, it is instantly reverted, and placed upon the stand. When a hive is merely to be deprived of a part of its store, the hive with the bees in it may be placed upon the pedestal from which the full one was removed, and the hive from which the bees have been driven must then be taken into the house. A few bees will be found still straggling about the combs, but they will be too frightened to use their sting. When the requisite quantity of comb is cut out, breaking it as little as possible,

the hive should be cleared of every noxious matter, and returned to its former position; but first invert the hive containing the bees, and place the deprived hive over it; leave them in this situation till the morning, when the bees will be found to have taken possession of their intended home. At any season of the year, a weak hive may be strengthened from a strong one, by the following method:—Take a strong hive from its pedestal, and place on it that which has few bees in it; then turning up the strong one, give it several raps on its sides, when many of the bees will fly to their old station; then place the strong hive where the weak one stood, or the other at a considerable distance.

The bee-master, in approaching a hive, should avoid breathing on the bees; and if his manner be soft, calm, and gentle, he will in general need no protection from being stung; but when swarms are to be united, or hives deprived of a part of their store, the operator should be provided with thick worsted gloves, and a gauze, or piece of thin cloth, such as milk is usually strained through, for the head; this last must be large enough to go over a man's hat, and round the neck, so as to tie before, with a string running through a tape or loop holes; that part which comes next the face must be cut out, and a piece of very open gauze, catgut, or net-work, sewed therein. So protected, the most timid may proceed fearlessly; but every one who undertakes the management of the bee is more or less subject to its sting. No time should be lost in extracting it. Rub the wound briskly with a piece of woollen cloth till it ceases to smart, and apply goulard water, laudanum, or vinegar and spirits, as may be soonest attained; or wash with spirit of ammonia, and wrap a piece of linen about the part, steeped in spirits of wine. If the pain continue six hours, put on a hot poultice of bread and milk, and change it every four hours. The plants from which bees extract the greatest quantity of honey are—

Mignonette, heath, furze, white clover, thyme, particularly lemon thyme, rosemary, balm, beans, and every species of pulse, all resinous trees, borage, wild mustard, and golden-rod; this last begins to blow when all other flowers have faded, and continues to blow till the middle of November; it will grow in the worst soil, and should be particularly cultivated in the vicinity of an apiary. Of the best hives which are used, the same work says,

"THE HUISH HIVE is made of straw, in the form of a flower-pot inverted, but open at both ends, and having a band of straw projecting from the inside about two inches from the top; upon this band are placed seven bars of well-seasoned wood, about one and a half inch broad, and a quarter of an inch thick; they are slightly fastened down with small nails, then covered with thin gauze or net-work, and again with a circular board, in which small holes are made, to permit the steam to escape from the body of the hive. The whole to have a convex cover of straw, manufactured as the hive, and made to fit in, like the cover of a saucepan. At any time or season of the year, when some honeycomb is required, or at the end of the season, when the bees are to be deprived of their superfluous store, remove the top and other coverings, and take the side bars out, from which having cut the honeycomb, replace them as before: the operation is facilitated by having some vacant bars ready to supply the places of the full ones. When the bees, by lying out in clusters, indicate that they stand in need of room, instead of an addition at the bottom, as in the common hive, this hive need only be deprived of a part of the comb attached to one or more of the bars. In time of snow, or when robbery is threatened, the centre should be closed by a tin wicket, or by a piece of lead with holes made in it to admit air. Another hive is formed as the common cottage-hive, being made to separate towards the middle. On the lower division, which may be made the largest, a board is placed, in which one large or some smaller holes are made, to admit of the bees ascending. When the upper part, or top, is filled with honey, it may be removed, and replaced by another prepared for the purpose. Those who wish to see the bees at work may place a glass top under the straw one, or invert tumblers, or long glasses made for the purpose, over each hole, one or more of which may be removed as they are filled."

BEEF. This plant is become of late years a very important article, not only in its natural state, but for its use in the manufacture of sugar. The first application to this purpose was in France, at a time when, in consequence of the war with England, the French were able to receive only small quantities of colonial sugar. The price of sugar having risen to as much as five shillings a pound in Paris, a large premium was offered by Napoleon to the first person who should produce a pound

of good beet-root sugar. The early experiments were not very satisfactory; but improvements having succeeded each other rapidly, beet-root sugar almost equal to colonial was produced, and at least half the consumption of sugar in France at this moment is produced from beet-root, which sugar, although subject to rather a heavy duty, is sold at from fifteen sous to twenty sous a pound, according to quality. The process of making sugar from beet-root is so very simple, except the refining, consisting merely in the expression of the juice and evaporation to a syrup, that it is carried on in many parts of France by the peasantry, and with a very small capital. There are three sorts of beet-root, white, yellow, and red. The white contains the largest quantity of saccharine matter, and the red the smallest. The root, boiled or baked, is a very fine addition to salad, and is highly nourishing and agreeable, but it is of difficult digestion. The red beet requires a light, deep, and rich soil, and that has not been recently manured. The seed is sown in April, in drills an inch deep, and about a foot asunder. For winter use it is stored in the same way as carrots, being careful, when taking them up, not to break the roots, as the saccharine matter escapes; and in trimming them, the leaves must not be cut off too close to the root. The white beet in England is cultivated only for its leaves, which are dressed and used as spinach. The leaves of the red beet are good fodder for cattle; by careful plucking, three successive crops may be obtained.

BISCUITS. A composition of flour, or other ingredients.

ALMOND BISCUITS. Take four ounces of blanched sweet, and half an ounce of blanched bitter almonds, the whites of nine eggs, and six yolks, an ounce of finely sifted and well-dried flour, and three quarters of a pound of sugar in powder. Pound the almonds, adding from time to time a little of the white of egg, to prevent their turning to oil; beat up the yolks separately with the sugar, and whip the whites into a froth; then mix the whole, and powder in the flour by degrees, stirring the whole time, so that it may be well mixed; fill paper moulds, powdering each biscuit with a mixture of equal quantities of flour and sugar, and bake in rather a hot oven.

BISCUIT DE RHEIMS. This is a kind of sponge biscuit, but more compact and crisp; it is by far the best biscuit for dessert, and is usually, when eaten, dipped

into champagne or red wine. If carefully made, it retains all its freshness for a long time. M. Burnet gives the following receipt:—"Put into an earthen dish half a pound of finely powdered and sifted loaf sugar, add the yolks of twelve eggs, beat them together with a wooden spoon, and whilst this is doing, let another person whip the whites into a froth in another vessel; when the whites are become like thick snow, add the first mixture to them, and stir gently with the wooden spoon; then add six ounces of fine flour sifted over, two ounces of powdered sugar, and the grated and sifted peel of a lemon; mix all well, but gently together, so as to keep up the frothy appearance of the whites of the eggs; fill the little tins in which these biscuits are to be baked, and which are usually about four inches long, two broad, and an inch high, about half full, first buttering them, to prevent the paste from sticking; bake in a quick oven until of a fine yellow colour, and as they are taken from the oven, and whilst hot, turn them out of their cases by tapping the latter with the hand or with a stick; before putting them into the oven, they are to be floured over with fine sugar. These biscuits may be baked in paper cases, but they are generally made in tins; if baked in paper, the paper is to remain."

CHOCOLATE BISCUITS are made in the same way, by adding an ounce and a half of finely powdered chocolate, when beating up the sugar, with the yolks of eggs.

COLD HARBOUR BALLS. Dissolve an ounce of butter in a quart of warm milk, and use as much fine flour as will make a stiff paste; add, in making the paste, about half a tea-spoonful of salt, and two eggs beaten up with a table-spoonful of yeast; cover with a cloth and keep it before the fire for half an hour, then roll into balls or in pieces of the size and length of the small finger, and bake in a quick oven.

FILBERT BISCUITS. Take eight ounces of blanched filberts, one ounce of blanched bitter almonds, six whites and three yolks of eggs, an ounce of flour, and eight ounces of loaf sugar; the filberts and almonds are to be pounded, and a little white of egg added from time to time to prevent their turning to oil; whip up the remainder of the white of egg into a froth, and mix with them the yolks previously beaten up, with half the sugar; now add the flour through a sieve, and then the remainder of the sugar; mix this with the filberts and almonds thoroughly; fill little cases made of writing paper, about four

inches long, and half of an inch high, open of course at the top, and bake. The flavour is improved by beating up with the mixture a little grated lemon-peel.

LEMAN'S BISCUIT. This biscuit, which enjoys a high reputation, is made as follows:—Sift and dry a pound of fine flour, rub into it a quarter of a pound of butter, two ounces of pounded and sifted white sugar, and a bit of volatile salt, about the size of a nut; mix in it as much new milk warmed as will make it into a stiff paste; work it well together, and let it remain for two or three hours; then roll it out and make it into small square biscuits, and into round balls, a little flattened; prick them with a fork, and bake them in a quick oven, taking care that they do not become brown.

OLIVER'S BISCUIT. Melt a quarter of a pound of fresh butter in half a pint of warm milk, add a table-spoonful of fresh yeast, and stir in a pound and a half of fine flour; knead it well, and wrap it up in warm flannel, to remain for fifteen minutes; roll it out several times, and the last time about the thickness of a penny-piece, cut it into small biscuits; prick them well with a fork, and bake in a slow oven until of a pale brown colour.

ORANGE-FLOWER BISCUITS. Beat up eight eggs, and work them in with a pound of white pounded sugar, and a pound of very fine flour, adding enough orange-flower water to give a flavour; then add as much spring water as may be necessary to make the whole into a fine paste, and bake in square paper moulds, first powdering over the tops with sugar; at the end of a quarter of an hour, take the biscuits out of the oven and powder them again with sugar. They will keep good for several days.

PLAIN BISCUITS. Make a stiff paste with the finest flour and cold water and a little salt, beat it out with a rolling-pin for a long time in detached portions, and then again in the mass; then roll thin, and form the biscuits, pricking as usual with a fork; bake in a quick oven. These biscuits are much improved by drying, which may be done by placing them for two or three hours after they are baked (it is not important that this should be done immediately) in an oven after the bread has been drawn. The paste is improved by adding a very small quantity of butter, not more than one ounce to a pound of flour. The biscuit called Prince of Wales's Biscuit is made of this paste,

by rolling it into small balls. Pipe biscuit also may be made with it, but in that case a small quantity of sugar must be added.

PLAIN BUTTERED BISCUITS. These are made by dissolving half a pound of butter in half a pint of warm milk, and with four pounds of fine flour making up a stiff, but very smooth paste; roll out very thin, and stamp out the biscuits, pricking them with a fork, and baking in a quick oven on tins. Many biscuit-bakers add a little carbonate of ammonia to them, and other biscuits, to render them short and light. It is a great improvement, and very wholesome, but care must be taken not to add so much as to convey a flavour; half a drachm of the carbonate in fine powder may be added to four pounds of flour. By adding the usual proportion of sugar to the above paste, with half a dozen eggs, and some currants, and candied lemon peel, a very agreeable sweet-biscuit is made.

POTATO BISCUIT. These are made in the same way as Savoy biscuits, using potato flour instead of wheat flour. It may here be observed as a general rule, that for biscuits which are to be baked in little paper cases, the cases should not be much more than half filled, in order to give room for their rising. Before putting them into the oven, they should be placed upon a board covered with white paper.

SAVOY BISCUITS. Take twelve eggs, their weight in sugar, and of fine flour half the weight of the eggs; but if flour be used, it must be thoroughly dried and sifted first; beat up the yolks with the sugar in fine powder, adding a little finely grated lemon peel and orange-flower water; whip the whites separately into a froth and mix them with the other, then stir in the flour and beat up the whole well together; warm a little butter, and with a brush butter a mould well, and put in your mixture; bake in a moderately warm oven. The same paste, made rather lighter by the addition of more white of egg, will do for making small biscuits in paper moulds.

SEA BISCUIT is made by kneading for a long time and with great force fifty pounds of wheaten flour with five pounds of yeast, mixed with the quantity of water (tepid) requisite for making the dough; when the whole mass has been well kneaded, it is to be kneaded again in smaller portions, and made into round cakes of any weight, but not too thick.

Before putting the biscuits into the oven, which is to be less hot than for bread, each biscuit is to be pierced with holes to assist the evaporation. The oven should be of such a heat as for the biscuits to remain two hours in it; when baked, they are to be put over a drying stove to finish the drying. Biscuits made in this way, with care, will keep good for a great length of time, if well packed.

SPONGE BISCUITS. Beat together for half an hour four eggs and half a pound of fine pounded loaf sugar; mix in carefully six ounces of fine dry and sifted flour, the grated and sifted rind of a lemon, and a table-spoonful of rose water; flour the pans, fill them half full, sift pounded sugar over, and bake in a quick oven. These biscuits may be baked in paper cases.

SWEET BISCUIT. Make up a pound of flour, half a pound of butter, and half a pound of finely pounded loaf sugar, into a stiff paste, with two eggs, not beaten, and cold water. Roll out the paste, and to form the biscuits, make the paste into round balls, and flatten them a little; bake on tins, first pricking the biscuits a little; a few caraway seeds may be mixed with the paste for such as like the flavour.

BISHOP. A favourite beverage, made with claret or port. It is prepared as follows:—Roast four good sized bitter oranges till they are of a pale brown colour, lay them in a tureen, and put over them half a pound of pounded loaf sugar, and three glasses of claret; place the cover on the tureen and let it stand till the next day. When required for use, put the tureen into a pan of boiling water, press the oranges with a spoon, and run the juice through a sieve; then boil the remainder of the bottle of claret, taking care that it do not burn: add it to the strained juice, and serve it warm in glasses. Port wine will answer the purpose as well as claret.

BITTERS. The habit of taking bitters for the provocation of appetite is, on the whole, a bad one, unless it be medicinally, in which case the practice must be tempered by prudence; for although bitters are of themselves wholesome, when a judicious use is made of them, they frequently produce fever in delicate constitutions, and check the insensible perspiration which is necessary to health. In England, many of those who take bitters do but make them an excuse for dram drinking, and imagine that the addition of an infusion of bitters, made also with

spirit, corrects the dangerous properties of the spirit with which this infusion is mixed. Bitter orange peel forms the basis of the bitters sold by the publicans, and is a fine stomachic; but the drinking of spirits with it, unless in very small quantity, and largely diluted with water, is injurious. Mrs. Dalgairn, in her "Practice of Cookery," a work to which Sir Walter Scott is said, how truly we know not, to have contributed, recommends the following, under the head of Bitters:— "Put into a quart of sherry one ounce of the best powdered aloes, the same of rhubarb and liquorice root, and a teaspoonful of powdered ginger; keep it in the sun, or by the fire, for eight or ten days, shaking it frequently; let it settle for twenty-four hours, and strain it through a flannel. Two or three teaspoonfuls relieve headaches, and weakness of the stomach." This, it will be seen, has no reference to the bitters sold by publicans, and used to excite appetite. Mrs. Dalgairn's preparation, indeed, is but a modification of the elixir de longue vie, and, like that, acts at once as tonic and a purgative. There can be no objection to this domestic medicine, as a medicine, beyond that which applies, more or less, to all preparations of the same kind, by the danger of habit. As a general principle, persons who have headaches and weak stomachs, (the former is the necessary consequence of the latter,) and who are not ill enough to call in a doctor, will act much more wisely to try change of air, moderate diet, and exercise, than to resort to the practice of drugging, which at length becomes so confirmed as to be indispensable. It may also be mentioned that aloes, although a valuable bitter purgative in many cases, is very uncertain in its effects, and, taken to excess, it is frequently a dangerous medicine. Of all bitters, the least objectionable is the colombo root, for, whilst it acts as a tonic, it does not stimulate like other bitters. Many important cures in dyspepsia have been effected by this bitter alone. It should be thus prepared:—Cut into small pieces, or bruise, two drachms of the root, and pour upon it a pint of boiling water. Take a wine glass full of this infusion every morning, half an hour at least before breakfast. This is very superior to the infusion of the camomile flower, which, although a native bitter, frequently stimulates and creates fever, like some of the foreign bitters.

BLACKBERRIES, the fruit of the

common briar. Blackberries are seldom used either in their raw state or dressed. They do not, however, make a bad pudding, if mixed with mulberries. Blackberry jam is said to be superior to the jam of the black currant for sore throats, and is also diuretic, and has been recommended in cases of gravel. The finest blackberries in England are those which grow in the Isle of Wight.

BLACKING. Forty years ago, scarcely any other blacking for boots and shoes was known than a mixture of the white of egg and ivory black, which was laid on with a brush resembling that which is now used by cooks for covering fish with the glaire of egg. The first improvement was a kind of paste, which was sold in balls and squares; and at length came the liquid jet of Turner, Warren, and Day and Martin. The secret of the preparation was at first known only to a few, and it was not unusual for a servant who possessed it to make several pounds in the year by selling the recipe to the acquaintances of his master. This, however, like all other kinds of knowledge, soon became general, and blacking manufacturers sprang up in every direction. There are few persons now who do not know how to make blacking, and many prefer manufacturing their own to purchasing it ready made, as they imagine that most of the blacking which is sold is, from the quantity of vitriol used in the preparation, injurious to leather. It does not appear, however, that, generally speaking, the blacking sold to the public is so destructive, and where boots and shoes wear out rapidly, the fault is rather with the tanner than with the blacking manufacturer. The competition in the blacking trade is now so great that there is very little economy in making it at home, for as the manufacturers purchase their ingredients in large quantities, they are able to sell almost as cheaply as private persons can manufacture. Many manufacturers pretend to mix with their blacking a large quantity of oil, as a preservative of the leather, and also caoutchouc, or India rubber, to render it waterproof. This is all imposition; the quantity of oil which is seen floating on some blacking is useless as regards the leather, and caoutchouc cannot be introduced in such quantity as to make the blacking waterproof, whilst it may, if in large quantity, crack the leather. We would recommend our readers to purchase their blacking, and to give the preference to that which pro-

duces the most perfect gloss, with the least evident signs of injury to the boot or shoe. The following, however, is a very good preparation for those who prefer making their own blacking. Ivory black, four ounces; molasses, three ounces, mix these well together; then add, in the following order, two table-spoonfuls of milk, and two of strong vinegar, mixing well, and adding at the end one ounce of oil of vitriol. The French usually add a few drops of the essential oil of lavender, and the plan is not a bad one, for it imparts a pleasant perfume, and at the same time assists in giving a gloss. It is not amiss, now and then, to wash the boot or shoe thoroughly with hot water, and then to cover it with neat's foot oil, placing it in the sun, for the oil to penetrate the pores. It requires some time for the boot or shoe to take the gloss from blacking after this, but in the end this is attained, and the leather is rendered supple, wears longer, and, to a certain extent, resists moisture.

BLANCHING, in culinary matters, consists in putting any article for a few minutes in warm water. Almonds are blanched by putting them first into boiling, and then into cold water. The skins are then removed very easily.

BLANC-MANGER. This is a very agreeable and wholesome dish, and when made in the simplest way, may be taken safely by invalids.

COLD BLANC-MANGER. Boil a quart of good milk, or cream, with six ounces of sugar, stir up with this the same quantity of almonds as below, (see **HOT BLANC-MANGER**) prepared in the same way; then squeeze it through a fine cloth. Beat up, in half a pint of water, an ounce of dissolved isinglass, and let it simmer very gently for two hours, then pass it through some thin muslin, and add it to the almond milk when it is lukewarm, stirring well together, and pour it into a shape, and put it in a cool place. The above is the original French way of making blanc-manger, but in England a much smaller quantity of almonds is used. The following mode of making blanc-manger is given in Mrs. Dalgairn's "Practice of Cookery."

Blanch and pound in a little ratafia, or rose water, two ounces of sweet, and six bitter almonds; dissolve three quarters of an ounce of isinglass; add it, when milk-warm, to a quart of good cream, or half milk, half cream; mix in the almonds the peel of a small lemon, and a bit of cinnamon; sweeten it with pounded loaf-

sugar, let it stand for two or three hours, put it into a saucepan, stir it constantly, and let it boil for six or eight minutes; strain it through a lawn sieve, and stir it till nearly cold, then pour it into a mould.

Or, blanch and pound one ounce of sweet almonds with a glass of sherry and a table-spoonful of pounded loaf-sugar; add it to three quarters of an ounce of isinglass dissolved in half a pint of water, and boil it till the flavour of the almonds be extracted, stirring it all the time. Strain it through a bit of thin muslin, and mix with it a quart of good cream, stir it till quite cold, and pour it into a shape.

HOT BLANC-MANGER. Put into a saucepan a pound of sweet and a dozen bitter almonds, blanched and well pounded. In another saucepan boil, with some sugar, a quart of good milk, (cream is preferable;) pour this by degrees, boiling, upon the almonds, and pass the whole through a very fine sieve, squeezing the almonds at the same time. A quarter of an hour before serving, put this mixture on the fire and keep stirring it until it adheres to the spoon.

For **BLANC-MANGER FRITTERS**, see **PASTRY**.

BRANDY. Spirit distilled from wine. The best brandy is made at Aix, Montpellier, and Cognac, in France. French brandy is the purest spirit made, and used medicinally, is frequently found very beneficial. Diluted with about eight times its bulk of water, it is a wholesome beverage for persons with whom wine and beer disagree, and the aged and those who undergo great fatigue derive great advantage from it, if taken in small quantities at a time, and always diluted with at least three times as much water as spirit. In France it is customary to take a little brandy either mixed with coffee, without milk, or immediately afterwards; and experience seems to shew that the practice is a good one, as it corrects the over stimulus of the coffee. A tea-spoonful of brandy taken in each cup of tea corrects the too exciting properties of that beverage, and prevents acidity of the stomach. Pure, however, as this spirit is, compared with many others, it is not to be taken beyond moderation, and medicinally as a tonic. Invalids may, if there be no fever, safely take two or three spoonfuls of brandy in arrowroot, gruel, or other farinaceous food; and this they should do in preference to sherry or other wines. All brandy when it is first distilled is white; but when put into casks, it extracts

the colouring matter of the wood, and becomes darker with age; the high colour of much of the French brandy imported into England is artificial, having been communicated by burnt sugar or drugs. The strength of brandy, which should vary from twenty-two to twenty-four degrees, may be correctly ascertained by the little floating bulb, marked with a scale of degrees, which is sold by all the mathematical instrument makers; but the usual mode of judging of the strength is to put a little brandy into a phial, and shaking it up, to watch the bubbles which form on the surface; if they disappear very rapidly, it is to be presumed that the spirit is of fair strength. A more certain way is to put a given quantity in any metallic vessel, and set fire to it, letting it burn itself out. If the brandy be weak, the quantity of water left behind will be proportionately great; if strong, there will be little. There is another advantage in this process; for if any resinous substances have been put into the brandy to give smell or flavour, they will be detected after the burning. In consequence of the high price of French brandy in England, attempts have been made to imitate it; and enormous quantities are sold which are mixed by the retailers with the genuine article. All these imitations are bad, as the basis of them is spirit from grain. The flavour, such as it is, is given by sweet spirits of nitre, and drugs of various kinds. The purchaser is but paying for a very inferior spirit under a fine name.

Brandy is used for making ratafias, preserving fruits, &c., for which purposes what is called white brandy is to be preferred, as it is less highly flavoured than that which is coloured expressly for the English market; and before purchasing it, the strength should be ascertained; for it ought not to be under twenty-three or twenty-four degrees. In France there is a prejudice against brandy which has more than nineteen or twenty degrees if used for drinking; but for preserves, liqueurs, &c., it is never employed at less than twenty-two. It is rare that brandy weaker than this is imported into England; but the dealers in it generally reduce it, in order to derive a greater rate of profit, or to be able to sell it at a lower rate. In purchasing, therefore, a condition should be imposed as to the strength. Many persons use brandy as a remedy for sprains and bruises; but in such cases spirits of wine are to be preferred, as the

operation is much more rapid. The principle upon which spirits are used in this way externally is evaporation. In all external injuries there is more or less inflammation; when spirits are applied, the evaporation carries with it a portion of the internal heat; consequently, the more rapid the evaporation is, the more rapidly does inflammation subside, if the application be frequently renewed. There is no other medicinal virtue in the brandy as an external remedy than this evaporation, and therefore it is never to be preferred to spirits of wine. When mixed with cold water and vinegar in the proportions of one table-spoonful of good brandy to a tea-spoonful of vinegar, and half a pint of water, brandy is said to be an excellent remedy for weak eyes; the mixture being applied early in the morning, and several times during the day, with an eye-glass, or with cotton wool. For the pretended uses of brandy mixed with salt, see **SALT**.

The flavour of old brandy may be given to the newly made spirit by putting into each bottle five or six grains of potash, previously dissolved in a little water, and shaking the bottle well. The acid remaining after distillation is thus destroyed, and the spirit has all the properties of old brandy.

BRASS AND COPPER, TO CLEAN. Rub with sweet oil and pounded rottenstone, clean off with a soft linen cloth, and polish with a leather covered with goldsmith's rouge.

BREAD. As this is the most important article of human food, too much care cannot be exercised as to the materials of which it is composed. The flour should be of good quality, but not too fine for bread of ordinary consumption; for it has been ascertained by repeated experiments that for the purposes of digestion and nutrition, flour in which a portion of the bran has been allowed to remain is much more wholesome than that which has been brought to a fine state. The gluten of bread requires to be mixed with some of the coarser material. Without this it is believed that the stomach is oppressed in the digestive process, and some medical men are of opinion that the coarser particles of flour, acting mechanically upon the coats of the stomach, keep up a degree of wholesome irritation, which assists its functions. It is a mistake to suppose that a small quantity of fine bread, as possessing the same degree of nutritious matter, chemically considered, as a larger quantity of the coarse article, produces the same effect upon the animal system. Bulk

as well as nutrition are requisite for the support of life. In a series of experiments made upon dogs and other animals fed alternately upon very fine white compact bread, and a coarser and light sort, it was found that they became thin, and even died when the first was used for a long time exclusively, whereas they thrive and become fat upon the latter. The labouring classes, who eat an inferior sort of bread, enjoy good health; but if they take for any length of time white bread, of the finest quality, they become disordered in their digestion, and recover their health when they resume their former aliment. This observation can only hold good, however, where bread forms the chief and, indeed, almost sole article of food. Persons who eat small quantities and have variety of diet may, without inconvenience, use the best white bread; and although it has been the fashion lately to recommend to dyspeptic patients abstinence from the finer sorts of bread, and the use of bread in which a considerable portion of rye flour is used, that being considered the most laxative, and a portion of the bran being left in to keep up a gentle irritation, it may be doubted whether the benefit which is supposed to result from the change may not be attributed, in many cases, to other causes. There is nothing in good wheaten flour that can disagree with the stomach, generally speaking, provided it be not ground too fine, and particularly if a little bran be introduced into the composition of the bread. As far as the flavour of the bread is concerned, it is important that the yeast should be good; that which is obtained from good home-brewed ale is the best. Much of the yeast sold by the public brewers is bitter, and communicates a disagreeable taste to the bread. It is customary in many parts of the Continent to leaven bread with a portion of dough which has been brought almost to the state of acetous fermentation; but this gives a sour taste to the bread, which is far from agreeable. When good fresh yeast from brewing can be had, it is to be preferred to all other; but when this is not at hand, an artificial yeast (see YEAST) may be used.

Sir Humphrey Davy states the component parts of wheat to be four to six parts of saccharine matter, nineteen to twenty-four of gluten, and seventy to seventy-seven of starch. From experiments made in Paris by several eminent chemists and medical men, it would appear that neither gluten nor starch separately has any nutri-

tive property, and that it undergoes no change during digestion. It is by their combination, and particularly with the saccharine matter, that flour possesses its alimentary qualities. Although the gentlemen who have made these experiments candidly admit that they cannot account for the result upon any principle of science, their experiments upon various animals, frequently repeated, ought to leave very little if any doubt of the fact. Mankind, in order to increase the nutritive properties of flour, add water and yeast, and call in the aid of fire. This constitutes what is called panification. It will be an error to suppose that water and yeast do not augment the nutritive qualities of flour; twenty-two ounces of wheat, the quantity necessary to produce a pound of flour, being torrefied in the grain, are much less nutritive than a pound of flour if boiled into a gruel. In the same way as the quantity of oatmeal used for making oat gruel will be found much less nourishing taken in that state than cooked with water. The addition of yeast brings out the nutritive qualities in a still higher degree; thus a pound of flour made into gruel is far less nourishing than the same quantity of flour made into dough by adding yeast, and baked into bread. The learned authors of the French Dictionary of Agriculture state that flour brought to the state of bread acquires by its increase of weight, from the addition of water and fermentation by yeast, an increase of one-third in nutrition. It is therefore evident that water and yeast not only develop the nutritive qualities of flour, but even increase them by rendering the flour more easy of absorption in the digestive process, and, to use the medical term, assimilating it with the human body. It is not the quantity of flour in the state of bread taken into the stomach that nourishes the system, but the quantity that is absorbed and assimilated. It is the common opinion that the more compact bread is, the greater nourishment it affords by its lying longer in the stomach; but experience proves the direct contrary. The bread which by its lightness has the largest volume, presents the greatest surface to the digestive juices, and is more easily absorbed. Consequently, that process of bread-making which best develops the component parts of the flour, and causes it to take up the largest quantity of water, is the most nutritive, because it is the most digestive. Upon this mode of reasoning, which appears to be unanswerable, various attempts have been

recently made to obtain from a given quantity of flour a greater number of loaves of equal weight, than by the ordinary system of panification. In England, by a new mode of fermentation, the quantity of bread from a sack of flour has been increased twenty pounds. In Paris, still greater success has been obtained; for there the increase of weight from the same quantity of flour is forty to fifty pounds, by a new process, the secret of which has not been made public. Should the theory above stated be found correct, if generally applied to the making of this important article of food, the result will be, that the present population of England may have a larger quantity of bread, or the quantity now grown and imported will suffice for a very large increase of the population.

BROWN BREAD.—The best, with the exception of that made from pure wheaten flour ground coarsely, is made from a mixture of wheat, barley, and rye flour, in the proportion of two pounds of good wheaten flour to one of each of the other. Oatmeal may be substituted for the barley flour, or added to the barley and rye in the proportion of one-third. When making brown bread, use a larger quantity of yeast and less water, and knead for an hour. A very nutritious brown bread is made by the addition of the flour of the haricot bean, as follows:—two parts of wheaten flour, one of rye flour, and one of the bean flour, (see **HARICOTS**.) Generally speaking, brown bread requires longer baking than that from pure wheaten flour.

ECONOMICAL BREAD. This bread, which has been successfully used in Saxony as a substitute for the common bread, is composed of a mixture of the flour of barley, oats, and beans, the latter in the proportion of an eighth part. The manner of preparing it is very simple. Potato flour may also be added by preparing it in the same manner as for making starch. (See **STARCH**.) When all these ingredients have been well mixed together with the necessary quantity of water, add a little salt, and some yeast, and let it stand for some hours to rise. This bread is very nutritious. M. Bourdon Dagueisey has recently published a process of making economical bread, which has excited considerable interest in France, and has been adopted to some extent in the rural districts. He begins by making a leaven with forty pounds of boiled potatoes, previously peeled, and cut into pieces: these are then rubbed through

a colander, and the moisture which they contained before boiling is replaced by a sufficient quantity of water, which had been saturated by six pounds of fine bran. The mixture is then exposed to a heat just sufficient to be able to bear the hand in it, and thirty-four pounds of rye flour are mixed with it. The fermentation is rendered active with yeast and about two ounces of ground salt; the quantity of water used must be in the proportion, of course, to the batch of bread; in this case, one hundred pounds of rye flour, forty pounds of boiled potatoes, and twenty-five pounds of potato fecula, or starch, are mixed with twelve pounds of water, previously saturated with bran. Seven hours after the leaven above alluded to has been made, the other sixty-six pounds of rye flour and the twenty-five pounds of fecula are worked in with the remainder of the water, or rather more water, if that quantity should not be sufficient to make the dough rather more moist than for wheaten bread. The dough is then to be made into loaves of about two pounds and a half each, and baked for about an hour. The economy of this bread may be judged of from the fact that in the experiments made before the Society of Agriculture, at Compeigne, in France, it was found that the price was rather less than one-half that of wheaten bread. This bread has been used rather extensively in some of the hospitals, and has led to very favourable reports of its wholesomeness and nutritive qualities.

FRENCH CAKES. To one pound of flour add two ounces of fresh butter, rub them together, then mix them with about four table-spoonfuls of warm milk, one of beer yeast, and an egg beaten up; mix them together well, and set the dough before the fire to rise. When it has risen, knead it, make it into two or three cakes, and put them on buttered tins; let them stand before the fire for an hour, and then bake in a quick oven for a quarter of an hour.

TO MAKE HOUSEHOLD BREAD. Take ten pounds of flour and three quarts of water which is about lukewarm, if in summer, and rather warmer in winter. Put the water in a large pan, and add a table-spoonful of salt. Add a portion of the flour, stirring it up well until it is of the consistency of butter, adding rather more than half a pint of good yeast, then add more flour, mixing the whole well, and put the pan, covered with a cloth, and throwing flour over the dough, before the

fire for a few minutes. About a third of the flour is to be kept back in the first operation, and this is to be well kneaded in when the mixture which has been placed before the fire has risen properly. Put the dough again before the fire, and let it rise for a few minutes, then knead again, and bake in a quick oven, having previously put the dough into pans, and pricked the surface of the dough with a fork, and placed it again before the fire in the pans. The baking, in an ordinary oven, will require about an hour for a four-pound loaf, and fifty minutes for a loaf of three pounds. If a heated oven be used, it must be well heated before the dough is put into it. If potatoes be mixed with the bread in the proportion of an ounce to two ounces to a pound, the flavour will be improved. The potatoes must be first boiled in their skins, then skinned, and when dry, rubbed well up with milk or water boiled and allowed to stand for a few minutes before it is used. Then add the mixture to the dish in which the dough is mixed. Rice may also be used. Take a pound of rice to ten pounds of wheat flour, boil it in a quart of water until the rice has become a complete pulp. Strain off the water, and beat the rice well in a mortar until it is completely crushed, and is entirely dissolved, then add the water in which it was boiled, and a pint of milk, and boil the whole together for an hour. Strain off the liquid and add it to the dish in which the dough is made, suppressing as much water from the process as the quantity of liquid obtained from the boiling of the rice will supply. The dough must in all cases be thoroughly kneaded. Only soft water should be used for bread-making; filtered rain water is the best. If the water be hard, a drachm of carbonate of soda may be added to three quarts of water, but this is unnecessary when the water is of a soft nature. If rolls are to be made, take a portion of the dough and mix it up with a few table-spoonfuls of cream in which the whites of two or three eggs whipped have been put; knead them carefully, and add a little flour, if they be too moist. The dough for rolls should be taken off when it has risen the second time, as above stated, before the fire. After taking the dough from the fire the second time, it must be kneaded for half an hour on a board strewed with flour, if intended for loaves, but the rolls will not require more than five or six minutes kneading. They are then to be baked in a quick oven until

they are nicely browned. A minute or two before they are done, they should be taken out of the oven, and a brush dipped in the white of egg be passed over the top; then they are to be put into the oven again for one or two minutes. When there is reason to suspect, either from the appearance or smell of the flour, that it is not good, and there is still a necessity for using it, let it be baked for an hour in a very slack oven, and add to it, when making into dough, about ten grains of fresh carbonate of ammonia, carefully powdered, for every pound of flour. This will frequently correct any bad properties of the flour, and render the bread palatable. Milk may be substituted for water in the manufacture of bread, but it does not improve the flavour if the flour be good.

ITALIAN BREAD. Make a stiff dough, with twelve table-spoonfuls of fine flour, six of white powdered sugar, three eggs, the raspings of a lemon, and two ounces of fresh butter, mix them in a pan with a wooden spoon, and if the dough is not sufficiently firm, add more flour and sugar. Then turn it out and work it well with the hand, cut it into the shape of round long biscuits, and glaze them with white of egg. They are then to be baked in a hot oven.

MANHEIM BREAD. Take two eggs, six table-spoonfuls of flour, three of sugar, some salt, and a little essence of anniseed to give a flavour; when well worked together, cut into pieces as above, and bake in a quick oven.

PAIN DE GRUAU, OR FRENCH ROLLS. To about seven pounds of the finest flour add the whites of four eggs well beaten, and sufficient warm milk to make it into dough; work it together in the same way as for pie-crust, and let it rise before the fire under a towel. As the outside becomes hard by being placed before the fire, it should be removed, and the remaining dough be well beaten, made into rolls, and set for a few minutes before the fire to rise, and then baked in a quick oven. The Germans make their fine rolls in nearly the same way, but they give them a peculiar colour by throwing a little water upon some lighted braize, which is placed in the oven, the vapour from which gives a colour. They also brush them over with a little glaire of egg.

POTATO BREAD. The following mode of making potato bread, which is given by M. Bournet, a French cook of high repute, is by far the best that is known. Take the quantity of potatoes required;

boil them in their skins. When done, peel them, and bruise them with a rolling pin to the consistence of a paste. To this add as much flour as there is potato pulp, and some yeast. Knead them well, putting as much water as may be necessary. When properly kneaded, form into loaves, and place in the oven, taking care that it be not quite so hot as for common bread, or it will become hard on the outside before the inside be properly baked. The door of the oven should not be closed so soon as on ordinary occasions. This bread must be allowed longer time to bake than any other.

BREWING. This is the operation of preparing ale or porter from malt and hops. All the vessels used in the process of brewing should be particularly clean, as without this precaution all others will be useless; the same care should be taken with those in which the beer is kept. The vessels should be thoroughly scalded, and then washed with cold water, and if this be not sufficient, the operation must be repeated. It is also advisable, as far as the casks are concerned, to dip some strips of canvass in melted brimstone with which coriander seeds have been mixed, and, taking out the head of the cask, light three or four of these strips, and then close the head. When the cask has been thoroughly fumigated, take off the head again, to clear the cask, and having done this, it will be found perfectly sweet; the head is then replaced, and the cask kept for use. A more simple mode, however, is to suspend by a wire from the bunghole a small iron dish containing a little brimstone and coriander, with a few strips of rag or canvass; these are lighted, and a tile or slate placed over the bunghole, and secured by a little clay. At the end of half an hour, the dish or ladle is drawn out, and the cask left in the air with the bunghole open for some hours. The ingredients being ready for brewing, the water must be made to boil in the copper, which should be furnished with a large cock, and while in a boiling state, draw it off into the mashing-tub, where it must stand until it cools to the proper temperature for putting in the malt, which may be stated at from 145° to 140° of Fahrenheit; but a very safe criterion is to wait until the steam is gone sufficiently off for the reflection of the face to be strong in the water: if the malt be put in while the water is too hot, the whole virtue of the malt is not extracted. When the proper temperature is attained, strew in

as much malt as can be conveniently stirred up, and keep adding until there is the quantity which is intended for the first boiling, allowing about six gallons of water more for a quarter of malt than the quantity of beer you intend to produce; this extra quantity of water is either carried off in steam or absorbed by the ingredients. When the quantity of malt is in the mashing-tub, place two or three sticks across the top of it, and cover it well over with sacks or any other article, to keep in all the steam. This must stand from an hour and a half to two hours, according to the weather. When it is ready to draw off, put the hops into the cooler, and let the tap of the mashing-tub be turned; when the first wort has run through, pour some more water, brought to rather a higher temperature than at first used, over the malt in the mashing-tub, and let it stand as before. Then put the quantity first drawn off into the copper with the hops on which it has been allowed to run, and boil all together for an hour and a half; next strain it through a sieve into the coolers, which should be shallow in order to let it cool quickly. Put back the hops into the copper to be boiled with the second wort, which is to be treated precisely in a similar manner. The quantity of malt to be used, as also the quantity of water for each boiling, necessarily depends on the strength to be given to the beer; if very strong ale be required, the first wort from a quarter of malt should not exceed twenty-five gallons, and about forty gallons of good table-beer may be made from the second boiling. The first boiling in this case, however, will give an ale of extraordinary strength; but a quarter of malt will produce about fifty gallons of very good ale, and about the same quantity of good table-beer. If table-beer only be wanted, a bushel of malt will produce about twenty gallons very good, or the same quantity of malt will make about eight gallons of good ale, and five or six of table beer; a smaller quantity than a bushel at a time should not be used. The quantity of hops must be proportioned to the length of time that it is intended to keep the beer, and the taste of the consumer; for ordinary family use, half a pound of hops to a bushel of malt gives an agreeable flavour. The colour of the beer depends chiefly upon the drying of the malt; if therefore pale ale be desired, care should be taken to order pale dried malt from the maltster. The best hops are the Farnham. Porter is brewed

from very highly dried malt, with an extra quantity of hops. The operation of the working is a very important one, as on that depends in a great measure the quality of the beer. When the wort has cooled down to from 62° to 65° of Fahrenheit, put it into a vessel sufficiently large to contain each boiling, and wait until it has cooled down to about 50° of Fahrenheit, or barely lukewarm, and if this temperature be not obtained during the day, wait until night; then add the yeast, which should be in the proportion of a quart of good yeast to about forty gallons of strong beer, and rather less than a quart to the same quantity of small wort; in adding the yeast to the wort, stir the whole together for two or three minutes, then cover over and let it stand for twelve hours, or until it has well fermented, which is generally in that time. Now, having previously prepared the casks, strain the beer and pour it into them, placing a small tub under to receive what works over. During the operation of working in the casks, which will last for two or three days, according to the temperature of the weather, skim off the upper and frothy part of what falls from the cask into the tub below, and put it into a pan to settle, the thick part supplying yeast for bakings or future brewings, and the beer to be used to fill up the vacuum made in the cask by the working. Care must be taken to keep the cask constantly filled up; if this is neglected, the working is checked, and the beer will not be fine. When the cask has been first filled, mix well in a basin with a small quantity of the beer a table-spoonful each of salt, flour, and brown sugar, and throw into the cask. This will assist the working, and generally speaking, render unnecessary the use of isinglass or any other article for fining; but should this not have the desired effect, those articles may be had recourse to; the grand secret, however, in making beer fine is to give it plenty of time before tapping it. When it is found that all fermentation has ceased, stop the cask down, by pasting two or three layers of thick brown paper over the bung-hole, and on that plaster a little clay, so as completely to make it air-tight; this is better than driving in a bung at once. The bung should be put in subsequently. The best months for brewing are considered to be March and October, but good beer may be made in any of the cool months. In very hot weather it is almost impossible to make very strong beer, and in ex-

cessive cold the fermentation is languid. The quantity of yeast necessary for fermenting the wort is necessarily much smaller in summer than in the winter months, and in warm weather the yeast should not be put in all at once, lest the fermentation should be too rapid. The wholesomeness of beer depends materially upon its having undergone thorough fermentation. In France, where most of the beer is bottled quickly, and intended to be effervescent, the fermentation is not allowed to go through its whole course, and it is said that the shavings of box-wood are boiled up with the wort in order to promote the effervescence when bottled. Beer made in this way is a very agreeable beverage, but it is highly flatulent, and is therefore very injurious to weak stomachs. In bottling beer, few precautions are necessary beyond clean bottles and good corks, and allowing the beer to stand in the bottle for a few hours before it is corked; if the latter precaution be neglected, the bottles frequently fly. Table-ale is frequently bottled, when intended for early use, by placing in each bottle four or five good raisins; the slight fermentation that takes place makes the beer rapidly effervescent. About two years ago a patent was taken out in France for making beer from a prepared extract of malt and hops, which being mixed with water and boiled, obviates all the ordinary labour of brewing. This extract may be prepared by boiling down hops and malt to a strong decoction, and then straining and evaporating it to the consistence of a very thick syrup over a slow fire, and if possible in such a way that the aqueous portions may escape without allowing much air to enter the vessel. There is no reason why beer made by boiling this extract in water, and fermenting it in the usual way, should not be good; but as the preparation of it for domestic use requires great care and attention, the trouble in the first instance will be equal to that of the process of ordinary brewing. If the extract can be purchased ready made, the experiment of making beer in this way may be tried. The process of fining beer is as follows:—For a hogshead of beer, dissolve two ounces of isinglass in about a quart of stale beer, whisk this up into a froth, and stir it down well into the cask, then bung down tight. The whites of eggs may be beaten into a froth and used in the same way, but isinglass is preferable. In five or six days the beer will be quite fine. A cheap kind of beer is sometimes

made by fermenting the liquor obtained by boiling mangel-wurzel or treacle, and fermenting in the same way as for malt and hops; but what is gained upon the purchase of these ingredients is lost in the quality of the article. As far as flavour and nutrition are concerned, it is much better to take even a small quantity of genuine beer than a larger quantity of these imitations. In some parts of Sweden the dried watercress is used as a substitute for hops, and is said to render the beer more wholesome.

BROCOLI. The kinds of brocoli most used are the green and dwarf sulphur-coloured. For the autumn crop the seed is sown in April, and planted out in June; for the spring crop sow in May or June. It is transplanted in warm beds, where it remains till July, when it is again transplanted, and treated in the same way as cauliflower. Care should be taken to prevent the grub attacking this plant. No further direction is necessary for cooking this vegetable than is given for cauliflower, which see. When the brocoli is cut, let the stalks stand, which will supply a good crop of sprouts for later use.

BRUSHES, TO CLEAN. Dissolve half an ounce of pearlash in a pint of boiling water; pass the brush through it until it is clean; then pour over it clean boiling water; dry slowly before the fire.

BUG. An insect very common in old houses, and which generally secretes itself in walls, the crevices of furniture, and in bedsteads. Its bite is venomous, and in some constitutions even dangerous. Various nostrums are advertised as having the property of driving this insect from its habitual haunts, but not one of them seem to be entitled to serious credit. When bugs are in the walls and floors, all the crevices should be stopped with glazier's putty; and before the walls are re-papered, the old paper should be stripped off, and at least one coat of oil paint be laid on. If they are in bedsteads, the bedstead should be taken to pieces, well washed and dried, and aqua-fortis laid with a brush in all the holes and crevices, or some size may be made and laid on with a brush; this, when dry, is an eternal prison for the bugs, and also for their eggs. Another very good plan is to put spirits of wine on every part of the bedstead that is suspected, doing this by portions at a time and setting fire to it: this will not injure even a polished bedstead, if the part be immediately rubbed up with a cloth covered with a little bees-

wax. Where bugs are very numerous, and they are in situations which cannot easily be got at, there is but one effectual remedy—fumigation. To effect this, remove from the room all coloured objects which would be injured by the vapour of the brimstone, paste up the windows and the fire-place in such a way that no air can enter, then place in the centre of the room an iron pan containing three or four ounces of brimstone, broken into small pieces, and having in the centre two or three bits of twisted linen rag; light these, and leave the room; with some strips of paper paste over every crevice of the door on the outside, and having completed all these arrangements let the room remain closed for twenty-four hours. Then enter it, and having opened the windows and fire-place, let the air enter freely for two or three days before inhabiting the room, in order to get rid of the smell of the brimstone. This destroys not only the bugs, but also their eggs in every crevice of the room and its furniture. When bitten by a bug, wash the bite with strong salt and water, and immediately afterwards apply three or four times volatile alkali. This neutralizes the venom, and prevents inflammation. The same means may be adopted for the sting of bees, wasps, gnats, &c.

BURNS. Ordinary burns or scalds may be safely treated without the necessity of calling in surgical aid; but if the injury has penetrated deeply, it is better to adopt that course. If the skin be not entirely destroyed, or the injury to the flesh be only superficial, the frequent application of ether will, by its rapid evaporation in carrying off the increased heat of the part, not only remove the pain, but prepare the way for a speedy cure. The application of a kind of salve made according to the instructions given under the head RUST is also a powerful remedy. Cotton wool applied immediately, and kept on the wound until it has perfectly healed, has also been found of great value, even in burns and scalds of the most serious nature. The mode in which this remedy acts has not been very clearly explained; some attribute the cure in a great degree to the exclusion of the external air; others, to a peculiar property in the cotton. The results, however, have been of too decided a character for a doubt to be admitted as to the excellence of the practice. The application of cold water is a fine remedy in burns and scalds, if it be repeated very frequently and with

perseverance, until the excess of heat be carried off by evaporation; in most cases nothing further than this is necessary, except covering the part afterwards with oil of almonds and with gold-beater's skin, or adhesive plaister. The application of scraped potatoes is a very old domestic remedy, and is good on the principle of the abstraction of heat; but it should be repeated frequently to be effective. The use of cold water, however, is much more efficient, and is still more easy of application.

BUTTER. This is one of the most agreeable articles of food, and although its use has been forbidden by many physicians in dyspeptic cases, there is little evidence to prove that it is unwholesome for any, if taken with moderation, whilst it is with the healthy used almost without restriction. In cookery it is almost indispensable; but it is less wholesome when it has undergone a culinary process than in its natural state. The French use butter in their cookery to a much greater extent than the English. Even in the cuisine bourgeoise, where economy is studied, it forms a very large item of expenditure. Its use in France is so much more extensive than in England, because not only does the French cook consider it necessary that most of the dishes should be prepared with a large quantity of butter, but many things are served up floating in it, and the French seldom leave any of the sauce. The lower orders particularly seem to prefer this to the solid food, and when the latter is eaten, clear the plates of the sauce by dipping bread in it. It is a prevailing opinion in England that butter so impedes the digestion as to bring on bilious disorders; but it is not found that in France, where at least four times as much butter is used in the preparation of dishes as in England, bilious complaints are more prevalent; and the English who visit Paris, and indulge freely in all the rich dishes of the restaurants in the Palais Royal, do not complain of being bilious to the same extent as in England. It is, indeed, said that the injurious effect of butter is counteracted by the use of the ordinary acid wines as a dinner beverage; there may be some truth in the observation. Very little practice is necessary in choosing butter. The colour is no criterion, for the butter-makers give any shade of colour they please; but there is a sweetness of smell and taste about the good article which distinguishes it from an in-

ferior quality, and in these no person can be mistaken. Butter is made from cream by agitation in a churn, by which the serous parts of the milk are separated from the unctuous parts, and the former being pressed and beaten together, a compact mass is obtained. The quality of butter depends essentially, of course, upon that of the milk from which the cream is obtained; but much depends also upon the degree of care and cleanliness observed in the manufacture. The quantity varies with the quality of the cream, but it is calculated that about ten pounds weight of good milk will produce two pounds and a half of butter. In order to obtain the largest possible quantity of cream, the milk should be kept in shallow dishes, in a temperature of about 50° to 55° of Fahrenheit. In summer, this degree of temperature may be obtained by a regulation of the means of admitting the external air; and in winter, where the extent of the dairy will admit of the expense, it may be kept at that heat by pipes containing steam or hot water. The milk should not be put into the pans immediately after its being taken from the cow, if in summer; but in winter it must be set without delay. In many dairies the cream is not churned until it has acquired a sour taste, and it is said, that in such case the butter is of a superior quality; care, however, must be taken that it be not too sour. Much of the butter that is brought to market is from cream of this description, as it requires much more labour in churning than cream that is quite fresh. The milk should be skimmed when it has set thoroughly; in summer from ten to twenty hours are sufficient; double that time is required in winter. The cream, when collected from the pans, is put together, and stirred frequently, until it is churned, which cannot be too soon. It may stand, however, more or less time, according to the weather, and is always fit for use when it has merely a slightly sour taste, without being actually sour. In Brittany, where very fine butter is made, the process of churning is much expedited, when the cream is tardy in separating, by adding from time to time a little fresh milk from the cow; this contributes materially to give the requisite consistency. The churn, in warm weather, after having been carefully scalded, should be plunged repeatedly in cold water; in winter it may be brought near the fire, but the degree of warmth should never be greater

than to bring up the temperature to what it would be in moderate weather without the aid of fire. When all the buttermilk has been carefully got out by beating and kneading, and the butter has been well washed, it should be put into clean cloths and placed in a cool situation. In England, it is customary to mix a small portion of salt with what is even called fresh butter; this gives it an agreeable flavour, and keeps it from turning so soon as it might otherwise do. In France, salt is only put to the butter which is intended for sale as salted butter, for the consumer adds salt to the fresh butter in using it. Every article used in the manufacture of butter should be scalded, and then dipped in cold water. Butter is also made on the Continent from the milk of asses, goats, and sheep; but it is, generally speaking, inferior to that of cow's milk, and is used only where the latter cannot be obtained. The natural colour of good butter is a slight yellow, and that which is eaten within two or three days after the manufacture is considered to be the most wholesome. The best periods for salting butter for market, or for keeping for domestic use, are the months of May and September. The process of salting is simple; it consists in kneading in the salt, making the butter more or less salt according to the length of time it is intended to be kept; a pound of salt to fourteen pounds of butter is the usual quantity; but this is not sufficient, if it be intended for exportation. When salted, it should be put into jars, with a layer of salt at top and bottom, then be closely covered. The butter, when put into the jars, should be well pressed down; but as, notwithstanding this precaution, it will, in the course of a short time, detach itself from the sides of the jar, and cause a vacant space, the air thus created would, without a further precaution, deteriorate the quality of the butter. To prevent this, strong brine should be poured over the top of the jars when the butter is put into them, and allowed to remain for several days before the layer of salt is laid on. The brine will fill up all the interstices; and if, after the time mentioned, the jars be uncovered and the salt laid on, and then covered again, the butter will remain good for a much longer period than it would do without this precaution.

The following method of salting butter, however, is recommended by the "Almanac de France," as being superior to any other:—To two parts of common kitchen

salt add one of loaf-sugar, and one of saltpetre; pound them together, and then knead an ounce of this mixture with twelve ounces of butter, taking care that it enter every part of it. It is then to be put in dry earthen jars, which are to be covered over air-tight. Before the salt is used, it must be well dried in an oven, or before a fire. The saltpetre used in this quantity, so far from having any injurious effect, is said to improve the wholesomeness of the butter. A week after the butter has been put into the jars, pour over it a sufficient quantity of strong brine, made with hot water; afterwards set to cool, to fill up all the vacant space left by the settling of the butter.

When it is desired to keep fresh butter from becoming rancid for a few days, it should be carefully kneaded, and washed in cold water, which is to be changed several times. This being done, the butter is to be kept in water, in a cool place, and the water is to be changed every morning.

BUTTERMILK, the fluid which is pressed out of the curds in making cheese. It is the common beverage among the Irish poor; is very refreshing and wholesome, in small quantities for those who do not take much exercise in the open air, and in any quantity for hard-working persons. It may be sweetened and flavoured with liqueur. For this purpose, it should be hung up in a thick cloth and allowed to drip for two or three days, when it acquires a certain thickness; the sugar and flavouring ingredient are then mixed with it. Buttermilk may also be eaten in a solid form by pouring two quarts of boiling new milk upon four quarts of fresh buttermilk, and allowing them to remain without stirring until firm, when the top part is taken off, and the remainder put into a sieve. It is afterwards put into a shape for an hour, some cream, sweetened or not, being served at the same time in a separate dish. A little isinglass may be boiled in the milk.

CABBAGES. The variety of this vegetable is very great. The mode of raising is from seed, and afterwards transplanting them. Where they are required to be had very early in the season, the plants are raised in hot-beds. The cabbages most used in summer are, the Curly Yorkshire, the Early Dwarf Yorkshire, the Early Dwarf, and the Early Sugar-loaf. The mould in which the plants are put should be rich, and abundantly manured; the time of sowing for the summer cabbages

is in July or August of the preceding year. In about two months after the sowing, which is done by just covering the seeds with mould, the plants are thinned out and transplanted at sufficient distance from each other to give them room to grow strong. About a month afterwards, the remaining plants are to be transplanted, giving plenty of room between each plant. The ground round the plants should be frequently hoed up, and the earth drawn round their stems. The roots and stems may be allowed to remain in the ground after cutting off the cabbages, in which case a good supply of sprouts will be obtained in the following spring. Cabbages for winter use should be sown in the beginning of March, transplanted in May, and a second time in June. They will be fit for use in the autumn, and in sheltered situations will be good until the following spring. The best sorts for winter are the White Strasbourg, of which the Germans make their sour kroust, the Large Drum, the Sugar-loaf, the American Cabbage, the Scots, the Savoy, and the St. Denis. When the seed of cabbages is gathered, it should be carefully dried and put by in bags. The seed should never be kept more than one year before it is used. In order to prevent the action of slugs upon cabbage plants, they should be strewed early in the morning with wood ashes; lime is frequently used, passed through a sieve, as the wood ash should be, but wood ash is preferable. The plants, when young, should always be placed in a sheltered situation. The red cabbage, for pickling, is sown in August, and transplanted in April. Savoys are sown in April, and planted out in June; but if they be wanted for the autumn, the seed should be sown at the latter end of January. The Scotch kale is sown towards the end of June, or beginning of July, and transplanted in August. The rows should be a good width apart, and sufficient room must be left to allow the plants to grow firm. Most gardeners concur in opinion that it is advisable not to plant cabbages for two years together in the same ground, as they impoverish the soil; every second year, therefore, the ground which had been used for cabbages should be employed for some light crop. Brussels sprouts should be sown early in April, and transplanted in June. As this plant requires great moisture, it should be abundantly watered, particularly when transplanted. They must be well weeded

through the summer, turning up the earth from time to time; and finally earthed up in October for use during the winter. The sea-kale should be sown in a sandy and light soil, mixed with rich mould, and strongly manured. Mrs. Dalgairn, in her "Practice of Cookery," says, the best manure is sea-weed. The seed is sown in March, about two inches deep, in trenches about thirty inches deep, in a triangular form, leaving a space of from two feet to two feet and a half between the plants. In October or November, the bed is covered with rotten manure, the plants having been carefully weeded during the summer; and the same plan is followed in the second year. In the end of the autumn of the third year they are fit for blanching, which is done by covering them with blanching pots, and filling the vacancies with good dung,—covering the pots to the depth of a few inches. They will be fit to cut very early in the following spring. A less difficult and expensive mode of blanching is by strewing over the plants a quantity of dry leaves, and covering them with dung; but when it is desired to eat this vegetable in perfection, the care of the beds should always be entrusted to an experienced gardener. The care and expense of bleaching scientifically are amply repaid by the superior flavour of the vegetable.

TO BOIL CABBAGES. Trim off the outer leaves, cut them down in quarters, and set to soak for an hour in cold water; then put into boiling water with sufficient salt, and boil till tender. Take care to drain them well in a colander before serving, pressing with a plate to more effectually remove the water. The water in which cabbage has been boiled should never be thrown down the sink in the kitchen, as the smell is very disagreeable. It should be thrown away out of doors.

TO BOIL SEA-KALE. Let it soak some time in cold water, then put into boiling water, and boil gently till tender. Serve on toast with melted butter, in the same way as asparagus.

BRUSSELS SPROUTS. These are boiled in the same way as cabbages. The French, however, generally serve them up with a little butter, salt, and pepper, and a few table-spoonfuls of velouté sauce.

CABBAGES WITH BACON, FRENCH WAY. Boil the cabbages for a quarter of an hour, with bacon cut in small slices. Then take out the cabbages and put them into cold

water for a few minutes, press them well, and put them again into a saucepan with some gravy, and the bacon which has been boiled with them, adding salt, pepper, parsley, and chiboles, and two or three cloves. Let all this simmer together till the gravy is very much reduced in quantity; then take out the cabbage, drain it, and serve it up with the bacon at top.

CABBAGES WITH CREAM. Mash the cabbages, slice and blanch them, boil them in water with a little salt, and when they are nearly tender, take them out and dip them in cold water; after which put them into a saucepan with some cold butter, adding as much cream as will cover them, and cook gently for a quarter of an hour; then serve up.

STUFFED CABBAGES. Take two good-sized cabbages, soak them for twenty minutes in scalding water and salt, then dip them in cold water, take out a portion of the centre, and fill it with chopped veal and fat bacon seasoned with salt, pepper, and other spices, and made into a stuffing with eight yolks of eggs; then tie up the cabbages to keep in the stuffing. Put at the bottom of a saucepan some slices of bacon, carrots, onions, and sweet herbs; over which place the cabbages, moistening them from time to time with good stock. Let the whole stew over a slow fire for at least an hour and a half, after which drain the cabbages, press them a little, and serve them up, without the herbs with which they have been cooked, with espagnole, or any other such sauce. Remove the strings before serving.

TO PICKLE RED CABBAGE, see PICKLES.

CAKE. A composition of flour and other ingredients baked in an oven. Cakes when plain are by no means unwholesome; but when rich they are indigestible, if eaten in considerable quantity. With this, as with all food, however, the sensations of the individual are the best criterion. Many grown persons eat cake almost to excess, without injury to the general health. As a general rule, cake should be given to young persons in small quantities; for, although there may be no immediate symptoms shewing its unwholesomeness, the probability of indulgence in luxuries of this kind ending in permanent injury to the system is great. The habit of stuffing young children with sweet cakes is a very improper one; for the best that can be said of them is, that they may not always injure a stomach which is naturally strong; but it is certain that none but a very strong stomach will bear this

kind of food long without injury to the digestion. Cakes are, perhaps, less objectionable than the other descriptions of pastry; but parents who value the permanent health of their children will do well to keep them as much as possible from this, unless it be of the plainest kind.

ALMOND CAKE. Blanch a pound of sweet, and four ounces of bitter almonds, pound them in a mortar with some rose water, until they become a paste, and add a pound of pounded loaf sugar, and a little brandy. Then whisk separately the yolks of thirty and the whites of twenty eggs, add the yolks to the almonds and sugar, stir in the whites, and mix all well together. Butter a tin pan, and pour the cake into it; strew the top with finely powdered sugar, and bake in a quick oven for about an hour.

ALMOND CAKE. Put a quarter of flour upon a pie board, and make a hole in the middle to receive a piece of butter the size of an egg, a little salt, a quarter of a pound of fine sugar, and half a pound of sweet almonds pounded very fine. Knead the whole, and form it into a cake. When baked, cover it with sugar, and glaze with a salamander.

SMALL ALMOND CAKES. Pound half a pound of blanched almonds, and two or three bitter almonds, adding white of egg to prevent their turning to oil; then add a pound of sugar, a little orange flower water, and a few spoonfuls of cream. Make a flour paste in the usual way, of the thickness of a crown piece, which is to be cut into rounds or squares, and covered with the preparation of almonds. Bake in tins in a hot oven, and dredge with sugar.

BANBURY CAKES. Having made some puff paste, strew some well cleaned currants over it, and roll it out to a moderate thickness. Cut it into round cakes, and bake upon floured tins. When taken out of the oven, strew finely powdered sugar over them, and set them by to cool.

BORDEAUX CAKES. Make a paste with white of egg well beaten, and powdered lump sugar, to a consistency proper to cut into shapes. Flavour with oil of cinnamon, and bake in tins in a slow oven.

BREAKFAST CAKES. Mix a pound and a half of flour with three quarters of a pound of butter, previously melted, a little good milk or cream, and a tea-spoonful of salt; mix it well, and roll it into round balls; bake in a hot oven on floured tins.

BRIOCHE. Take a quarter of fine flour, knead a third of it with some yeast

and a little lukewarm water. The paste, which should be very soft, must be left to rise for half an hour in winter, but not at all in summer. Then knead the remainder of the flour with a little salt, six eggs, half a pound of butter, and some lukewarm water; when this has been well kneaded, spread it out, and place what is risen upon it, kneading the whole well together; put it in a clean cloth, and leave it for about eight hours. At the expiration of this time, divide it into pieces of the proper size, form into cakes, touch them over with yolk of egg, and bake in a moderate oven.

CARAWAY CAKES. Mix a pound of pounded loaf sugar with two pounds of flour, half a pound of butter, and a small handful of caraway seeds; make them into a paste with five eggs well beaten, a little orange water, and a small glass of ratafia; roll it to the thickness of a crown, cut them into shapes, and bake on floured tins in a quick oven.

A COMMON CAKE. Beat a pound and a half of butter to a cream, and mix it with three quarters of dough; add a pound of good brown sugar, the same quantity of well cleaned currants, a little nutmeg, and, if liked, a few caraway seeds; beat all well together, and bake in a buttered tin for an hour.

CREAM CAKE. Put a sufficient quantity of flour on a pasteboard; make a hole in the middle, in which put half a pint of clotted or very thick cream, and a little salt. When it has been kneaded lightly, let it stand for about twenty minutes, and add half a pound of butter; roll it out in the manner of puff paste, and make it into small cakes. Touch them over with yolk of egg, and bake in an oven.

CROQUANTS. Knead well together a quarter of flour, a quarter of a pound of butter, the whites of two eggs, a glass of orange flower water, and a tea-spoonful of salt, into a firm paste; beat it very thin, and put it upon patty pans. Bake them in a cool oven for twenty minutes, and when cold lift them and fill the patty pans with any preserve.

RICH CURRANT CAKE. To four pounds of well dried flour, add the same weight of fresh butter, well washed in rose or orange flower water, five pounds of currants well cleaned and dried, two nutmegs grated, a pound of candied lemon and citron cut small, half a pound of blanched almonds, pounded in rose water, and the yolks and whites of thirty eggs, beaten separately; beat the butter with the hand

until it becomes a cream, then add the sugar and the eggs gradually, then the rest of the ingredients, adding, last of all, a wine glass of brandy and a little ratafia; beat the whole well together for an hour, and put it into a buttered cake pan, lined with buttered paper; bake in a moderate oven for about four hours, and when done, cool gradually.

DARIOLES. Mix a quarter of flour with half a pound of butter, a little salt, and two glasses of water; knead the whole together into a firm paste, and roll it to the thickness of half a finger; cut it into bits about the size of a small patty pan, which form into moulds, with an edge about half an inch high; when they have been baked for about a quarter of an hour in a moderate oven, pour into each some cream which has been mixed with a little flour, some powdered sugar, and a very little salt; when done, strew sugar over them.

DUTCH CAKE. Make a thick paste of the yolks of a dozen eggs well beaten, half a pint of good cream, sugar to the palate; roll this paste out rather thin, and cut it into shapes, and fry in boiling lard.

ECONOMICAL CAKE. Take as much sugar as will weigh six eggs, and half the weight of flour; beat the eggs well, add the sugar gradually, and lastly the flour, with a little lemon peel grated, a little ratafia, and a few caraway seeds; bake in a tin mould in a quick oven.

FAMILY PLUM CAKE. Take half a quarter of roll dough, procured from the bakers, spread it with the hands on a pie board, cover it with half a pound of butter dotted about, strew over it half a pound of moist sugar, half a pound of currants, well washed and dried, two ounces of caraway seeds, a few cloves, a little mace, and half a nutmeg, well pounded; roll the whole together, and put into a pan; then beat three eggs in a cup of lukewarm milk, and pour to the other ingredients, beating the whole together with the hand for three quarters of an hour; put it into a buttered pan, and bake in a moderate oven for an hour; when done, turn it out. It should not be cut for three or four hours after.

FEUILLANTINES. Having made a puff paste, roll it out to the thickness of half a crown; put it in a tart pan with some cream over it; cover it with a light crust, and bake.

FROST OR ICING FOR CAKES, &c. To a pound and a half of sugar finely pounded

and sifted, add the whites of eight eggs well beaten, and added to the sugar very gradually; mix with it the juice of a small lemon. When it has been beaten very light and white, place the cake before the fire, pour the icing over it, and smooth over the top and sides with the back of a spoon.

GAUFFRES. To two pounds of fresh butter, add the same weight of dry flour and twelve eggs, well beaten. First mix the eggs and butter in a basin, with a little salt, then shake the flour in gradually, and add two spoonfuls of good yeast; then mix with the above a quart of good cream, stir it well together with a wooden spoon, and set it by for an hour or two. The first time you use the gauffre iron, grease it with a bit of fat bacon. When served, strew them over the top with sugar.

GAUFFRE AUX PISTACHES. Follow the directions given for German gauffres, substituting pistachio nuts for part of the almonds.

GERMAN CAKE. Mix well together a pound and a half of finely powdered loaf sugar, two pounds of well dried flour, and a few caraway seeds; make it into a stiff paste, with the whites of three eggs beaten in a little milk; roll it out very thin, cut into shapes, prick, and bake upon buttered tins.

GERMAN GAUFFRES. Blanch a pound of sweet almonds, and cut them into small thin chips, put them into a vessel with three quarters of a pound of powdered sugar, and a small quantity of candied orange flowers; mix these ingredients well up with whites of eggs, beaten with a little good cream, and bake them in shapes. Serve hot, with sugar strewed over them.

GIRDLE CAKE. Rub six ounces of sugar into two pounds of flour; add a little salt, make it into a paste with some good milk or buttermilk; roll it out, cut into shapes, and bake upon a girdle.

HONEY CAKES. To two pounds and a half of dried flour add a pound of honey, three quarters of a pound of pounded loaf sugar, half a pound of citron, and the same quantity of orange peel, cut into thin strips, and an ounce together of ginger and cinnamon, pounded; melt the sugar with the honey, and mix in the other ingredients; roll out the paste, cut into forms, and bake on floured tins.

ICED CAKE. Take two pounds of flour well dried, a pound and a half of fresh butter, two pounds of pounded lump sugar, ten eggs well beaten, half a pint of good

milk or cream, half a pound together of candied citron and lemon peel cut into thin strips, a nutmeg grated, a wine glass of ratafia, and the same quantity of orange flower water; beat the butter to a cream with a wooden spoon, and add the other ingredients, and when well mixed, two table-spoonfuls of good yeast. Let it rise before the fire for half an hour. Bake it in a buttered tin for three quarters of an hour. Immediately on taking it out of the oven, brush over the top with white of egg, and cover over thick with powdered sugar; glaze with a salamander.

ITALIAN GAUFFRES. Beat well together eight eggs, a pound of loaf sugar finely pounded, six ounces of cream, as much milk, a little orange flowers, and the rind of lemon grated; mix the whole well together, taking care that the batter is not lumpy; bake in gauffre irons, as for ordinary gauffres.

KENTISH CAKES. Rub four ounces of butter into three quarters of a pound of flour; add some caraway seeds, and half a pound of loaf sugar finely pounded; mix these into a stiff paste with a little water, roll out to the thickness of a crown piece, cut them out with a glass or into squares, prick them, and bake on floured tins.

CAKE EN LOSANGE. Having made a puff paste, roll it out to the thickness of half a finger, cut it into lozenges the width of two fingers, and glaze them over with the yolk of an egg; bake for a quarter of an hour, and glaze with sugar and a salamander.

LANCASHIRE CAKE. Beat well the yolks of twelve and the whites of seven eggs for half an hour, add a pound of pounded loaf sugar, half a pound of flour, and the peel of a lemon grated; beat all well together, and bake in a floured tin.

MERINGUES. Whisk to a froth the whites of twelve eggs, and when well raised, add some powdered sugar and grated lemon-peel. Continue whisking lightly to mix those ingredients, but without melting the sugar; put the meringues in little portions about the size of half an egg upon a sheet of white paper, and place them under a cover that will contain hot ashes on the top; when they are done on the outside, and of a good colour, remove them from the paper, take out the part of the inside which is not done, and supply its place with sweetmeat; join the two sides of them well together again, and serve as dry as possible.

NAVARRE CAKES. Rub two pounds

of butter into three pounds of flour, add a pound and a half of Brazil sugar, and mix the whole well together with eight eggs well beaten; divide the paste into small portions rather larger than a walnut, and bake upon floured tins.

ORANGE FLOWER CAKE. Form a mould of writing paper, folded and plaited round in the form of a dripping pan, the edge being made about the depth of two inches. For a large cake, put two pounds of loaf sugar into a stewpan with two large glasses of water, and boil to a strong syrup, as for marmalade; then put in half a pound of orange flower leaves, and boil them till the sugar begins to crystallize, turning quickly all the time with a wooden spoon. Have ready a little fine sugar beat up with white of egg; put this into the sugar, stir it well together, and pour the cake into the paper mould, holding the bottom of the stewpan over the cake while it is hot, to prevent its sinking.

PISTACHIO CAKE. Pound about two dozen pistachio nuts, and as many sweet almonds blanched, adding from time to time a little white of egg, to prevent the almond from turning to oil; when they have been well bruised, take them from the mortar; then mix a small quantity of flour in a little cream, but not made too thick; to this add the nuts as above, with three large table-spoonfuls of sugar pounded; add four eggs well beaten, and a quarter of a pound of butter, previously melted; mix well together, and bake in a mould; turn out while hot on a plate, and cover with powdered sugar.

CAKE DE PLOMB. To a quart of flour add an ounce of salt, two ounces of sugar, a pound and a half of butter, and twelve eggs; mix the whole well together. If it is too firm, add a little milk; let it stand half an hour, and then add half a pound more butter. Place the cake in a mould, and bake it in a slow oven.

PLUM CAKE. When a pound of fresh butter has been well washed in water, to which has been added a little rose water, beat it on a marble slab until all the water is out of it, then put it into a large bowl, and prepare the following ingredients:—Three quarters of a pound of lump sugar beaten fine, three quarters of a pound of currants well washed and dried, a quarter of a pound of almonds blanched and cut into small bits, two ounces of preserved citron or lemon peel, a nutmeg, and the rind of one lemon grated. Then take the yolks of six eggs, and the whites of three,

to be separately beaten; this done, beat the butter with the hand until it becomes quite a cream, adding by degrees the eggs, and then the dry ingredients, which must have been previously well mixed, and lastly a glass of brandy. Beat the whole well together for an hour; then line a hoop sides and bottom with buttered paper, and bake in a moderate oven for an hour and a half. This cake should not be cut till the following day.

PORTUGUESE CAKE. Peel and bruise half a pound of sweet almonds, and mix with them the juice of three oranges, and the pulp well chopped; put this into a dish, and add two ounces of fecula or flour, the yolks of six eggs well beaten, and half a pound of powdered sugar; then add the whites of the eggs which have been beaten separately; mix the whole well together, and put it into a tin well buttered, and bake in a slow oven; cover it with powdered sugar, and glaze with a salamander.

POTATO CAKE. Mix a pound of potato fecula well dried with a pound of pounded loaf sugar; then beat separately the yolks of fifteen and the whites of twelve eggs; mix the whole together, and whisk all till quite light; heat a tin shape, butter it, pour in the cake, and bake in a moderate oven for nearly an hour.

POUPELIN. Put a pint of water into a stewpan, with a little salt and a piece of butter the size of an egg; when it has boiled, take it off the fire, and put in a quarter of flour; replace it on the fire, and stir it till the paste thickens and begins to adhere to the vessel; then put it into another stewpan, and stir in as many eggs, one at a time, as will make the paste become soft, but without being liquid; butter the inside of a cake pan, put in the paste, and bake for two hours and a half; when done, cut through the middle, remove any of the paste which is not done, rub over the inside with butter, powder sugar over it, and glaze with a salamander.

QUEEN CAKES. Wash a pound of butter in a little orange flower water, beat it to a cream with a large wooden spoon, a pound of finely pounded loaf sugar, a pound of well dried flour, three quarters of a pound of currants, eight eggs well beaten, a little grated nutmeg, and two ounces of bitter almonds pounded; add the sugar to the butter, put in the eggs by degrees, and then the flour and the other ingredients, adding last of all half a wineglass full of brandy; beat the whole

well together for an hour, and bake it in small buttered tins in a brisk oven.

RASPBERRY CAKE. Take half a pound of dry raspberries, and a pound and a quarter of sugar; when the sugar has been sufficiently boiled and scummed, throw in the raspberries, adding the white of an egg beaten with a little cream; mix the whole well together, and having given the whole a boil up, turn it out into moulds.

RICE CAKE. Whisk separately for an hour the yolks of eight and the whites of six eggs; add to them half a pound of rice flour, three quarters of a pound of finely pounded loaf sugar, and the peel of a lemon grated; beat a pound of butter into cream, and mix the above ingredients well with it; bake in a buttered tin in a moderate oven.

RICE CAKE. Wash some rice well, and having split it in boiling water, add some sugar, scraped lemon peel, and milk, and cook them together till very thick; mix the yolks of four eggs with the rice; turn the rice out into a large dish with a buttered paper at the bottom of it, cover it with the yolk of an egg, and put it into a quick oven.

RICH CAKE. Beat separately the yolks and whites of eighteen eggs, to which add a pound and a half of pounded loaf sugar, a pound and a quarter of flour; beat all these well together for some time, and put it into a well buttered tin, and bake in a moderate oven.

ROCK CURRANT CAKES. Clean and dry a pound of currants, and add the same quantity of flour, well dried, half a pound of beaten sugar, half a pound of butter, the yolks of eight, and the whites of six eggs, well beaten separately, and a little nutmeg and cinnamon; mix the whole well together, the butter having been first beaten to a cream; drop the paste in small quantities on buttered paper, and bake on tins in a quick oven.

Another way. Mix a quart of thick cream with about twelve table-spoonfuls of flour, the yolks of eight eggs, well beaten, six table-spoonfuls of finely pounded loaf sugar, a little rose water, and half a glass of brandy or ratafia; beat all well together; heat the wafer irons, put into them a table-spoonful of the batter, and turn the irons that it may bake equally. While hot, roll them round a stick.

CAKE, SOUFFLE A LA ROSE. For a pound of sugar take a handful of picked rose leaves, cook the sugar to a strong syrup, then throw in the rose leaves, then

let the sugar again boil up; beat up the white of an egg and mix with the sugar, stirring well the whole time; when the sugar begins to rise a second time, take it off and turn it out into moulds. A little carmine may be added in beating up the egg to heighten the colour.

ROUT CAKES. Rub into two pounds of flour a pound of fresh butter, washed in orange-flower water; then add half a pound of well beaten loaf sugar, the same weight of candied orange and lemon peel cut into strips, and a quarter of a pound of well dried currants; mix all these ingredients well together with five eggs, well beaten, and half a glass of brandy or ratafia, or a little of both; drop this paste in small rough knobs upon floured tins, and bake in a quick oven; they will require but a very short time to bake, as they must not be high coloured.

CAKE A LA ROYALE. Put a piece of butter, about the size of a walnut, into a stewpan with five or six spoonfuls of flour, two ounces of sugar, a little lemon peel shred very fine, a little salt, and a wine glass full of water; stir it over the fire till it becomes thick, and begins to adhere to the vessel; then take it off the fire, and stir into it an egg, adding more eggs by degrees until the paste softens, but without becoming liquid; then put into it two or three bitter almond biscuits, and some dried orange flowers cut fine; cut the paste into little cakes about the size of a dollar, place them upon buttered paper, touch them over with yolk of egg, and bake for half an hour in an oven not too hot.

SAVOY CAKE. Take as much fine sugar as will weigh against twelve whole eggs, and as much fine flour as will weigh six eggs; then break the eggs, keeping the whites and yolks separate; add the yolks to the sugar with a little rasped lemon-peel, and beat them up well together; whip the whites of the eggs, add them to the flour, and then gradually mix the whole together, stirring well with the whisk as you mix; when the operation of mixing has been thoroughly performed, have ready a cake shape, butter it well, put in the ingredients, and bake it in a moderately hot oven for an hour and a half; when done, turn it out gently on a dish. It should be of a fine gold colour, but if it is too dark, mix some white sugar, the white of an egg, and the juice of half a lemon, and beat well together with a wooden spoon till it is very white; cover the cake with this glaze; let it be thoroughly cold before serving.

SCOTCH CAKE. Prepare the following ingredients:—Four pounds of well dried flour, two pounds of good butter, half a pound of candied citron and lemon peel, the same quantity of pounded loaf sugar, a quarter of a pound of sweet and half the quantity of bitter almonds blanched, and half a pound of caraway comfits; cut the citron and lemon peel into thin strips, the almonds into small chips, and mix them with little more than half of the flour, part of the comfits, and the sugar; melt the butter, and when nearly cool pour it into the flour, mixing it briskly all the time; then form it with the hands into a large round, about an inch thick, using the remainder of the flour to make it up with; cut it into four, pinching each part round the edge with the finger and thumb; prick and strew the remainder of the seeds over them; bake on paper or floured tins in a moderate oven.

SEED CAKE. To three pounds of well dried flour add the same quantity of fresh butter, washed in water, to which a little orange flower has been added, and the same weight of finely powdered sugar, twelve ounces of sweet almonds, blanched and cut into small chips, a pound of candied orange and lemon peel, and three quarters of a pound of citron in thin slips, two nutmegs grated, a few caraway seeds, the yolks of twenty-four and the whites of twenty eggs beaten separately; first beat the butter to a cream with the hand, then add the sugar and the eggs gradually; next the flour a little at a time, then the other ingredients, finishing with a large wine-glassful of brandy; butter the tin well, and pour in the cake, covering the top with caraway comfits; bake it in a moderate oven.

SERAGLIO CAKE. Boil together for a moment, in a little water, a small quantity of sugar, a quarter of a pound of butter, a little grated lemon peel, a little salt, and as much flour as will make a firm paste; shake the saucepan well over the fire, until the paste separates from the sides of it; then remove it, and while it is yet warm, add an egg well beaten, and mixed with the paste until it adheres to the finger; then remove it entirely from the fire, and add as many more eggs, one by one, as the paste will absorb, with macaroons broken fine, orange flowers cut fine, some grated lemon; form the cakes into whatever shape is desired, and bake.

SHREWSBURY CAKES. Beat to a cream a pound of fresh butter; add the same quantity of well dried flour, a pound of

sugar pounded and rolled with a bottle, an ounce and a half of caraway seeds, and six eggs well beaten in a little orange flower water; add, last of all, half a glass of ratafia, and mix the whole well together; make it into a paste, roll to the thickness of a dollar, cut into shapes, and bake on floured tins.

SPONGE CAKE. Beat well together for an hour with the hand the following ingredients:—Two pounds of well dried flour, a pound of finely powdered loaf sugar, the yolks of twelve and the whites of ten eggs beaten separately, the juice of two lemons, and the grated peel of one, half a glass of orange flower water, the same quantity of brandy, and half the quantity of ratafia; then butter a tin, line it with buttered paper, put in the cake, and cover over the top with sifted white sugar, and bake it for an hour.

SUSSEX CAKES. To two pounds of well dried flour, mix three quarters of a pound of pounded loaf sugar, four ounces of sweet and one ounce of bitter almonds pounded in a little orange flower water, and a pound of fresh butter beaten to a cream; mix these well together, bake in small tins, well floured, or drop on floured tins.

SWEET CAKES. To a pound and a half of well dried flour, add the same quantity of fresh butter, washed in orange flower water, and half a pound of pounded and sifted loaf sugar; mix the flour and sugar together, rub in the butter, and add the yolks of three eggs beaten with a little cream; make it into a stiff paste, roll to the thickness of a crown piece, cut into shapes, and bake on a floured tin.

TEA CAKES. Take a pound of flour, half a pound of butter, nine ounces of pounded loaf sugar, the peel of a lemon grated, a few caraway seeds, the yolks and whites of three eggs beaten separately; mix these together into a stiff paste, roll it out, and cut it with a glass, and bake upon tins.

ROYAL TEA CAKES. Mix well together a pound of dry flour, a pound of powdered sugar, a quarter of a pound of fresh butter, the peel of a lemon grated; beat four eggs with a little orange flower water, and a small glass of ratafia; and form those ingredients into a paste, which roll out to a proper thickness, cut into shapes, and bake upon floured tins.

TIPPERARY SEED CAKE. Wash a pound of butter in a little orange-flower water, and beat it to a cream; then mix into it by degrees a pound and a half of

pounded loaf sugar and sixteen eggs well beaten; add a pound of well dried flour, half a pound of sweet almonds, blanched and pounded in a little rose water, two ounces of caraway seed; beat the whole well together for half an hour, pour it into a buttered tin lined with buttered paper, and bake in a quick oven for two hours.

VICTORIA CAKE. For this cake, which requires much care to make well, the following ingredients are necessary:—Six pounds of flour well dried, five pounds of fresh butter, two pounds of well beaten lump sugar, a pound and a half of candied citron and lemon peel cut in thin strips, a pound of sweet almonds blanched, cut into small chips, and steeped in brandy or rose water, seven pounds of currants well dried and cleaned, two nutmegs grated, a little pounded mace, the yolks of twenty-four and the whites of twelve eggs well beaten separately, a pint of good fresh yeast, three pints of cream, and a large wine glass of orange flower water; first mix the spice with the flour, melt the butter and cream together, and when cold add it gradually to the flour, stirring it all the time; add the yeast to the eggs, and strain them into the flour, and then add the other ingredients, and beat the whole well together for half an hour; line a well buttered cake pan with paper, also well buttered; pour in the cake, and bake in a moderate oven. A cake of this size will require from three to four hours to bake.

RICH WINE CAKES. Mix well together a pound of well dried flour, a pound of powdered loaf sugar, and a pound of butter previously melted; to these add half a pound of well cleaned currants, and a glass of ratafia; roll out the paste to twice the thickness of a dollar, cut into fancy shapes, and bake upon floured tin.

WAFERS. To half a pound of powdered lump sugar add the same quantity of flour, and half a pound of fresh butter, a little grated lemon peel, and some orange flower water; pound the whole in a mortar to the consistence of paste, roll it out very thin, and cut into form; put them on an iron baking plate with a braising pan over them; serve hot, with sugar strewed over them.

CAMBRIDGE DRINK. This is merely a mixture of equal quantities of good home brewed ale and soda water; it is highly refreshing, and of very agreeable flavour.

CAMPHOR. A fine aromatic gum, the powder of which is very useful for putting into furs and other articles to keep away insects. This powder is made by putting a few drops of spirits of wine, according to the quantity of camphor upon this article, when it will fall to pieces, and may be rubbed in a mortar into a fine powder. Dissolved in spirits of wine, camphor is a remedy for flatulency and colic, and it has even been used, taking a few drops at a time, in water, and very frequently with excellent results, in cholera. If soap, cut into shavings, be mixed with strongly camphorated spirits of wine (say one drachm of camphor to one ounce of spirit), and dissolved by heat, either placing the bottle in hot water, or holding it for some time before the fire, it forms an excellent liniment for sprains and rheumatism. Mr. Hutchins, the celebrated dentist, recommends the cleaning of teeth by camphor in the following way:—Pour into a glass of cold water a large tea-spoonful of camphorated spirit; the camphor will rise to the surface like a cream; take this on the brush, and clean the teeth with it; the teeth and gums are thus kept in order, and caries is checked.

CAPERS. To preserve capers, put them as they are gathered into a jar with strong vinegar and salt, and repeat this daily until all are gathered, taking care to have two inches of vinegar over the capers, then tie over the jar with skin; if the capers be put into a cool place, and a little fresh strong vinegar be added from time to time, the capers will remain good for four or five years.

CAPILLAIRE. An agreeable syrup used as a beverage, with cold water, or to flavour punch or other mixtures. Boil five pounds of lump sugar with three pints of water, and one ounce of capillaire, (the herb called Maiden-hair, from Canada;) skim this frequently, and continue the boiling until the syrup becomes thick; then filter through a jelly bag, add five drops of neroli, and when cold put into bottles.

CAPON. The instructions given under the head of FOWL will apply generally to capon; the following additional receipts are from the "Cuisinier de la Cour":—

CAPON ROASTED. Having properly cleaned and trussed, cover it with slices of fat bacon and writing paper, and roast before a clear fire; baste first with a little butter, and afterwards with its own gravy;

when done, serve with the gravy. It is usually sent to table surrounded in the dish by watercresses which have been for some time previously seasoned with salt and vinegar. When stuffed with truffles, the truffles are to be first fried in butter, with salt, pepper, and nutmeg.

CAPON WITH RICE. Having drawn and trussed it, cover it with slices of bacon, and put it into a stewpan with half a pound of rice, well washed, an onion stuck with cloves, a bay leaf, a bunch of sweet herbs, and some good gravy or stock; let it cook gently over a slow fire; serve it on a dish with the rice round the capon.

CAPON AU GROS SEL. Having singed and trussed the capon, stew it gently in some good stock, with some turnips and carrots, a little parsley, a small bit of garlic, some pepper, and nutmeg; when the capon is well done, take it off and keep it hot by the fire; then take the liquid in which it was stewed and reduce it over the fire to a very small quantity; pour this when done over the capon, and serve. This is called capon au gros sel, as when eaten the coarse bay salt is served with it.

CARAWAY. The seeds of the caraway plant are much used in biscuit making, and also to flavour particular dishes. They are finely aromatic and warm, without being too exciting to the stomach. Hard biscuits with a few caraway seeds in them are recommended by some medical men to dyspeptic patients. A warm and pleasant cordial may be made with these seeds by steeping about an ounce of them in a pint of brandy for a fortnight, and then adding a pint of strong syrup. To grow the plant, choose a moist soil, and sow the seed in the autumn, soon after it is ripe. The plants are to be thinned out in the spring.

CARBANZA. A large kind of pea, grown extensively in South America, Spain, and other warm countries. In Spain it is cooked with meat, both in the green and dried state, and is also prepared as a distinct dish in various ways. It is exceedingly nutritive, and of agreeable flavour. Any of the receipts for cooking peas may be adopted for Carbanzes.

CARDOON. The seed of this plant should be sown in May, in a bed four feet wide and two feet and a half in height, and should be very frequently watered; as the seed will sometimes fail, two or three should be put together, and when they come up, the strongest plant should

be kept. In September they should be tied, in fine weather, with three or four bands of straw for blanching, leaving the top free, forming a hillock of mould round the stem. The straw bands are to be left on for at least three weeks, taking care to water the heart of the plant frequently. The bands are then taken off, and the plant is cut for use. From the plant which has been raised on the bed others may be set in the open ground in the month of March. To do this, make holes a foot wide and a foot deep, at a distance of three feet from each other; fill them with rich dung, having on the top a few inches of mould; set a plant in each hole; when planted, water, and cover them over with a garden pot; after this, water them from time to time, and give them a hoe at the foot. These plants will be generally fit to bind in June or July. Cardoons which are to be eaten in autumn are to be sown the middle of April. They should be watered every evening. Towards the month of October, the strongest are to be tied up. At the approach of the frost, they are to be sheltered from the wind by mats, or any other means.

CARPETS, TO CLEAN. Having had them carefully beaten, lay them down and rub them over with a brush dipped in ox-gall and a little water, (see **OX-GALL**.) When this is done, use plenty of cold water, still brushing, and remove the water with a large sponge; then rub as dry as possible with clean coarse cloths. If there be stains which this process of cleaning does not remove, try the effect of the prepared soap (see **SOAP**), or any of the modes prescribed under the head of **STAINS**. The carpets must dry gradually.

CARROTS. This is one of the most useful roots for the kitchen; it does not appear to have any strong medicinal property, or any quality which renders it unwholesome. As it contains a good deal of saccharine matter, it is considered nutritive, and is given to cows and horses with great advantage. They thrive very well on it, and appear to relish it more than any other root. It is a popular notion among English grooms that the skin of a horse fed for some time upon carrots and only a small portion of corn, becomes supple, and his coat fine. It is not improbable that this notion is well founded, for any food that has a tendency to nourish without fatiguing the digestion, must necessarily, by improving the skin, have an effect upon the coat. It is not in England

alone that carrots are used occasionally as food for horses. In some parts of Germany and Holland, where horses are fed chiefly on a bread made purposely for them, carrots dried and reduced to powder form one of the ingredients. Carrots thrive well in a light sandy soil, and it is said that pigeon's dung mixed with the ground prevents the attack of insects. The ground for carrots should be dug very deep, and well manured. When sowing carrot seed, the best way is to mix the seed with some earth, as by that means it can be sown more regularly. When the seed has been sown, the bed should be trodden well down, as from the lightness of the seed it would not otherwise be properly covered with the mould. It is desirable, where convenient, to sow carrots for two or three years successively in the same bed. When the plants have attained a growth of four or five inches, thin them out, leaving the strongest at about four inches asunder. Where parts of the bed are thin, the best of the plants pulled up may be transplanted to supply the vacancies, but this can only be done when the ground has been well watered. After a good shower of rain is the best time to thin out the carrot bed, as otherwise the plants are apt to break off. The sowing takes place in April, and where a succession is required, another sowing should be made in about a month afterwards. Carrots may be well preserved for winter use by taking them up when full grown, which may be known by the withering of the tops. Let them lie for a day or two on the ground, after digging them up, to dry, and then place them in boxes, in layers, placing dry sand or very dry earth between each layer. Carrots are used in almost all kinds of soup, and stews, and, indeed, in every dish of which any vegetables form part; but they are also dressed to use separately. In the general way, they are boiled in water, and served plain; but on the Continent they are dished up in a variety of ways, and form very agreeable dishes.

PUREE OF CARROTS, is used to give their flavour to soup, if desired, and is made by boiling them in water till very tender, and then squeezing them through a sieve. The puree of other vegetables is made in the same way, and is of use where the flavour of any particular sort is required without the substance.

RAGOUT OF CARROTS. Boil some carrots which have been neatly cut round, and in pieces of two inches long, in

water, for twenty minutes, then take them out, and having drained them in a sieve, put them into a stewpan with some good gravy, a little French white wine, a bunch of sweet herbs, and a little salt and pepper. Thicken the sauce, if necessary, with a little cullis, and serve.

STEWED CARROTS. Scrape and wash the carrots, and having blanched them, cut them in slices. Make a sauce with a slice of butter, some salt and pepper, and some shred parsley, moisten with some milk, and thicken the sauce with the yolks of three or four eggs. Let them stew a short time, and serve with the sauce. A few slices of bacon may be added, and served with it.

CARVING. Although it is now very much the custom, in many wealthy families, for the butler to remove the dishes from the table and carve them on the sideboard, thus saving trouble to the master or mistress of the house, and time to the guests, the practice is not so general even amongst what are called the higher classes of society that general instructions for carving will be uninteresting to them, to say nothing of the more numerous class, who, although enabled to place good dishes before their friends, are not wealthy enough to keep a butler if they were so inclined. Good carving is, to a certain extent, indicative of good society, for it proves to company that the host does not give a dinner party for the first time, but is accustomed to receive friends, and frequently to dispense the cheer of a hospitable board. The master or mistress of a house who does not know how to carve, is not unfrequently looked upon as an ignorant *parvenu*, as a person who cannot take a hand at whist, in good society, is regarded as one who has passed his time in the parlour of a public house, playing at cribbage, or all fours. Independently, however, of the importance of knowing how to carve well, for the purpose of regaling one's friends and acquaintances, the science, and it is a science, is a valuable acquirement for any man, as it enables him, at a public or private dinner, to render valuable aid. There are many diners out who are welcome merely because they know how to carve. Some men amuse by their conversation; others are favourites because they can sing a good song; but the man who makes himself useful and agreeable to all is he who carves with elegance and speed. We shall now give a few general instructions, with engravings of some joints, poultry, &c.,

recommending, at the same time, to the novice in this art, to keep a watchful eye upon every superior carver whom he may meet at dinner. In this way he will soon become well versed in the art and mystery of cutting up. Mrs. Rundell, in her "Domestic Cookery," says:—

"The carving-knife for a lady should be light, and of a middling size, and fine edge. Strength is less required than address in the manner of using it; and, to facilitate this, the cook should give orders to the butcher to divide *the joints* of the bones of all carcass-joints of mutton, lamb, and veal (such as neck, breast, and loin); which may be easily cut into thin slices attached to the adjoining bones. If the whole of the meat belonging to each bone should be too thick, a small slice may be taken off between every two bones.

"The more fleshy joints (as fillet of veal, leg or saddle of mutton, and beef) are to be helped in thin slices neatly cut and smooth. Observe to let the knife pass down to the bone in the mutton and beef joints.

"The dish should not be too far off the carver, as it gives an awkward appearance, and makes the task more difficult. Attention is to be paid to help every one to a part of such articles as are considered the best.

"In helping fish, take care not to break the flakes, which in cod and very fresh salmon are large, and contribute much to the beauty of its appearance. A fish-knife, not being sharp, divides it best on this account. Help a part of the roe, milt, or liver, to each person. The heads of carp, part of those of cod and salmon, sounds of cod, and fins of turbot, are likewise esteemed niceties, and are to be attended to accordingly.

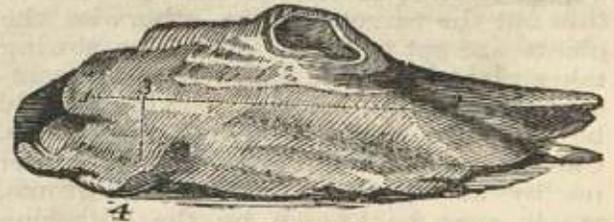
"In cutting up wild-fowl, duck, goose, or turkey, for a large party, if you cut the slices down from pinion to pinion, without making wings, there will be more prime pieces."

AITCH, OR EDGE, BONE OF BEEF. Before helping the guests, a thick slice (say an inch thick) should be removed the whole length of the meat, that part not being prime, as it has been exposed more immediately to the action of the water, and wants flavour; then help in thin slices. Serve a little of the firm, or soft part, according to the taste of the guest. Remove the skewer with which the meat is kept together before you serve it at table, and replace it, if necessary, by a silver skewer.

ROUND OF BEEF. Take off the outer part, then help in thin slices, keeping the whole surface even. The fat also should be cut thin, and a little be given with each portion of the lean. If the dish be garnished with carrots, serve some to each guest. It is customary to pour a little of the liquor in which the meat was boiled, into the dish, for, generally speaking, a good deal of gravy is required with round of beef.

SIRLOIN OF BEEF. In England this is generally carved end ways, beginning at either end. In France it is cut through the middle; and this is also done sometimes in England. The under part is the most tender, and is preferred by many persons; this should be sliced cross ways. Help a little of the fat, and inquire if any guest prefers the outside. The inside of the sirloin is sometimes made into a separate dish, by cutting it up with some of the fat, and pouring over it some gravy and shalot vinegar, with a little salt.

CALF'S HEAD. Cut slices from 1 to 2 in the figure, near the bone. At 3, the throat sweetbread, help a slice from 3 to 4; cut out the eye, and divide it in two.



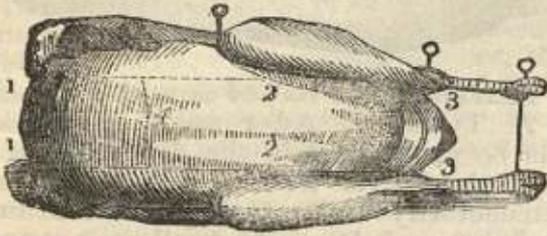
If the jaw-bone be taken off, there will be found some fine lean. Under the head is the palate. As different persons have different tastes, consult that of each before you help the guests.

DUCK. Cut some slices from the breast, and proceed as with a goose.

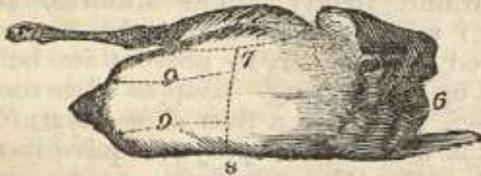
FISH. This, generally speaking, should be carved with a fish slice, and should be detached neatly from the bone. In serving a cod's head and shoulders, take the flesh from the back-bone, holding the spoon at the same time towards the middle of the fish as it lies in the dish, to receive the portion detached by the slice, and with each portion give a little of the sound, which lies under the back bone. As many persons like the gelatinous parts which lie about the head, the guest should be asked if there is any part there which he prefers; a little of the liver should be given, if it is dressed, with the cod.

A FOWL. Lay the fowl on a plate, then fix the fork in the centre of the breast, and

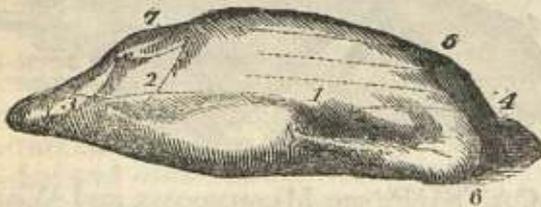
with the knife cut through the joint 1, as far as 2, and without further cutting pull of the wing. To remove the leg, insert the knife at 2, cutting downwards as far as 3, give the blade a sudden turn; turn the fowl, and proceed as before with the other limbs. Remove the merrythought at 4 by a sharp and dexterous cut,



and bending it back; next remove the neck bones 5 to 6, by putting the fork through each, and wrenching it up carefully. The breast is next to be separated from the back, by cutting through the sides of the fowl; cut the back, by following the lines 7, 8, and 9; the side bones will then be parted; as the fowl is dissected, lay the different portions on the dish.



GOOSE. After cutting a few slices off the breast, the legs should be removed, which is done by cutting in the direction 1, 2, 3; then the wings, 4 to 1; and the merrythought, 5 to 6. Then displace the apron according to the line of 7, 2, 3.

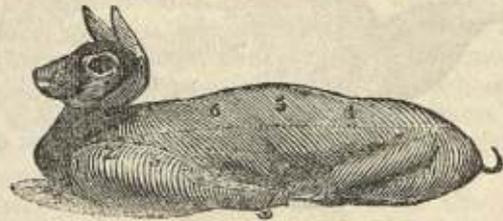


Under this is the seasoning, part of which must be served to each guest. To take off the wings, insert the fork in the small end of the pinion, and press it close to the body; then put in the knife, and divide the joint down. Beside the wings there are two side-bones, which should be taken off, as also the back and lower side-bones. The rump, when *devilled* with pepper and salt, is a favourite part with many.

HAM. The common way is to cut cross ways, beginning at the hock; but many persons cut the slices long ways.

No other direction is necessary than to cut thin.

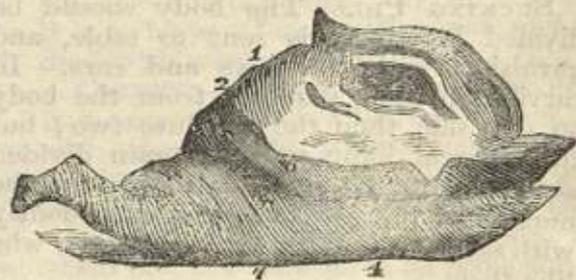
A HARE. Cut first as many slices as possible out of the back, then pass the knife under each shoulder, at 1, and cut down as far as the rump. Then remove the shoulders in the direction of 1, 2, 3, and separate the legs from the body. Cut the backbone through in three places, 4, 5, 6. The stuffing, part of which should be given to each guest, will be found inside. The back and legs are the best parts. Cut off the ears at the roots, as some persons like them much, as also the head and brains. To divide the head, insert the point of your knife at the top, and cut it through down to the nose.



FORE QUARTER OF LAMB. Separate the shoulder from the breast and ribs. If grass lamb, the shoulder being large, put it into another dish. Squeeze the juice of half a lemon on the other part, and sprinkle a little salt and pepper. Then separate the gristly part from the ribs, and help either shoulder or ribs according to the taste of the guest.

HAUNCH OF MUTTON. Follow the same directions as for a haunch of venison.

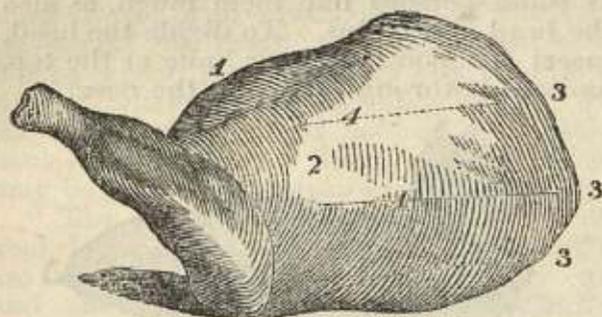
LEG OF MUTTON. Begin at 2, between the knuckle and further end, by cutting thin deep slices to 3. If the outside is not fat enough, help some from the side of the broad end in slices, from 5 to 6. As there are fine slices in the back of the leg, turn it up, and cut the broad end, but longwise. To cut out the cramp-bone, take hold of the shank with your left hand, and cut down to the thigh-bone at 4; then pass the knife under the cramp-bone, in the direction 4, 7. If the leg be a wether, which is the best, it will be known by a round lump of fat at 1.



CAR

SADDLE OF MUTTON. Slice thin from the tail to the end, beginning at the back-bone; help slices of fat from the sides.

SHOULDER OF MUTTON. The engraving represents a shoulder lying with its back uppermost. Cut first in the hollow part in the direction of 1, 2, deep to the bone. The best of the fat is on the outer edge, and is to be cut out in thin slices in the direction 3. If the hollow part cut in the line 1, 2, is eaten, some delicate slices may be cut out on each side the ridge of the blade-bone, in the direction 3, 4.



A PHEASANT. Having removed the skewers and sent the pheasant to table, fix the fork in the centre of the breast; slice it down the middle, and take off the leg and wing on one side. Do the same on the other side, and then cut off the slices of breast you divided before. Be careful in taking off the wings not to cut too near the neck, as you might hit on the neck bone, from which the wing must be separated. Cut off the merrythought, by passing the knife under it towards the neck. Cut the other parts as in a fowl. The breast, wings, and merrythought are the most esteemed; but the leg has a high flavour, and, like the leg of the fowl, is preferred in many parts of the Continent.

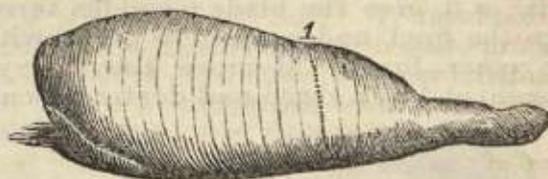
PARTRIDGES. The partridge is cut up in the same manner as a fowl. The prime parts of a partridge are the wings, breast, and merrythought; but the bird being small, the two latter are not often divided. The wing is considered as the best, and the tip of it is reckoned the most delicate.

PIGEONS. Cut them in half, either from top to bottom, or across.

SUCKING PIG. The body should be divided before it is sent to table, and garnished with the jaws and ears. In carving, divide a shoulder from the body on one side, then the ribs into two; but the different joints may be again divided according to the size of the pig or the number of the guests; serve abundantly with sauce, and an ear or jaw to those who like them.

CAU

A LEG OF PORK. Cut in the direction to 1 2, and slice from both sides alternately. If roasted, the joint must be turned over for the seasoning.



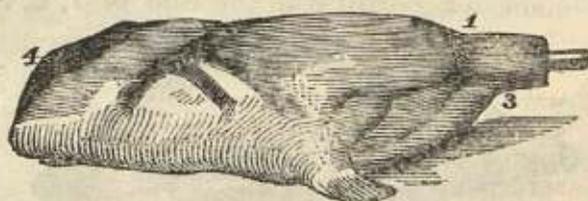
A RABBIT. Proceed as with a hare.

A TURKEY. After some experience has been obtained in the dissection of a fowl, the carver will be able to proceed satisfactorily with a turkey. If the bird be large and the party small, it is considered more delicate not to dissect the joints, but simply to cut off the flesh from the breast and other white parts. In this case what remains may be cut up and hashed, or curried for another day.

BREAST OF VEAL. Separate the ribs from the brisket, and help of either, according to the choice of the guest.

FILLET OF VEAL. In dressing this the bone should be taken out, and the meat tied round firmly. The stuffing, (see VEAL) must be put under the flap and covered with paper, to prevent its being dried up in roasting. Help as with round of beef, and give a thin slice of stuffing and fat with each supply; inquire if any guest prefers the outside.

HAUNCH OF VENISON. Cut deep in the line 1, 2, 3, to let out the gravy; then begin at 2, and cut deep to the end, 4; help in thin slices, with a little fat to each person.



CATSUP, see MUSHROOMS, and WALNUTS, and TOMATA.

CAULIFLOWER. There are three sorts of cauliflower—the tender, the hardy, and another sort between the two. The tender is the early sort, but it is not the best; the advantage of it is, that it succeeds best in dry seasons, and in strong soils, but it has a tendency to run rapidly to seed. It is sown in the end of January, and when the plants are well formed they are transplanted, and again the third time, in the month of May, under glasses, until they are quite fit to place in the open

ground. The soil should be well broken and manured. The hardy, or winter sort of cauliflower is sown in the end of August, and is transplanted twice or thrice before the next April, giving them air from time to time; when finally transplanted, they must be watered gently every second day, increasing the quantity of water in the month of May. The other sort of cauliflower is sown and treated in the same way. When planted out, they should be carefully hoed and weeded, and they will be much improved by occasionally throwing round them the sweepings of the stable.

TO BOIL CAULIFLOWER. After trimming them, put them in cold water for two hours; put them in boiling water like other vegetables, with a little salt, and boil them about twenty minutes, or more if they are large. Serve with melted butter. Some serve them as sea-kale, on toasted bread.

TO PRESERVE CAULIFLOWER. After trimming them carefully, taking off all the leaves, place them to soak in some salt and water for a few minutes, after which cut them into cross slices, put them into boiling water, and let them boil about three minutes. They are then to be taken out and drained; after which they are to be laid on a frame of wicker-work, or clean matting, and exposed to the sun for two days. They are then to be put into a very slow oven, and gradually dried; but as the heat of the oven will not be sufficient for one baking, the drying must be repeated two or three times, for if they were to be placed in any other than a very slack oven the effect would not be produced. When they are thoroughly dry, they must be put by in paper bags for use. The cauliflower, thus preserved, can be cooked either in the usual way of boiling or with milk, but it is more frequently served up with a rich gravy. The French fry and dress cauliflowers in various ways, but this is a vegetable which does not improve in flavour by any cooking out of the plain way.

CAVIAR. The prepared roe of the sturgeon, (see **STURGEON.**) Caviar is made in Russia by rubbing the roe through a sieve and salting it. It is then dried and sprinkled with fish-oil, and compressed for exportation.

CELERY. This plant imparts a very agreeable flavour in cookery, and is also very good in salad, but it does not yield much nutrition. It is said to have some medicinal properties, as a sedative. There

are seven varieties of celery, but only three are used,—viz., one with hollow, the other with solid stalks, and one with large red stalks; the best is the long celery, but it does not stand the winter so well as the shorter kind. Celery should be sown at different periods, so as to be able to transplant the plants in various seasons. In England, the first sowing should not take place before the end of March or the beginning of April, and the second early in May; but in France, the first sowing generally takes place in the beginning of January. The plants of the first sowing will be ready for putting into nursery beds in about a month. The seeds are sown in the first instance in a warm bed, with about six inches of mould, and under glasses, giving them air from time to time. When the plants are removed, they must be put into beds of rich earth, at a distance of about four inches from each other, being well watered and shaded from the sun for the first few days. The same plan is to be adopted with the successive sowings. Most of the plants are ready for putting into trenches and blanching in about five or six weeks from the transplanting. If the ground should be dry, they should be watered. They are planted in trenches a foot and a half deep, the bottom covered to the depth of six or eight inches with good rotten dung. Plant them at about four inches asunder. To blanch them it is only necessary every four or five days to draw the earth up close about the plants, and this must be continued as long as the plants continue growing, merely leaving the upper part of the heart and leaves uncovered. The sowings should continue at intervals of about three weeks, so as to keep up a regular succession during the winter. Celery is not considered at perfection until there have been some sharp frosty mornings.

FRIED CELERY. Blanch the celery in some rather strongly salted water, and let it cook gently in a little consommé, or strong stock. Take out the celery, draw it, and dip it into batter; then fry in some boiling dripping. When it is done, it is to be powdered with sugar, and candied with a salamander.

CELERY FRITTERS. Cook the celery in a saucepan with a little fat bacon, salt, and sweet herbs, moistening with rich stock, and covering the whole with a few slices of bacon and some oiled paper. When they are thoroughly done, take them out and soak them for some time in

brandy and sugar, then dip them into thick batter, and fry, covering them with sugar, and candying as above.

CELERY IN IMITATION OF PRESERVED GINGER. Cut the blanched part of the celery in pieces, and boil it in water with a large quantity of ginger until it is quite tender, then throw it into cold water and allow it to remain an hour. At the end of this time put it over a slow fire in good syrup, with some pieces of ginger, and let it remain simmering for an hour. Cool it again, and in the mean time thicken the syrup by further evaporation. Put the celery in again, and repeat the same process. After a third simmering in this way, taking care to keep the syrup thick, put the celery into pots, and cover with a syrup. The stalks of lettuce, taking off the outside, prepared in the same way, make a very agreeable article of dessert.

CELERY SALAD. The celery is to be cut up in small pieces and mixed in the usual way of other salads, but with the addition of a considerable quantity of mustard. It is either eaten alone or with a little beet-root.

STEWED CELERY. Having trimmed the celery, leaving only the tender leaves, and washed it, put it into a saucepan with boiling water to blanch, and when it has become sufficiently tender to yield to the pressure of the finger, take it out, and throw it into cold water; then mash it up with a knife in the same way as chicory or endive. Put it into a saucepan with a bit of butter, a little salt, whole pepper, and a small quantity of nutmeg. Pour upon it about half a pint of mixed stock and velouté sauce; or, for want of these, water mixed with some good gravy, and let it reduce until it has become thick. It is then to be served in a dish garnished with slices of bread fried in butter.

CELLAR. Persons who are desirous of preserving, and even improving, the quality of wine and beer, must be very careful in the mode of constructing this important appendage of a dwelling. Count Chaptal, in his admirable treatise on the art of preserving wines, gives the following directions:—The cellar should be situated to the north, as the temperature is much less variable than in any other position. It should be deep, and the temperature kept as equable as possible. It should be slightly damp, but never in excess. The light should be moderate; total darkness is very injurious, as it contributes to decay. The cellar should be as much as possible in such a situation as not to be

affected by the circulation of carriages or any other shocks, as they are calculated to turn the wine. All green wood, vinegar, and other articles liable to fermentation, should be excluded from it. A cellar to be good should be always vaulted. M. Julien, in an article upon cellars, says, that if the cellar be too damp, the casks should be placed upon horses, and that the parts underneath them are to be frequently swept. Where damp is in excess it is also necessary to make openings to let in the air. If the cellar be too dry, the evaporation of the wine becomes so great that the quality is injured by the vacuum. If this dryness be occasioned by the air that enters the cellar, the opening should be partially planked up. Particular care should be taken not to construct cellars in marshy ground, or any other spot where mephitic vapours are likely to rise.

CERVELAS. Commonly called in England, Saveloys. A kind of sausage made of chopped pork, veal, and bacon, strongly spiced. This meat, being chopped together in about equal quantities, and not too fine, and salted, and strongly spiced with pepper and other spices, is put into skins rather shorter and thicker than the common sausage, and is boiled before eating. They are sometimes smoked by exposing them for a few days to the smoke of a wood fire, but must in that case be first cooked before used. They are boiled for two or three hours in stock, with fine herbs, chiboles, &c., and are served cold. Cervelas are also made with carp and eels in the following manner:—Having taken out the bones of the fish, chop it up with some fresh butter, parsley, shalots, chiboles, and season with salt and spices; mix with this some hard boiled eggs, chopped, and fill the skins of any length or form desired with the mixture; smoke these cervelas for three days, then cook them in a mixture of equal quantities of French white wine and water, with some onions, carrots, fine herbs, salt and pepper. For cervelas in French charcuterie, see **PORK**.

CHARCOAL. This is made from wood, and is an important fuel for cookery. The manufacture is very simple; the wood is cut into the shape required, and is then burnt, excluding the air. As charcoal gives out in combustion a great quantity of carbonic acid gas, cooks should be careful to have a free current of air where it is used, as the gas alluded to is dangerous to health and even fatal to life,

if burnt in a close room, for whilst the charcoal gives out this dangerous gas it also destroys the oxygen of the air, which is its vital principle. In France, suicide is frequently committed by burning charcoal in a room, after having previously hermetically closed the doors, windows, and fireplace. The powder of charcoal is an excellent anti-putrescent, and is much used for the purification of water and other similar purposes. The animal charcoal made from bones is of a still better character; when fresh made it is used for purifying oils, and in the manufacture of sugar. It has also the singular property of giving the appearance of age to new red wines, by mixing about half an ounce with a bottle of wine, and letting it stand for a day, then filling it off; but it discharges a great part of the colour. A bottle of new port wine treated in this way will acquire the flavour of very old port, and have its tawny colour. Animal charcoal may be made in a small way, by putting some fresh bones in a close square or oval iron vessel, with a hole in the top, in which a tube of about a foot in length is to be fitted; then luting on the top, and placing the vessel on the fire, leaving it until it becomes red hot, and all the olefiant gas has escaped by the tube up the chimney. It may be easily ascertained when the charcoal is fully prepared, by putting a light to the tube; if the vapour does not take fire, all the gas is burnt out, and the bones are reduced to charcoal. This is then to be taken out, powdered finely, and put by for use in a very closely stopped bottle. In some manufactories of animal charcoal, the olefiant gas is collected to light the works; but its smell is very offensive. The best tooth-powder is animal charcoal.

CHARCUTERIE. The name given in France to a pork-shop; it is derived from the words *chair*, flesh, and *cuite*, cooked, which make when joined, cooked meat. The person who prepared the meat was called *chaircuitier*, and still retains the name with the omission of the letter *i* after the *u*; thus the pork butcher is called *charcutier*, because, unlike the ordinary butcher, he sells various preparations of pork in a cooked state. The *charcutier*, although he deals principally in pork, also vends poultry, dressed in a peculiar manner, such as turkey, the bones of which are taken out, and the meat seasoned, and pressed into a mass, from which purchasers are supplied by weight; and pheasant, partridge, fowl,

and other pies. The *chaircutier* in France is, as to the facility of obtaining articles of meat ready dressed, what the ham and beef shop is in England, but the style of carrying on business is very different; the *chaircutier* has great variety, and a bachelor who breakfasts at home may have four different preparations weighed for his halfpound, each being accompanied by a small quantity of well salted gelatine to improve the relish. The chief articles of a *charcuterie* are *dinde farcie*, turkey, prepared as above stated; *fromage de pore*, a composition not much unlike cooked sausage meat; brawn, ham, and *fromage d'Italie*, another composition of pork; pigs' feet broiled, and sold either hot or cold; sausages of various descriptions, *cerviles*, &c. (For the mode of preparing most of these articles see **PORK**.) The *charcuteries* in France are a great convenience to bachelors, for not only do they always contain a great variety of cold articles, but sausages, pork chops, pigs' feet, &c., are sent out at a moment's notice.

CHEESE. The curds of milk made up into a solid mass. The milk is coagulated by the addition of rennet, which is applied when the milk is warm (see **RENNET**); the coagulation having taken place, which will be more or less speedy according to the strength of the rennet, the curds are divided small by the cheese knife in the cheese tub, and when no more coagulation can take place, they are collected into two or three separate vessels, when they are broken into still smaller particles; the whey must have been previously all poured off, so as to leave the curd free from it. Whilst the process of crushing the curd is going on, salt, in the proportion of a handful to six gallons of milk, is to be worked in; this process completed, the curds are to be put into a tub, with holes at the bottom, to allow the moisture to drain off, and a clean cloth having been spread in it, the curds are laid in by degrees, breaking and pressing all the time; then, when the tub is full, another cloth is spread over the top, and a thick board made so as to fit the tub closely at the sides, is laid over: the tub is then put into the cheese-press, and, as the cover falls, the moisture is forced through the bottom, and the curds become a solid mass. In order that the pressure may be more certain, the power of the press must be applied gradually; when the tub has been under the press for an hour and a half, the cheese is

taken out and placed in hot water for two hours, to harden the skin; it is next wiped dry, wrapped in a clean cloth, and put again into the cheese tub or vat, also well dried; the tub is now again submitted to the action of the press, and allowed to remain for seven or eight hours, the cheese having been previously pricked in every part with a small bodkin, to the depth of two inches. In order that the cheese may be very compact, it must, for three or four days, be pressed again two or three times, for three or four hours each day; it is then put to dry, and turned every day. If the quantity of milk from a single milking be not sufficient for the quantity of cheese that is to be made, the milk of a previous milking may be added; half of it is to be boiled and added to the other half, and the cream which had been previously taken from it; and these being well mixed are to be poured upon the new milk and stirred up. The cheese may be coloured by tying up some arnotto in a bag, and placing it in some warm water; in a few hours the water becomes richly coloured, and can be added to the milk from which the cheese is to be made, until the desired shade has been obtained. The varieties of cheese of different counties depend upon the qualities of the milk, and the peculiarities of the process. The preparation of Stilton cheese, for instance, differs materially from that adopted for most cheeses: the whey is removed very slowly, and the curds are broken as little as possible; they are then put into cold water for twenty minutes, and the water being drained off, the curds are broken, and the salt added with some newly churned butter, or a quart of fresh cream, in the proportion of a pound to fifteen gallons of milk; these being all well worked together, they are put into the cheese vat, and placed under a very slight pressure, (about a pound and a half;) the cloth being changed at least twice a day, the cheese remains under the press for a week, and made up in the mould. Some Stilton moulds are made in such a way that pressure may be applied to every part. The Bath cream cheese is made as follows:— Three gallons of new milk are mixed with one gallon of hot water and a pint of cream; more rennet is of course used than if no water were used; when the curd has formed, it is slightly broken, and the whey is dripped off; four or five quarts of cold water are then poured on the curd, which is again slightly broken, and this process of washing and breaking

is repeated. The curds are then drained, and two quarts of boiling water is poured over them; most of the whey is squeezed out, the curds are drained and put on to the press for three or four hours in the vat, when the cheese is turned and pressed for the same length of time; the cheese is then ready to eat. It is not customary to add salt, or if so, very little. In what is called new cheese, new milk is turned by rennet, a little hot water having been added to the milk; the curds are divided but not broken, and hung up in a cheese cloth for half an hour; they are then divided again with the cheese knife, and hung up in a fresh cloth for several hours, then put into the press for a night, and the following day the cheese is taken out, and each side is rubbed with salt; in two days it is fit for use. In France, what is called new cheese is made in this way as well as in England; but the cheese called cream cheese, which is used for dessert and for evening parties, whipped up into a sort of froth, and flavoured with different fruits, is made very differently. Three pints of new milk and a pint of cream are made warm, and coagulated by a piece of the stomach of the calf, or a little liquid rennet; the curds are then drained and squeezed in a cloth. For dessert this is eaten with sugar, or it is whipped up with sugar and served in shapes; the juices of fruits are also sometimes added, and the cheese is frequently iced. The cheese called Neufchatel cheese is a new cheese in which there is a large proportion of cream, the curds being well salted; they are either eaten fresh, or wrapped up in paper and put for several months in a dry cellar; at the end of that time only the heart of the cheese remains good, but that is excellent. The best cheese in France is the Roquefort; this is made with sheep's milk, and resembles in flavour and appearance a very fine Stilton, particularly when old, as it acquires the fine blue mould peculiar to Stilton cheese. The celebrated Gruyere cheese is made from the milk of the cow and the goat mixed. The Neufchatel cheese appears to owe the high esteem in which it is held from the superior quality of the milk in the locality where it is manufactured. With the exception of the Roquefort cheese there is nothing in France, however, to be compared with the cheeses which are made in England. Many persons who are *gourmets* in cheese put wine into it, and keep it in this state for

a long time before eating it; others put beer; it is a question, however, whether the flavour or quality of the cheese be improved by this treatment. The "Encyclopedie Domestique" states that all cheeses are very much improved if they be wrapped for a month in cloths dipped in a mixture made by pouring vinegar upon alkalised nitre, (nitre which has been burnt with pulverised charcoal) until all effervescence has ceased, moistening the cloths daily with this mixture.

CHERRIES. Almost all cherries are more or less indigestible, but the most so is the Bigarreau cherry. The juice of the cherry, however, is refreshing, and far from unwholesome. The produce of the cherry tree is much increased, and the fruit brought to ripen early, by digging in lime round the foot of the tree, and watering it from time to time with warm water.

CHERRIES IN BRANDY. Take some fine ripe and large cherries, cut off half of the stalks, and put them into a large mouthed bottle, with a few cloves and a little cinnamon. Prepare some very thick syrup, in the proportion of a quarter of a pound of sugar to a pound of cherries, and a quart of brandy. Mix the brandy with the syrup, and when it is cold, pour it over the cherries. Cork carefully, and tie over with parchment.

FOR CHERRIES IN TARTS, &c., see PASTRY.

COMPOTE OF CHERRIES. Cut off a portion of the stalks, and put the cherries into a pan, with just enough sugar and water to cover them; give them a few boils, and serve them cold in their syrup.

CHERRY JELLY. Take out the stones as carefully as possible, so as not to lose the juice, and having added a pound of currant juice to every twenty pounds of cherries, and half a pound of sugar to each pound of the whole, cook over a sharp fire, stirring the fruit gently. When done, proceed as with currant jelly.

CHERRY MARMALADE. Take out the stones, and remove the stalks, and reduce the cherries to one-half their bulk over a slow fire. Then make some syrup of double the weight of sugar to the cherries, using very little water, and when the syrup has become quite thick put in the fruit, and let them cook together until the marmalade is thoroughly done.

TO PRESERVE CHERRIES DRY. Stone the cherries, crushing them as little as possible, and having made some very strong syrup, give them one boil in it,

then take them off the fire, and let them stand for several hours. Repeat this process twice, then take out the cherries, powder them with white sugar, and put them on a tin, or on plates, to dry. When dry, put in boxes. The syrup may be used for making cherry jelly, or for fruit tarts.

CHERVIL, (in French, CERFEUIL.) A plant very little known in England, but greatly used in France to give flavour to soups, salads, and sauces; it is highly aromatic and exciting, and should be used in small quantities. It is of two kinds; the common and the musk. The common chervil is used in cookery. It may be sown at any time of the year. Persons who like the flavour of this plant, and wish to introduce it into their kitchen gardens, should obtain, in the first instance, a little of the seed from France. The mode of using chervil there for salads is to chop it very fine, and serve it in a plate separately from the salad, so that each guest may help himself according to taste. It has a high reputation in France as a medicinal herb, used externally. The warm vapour from the decoction of chervil is said to be a sovereign remedy for external hæmorrhoids, and is used also as a fomentation in cases of colic. The leaves dried, and smoked as tobacco, are recommended for asthma.

CHESNUTS. The fruit of the chesnut tree. In England they are eaten roasted for dessert, and they are also sometimes boiled. In Portugal they are partially boiled, then dried in an oven and made into flour, which is used for bread by the poorer classes; in this state they are nutritive, but difficult of digestion. In France, chesnuts are boiled, and used for stuffing turkeys and other poultry, when roasted or stewed. They are also torrefied and ground, for the purpose of being used as coffee, the flavour of which, however, they no more resemble than roasted corn. They may be boiled, and the skins having been removed, candied in the same way as filberts, (see FILBERTS), but they are not worth the sugar which they require. The only really pleasant mode of preparing chesnuts is roasting them; when eaten raw they are highly indigestible. The flour of chesnuts is mixed with tallow in France for the manufacture of an economical candle, which burns slowly, but gives a poor light.

CHICCORY. This is a species of endive, cultivated in France to a great extent, but very little known in England.

It is used on the Continent, both in the green and the blanched state. The blanched is prepared in the same way as celery, and the green in the same way as spinach, (see SPINACH). The blanched part is also used for salad; and, having a strong bitter, is considered wholesome. But one of the greatest uses to which chicory is applied in France is for the adulteration of coffee, by drying, baking, and reducing to powder, the long roots thrown out in blanching. This powder improves very much the colour of coffee, but it has a medicinal flavour which is not very agreeable. See COFFEE.

CHICKEN. The mode of rearing chickens is simple; all that they require being a good dry flooring, which may be made of beaten chalk, a quantity of dry litter, and ashes here and there for them to roll themselves in, and a good quantity of sandy gravel, which should be frequently changed, as without this precaution they would want the most essential means of aiding digestion. These observations, of course, refer only to the enclosed poultry yard; where the hen has free liberty to roam, she will take care to lead her little ones to those spots most suited to their wants. The ordinary food of young chickens is a peculiar kind of small groats, which they devour with avidity; but it is very important, when they are in a state of confinement, to throw them, from time to time, small worms, grubs, or other insects; but the most essential recommendation for the rearing of chickens is, that the poultry yard should have a southern aspect, for without this precaution great numbers will be lost by cramp. Many attempts have been made, both in England and France, to hatch chickens by artificial heat, and thus increase the stock by rendering the sitting of a hen unnecessary, and allowing her to go on laying without the loss of time now required for hatching and rearing her brood. In Egypt, enormous quantities of domestic poultry are reared by artificial means; there, however, the climate is so favourable to this mode of production that very little extra heat is required. This is not the case in Europe, where the whole process must depend upon artificial heat, and that kept up with great regularity, day and night, as a variation of very few degrees, either above or below the necessary temperature, which is about 100, would be fatal to the process. The first attempts to hatch eggs by artificial heat were made with ovens heated by hot air;

these, however, were found to vary so much in temperature, that the experiment was soon abandoned. The next attempt was by steam, but here also the difficulty of regularizing the temperature to a fixed point, was experienced. This has been got over by a very ingenious kind of valve, which regulates the steam in such a manner as to be invariable. The inventor of this mode of proceeding has exhibited publicly in London, a sort of cupboard, fitted up with shelves lined with flannel, in which the eggs are placed, and which is warmed by steam admitted through pipes. The front of this cupboard is glazed, so that the operator may ascertain the period of hatching, and remove the chickens. On leaving the shell the little animal begins to feed upon a portion of it, and upon some groats which are placed there for the purpose, and in a few hours may be taken from its cupboard and put into a box covered with glass, where groats and water are provided for it. This box is heated at a lower degree of temperature than the cupboard in which it was hatched, but at a higher degree than the open parts of the room. The transition from the cupboard to the body of the room would be too rapid; after having been, however, for a few hours in this medium temperature, the birds are put into a part of the room which is railed off, and in which there are sleeping boxes, also heated, but not too high. Some of the birds would not at first take their food but by the force of imitation, they no sooner, however, see the more quick and lively birds feed than they follow the example. Care is taken that too many do not sleep in one box, for, if they were crowded, the weaker birds would be trampled on and destroyed by the more healthy. The temperature of the body of the room is not so much elevated as to debilitate the poultry, but is sufficient to prevent attacks of cramp from cold. A pamphlet has been written on this mode of artificial breeding, which would make it appear to be a lucrative concern as a speculation; this is not the case, even when conducted upon a large scale, and certainly upon a small scale it would have the effect of doubling the cost of rearing domestic poultry. It may, however, be tried where expense is not an object, as a means of hatching eggs which are brought from foreign countries with a view to the improvement of our own breed. The rapidity with which steamers arrive from distant

parts would enable those who are fond of experiments of this nature to try them with every chance of success, for an egg that is not more than eight or ten days old may be hatched upon this system. As food, the flesh of the chicken is light, succulent, and digestible; and is at the highest perfection when the bird is about seven or eight months old.

CHICKEN AU BLANC-MANGER. Put a pint of milk into a saucepan with a little thyme, two bay leaves, and a little coriander seed, and boil it until it has reduced one-half; then strain it, and put it again into the saucepan with a piece of crumb of bread, and leave it on the fire until the bread has absorbed all the liquid; then mix with the bread a dozen almonds cut very fine, a little salt, grated nutmeg, and the yolks of five eggs; mix the whole well together, and put it into the chicken, which has been well cleaned and singed, and sew it up to prevent the seasoning coming out. Then cover it well with slices of bacon, and cook before a clear fire. Serve with some rich sauce.

TO BOIL CHICKEN. When properly cleaned and trussed, put it in boiling water, and let it boil gently for half an hour. Serve with parsley and butter, or with the following sauce:—Melt in a teacupful of milk a large table-spoonful of butter kneaded in flour, beat up the yolk of an egg with a little cream, stir it into the butter, and heat it over the fire, stirring continually.

CHICKEN A LA BOURGEOISE. Put into a stewpan a slice of butter, two onions cut in slices, and on them the chicken which has been well cleaned, singed, and trussed, with its breast downwards. Cover it with two more onions cut into slices, a bunch of fine herbs, a little salt, and a bay leaf. Let it stew on hot ashes, or a very slow fire. When it is half done, throw in half a tumblerful of French white wine. Strain the sauce, and serve with the chicken.

FRICASSEED CHICKEN. Having cut up a chicken, washed and drained it, put it into a stewpan with a slice of butter, a bunch of sweet herbs, two bay leaves, some mushrooms, two or three cloves, a little nutmeg grated, and a slice of bacon, moistening the whole with a little good stock, and half a tumbler of French white wine. Let it cook over a brisk fire till the sauce is almost all consumed; then dredge in some flour, and moisten with a little warm water, and season with salt and whole pepper. Let it stew again till the sauce is almost consumed. When

ready to serve, add the yolks of three eggs beat up with milk, and thicken over the fire, but without letting it boil, then add some lemon juice and serve.

Another way:—Put half a pint of water into a stewpan with a slice of butter, a little salt, and pepper; set it over the fire and stir altogether, till it is about to boil; then put in the chicken which has been cut into pieces and skinned, with two or three small onions cut fine, and a little nutmeg grated, and a small blade of mace. Stew it for three quarters of an hour, and a little before serving add the yolks of three eggs beaten up with a little cream; stir the egg in gradually, and do not let it boil.

CHICKEN FRIED. Cut a chicken into quarters, and soak them in warm water for a short time. Then put them in a saucepan with some stock, the juice of a lemon, salt, pepper, parsley, two shalots, a bunch of fine herbs, and a bay leaf, and let them stand over some hot ashes for two hours. At the expiration of that time, take them out, and having drained them, rub them over with the white of an egg beat up, and dredge them with flour; fry them to a good colour, and serve. Garnish the dish with fried parsley.

GRILLED CHICKENS. Having washed them well, and wiped them dry, cut them down the back, and flatten them. Put them on a gridiron, and when they have become hot, take them off and baste them well with butter, and strew a little pepper and salt on the inside, which part must be first laid towards the fire. Baste them very frequently, and let them broil slowly for half an hour. When served, pour melted butter over them, with some stewed mushrooms.

CHICKEN A LA JARDINIÈRE. Having cut the chickens in two, and flattened them, brown them in a frying pan with a little butter. Let them lay for an hour in a seasoning made as above, and then broil them on a slow fire, basting them from time to time with some of the seasoning. When done to a good colour, serve with a sauce made with some good gravy, a little lemon juice, salt, whole pepper, and a little chopped parsley, thickened over the fire with the yolks of two eggs, well beaten.

For other Sauces for Poultry, see SAUCES AND ESSENCES.

CHICKEN EN MATELOTTE. Put into a stewpan a little brown roux, a little good stock, a tumbler of French white wine, about a dozen small white onions which have been previously parboiled, a bunch

of parsley, a bay leaf, a bunch of fine herbs, and a little salt, and pepper. Boil all these together for half an hour, then put in the chicken, which has been previously cut into quarters and browned in a frying-pan with a little butter, and let it boil gently for about an hour. Serve with the sauce in which it has been dressed, passed through a sieve.

CHICKEN WITH ONIONS. Blanch some small onions in boiling water, and take off the outside skin, then boil them in some well seasoned consommé until tender, and strain them. Having roasted the chicken, pour the gravy which comes from it on the onions with a little good sauce; give the whole a boil up, and serve with the chicken. The chicken may be stuffed, before roasting, with some forcemeat, the liver chopped fine, a little parsley, chibols, and mushrooms, pepper, salt, and a little grated bacon. Cover the breast with a slice of bacon, and writing paper, when roasting.

CHICKEN A LA MONTMORENCY. Clean and truss the chicken, lard the upper part, and fill the inside with the liver cut fine, a little bacon, and the yolks of eggs boiled and cut into small balls. Stew it gently in a stewpan with some good gravy, and serve with a rich brown sauce.

CHICKEN A LA PERSELLADE. Cut the chicken into pieces, and put it into a stewpan with a little consommé, some salt, and whole pepper. When the liquor has been reduced one-half, and the fowl is tender, add some parsley which has been scalded and chopped very fine. Before serving, squeeze a lemon over it.

CHICKEN PIE. Cut the chickens into joints, take off the skin, and having washed and dried, season them well with salt, pepper, and grated nutmeg. Lay them in a dish with the livers, gizzards, and hearts, well seasoned, and add a little good stock, a wine glass of French white wine, a few pickled mushrooms, and the yolks of three or four eggs boiled hard. Lay a few slices of ham and some forcemeat balls between the parts of the chickens. If the chickens are small, do not divide them, but roll a piece of butter in the above seasoning, and put in the inside of them. Cover the dish with a puff paste, and bake for an hour. A little rich seasoned gravy may be made hot and poured into the pie before serving.

CHICKEN A LA POELE. Split a chicken in two and put it into a stewpan, with a bit of butter, two shalots, a little parsley, and two bay leaves. Dredge with a little

flour, and moisten the whole with a little stock or good consommé and a tumbler of French white wine. Let it boil gently until the sauce has become thick, when skim off the fat and serve.

ROAST CHICKEN. Draw and truss the chicken, and cover the breast with a slice of fat bacon; baste it first with butter, and afterwards with its own gravy. Cover the breast with a sheet of buttered paper; but which must be removed about ten minutes before the chicken is done, that it may become of a good brown colour.

STEWED CHICKEN WITH PEAS. Cut up a chicken, and put it into a stewpan with some peas, a slice of butter, a bunch of fine herbs, and a few small white onions; moisten the whole with some consommé or good gravy. Let it stew until the chicken is quite tender, and serve, being careful to skim off all the fat.

CHICKEN A LA ST. MENEHOND. Put the chickens into a stewpan with a tumbler of French white wine, a slice of butter, salt, and whole pepper, a bunch of fine herbs, two or three cloves, and a little grated nutmeg. Stew the whole over a slow fire, until the sauce has acquired the consistence of jelly, and adheres to the chickens; then take them out, rub them over with egg, and cover with bread crumbs; then broil them of a good colour, and serve either plain or with sharp sauce.

CHICKEN STUFFED. Put a handful of grated bread crumbs into a saucepan with a pint of milk, and boil it till it becomes very thick, and then let it cool. When cold, mix it well with parsley and green onions chopped very fine, a little thyme, a bay leaf, a bit of butter, pepper, salt, and the yolk of three eggs. Put this stuffing into the chicken, and roast it between slices of bacon. Serve with a sauce made of a little brown roux, a little stock, a minced anchovy, a little salt, and grated nutmeg, and a squeeze of lemon juice, the whole thickened over the fire.

CHICKEN A LA TARTARE. When the chicken has been parboiled, cut it in two, and let it soak for two hours in some butter melted for the purpose, and seasoned with salt, pepper, and a few champignons, parsley, and green onions, chopped fine; then cover it with grated bread crumbs, and broil. It may be served either plain or with some sauce à la Tartare.

CHIMNEYS, TO CLEAN. Make a mortar hot, and rub up in it three parts of saltpetre, two parts of salt of tartar, and

one part of flour of sulphur. Put as much of this as will lie upon a sixpenny piece in a fire shovel, and hold it over a clear fire, near the opening of the chimney. As soon as it begins to boil it will explode, and the sudden concussion in the chimney will cause the soot to fall without any danger to the operator. If one operation be not sufficient, repeat it.

CHIPOLATA. A foreign ragout. Blanch two dozen of carrots, two dozen of turnips, the same quantity of large chesnuts and onions; let these stew for some time over the fire, with some consommé and a little sugar. Having fried separately a dozen sausages and a dozen slices of bacon, add them with two dozen champignons and a few spoonfuls of espagnole sauce to the vegetables, adding from time to time a little consommé or gravy. These are to stew for an hour.

CHIVES. This is a very hardy herb, and will grow in almost any situation. The mode of propagation is by parting the roots in the spring or autumn. It is recommended to cut them very frequently in summer, as they shoot out again rapidly, and become more tender from frequent cutting. A chive bed should be renewed every three or four years.

CHOCOLATE. A preparation of cocoa. The old way of manufacturing chocolate was to heat a large iron mortar, by putting fire into it; and having cleaned it, then the cocoa and sugar were beaten into a paste, which was afterwards worked by hand with a roller on a table until it became almost liquid; it was then put into moulds, and became hard as it cooled. Of late years, the manufacture of chocolate is chiefly carried on by machinery; and the price has been consequently reduced; but as it is very difficult to detect the adulterations by the mere taste, it is almost impossible to get it genuine, unless it be made expressly for a consumer who is willing to pay a higher price to have it pure. The chocolate which has the greatest reputation is that made in Spain and at Bayonne. But this character seems to have no other foundation than the care with which all inferior cocoa is rejected, and perhaps the more judicious selection of the aromatics used in the preparation; for both in Spain and in Bayonne much too large a quantity of sugar is introduced, that article being cheaper than the cocoa itself. Some manufacturers adulterate their chocolate with flour as well as sugar. The chocolate to be preferred is that called on the Continent "*chocolat de santé*," as

it contains the least quantity of sugar and fewer aromatics. The *chocolat à la Vanille* is the favourite beverage among the aristocracy; the price of it varies according to the quantity of the Vanilla which is used. As far as health is concerned, there should be no more sugar in chocolate than what is sufficient to render it agreeable to the taste, and it should be very slightly aromatized; for when it is carefully manufactured, the flavour is agreeable without the aid of aromatics. As the process of manufacturing chocolate is tedious and laborious, it is hardly worth while to make it for one's own use; but if it be desired to do so, all that is necessary is to select the best cocoa, carefully excluding every part that is unsound, and to adopt the process mentioned above. When the chocolate is to be used, it should be scraped into a fine powder, and boiled either with water or milk, frequently turning the stick which is sold with the chocolate pot to make it froth. On the Continent generally it is made much more thick than in England; an ounce of chocolate does not make more than one moderate sized cup. In Spain only a small cup full is made with an ounce of chocolate, and it is served up with sweet cakes, a decanter of fine spring water, and a cake of very fine sugar, which is either dissolved in the water or eaten; no milk is used. In the coffee-houses in Paris it is either served "*à l'eau*" or "*au lait*," according to order, and cakes made of flour, eggs, butter, and sugar, are served with it. Good chocolate at breakfast is considered very wholesome, if only a small quantity be used, and fresh water be taken with it; for if it be thick, and unless it be so, it is not pleasant, it is too heavy for the stomach without this dilution. One of the most wholesome breakfasts of chocolate for weak stomachs is the following:—Take half an ounce of chocolate finely powdered, mix it with a dessert spoonful of arrowroot, and boil them together gently, adding a small quantity of milk. A preparation called *Racahout des Arabes*, which has been puffed into notice, and is sold at a high price, is nothing more than a mixture of chocolate powder and arrowroot; and even the fecula of potatoes is sometimes substituted for arrowroot, as being far less expensive. Persons who are travelling can have with them their prepared powder of chocolate and arrowroot, and by simply pouring boiling water or milk upon it, a very agreeable beverage is obtained; but if it

be convenient to boil it, the preparation is improved in flavour, and is more easily digested. This mode of taking chocolate is very valuable for children and invalids; the latter class frequently find it light of digestion, when both tea and coffee would disagree with them. As far as economy is concerned, it is almost impossible to have a cheaper and a more elegant breakfast at the same time. In taking chocolate, if the oil which remains in it should be unpleasant to the stomach, let it stand, when made, till it is cold; then remove the oil from the surface, and warm the chocolate again. Medicated chocolates are sometimes used with benefit, but they ought not to be taken except under medical advice. The tonic chocolate sold on the Continent and by some agents in London, as *chocolat au carbonate de fer*, is made by mixing with it, when being manufactured, carbonate of iron, in the proportion of four or five grains to each square or ounce. This is a very agreeable way of taking the carbonate of iron, as it does not impart the slightest taste to the chocolate; but the same effect is produced by throwing the carbonate of iron into the domestic chocolate whilst it is boiling. Persons who require gentle tonics may use this preparation regularly every morning with advantage; and in many cases the quantity of iron may be doubled, and even trebled; but the habit of taking tonic medicines in any form should never be practised except under medical advice. The purchaser of chocolate should look particularly at the colour; if it be of a deep red brown, there is reason to believe that it has been made from good cocoa, and is unadulterated. When the colour is dark without a red tint, the cocoa is not of good quality; and if it be pale, the quantity of sugar is in excess, or flour has been introduced.

CIBOLS. This plant is very much used for giving a flavour to dishes; it is raised from seeds which are sown in July; in October the leaves fall off, but in January they begin to shoot out again, and are fit for use in March.

CIDER. The fermented juice of the apple. Cider may be made from apples of all kinds, but those which have an excess of acidity are preferred; and for ordinary beverage the small crab apple is much used abroad. The best cider in England is made in Herefordshire and Devonshire, and the best in France is made in Normandy. Cider is not a wholesome liquor for persons who do not take a great deal

of exercise in the open air, as it creates flatulency and not unfrequently colic; persons who are fond of it, and with whom it disagrees in the ordinary mode of drinking it, should add a little carbonate of soda, and drink it whilst in the state of effervescence; in this way it seldom does harm, and is very agreeable to the taste. The apples should not be gathered until they are full ripe, which is indicated by their beginning to fall from the tree; when gathered, they should lie in heaps under cover, but open to the air, in order to promote the evaporation of the excess of moisture; and as soon as they begin to turn without perishing, they are to be crushed, which may be done by beating them, if the brewing is to be on a small scale, or in a crushing mill, if a large quantity is to be used. In this state they are to be put into the cider press, in layers of about two inches thick, with horse-hair cloths between each layer, and as one pressure is seldom sufficient, the operation is to be repeated; the cider thus obtained is of the best quality. A second quality may be obtained by putting the pressed fruit again into the crushing mill with a quantity of water, and passing the whole through the press; as the juice leaves the press it should pass through a hair sieve, and be put into barrels; the fermentation soon takes place, and the liquid becomes clear, the impurities sinking to the bottom; it is to be racked off as soon as it is clear. If not very bright, it may be fined in the same way as beer; the lees may be used for feeding pigs. In Guernsey the following mode of making cider is adopted:—As soon as it begins to ferment, it is drawn off into another cask, and the lees are passed through a hair bag and set apart; as soon as the fermentation begins again, the same process is twice repeated, and the liquor from the lees, after straining, is also set aside; at the third drawing off, the liquor from the lees is added to the mass in the proportion of two quarts to one hundred; the casks are to be then closely bunged up. The cider thus made is very clear, and of excellent strength. In all cider brewing the temperature should be no more than just sufficient to promote fermentation, and if the fermentation be languid, it may be hastened by the addition of some good beer yeast. In Normandy cider is sometimes made as follows:—Cut a bushel and a half of apples into slices, and dry them in a slow oven; put these into a thirty-six gallon cask with as much water as will fill it two-

thirds, add a pint of good beer yeast, and six pounds of treacle, and leave it to ferment in the sun for some days, covering over the bunghole slightly with paper; when the vinous fermentation is complete, and before the acetous stage commences, fill up the cask with water, and bung it up tight. A month afterwards put the cider into bottle, and give the lees to the pigs; this cider will effervesce like champagne.

CINNAMON. The inner bark of a tree which grows in the West Indies and in other warm climates; it is a sweet, but at the same time rather biting taste, and is much used for flavouring dishes, pastry, &c.; it is also very useful in medicine as an agreeable aromatic, and as a vehicle for the administration of other articles. Cinnamon water, which is the chief form of this product in medicine, is made by distillation. The cinnamon must be infused for several days in an equal quantity of water and brandy, with some lemon peel and liquorice, and then distilled, being afterwards sweetened with sugar and filtered. The preparations are,—One ounce of cinnamon, two quarts of brandy, a pint of water, the peel of a lemon, and an ounce of fresh liquorice root; after distillation, add a pound of sugar dissolved in a quart of water for each ounce of cinnamon; this water may be used for flavouring dishes in all cases where the use of the bark would be inconvenient.

CITRIC ACID. The strongly concentrated juice of the lemon brought to the form of crystals. It may be used in most cases for culinary purposes, where lemon juice cannot be had. Citric acid is an effectual remedy for scurvy.

CLARIFICATION. The operation of making any liquid perfectly clear, by separating those portions which are calculated to prevent this result. The most effectual mode of clarification, as stated elsewhere, is the use of isinglass, for which, however, the white of eggs may be substituted; for this purpose the whites of the eggs are whipped up, and the liquor to be clarified is added cold by degrees, continuing the whipping until all the white of egg is completely mixed with the liquid; the liquor is then boiled rapidly once or twice and strained; in a short time it becomes perfectly clear. When the nature or quantity of the liquor will not allow of the whole of it being poured in this way on the egg, a portion of it is whipped up with the egg, and this mixture is actively stirred into the whole mass.

CLARY. A herb not much used in modern cookery. The seeds are sown in the spring, and the seedlings are transplanted in the summer.

CLOVES. The fruit of a foreign plant. It is highly aromatic in its dried state, and communicates an agreeable flavour to various culinary preparations. In the Dutch East India colonies the fruit is preserved in sugar in its green state, and forms a good dish for dessert. Clove water is a fine stomachic, either taken alone, or as a vehicle for medicine; it may be made by infusing bruised cloves in spirits of wine or brandy for a fortnight, and distilling it, then adding six times its quantity of water. Cloves enter largely into the composition of various liqueurs (see LIQUEURS). An essential oil is obtained from cloves by distillation with water, but if distilled with spirit, the oil is of course dissolved in the mass, and contributes powerfully to the aroma of the production; this oil is of a highly fragrant kind when largely diluted, but in its pure state much less so; it is frequently used in toothache; it is also used in many perfumes, but in such small quantities as rather to fix other essences than to predominate.

COALS. Although the most agreeable fire is that which is made from wood, the cost of this fuel is so considerable, that none but wealthy persons can use it. Good coals in England, where they are cheap as compared with the price on the Continent, cost two-thirds less than wood as fuel; and even in Paris, where fire wood is very much cheaper than in London, and coals are nearly twice as dear as in the British metropolis, it has been found, by a long series of experiments, that to obtain the same degree of heat and warmth from coals and wood there is an economy of one-third in favour of the former. Coals burnt in a close vessel for gas-making yield three principal results:—sulphureted hydrogen gas, which is passed after distillation through beds of lime, which take up the sulphur, and afterwards through water, which washes out the ammonia from the gas; secondly, tar; and thirdly, an ammoniacal water, which is generally called ammoniacal liquor; these are abstracted from the smoke of the coals. When burnt in an open fireplace, the gas and a certain portion of sulphur form the combustion, the greater portion of the tar, ammonia, and sulphur, pass up the chimney. There is nothing injurious to health in the burning of coals in open

fire places or in stoves, where there is a free egress for the sulphur and ammonia; but if the chimney or stove smokes, the lungs and the head may be very seriously affected by the quantity of sulphur and ammonia which enters the room; and instances have been known of suffocation from a coal fire left burning in a bedroom in a chimney of imperfect draught. How far the external atmosphere in large cities is affected by the smoke from the chimneys in weather when it does not rise freely, is a disputed point with chemists. M. Darcet, the celebrated French chemist, walked for several days through the streets of London, with prepared test papers for sulphur and ammonia stuck in the band of his hat; and from the rapidity with which they were discoloured, he came to a conclusion that the air was impregnated with sulphur and ammonia to a high degree, and that it was therefore very unwholesome. On the other hand, however, some chemists affirm that the sulphur, ammonia, and tar, contained in the smoke thus emitted in a modified state, tend to prevent some fatal diseases; and, under this impression, large coal fires were burnt in the streets of Paris during the prevalence of the cholera. Where coals are very dear, an economical fuel may be made as follows:—Take fifty pounds of good Newcastle coal in the state of dust fifty pounds of dry sand, fifty pounds of pounded chalk, and twenty-five pounds of the pitch made by the evaporation of gas tar, and known under the name of mineral pitch; melt the pitch in a large iron pan, and stir in the other articles; make the whole, when it is getting cool, into a sort of cake, and when dry break it into pieces of about the size of ordinary coal; a fire is then made of it in the usual way. It would appear from some experiments which were made with this mixture for steam-engine purposes, that it gives forth as much heat as pure coal; but for domestic use it is liable to a serious objection, as, however great the draught of the chimney may be, the pitch when in combustion emits a highly disagreeable odour. The fumes of gas tar have lately been much used in medicine in pulmonary diseases, and are said to effect extraordinary cures by inhalation; but the remedy should be used with great care, as a large dose would be injurious. It is a general opinion that persons employed upon gas works are never attacked by pulmonary consumption; and the exemption from that cruel malady has been attributed by

some to the frequent agitation of the gas tar when removing it from vessel to vessel, and by others to the vapour from the vessels through which the gas passes, and which are frequently uncovered. It is however quite erroneous to suppose that there are no instances of consumption amongst the persons employed in gas works, for several have been recorded.

COCKROACHES. These insects, although otherwise harmless, are a sad nuisance in kitchens and pantries, for they attack different kinds of food. Various modes of destruction are resorted to; some persons at night and before going to bed (the cockroach rarely appears in the daytime or whilst a light is burning) strew the floor with wafers, which are mixed up with mercury or lead, and these being devoured by the cockroaches, they are poisoned; others keep a hedgehog in the kitchen, and generally speaking, this animal soon removes the intruders; the most simple mode of destruction, however, is to set in the place most frequented by cockroaches a large earthen pan, well glazed on the inside, and nearly filled with water, containing several pieces of bread; against the outside place a sloping piece of wood for the cockroach to crawl up, it will do so, and fall into the pan, from which it will be unable to extricate itself, if the sides of the pan be glazed. There is a very ingenious trap of this description sold, with a shelving plate of glass for the inside; the cockroach having crawled up the wooden frame of the trap and reached the glass, loses its hold, and falls into the chamber of the trap, which should contain a reservoir of water. Be careful, when the cockroaches are removed in the morning and apparently dead, to crush them, or to throw them into some place from which they cannot return. We are informed by an eminent naturalist, who lives in this country, that his servant, having removed one morning from the trap about two hundred cockroaches seemingly drowned, to make assurance doubly sure poured over them boiling water, and then threw them in front of the house; in less than three hours the influence of the sun had revived nearly the whole of them, and they were again crawling about in full vigour. The tenacity of life in the beetle tribe is very great. It is related of Sir Joshua Bankes that he once received a letter from Calcutta, announcing a present of a splendid collection of Indian beetles; when the case arrived, great was the mortification of Sir Joshua at finding

all the beetles, with the exception of a large one, which was crawling about with a large pin through his wing, partially devoured; this beetle had got loose, and fed upon the others during the voyage. The story appears fabulous, but the fact is not absolutely incredible. Many cats devour cockroaches, but they do not thrive on the food; they become thin and languid, and not unfrequently die, as if they were poisoned.

COCOA, see **CHOCOLATE**. A very wholesome and nourishing article; but a portion of its oil should be removed if the stomach be delicate. The preparation of cocoa for the table is very simple:—The cocoa should be ground, and boiled either with milk or water, and allowed to simmer for a long time. If it be boiled in water (milk is only to be used by those with whom it does not disagree) let it get thoroughly cold, and remove the fat which floats on the surface, then warm up for use. Half an ounce of the ground cocoa is sufficient for a pint of water, which should be reduced in boiling about one-fourth. Many persons find cocoa a very digestible beverage, when neither tea nor coffee will agree with them.

COFFEE. Coffee was first introduced into France in the year 1669, by the Turkish ambassador Soliman Aga, but many years elapsed before it came into general use. It was hardly known in England before the year 1752. The discovery of it is attributed to an Arabian priest, who was afflicted with a disease which plunged him frequently in sleep. He observed his goats one day feeding on the flowers and fruit of the coffee plant, and noticed that immediately afterwards their natural vivacity was much increased: the priest adopted the remedy; was cured of his malady, and the fame of the discovery was spread. For some time, however, it was used exclusively as a medicine; the torrefaction of the berry and its use as an article of diet were not the work of a day. It is now little used as a medicine; a decoction of the unroasted berry is sometimes ordered as a diuretic, but as the action is very inferior to that of other diuretics, the administration of it in this form is rare. Medical men are much divided in opinion as to the influence of coffee as a diet on the human frame, when taken in moderate quantity; but very serious consequences are known to result from it when taken in excess. Generally speaking, the moderate use of coffee taken at breakfast is favourable to digestion;

but some persons are unable to take it without a large quantity of milk, whilst others, with whom it disagrees with much milk, find it wholesome with a very small portion of that article. There are many instances of persons who found coffee injurious in the ordinary mode, deriving great benefit from a small cup of strong coffee after dinner, without either milk or sugar; the most delicate nerves, instead of being further debilitated by its use in this way, are braced by it, for a tone is given to the stomach which assists the process of digestion. Strong coffee in its natural state, without the addition of milk and sugar, is at first unpleasant; but with a little practice the aromatic bitter becomes highly agreeable. Coffee at night generally prevents sleep, but with some it has a directly contrary effect. The mode of drinking coffee in France is very different from that which is usually adopted in England; the infusion of coffee, which is of great strength, is taken at breakfast with five or six times the same quantity of boiling milk. After dinner, a small cup is taken, without milk, but with at least four times the quantity of sugar which an Englishman would use; and either brandy is mixed with the coffee, or a small glass of it or of some liqueur is taken immediately afterwards; the French consider this to be necessary in order to correct the exciting effect which the coffee would otherwise have upon the stomach. If, however, the brandy performs any salutary part, it is that of correcting the acidity which a large quantity of sugar is calculated to produce. In the coffee houses of France, brandy is frequently mixed with the coffee and then set on fire; when the flame is burnt out, the coffee is used. This is generally allowed to be a very unwholesome beverage, even for a strong stomach if long indulged in, and fatal to a weak one. The mixture is called *gloria*. In almost all cases of long-standing disease of the stomach or bowels, the use of coffee is strictly forbidden by French physicians, who assert that there is no chance of cure except by a temporary abstinence from this delightful beverage; but the moderate use of it is never prohibited where the symptoms produced do not clearly indicate that it has an injurious effect. In cases of poisoning by opiates, the use of very strong coffee, with lemon juice, is frequently found highly beneficial; thus shewing its fine stimulating properties. On the whole, it may be said that coffee is one of the most cheering and whole-

some articles of diet, taken with prudence, and one of the most dangerous if carried to excess. The best coffee is the Moka; but on account of its high price it is generally mixed, even by the upper classes, with that of Bourbon, Cayenne, and Martinique. The Bourbon coffee is next in quality to Moka. Moka coffee is but little used amongst the middle classes; and many persons who do not regard expense, prefer taking it mixed with that of Bourbon, or Martinique. Some of the coffee from our own West India islands is, however, quite as good as that of the French colonies. The French have long enjoyed a high and exclusive reputation for their mode of preparing coffee, for which they are supposed to have some secret process. The secret, however, consists simply in having it roasted a very short time before it is used, making it very strong, and when taken with milk, using a large quantity of the latter article. There has been a great deal of charlatanism about the mode of making coffee; some pretend that if coffee be made by filtration the astringent property is obtained in excess; whilst others assert that if it be exposed to open ebullition, even for a moment, all the aroma is carried off. There is probably little truth either in one or the other statement, but it is certain that coffee may be made better than by filtration or long open ebullition. The late Emperor Napoleon, who was a great amateur of coffee, of which, however, he made a moderate use, is said to have given instructions to his cook to prepare it in the following way:—For three or four persons, two ounces of recently burnt and ground coffee are put into an empty coffee pot of the ordinary kind, with a small piece of isinglass; this is held over the fire, and shaken by the hand so as to prevent the burning of the coffee; when a smoke is seen to issue from the pot, water at the boiling point is poured upon it in a sufficient quantity to supply six breakfast cups, in the proportion of one-third of coffee to two-thirds of milk; the coffee pot is taken from the fire before the water is added, but being heated, the coffee boils gently as the pot is held in the hand; the ebullition is sufficient to bring out all the fine properties of the coffee without carrying off the aroma; a cup is then poured out, and returned again to the pot, to allow the powder to precipitate, and in two or three minutes the coffee is perfectly clear, and is used with boiling milk; some of the

best families in Paris now adopt this plan, which is certainly superior to any other in use. If coffee be made by filtration, the quantity used must depend upon the taste of the consumer; but if strong coffee be required, less than one ounce for one person, or two ounces for three, and that supposes the coffee itself to be good, cannot be used. The common filtering pot will answer every purpose; it is quite unnecessary to go to the expense of any of the new inventions which are so pompously announced. Dr. Rattier, a French physician, recommends the following simple and economical mode of preparing coffee, which has the advantage of being made by cold infusion:—Take four ounces of fresh roasted coffee, ground in the usual way, and pour over it in a decanter a pint of cold water; shake it up two or three times; then cork the decanter, and let it stand twenty-four hours; at the expiration of which time filter it gently through fine linen or the common filtering bag, and put it into a clean bottle. Two table spoonfuls of this coffee poured cold into a breakfast cup of hot milk make an excellent beverage; all the aroma of the coffee is retained, and the whole strength has been extracted by the maceration in cold water; this is proved by pouring boiling water on the grounds and tasting the infusion, which will be found insipid. The essence of coffee, which is sold in bottles for the use of travellers, is thus prepared:—Take four ounces of coffee, to which add a pint and a half of water; boil it for a quarter of an hour gently, then let it stand until it is cold; then pour off the clear liquid, and evaporate it slowly over a fire, or in a sand bath, until it is reduced to a mere liquid extract, in quantity not exceeding three ounces; this is to be put into a bottle and kept for use; two tea-spoonfuls of this extract will suffice for a cup of hot water or milk: as the extract has an empyreumatic flavour, it is only a substitute for coffee made in the regular way, when the latter is impracticable. If intended to be kept a very long time, good spirits of wine, in the proportion of one-fifteenth, should be added to the extract when it is bottled. It is customary with the grocers on the Continent, and perhaps with some in England, to adulterate their coffee when sold in the ground state with a powder called chicorée, which is prepared from the baked root of a cultivated species of dandelion. As this powder costs only two sous per pound in France, whilst coffee of the ordinary kind is sold

at forty sous per pound, the temptation to fraud is great; medicinally, the admixture of the chicorée is said to correct the heating and over-stimulating properties of the coffee, and its colour is improved, but the flavour is much injured. The fraud may be easily detected by wetting a little of the ground coffee, and rolling it with the finger; if it adhere, the presence of the chicorée may be suspected; or if a quantity be thrown into a glass of water, the chicorée will unite more readily with the liquid than the coffee, and instantly impart to it a deep colour. As, notwithstanding the severe penalties inflicted upon grocers who are found to use this article, immense quantities of it are still introduced annually into England, every person who wishes to have pure coffee should purchase it in the berry, and grind it at home; and in large families it is important, if the parties are amateurs of good coffee, that they should also roast it themselves. Close coffee roasters may be had at most of the ironmongers' shops, and the process of roasting is very simple. If this cannot be done, care should be taken to purchase the article from a grocer who has fresh roasted coffee at least once in every three days; without this precaution it will be in vain to expect to drink coffee as good as they make it in France. Coffee in that country, and on the Continent generally, is more roasted than in England; this is not an advantage, the aroma is much destroyed by over roasting; it is therefore possible to make better coffee in England than on the Continent, if the same quantity be used, and the same process of making be observed. In some parts of England, spices, even mustard, are introduced, to improve, as it is said, the flavour of the coffee; nothing, however, can be added to good coffee which will not rather injure than improve its flavour.

COLD CREAM. An article used for burns, inflammations, &c., and as a cosmetic; it may be thus made:—Dissolve before the fire a cake of white wax, cut into shavings, in a pint of olive oil or oil of sweet almonds, and half an ounce of spermaceti; wash this mixture in repeated waters by beating it about with a wooden spoon; then wash it in the same way in rose water, beating it for more than half an hour; pour off the water, and beat up with the cream six drops of otto of rose; put into pots, and tie over with pieces of wet bladder.

COLUMBO WATER. This beauti-

ful bitter preparation is much used in some parts of South America to provoke appetite and promote digestion, for of all the bitters it is that which acts as the most safe stimulant; it is made as follows:—Take four drachms of the bruised Columbo root, one drachm of bitter orange peel, and two drachms of the fresh liquorice root; add a quart of cold soft water, and simmer as gently as possible over a slow fire until half the bulk of water be evaporated; then strain the liquid and filter it; add to this about one-sixth part of good brandy, and bottle it up for use. Take of this mixture the third of the contents of a wine glass, filling up the glass with water, about an hour before dinner.

CONFECTIONARY. The different articles of confectionary will be found under the heads of fruits, &c., which enter into the composition.

CONSOMME. A very important article in French cookery; it is made by boiling down meat of any kind with vegetables, until the essence is obtained. Consommé should be perfect jelly when cold; the best consommé is made as follows:—Take four pounds of beef cut in slices, four fowls, and two cabois' feet, fill up the space with Bouillon gras, adding a little water, and skimming from time to time; water alone may be added instead of Bouillon gras, if longer time be taken in making the consommé; the quantity of vegetables is the same as in making French stock, Bouillon gras (see SOUPS.) When sufficiently cooked, strain through a cloth.

CORIANDER. A very fine aromatic plant, the seeds of which are much used in medicine on account of the agreeable warmth which they impart to the stomach, they are also used in the kitchen. For the cultivation of the plant adopt the same course as with the caraway (see CARAWAY). The best way of using coriander for the kitchen is to bruise two ounces of the seed, and put it into a bottle with four ounces of spirits of wine. This must stand for a fortnight, or three weeks, and then be filtered off. A few drops may be used for dishes, or pastry, where coriander seed forms a part of the formula. A cordial may be made with the coriander seed as with caraway seed, adding about a quarter of an ounce of the latter, and a small piece of cinnamon.

CORKS. It is of the highest importance in domestic economy that the corks which are used should be of the best quality. It is poor economy indeed to

purchase bad corks because they are cheap. When corks are good, and they are previously squeezed in the instrument which is sold for that purpose, so as to allow for their swelling in the neck of the bottle; the precaution adopted by some persons of rendering them impervious to air and liquid is seldom necessary. When this is required, however, it is done by dipping the corks two or three times in a mixture of two thirds of virgin wax and one third of beef suet, melted, and baking them in an oven until dry. In using these corks they must not be squeezed. They do not communicate any bad smell or taste. As a further security against evaporation, it is customary to dip the upper part of the neck of the bottle, when corked, in wax, or resin. The best mixture is two pounds of resin, one pound of burgundy pitch, a quarter of a pound of yellow wax, and a small quantity of red mastic, all melted together. This is sufficiently firm, when cold, to adhere well, and not so firm as to chip off.

COSMETICS. The term usually applied to washes and pastes for the skin, to remove freckles, and give the skin a delicate appearance; they are of various kinds; amongst those which are highest in repute are the waters distilled from the orange flower, the elder flower, the melon, the cucumber, and from strawberries; asses' milk and goats' milk are also used. A compound lotion is also made by beating up six ounces of rye flour with the whites of four eggs and a pint of vinegar; another, called *Eau de Beauté*, is made by dissolving half an ounce of balsam of Tolu, a quarter of an ounce of balsam of Peru, and a quarter of an ounce of benzoin, in a little spirit, and mixing it with a quart of river water and a pint of rose water. A third is prepared by boiling two calves' feet and a pound of rice in ten quarts of water, until reduced to six; then adding a quart of milk, two pounds of fresh butter, and the whites and shells of ten fresh eggs, and boiling for half an hour longer, straining when cold. Distilled lily water, and water distilled with bean flour, are also much used, and have each their advocates. The favourite water in Paris for removing freckles, is an ounce of alum and an ounce of lemon juice in a pint of rose water. In England, the favourite cosmetic is milk of roses and almond paste, (see MILK OF ROSES, and PASTE.) There are various pomatums also which are renowned as cosmetics (see POMATUM.) All these mixtures, whatever may

be their real virtues, can have little effect where the skin is not kept in good order by regulation of the stomach; if that be disordered, and the skin be harsh and dry from disease of the system, cosmetics can do little good.

COSTMARY. A herb but little used either for medicine or the kitchen. It grows freely in a dry soil from the seed sown in spring, or from slips and cuttings.

COWHAGE. This is the hairy covering of the pod of a bean which grows freely in Jamaica and other West India islands. The bean is little used for food, probably on account of the labour and difficulty of removing this hairy covering, the particles of which are so irritating that if any of them get upon the skin they produce a most unpleasant and severe itching. Viewed through a powerful microscope, cowhage appears like tremendous and sharp saws, and the spectator is no longer astonished that it should produce such irritating effects. This article is sometimes mischievously and cruelly put into beds, for the purpose of teasing, as it is called, the occupants; and it has been strewed over ball rooms where, as the dance proceeded, the cowhage was driven upwards, and attacking the skin of the dancers led to painful results, for the more persons who have it upon the skin scratch the part, the more violent becomes the itching. Cowhage, however, may be adopted for better purposes than the wanton torment of our fellow creatures; it is a powerful and the only safe remedy for worms in the intestines, and having only a mechanical action, it may be given to the most delicate infant; all that is necessary being to mix it with a little jelly or thick water gruel (the latter is preferable,) taking care that it does not touch the skin of the face or hands; there is no danger in the contact with the moist part of the lips, consequently nothing is more easy than to administer it with a spoon. The dose for a child may be from five to ten grains, or even more, for it is not medicinal; and an adult may take from fifteen to thirty grains without the slightest inconvenience. In most of the books on domestic medicine, the dose for an adult is given at from five to ten grains, but the writers evidently knew little of the *modus operandi* of the article. The effect of this remedy in general worm cases, (we have no proof of its having been beneficial in cases of tapeworm, but we do not see why it should not also attack the tapeworm) is astonishing. Although

from the moment of its being placed within the mouth it ceases to produce the irritation which it causes to the outer cuticle, it acts upon the skin of the worm, and so irritates it that it looses its hold upon the intestines, and soon dies; it is then expelled by the natural course of evacuation, or its expulsion may be hastened by the administration, twelve hours after taking the cowhage, of a dose of castor oil, or any other simple purgative. The writer of this article has used cowhage very extensively in his own practice, and has never had a single failure; in some cases, where patients had previously been under a long course of mercurial medicines for the expulsion of worms without relief as to the disease, but with great injury to the system, two or three doses of cowhage have sufficed for a perfect cure. In administering this remedy also he fell upon a valuable discovery, which he has since turned to good account in cases of chronic indigestion. A gentleman, fifty years of age, who had been suffering from dyspepsia for more than thirty years, had at length a rather severe attack, in which there were a few of the symptoms usually exhibited when worms are numerous in the intestinal canal; the cowhage was administered merely as an experiment, as, if there were no worms, it could create no inconvenience; it was soon evident that the patient had not worms; but as he fancied that the cowhage improved his digestion, it was continued for ten days, in doses of fifteen grains night and morning; at the end of this period he began to enjoy such health as he had not known for thirty years, and has ever since been well, taking occasionally three or four doses of cowhage, and now and then having recourse to a plain lavement for the removal of obstruction in the lower bowels. The success thus unexpectedly obtained in this case has led to the adoption of the same curative means in others, and always with immense benefit. The effect is probably produced by an irritation of the lining of the intestines, which, although not sufficient to create uneasiness, is sufficient to rouse the parts to healthful action. Our readers are aware that it is the practice of many physicians to recommend to dyspeptic patients the use of bread in which there is a large portion of bran; this is on the same principle, but the desired effect is rarely produced, whereas by the use of cowhage it is certain; and as the effect is wholly mechanical, it may be

taken in all cases with perfect safety. Cowhage may be purchased at Apothecaries' Hall, or of any wholesale druggist, but there are few retail druggists who keep it; they will, however, always procure it upon application. It is sold in its pure state, that is to say, detached from the bean pod, at from 1s. 6d. to 2s. per drachm; but if it were in more general demand it might be sold at a very good profit for one shilling per drachm; but even at two shillings the dose of fifteen grains costs only sixpence, and five or six doses of fifteen grains will suffice in most cases. The most economical way of purchasing it is to have the bean itself, which is sold at from eight to twelve shillings per pound, and to remove the hairy covering by scraping it off with a knife, wearing gloves to prevent any of the cowhage from touching the hands; in this way a dose will not cost much more than two-pence. There is or used to be a preparation of this article called Chamberlayne's Cowhage Electuary, but as nothing is known as to the exact quantity of the cowhage contained in the electuary, we recommend the purchase in the pure form, and the administration of it in thick gruel, as preferable to any other vehicle.

CRAB. A shell fish, the flesh of which has nearly the same properties as that of the lobster. Crabs are seldom eaten in any other way than cold; the soft meat which fills the large shell, dressed with vinegar, oil, &c., is very rich, and seldom agrees with a delicate stomach. It is always advisable to take after it a very small quantity of good French brandy, mixed with its own bulk of water. The different modes of dressing recommended for lobsters may be adopted for crab, (see **LOBSTER**.) In the West Indies there is a land crab which is considered a great luxury; it is made into soup, and dressed in a variety of ways.

CRANBERRY. A fruit but little used in England, but which is in some esteem in Russia and Sweden, where it grows abundantly. The use of cranberries is in England chiefly limited to pies and puddings. They are preserved as follows:—For every pound of the fruit use two pounds of sugar; pour a little water into the preserving pan, then a layer of sugar, and then a layer of fruit; boil gently for twenty minutes, and skim.

CREAMS AND CUSTARDS.

CREAM. The fat and rich part of the milk which rises to the surface (see **MILK**

and BUTTER). Although cream in its natural state disagrees with many persons, there are others who can take it without inconvenience, although milk would disagree with them. The richness, goodness, and quantity of cream, depend of course upon those of the milk from which it is obtained. It is said that if a little of the water in which potatoes have been boiled be mixed with the milk which is set for cream, the cream will rise more rapidly and abundantly. Cream may be kept for some time by adding sugar to it, and reducing it by very gentle heat in the water bath (see WATER BATH) to three-fourths of its original quantity. The same effect may be obtained by setting the cream in a wide-mouthed bottle in a saucepan, and boiling until the quantity of cream be reduced. Cream is used in a variety of ways for pastry, and is served in its natural state for dessert, whipped up, and mixed with the juices of fruits, &c.; in France these mixtures are simply called *crèmes*. The following are the favourite French preparations of cream without the aid of heat:—

CHOCOLATE CREAM is made by pounding the chocolate into a paste with a little water, and whipping it up with the cream, in which the sugar has been previously dissolved, using also a little more gum Arabic than in the first receipt.

COFFEE CREAM is made by whipping up a little of a strong infusion of coffee with the cream, sugar, and gum.

CREME EN MOUSSE. Take a pint of fresh cream, a quarter of a pound of pounded loaf sugar, and a tea-spoonful of powdered gum Arabic, dissolved in a little orange flower water; whip into a froth, and serve.

CREME AU LIQUEUR. Increase the quantity of sugar and gum, and whip up with the cream, in which the sugar and gum have been previously dissolved, a wine glass of any liqueur, according to choice.

CREME AUX FRUITS. Adopt the same process as above, adding a wine glass of the juice of strawberries, raspberries, or other fruit instead of liqueur.

VANILLA CREAM. Boil a small piece of vanilla in a little cream; when cold, add the cream to that which is to be whipped.

In the summer, all these creams should, if possible, be frozen, to prevent the froth from falling; the vessel in which they are made should be imbedded for a short time in pounded ice mixed with salt.

We subjoin some of the favourite preparations of creams in England.

BURNT CREAM. Beat and mix well together the yolks of six eggs, two table-spoonfuls of flour, the peel of a lemon grated, and four or five bitter almonds; sweeten with lump sugar, and stir over the fire till it comes to a good thickness, and pour it into the dish in which it is to be served; boil some pounded loaf sugar in water until it turn brown, and then pour it over the top of the cream in fantastic figures.

COFFEE CREAM. Having dissolved an ounce of isinglass, boil it with two quarts of cream, and mix it with a pint and a half of very strong coffee; sweeten well, whisk it for ten minutes, put it into custard cups, and let them stand in a pan of boiling water until they become firm.

CREAM FOR FRUIT PIES is made by boiling new milk with grated nutmeg or cinnamon, two or three peach leaves, or a few bruised bitter almonds, and a sufficient quantity of sugar to sweeten it, then straining the cream, and when cold beating up with it the yolks of eggs, in the proportion of four to a quart, and warming the whole over the fire until it thickens. This is eaten cold with fruit tarts, or with any fresh fruits at dessert. If one-fourth of the quantity be rich cream, instead of the whole being milk, it will be improved.

HONEYCOMB CREAM. Pound and sift a pound of lump sugar, and mix it in a China bowl, with some strained lemon juice; then from a lip jug pour about two quarts of good cream over the sugar and lemon, holding the jug as high as possible to cause a good froth. Stir well at table before helping.

ITALIAN CREAM. Having sweetened a pint of cream, boil it with the rind of a lemon, cut very thin, and a small stick of cinnamon; strain and mix with it a little dissolved isinglass; while hot, add to it the yolks of eight eggs well beaten, and stir it till quite cold.

Another way: this is made by thickening in a saucepan a pint of good milk, the beaten yolks of three eggs, a table-spoonful of potatoe or wheaten flour, about two ounces of sugar, and some grated lemon peel, stirring constantly. It is served in the following way:—cover the bottom of the dish with some sponge cake, dipped in white wine or liqueur, (the latter is preferable,) and pour the cream upon it; whisk the whites of two new laid eggs and half an ounce of pounded and sifted sugar into a good froth, and cover

the cream with it, or lay the froth in detached portions, of almost the size of a large apple, in the cream. If the cream be covered with the froth, it may be browned with a hot shovel.

LEMON CREAM. Mix in a pint of cream, well sweetened with loaf sugar, the yolks of five eggs and the whites of three, a table-spoonful of flour, a glass of ratafia, or liqueur of any kind, a little orange flower water, and the grated rind of a lemon, or the peel ungrated. Beat these well together and put them on the fire, stirring until thick, like custard, then strain the cream and put it into a dish; when cold, sift over some fine white sugar. It may either be browned with a salamander or not. Another lemon cream is made without boiling, by sweetening a pint of cream with sugar rubbed over the rind of two lemons, and as much more sugar, pounded, as may be necessary; then adding juice of the lemons and the grated peel, very fine; whisk up the whole well, and serve the froth upon sponge biscuits dipped in wine.

NEAPOLITAN CREAM. Dissolve half an ounce of isinglass in half a pint of water, by boiling, and then add a pint of rich cream. Set this, when it has had one boil, to cool, having previously sweetened it with fine sugar; and when about half cold, beat up with it the yolks of four eggs, a glass of liqueur, and a little grated nutmeg, and a few drops of essence of lemon; when cold, put it into a shape.

ORANGE CREAM WITHOUT MOULD. Take the strained juice of twelve oranges and heat it over the fire, adding sufficient sugar to make it sweet; skim frequently. When the sugar has dissolved, take off the juice and let it stand until cold; then mix with it a pint of cream, in which the yolks of twelve eggs have been beaten up, and warm the whole over the fire until it thickens; serve in custard cups or glasses. The flavour will be improved by adding the juice of one lemon. A lemon cream may be made in the same way, using only four lemons instead of twelve oranges; it may be further flavoured by orange flower water, or with the essence of lemon.

ORANGE CREAM IN MOULD. Boil an ounce of isinglass in rather more than half a pint of water till reduced to one half, and add the strained juice of four oranges and one lemon; when the solution of isinglass is nearly cold, stir into it a pint of cream well beaten up into a froth, with sufficient sugar to sweeten the whole

mixture well, and stir until it begins to set, then put it into a mould.

PINK CREAM. Having picked some red currants from the stalks, put them into a closely covered jar, and set it over the fire in a pan of cold water, and let it boil for three hours, then strain the juice through a sieve, and sweeten to taste; when cold, add cream in the proportion of a quart to a pint of the juice, and whisk it well.

RASPBERRY CREAM. To a quart of cream add six ounces of raspberry jam, pass it through a fine lawn sieve, mix it with the juice of a lemon, and sugar to taste, and whisk to a good froth; serve in glasses or in a shape.

STRAWBERRY CREAM. Same as raspberry.

SOLID CREAM. Mix with a pint of cream two ounces of pounded loaf sugar, the juice of a lemon, a glass of liqueur, or brandy, or rum, and work them well together by pouring for some time from one jug to another.

SOLID FRUIT CREAM. Cream may be prepared with apples, peaches, apricots, &c., by boiling them in a very light syrup, after coring and peeling, or stoning, until they are sufficiently soft to press the pulp through a sieve; they are then sweetened, and beaten up with the whites of eggs which have been well whisked, and cream is laid round them. For apple cream the fruit may be boiled in a little plain water.

SPANISH CREAM. Boil two ounces of isinglass in a pint of water till quite dissolved, and mix it with two quarts of good milk; stir it over the fire till it begins to boil, then let it cool a little, and add gradually the yolks of twelve eggs, well beaten, a large glass of white wine, and a little ratafia; pour it out into a dish, sweeten to taste, and when cold put it into shapes.

STONE CREAM is made by boiling a quarter of an ounce of isinglass in a little water, and boiling it with a pint of sweetened cream, stirring it well; pour this into a dish in which have been placed preserved fruit, such as apricots, cherries, &c., with some lemon juice (say two or three table-spoonfuls,) and some grated lemon peel.

SWISS CREAM. Boil the grated peel of a good sized lemon, and rather more than half a pound of white loaf sugar in a pint of cream, thickening with a spoonful of flour previously mixed up with a table-spoonful of lemon juice; this is to be

added very gradually as the cream warms, and the whole is to be carefully stirred; when it is taken from the fire, stir till nearly cold, and serve in a glass dish garnished with preserved fruits, or candied orange and lemon peel. There is another dish called Swiss Cream which is eaten hot; it is made by whisking up in a basin or deep dish, previously made very hot, the yolks of eight eggs with half a pound of pounded loaf sugar, the grated rind of a lemon peel, and half a pint of white French wine.

WHIPT CREAM. Sweeten a quart of cream, and add to it a little rose water, or the juice of some ripe fruit; whisk it well in a deep dish, and take off the froth as it rises, and heap it upon a dish, or into glasses. It may be iced when made, if desired, and coloured by the application of a little carmine.

Another way: take a quart of good cream, sweeten it with pounded sugar, and give to it any desired flavour, such as rose, by adding two or three drops of otto of rose, or a little rosewater, orange flower, (see **NEROLI**,) or lemon, by rubbing sugar upon the rinds of lemons, or using a little essence of lemon, (see **ESSENTIAL OIL**,) or the expressed juice of any fruit, as raspberries, currants, strawberries, &c.; whisk the cream well into a thick good froth, putting it to drain as it rises, in the same way as recommended for syllabub, (see **SYLLABUB**,) till all is whisked; then put the whole into a dish, or serve in glasses. If it is required to give colour to this or other creams, it may be done by putting the colour required, such as carmine, arnotto, &c., in a bag, and putting it into boiling water, squeezing out the colour in the same way as with a blue bag; filter the liquid, and add it to the cream before whisking, until the desired tint is obtained.

An almost endless variety of receipts for creams might be given, but they are merely varieties, and the above are quite sufficient to enable the cook or housekeeper to exercise invention. It may be well to observe that not only the fresh juices, but also the marmalades of any fruit, may be made up with creams according to the ordinary process of cream making, either plain whipped, or boiled with or without isinglass, and that all creams to be eaten cold are much improved by being frozen.

CUSTARD. Having sweetened two quarts of good milk, boil it with a stick of cinnamon, and the peel of a lemon; strain;

and when a little cool, mix in gradually the yolks of twenty eggs, well beaten; stir it over a slow fire till it becomes pretty thick, then pour it into a basin and add a table-spoonful of orange flower water, and a small glass of ratafia; keep stirring it occasionally till cold, and then put it into cups.

ALMOND CUSTARD. Blanch half a pound of almonds, and pound them in a mortar with a little rosewater; then add a quart of cream, and the yolks of twelve eggs well beaten; sweeten to taste with lump sugar, and stir over a slow fire until it becomes thick, but without allowing it to boil; serve in cups with sugar sifted over the top.

BISCUIT CUSTARD. Break into small bits two dozen macaroons, and the same number of small ratafia biscuits, pour over them a hot custard, and stir well until the whole is well mixed; pour it into a trifle dish, and pour over it the whites of two eggs well whisked for an hour with a little red currant jelly; grating nutmeg over the top of the whole.

LEMON CUSTARD. Squeeze the juice of eight lemons into a deep dish with half a pound of pounded loaf sugar; boil two quarts of cream with the peel of a lemon, and four ounces of pounded lump sugar, and pour into the dish; it will keep for five or six days.

ORANGE CUSTARD. Strain the juice of twenty oranges, and sweeten with pounded loaf sugar; stir it over the fire till hot, and when nearly cold add to it the yolks of twenty eggs well beaten, a quart of cream, and a glass of ratafia; put it again into the saucepan, and stir it over a slow fire until it thickens; serve in cups or glasses, or in a dish.

RICE CUSTARD. Mix a quart of milk, a pint of cream, two ounces of ground rice, ten bitter almonds blanched, and pounded with a little orange flower water; sweeten to taste, and stir altogether till it nearly boils; then add the yolks of five eggs, stir, and let it simmer for a minute; serve it in cups with sifted loaf sugar on the top.

CREOZOTE. An essence obtained from the distillation of wood. It has a high tar flavour, and leaves a taste in the mouth which is got rid of with difficulty. It appears, however, to have some precious sedative properties; it has been long used as a remedy for the toothache, and where that distressing pain is susceptible of cure from any other application than the instrument of the dentist it is really excellent.

In 1839 the author of an interesting work, called "The Hand Book to Paris," announced that it was a remedy for sea sickness, and from diligent inquiry we find that if not exactly what has been announced by some—viz., a preventive, it is superior to anything hitherto announced for that afflicting malady. An English physician, for some time resident at Boulogne, gives the following account of it in a letter to a friend:—"I had for some time recommended my dyspeptic patients to take occasionally four or five drops of the creozote in water, and had witnessed the most happy effects from it in many cases of indigestion which had baffled the ordinary course of practice, when I saw an extract from a little work, called the 'Paris Hand Book,' announcing that creozote was a remedy for sea-sickness. Having frequently to cross the channel, and being a great sufferer from sea-sickness, and concluding from analogy that it might really be of service in tranquillizing the nerves, to which in their deranged state we owe the most painful effects of sea-sickness, I resolved to try it. In four voyages after I had tried this remedy, by taking six drops a few minutes before I started, and four or five drops on sugar when on board, I had no sickness; whereas on all previous occasions I was more or less ill, and sometimes dreadfully so. On my fifth voyage, which was a very rough one indeed, the creozote did not prevent my vomiting, but to my great satisfaction, and I may say astonishment, considering what I had previously suffered in rough weather, I had no straining in getting rid of the contents of the stomach, and when the vomiting, which did not last five minutes, was over, I was able to walk about the deck and enjoy the voyage, instead of lying prostrate, as I had hitherto done, and suffering acutely. I have now used the creozote on the whole about ten times; in eight of the voyages I was not ill, even for a moment; in the other two I was sick for only a very short time, and recovered almost immediately. I strongly recommend you to try it, for it is a very safe remedy, as there is nothing narcotic in its sedativeness, but you must make up your mind to an unpleasant flavour; at least such is the general opinion on the subject, and some of my lady patients who used it tell me they were not sick, but would rather have been so than have had the unpleasant taste of the medicine in their mouths; they were I think not to say a *little* fastidious, for to me the taste is

by no means disagreeable." The testimony borne to the creozote in the above letter as a remedy for indigestion, and the certainty that there is nothing in it which can disagree with the stomach, warrants the trial in cases of this description, particularly those in which the derangement of the nerves is indicated by a pain at the pit of the stomach.

CUCUMBERS. These are always more or less indigestible, but they are much more digestible when cooked than in their raw state; they are also of a cold nature, and should never be eaten without pepper. There are four species of cucumbers for the table, two early, and two of late cucumbers; the seed of the early sorts should be sown in the month of May, in a common bed, taking care to cover the ground with mats during the night, and also in the day-time, if the weather be cold; in the following month, plants must be taken up and put separately in garden pots, which are to be placed in a hot-bed under glass frames; before the frost arrives, they will be beyond danger. The culture of the common or late cucumber is very simple; the seeds are to be sown in a hot-bed early in the spring, and when the plants are sufficiently large for transplanting, they are to be placed in open ground richly manured. The mode of raising the early cucumber in France is as follows:—The seeds are sown in a hot-bed, having only four inches of earth, in November or December, under bell glasses, about a dozen seeds under each glass; a month afterwards the plants are placed in another hot-bed, about four under each glass; and a month afterwards they are transplanted into a third bed, the manure of which is less abundant, and with about eight inches of mould; this bed is under glass frames, and the plants are placed at about two feet distance from each other. When the plants are sufficiently strong, they are trimmed or cut off above the second leaf; air is admitted from time to time, and when the weather is warm; these plants are watered with water which has been slightly warmed by adding about two quarts of boiling water to five gallons of cold water. In cold weather, care is taken not to expose the plants to the air. The seeds of the cucumber are not gathered until the vegetable begins to fall to decay, they are then washed carefully and put to dry; they will remain good for seven or eight years.

BEDFORDSHIRE CUCUMBERS. In the southern counties of England, pickling

cucumbers are easily raised without any artificial heat, being sown in drills in the open ground. The earth is made fine and level, and shallow circular hollows are formed with the hand, a foot wide, and half an inch deep in the middle; the distance between each hollow is three feet and a half, and the distance between the rows five or six feet. Eight or ten seeds are deposited in each cavity; this is done in the beginning of June. When the plants appear, they are thinned out to three or four, the weakest or less healthy being rejected; they are watered occasionally, according to the state of the weather; the cucumbers are gathered chiefly from the middle to the end of August. Vast quantities of these open ground gherkins are taken to the London market; the valley of Sandy, in Bedfordshire, has been known to furnish ten thousand bushels of drilled cucumbers in one week.

TO EAT CUCUMBERS IN THEIR RAW STATE. Take off the rind of the cucumber, then cut it in very thin round slices, and let them lie in salt for about a quarter of an hour, to carry off a portion of their water; take away the salt, and serve the cucumber with vinegar, oil, and pepper. If chopped onion be served with it, the dish is much more wholesome.

CUCUMBERS A LA MAITRE D'HOTEL. Cut them in rather thick slices, and stew, or rather fry them in a saucepan with butter, pepper, salt, chopped parsley, and cibols or a little onion.

CUCUMBERS IN MILK. Cut the cucumbers in small squares, after taking off the rind, and put them over the fire in a saucepan with salt, until they become tender; have a milk sauce ready, thickened with flour and white of egg, and properly sweetened; the cucumbers are to be taken out and strained, and put into this sauce, which is to be served up hot.

CUCUMBERS A LA POULETTE. Let the cucumbers simmer over the fire with butter, then thicken with flour, and moisten with cream and beef-stock; when taken from the fire, add to the same the whites of two or three eggs previously beaten up; heighten the flavour with a little vinegar.

TO PICKLE CUCUMBERS. (See PICKLES.)

CURDS. The term applied to that portion of milk which is separated from the whey by the addition of rennet or any acid. Curds and cream form a favourite dish in many parts of England; it is made by turning new milk with rennet, draining the curds from the whey, and pressing

them into a mould; when quite cold the whey is served in a dish, covered with rich sweetened cream and nutmeg, and with the addition of any other flavour, such as the fresh juice of fruits, or ratafia, &c., beaten up with the cream. The dish called Naples curd is made by boiling a little cinnamon or nutmeg for a few minutes in a quart of milk, then stirring in the well-beaten yolks of eight eggs, and a little white wine; boil, and then strain through a sieve; the curds of this are to be beaten up with a little orange flower water, and powdered sugar to sweeten them; put into a mould to give shape to the curd; and when compact, serve in a dish covered with a little fresh and sweetened cream. Curds, although considered by many persons to be a light dish, are heavy of digestion, and should not be eaten by persons of delicate stomachs. Curds and whey are merely milk turned by rennet, and a little sweetened; the curds and whey are served together.

CURRIE POWDER. A hot preparation, very much used in India. The best is made there, but little of it finds its way to Europe; what is sold at the oil shops is generally of English manufacture. The following are some of the best known receipts:—Pound six ounces of coriander seed, three ounces of black pepper, an ounce and a half of fenigreck seed, one ounce of cummin seed, three ounces of turmeric, and three quarters of an ounce of Cayenne; sift through muslin, and dry it thoroughly for several hours before the fire, stirring repeatedly; then bottle, and cork very tightly. If the powder be made for the use of persons who have lived much in India, and been accustomed to eat currie there, the quantity of Cayenne should be increased to an ounce, or even an ounce and a quarter. Another preparation of currie powder is made by omitting the coriander seed, doubling the quantity of turmeric, and substituting for the coriander two ounces of ginger; in fact, if turmeric and Cayenne be made the basis of the powder, the other ingredients may be varied according to taste.

CURRIE. Any dish strongly seasoned with currie powder. From the large quantity of spice used in curries it will readily be conceived that they are to be used with moderation; where the stomach, however, will bear the excitement, currie has the effect of stimulating the appetite, and creating a relish for the plainer dishes.

DRY CURRIE. Cut up a fowl, or a

rabbit, or part of a loin of veal; fry the meat in butter with three or four minced onions, and when done, powder it with a table-spoonful of currie, and a tea-spoonful of Cayenne pepper; then stew the meat and onions in a stewpan, with a pint of water and a little rich gravy of any kind, adding enough salt to give flavour; when the meat has stewed long enough to become quite tender, add a little vinegar, or lemon juice, and five minutes afterwards serve the dish.

ANOTHER CURRIE. The meat is to be cut into small pieces, and fried with slices of onions; in the meantime, pound in a mortar two onions, an apple, and a head of garlic, with a glass of sherry; when well pounded, strain the juice through a sieve, and add a table-spoonful of currie powder, two spoonfuls of turmeric, and half a tea-spoonful of Cayenne pepper; now put the meat into a stew pan with this mixture and a little salt, and add a pint of French white wine, or the same quantity of water; stew gently until there be very little liquor left; then squeeze in a table spoonful of lemon juice, and serve. This dish is sometimes made by putting the meat on skewers with alternate slices of onion, and frying in that state before stewing; it is in this case called *Kebobed currie*.

FISH CURRIE is made by stewing any fish cut into pieces, with sufficient water to cover it, and the same proportion of currie powder as for meat, adding pepper, and salt, and a few onions and shalots, fried brown in a good quantity of butter, say a quarter of a pound to two good sized mackerel; in order to increase the flavour, the fish before being put into the stew pan may be well powdered with turmeric and a little Cayenne pepper. Cold fish may be prepared in the same way, and served either as a separate dish or in a *vol au vent*; on the Continent, the latter is preferred. As many of the bones as possible should be removed before the fish is put on to stew, rice being served with this as with all other dishes of currie. If the fish is to be eaten cold, it is not to be stewed at all; the cold fish from the preceding day is to be arranged as neatly as possible, so as not to have the appearance of having been previously on the table; and vinegar, in which onions, shalots, garlic, ginger, nutmeg, cloves, salt, pepper, and currie powder have been boiled, is to be poured boiling hot over the fish, which is to stand in a close vessel for a few hours; the quantity of the spices must depend upon the quantity of fish and the discretion of the cook.

TO CURRY A FOWL. Skin the fowl, cut it into small pieces, and lay them in cold water for an hour; mince an onion, and put it into a saucepan with two ounces of fresh butter, and a little flour stirred in by degrees; when it is well browned add three pints of water, and put in the fowl, and a large table-spoonful of currie powder; these are to boil until the fowl is quite tender; just before serving, add the juice of half a lemon. Boiled rice is to be served with this or any other currie in a separate dish. Some cooks brown the fowl in the butter before adding the water, and others use stock instead of water, or water with some rich gravy; a rabbit cooked in this way is a favourite dish; the remains of rabbit or fowl may be dressed in the same way. Veal is also frequently made into currie, either fresh, or the roast veal of a preceding day: if veal previously dressed be used, it should be cut into thick slices, and when the butter has been prepared as above, put into it, with some good gravy and the currie powder; if the veal be fresh, it should be from the neck, cut into cutlets, and the liquor in which it is to be stewed should be previously made from the trimmings; the cutlets are to be fried in the butter before the gravy and currie powder are added; in this case, instead of thickening the butter with flour, let the gravy from the trimmings when strained be thickened.

CURRIED FROGS. The following dish was frequently served at the table of one of the foreign ambassadors at Paris—the same process may be adopted for a chicken:—Take the hind legs of four dozen frogs (or a chicken cut up,) blanch them in a pint of milk and then set them by; now add to the milk two onions cut into slices, some salt, two large mushrooms cut up, a table-spoonful of currie powder, and a little Cayenne pepper, boil these very gently for half an hour, then add the frogs and stew very slowly for another half hour, squeeze in the juice of half a large lemon, and serve.

INDIAN CURRIE. Mrs. Dalgairn gives the following as the mode of preparing this dish; it must be observed, however, that there are scarcely two cooks in India who dress their currie in precisely the same way:—“Stew in two ounces of butter, for ten minutes, a tea-spoonful of Cayenne and one of Jamaica pepper, a dessert-spoonful of pounded coriander seed, six small onions, and two heads of garlic minced; cut the fowl or rabbit into small pieces, and cover it with the curd

of sweet milk; put the whole into a stew pan with as much boiling water as may be desired for sauce, and let it simmer till very tender."

The rice to be served with currie should be of the best quality, and should be washed perfectly clean; it may then be boiled in a bag, or as follows:—Boil half a pound of rice for about twenty minutes in a quart of cold water, then put it to drain in a sieve, after which dry it before the fire to get rid of all superfluous moisture, stirring it from time to time, and serve it very hot.

CURRANTS. This is a very agreeable and wholesome fruit, common to many countries, and useful in a variety of preparations. In its raw state the currant is said to be a corrective of bile, when eaten in the morning fasting; and with the exception of its being a little flatulent, when eaten to excess, this fruit seldom produces inconvenience. The juice of the black currant is used a great deal when prepared as a jelly for sore throats, and the leaves infused as tea are also considered a good remedy for cold. The currant tree may be propagated by cuttings, and will grow freely in most soils. When trained against a wall, with a good southern aspect, the fruit attains a larger size.

BLACK CURRANT PASTE. The best way of making black currant paste is to dissolve an ounce of isinglass in about half a pint of the filtered juice, and equal weight of sugar, put them in a stew pan, and let them simmer for at least an hour, then pour out the juice into a very shallow tin mould, and when it is cold and quite hard cut it into pieces. The juice of the black currant makes a fine liqueur which is called by the French *Ratafia de Cassis* (see *RATAFIA*.)

CURRANT JAM. Boil the currants with an equal weight of sugar, scumming them well; if there is no objection to the jam being rather solid, a portion of the juice may be poured off, and made into jelly, as under.

CURRANT JELLY. For this purpose choose the fruit very ripe, bruise them, and press out the juice into a large earthen vessel, cover it well, and set it by in a cool place for six days; at the expiration of this time remove the film that covers the top of the juice, and pour it off very carefully into another vessel; weigh the juice and put it with half its weight of lump sugar into a large saucepan, set it over a slow fire, being careful to scum it

well, let it simmer for an hour, or until you find by pouring a few drops of the liquid on a cold plate that it becomes when cold of the consistence of jelly, then pour it into small pots, and when cold put over each pot a piece of writing paper soaked in brandy, covering the whole with bladder or parchment. Red and black currants alone are used for making jelly. Where the flavour is liked, a fourth part of raspberries may be mixed with the currants.

COMPOTE OF CURRANTS. Having made a very strong syrup, pick a pound of fine currants, wash them and drain them well, and put them into the syrup and let them boil up three or four times pretty sharply, taking care to scum them carefully.

CURRANT JELLY WITHOUT BOILING. Proceed as in making jelly for boiling, taking care, however, to have the currants very ripe, and not to wash them, putting a pound of powdered sugar to a pound of juice, and passing the whole through a jelly bag; when the jelly is in the pots, put them to stand in the sun for two or three days; this jelly has a finer flavour than that which is boiled, but does not keep so long. In powdering the sugar for this, as in all preparations where powdered sugar is ordered, it should not be triturated in a mortar, or even crushed, as is the common practice, with a rolling-pin; it is a singular fact, that beating or crushing sugar converts a portion of it into starch, and therefore diminishes its sweetening property.

SYRUP OF CURRANTS WITH RASPBERRIES AND CHERRIES. Take two pounds of red currants a little before they are ripe, a pound of fine cherries, and the same quantity of raspberries; stone the cherries, and having pressed the juice out of all the fruit, pass it through the sieve and put it into the cellar for twenty-four hours, then take off the crust and strain through a jelly bag. In order that the juice may be finely perfumed by the raspberries, the better plan is not to squeeze out their juice with that of the currants and cherries, but to place the raspberries in the juice of these fruits for about a day and then squeeze them, and add their juice to the other; when the whole of the juice has been well filtered, put to half a pound of juice a pound of white sugar broken into small pieces, and place the whole in a stew pan over a slow fire; when the sugar has entirely melted, without allowing the mixture to boil, take it off and bottle it. This is a very refresh-

ing syrup in hot weather, mixed with water, and may be also used with benefit in cases of fever.

CURRENT WINES. (See **WINES.**)

For the use of currants in pastry, see **PASTRY.**

CUTS. For an ordinary cut, no other measure is necessary than closing the edges of the wound as well as possible by pressure, and applying over it slips of diachylon plaster, to exclude the external air; over these may be laid slips of court plaster, to secure the others, and a linen rag may be tied over the whole. The common plan of applying oils, balsams, brandy, &c., is worse than useless. If the cut be very severe, the aid of a surgeon should be called in.

DATES. The fruit of an African tree; in their dried state, as they are imported into Europe, they are not very delicate eating. Stewed in the same way as dried plums, they are said to be good for coughs and colds.

DIGESTION. Under the head **INDIGESTION**, the reader will find practical rules for the prevention and cure of that distressing state of disease, particularly as connected with food. In order, however, that the article in question may be better understood, it may not be amiss here to give a short account of the digestive process; the article **DIGESTION** in the "Penny Encyclopædia" being the best description, as regards simplicity and comprehensiveness, which has been published on the subject, we think we cannot do better than quote it here. "The process of digestion comprehends the entire series of changes by which the crude aliment is assimilated into arterial blood. These changes are effected by organs which, viewed collectively, comprise a most extensive apparatus commencing at the mouth and ending at the lungs.

"The first changes upon the food are effected in the mouth, where it is mixed with mucus and saliva. Torn to pieces by the teeth in the operation of mastication and softened by the secretions of the mouth until it is reduced to a pulp, it is then collected by the tongue and formed by that organ into a mass called a bolus. The bolus of food thus prepared is carried by the tongue to a muscular membranous bag called the pharynx, situated at the back part of the throat. The pharynx, as soon as it receives the bolus, contracts firmly upon it, and by a proper muscular action delivers it to the œsophagus, a

long muscular tube which extends from the pharynx to the stomach. The bolus of food does not descend along the œsophagus by its own weight, for a person can swallow while standing on his head, and many animals have obviously to convey their food along the œsophagus against gravity. The food when it enters the œsophagus is transmitted along the tube by a powerful contraction upon it of the strong fasciæ of muscular fibres of which it is composed.

"By the œsophagus the food is conveyed into the stomach, where it is converted into a fluid termed chyme. The chyme when duly prepared in the stomach is transmitted to the small intestines, in the first portion of which it is converted into a new substance called chyle. In its passage along the second portion of the small intestines the chyle disappears, being taken up by a set of vessels named lacteals, which convey it through a double series of glands called the mesenteric glands, to the thoracic duct. By the thoracic duct it is conveyed through the abdomen into the thorax, where it is poured into one of the large veins, the subclavian, which returns the blood from the upper parts of the body to the right side of the heart, to be, by the right heart, propelled into the pulmonary artery. By the pulmonary artery the chyle now mingled with venous blood is conveyed to the lungs, where it undergoes its ultimate change, and is converted into arterial blood. The large intestines meantime carry out of the body that portion of the food which has not been converted into chyle."

The structure of the different parts of the extensive apparatus concerned in carrying on this series of changes, a structure fitting them in the most admirable manner for performing the specific offices assigned them, will not be here described, as we shall confine ourselves strictly to an account of the phenomena of digestion.

"The food, torn, as has been stated, into minute fragments by the operation of mastication, softened and brought into the state of a pulp by its admixture with mucus and saliva, and raised nearly to the temperature of the blood by the warmth of the mouth, is received into an extensive chamber, the stomach, where it is constantly maintained at a temperature of 100° of Fahrenheit, and kept in a state of gentle but almost unceasing agitation by a peculiar motion of the stomach, effected by its muscular fibres, and called, from its

striking resemblance to the motion of the earth-worm, peristaltic. The essential phenomena which take place on the introduction of the food into the stomach are the following:—

“The food on entering the stomach is not arranged indifferently in any part of the chamber, but is detained in the great extremity, or that portion of the stomach which is near the entrance of the œsophagus, termed the cardiac extremity. This portion of the stomach, during the actual process of digestion, appears to be cut off from the rest by a contraction of the circular fibres of the muscular coat, called the hour-glass contraction, by which about a third of the length of the stomach towards its small or pyloric extremity is separated from the great or cardiac extremity. The food received in the cardiac extremity is slowly dissolved; this solution takes place at the surface; ‘in proportion as it proceeds, the dissolved part is rolled off the rest by the peristaltic action of the fibres of the stomach and carried to the pyloric portion,’ where it accumulates. Thus the undissolved and the dissolved portions of the food are in different parts of the stomach; the undissolved portion in the cardiac, and the dissolved portion in the pyloric extremity.

“A remarkable change takes place on the inner or mucous surface of the stomach, the moment a portion of food comes in contact with it. This change has been seen to take place in the stomachs of animals, laid open during the process of digestion for the purpose of affording an opportunity to observe the phenomena, and even in the human stomach, which, in more than one instance, has been completely exposed to view in consequence of wounds accidentally inflicted. The mucous coat of the stomach, which is of a pale pink colour when the stomach is empty, becomes of a bright red colour when excited by the contact of food. Over this reddened surface are visible, more especially when it is examined through a magnifying glass, innumerable minute lucid points, from which distils a pure limpid and colourless fluid. This fluid, as it is discharged, is absorbed by the aliment in contact with the surface of the stomach, or collects in small drops and trickles down the sides of the stomach to the more depending parts, and there mingles with the food and dissolves it. This fluid, the true solvent of the food, is termed the gastric juice. It has been ascertained to be the efficient agent

in digestion, and its solvent power has been demonstrated by a series of most decisive experiments long ago performed by Spallanzani and others. This distinguished physiologist swallowed a metallic tube perforated with holes and filled with flesh; he allowed the tube to remain in the stomach four hours, and then contrived to throw it up by exciting vomiting mechanically. The flesh in the tube was found to be thoroughly soaked with the fluid of the stomach; its surface was in a dissolved state, being soft and gelatinous, and moreover it had wasted from fifty-three to thirty-eight grains. Subsequently Dr. Stevens induced a person practised in swallowing pebbles, to swallow a hollow silver sphere, containing raw or cooked flesh, or vegetables, and perforated with holes that would admit a crow quill; the sphere was voided in about forty hours perfectly empty. Next Mr. Hunter observed that the great extremity of the human stomach is sometimes found after death in a softened state, and even in a state of partial solution, the coats of the stomach being dissolved by its own gastric juice, and the edges of the opening appearing pulpy, tender and ragged, and even the parts adjacent to the stomach, as the spleen, the diaphragm, and the lungs, being in like manner softened.

“This solution of the food is wholly different from the spontaneous resolution which warmth and moisture tend to produce in it. Exposure of the food to warmth and moisture decomposes it by the process of putrefaction; but the gastric juice is antiseptic, and stops the putrefying process even after it is considerably advanced. The solution of the food by the gastric juice is a chemical operation, and the gastric juice is a chemical agent, the exact nature of which is now clearly ascertained. Spallanzani discovered that the gastric juice is of an acid nature. Some years ago Dr. Prout ascertained that this acid is the muriatic. Dr. Prout’s experiments were repeated by some distinguished chemists in France with different results; but the accuracy of Dr. Prout’s conclusions was afterwards confirmed by the experiments of Tiedemann and Gmelin, and they have received a fresh confirmation by the more recent experiments of Bracconnot and Blondelot, so that it may now be considered as established that the agent by which the solution of the food in the stomach is effected is muriatic acid or chlorine. If meat and

gastric juice be enclosed in a glass tube, and kept at the temperature of the human body, a product is obtained closely resembling the fluid formed by the solution of the food in the stomach. If meat be enclosed in a glass tube with dilute muriatic acid, and kept at the temperature of the blood, a perfectly similar product is obtained.

“The muriatic acid constituting the essential ingredient of the gastric juice is conceived to be derived by an act of secretion from common salt, muriate of soda, contained in the blood. The alkali, the base of the salt, is retained in the blood to maintain the alkaline condition essential to its healthy constitution, while the acid is liberated and poured, in the form of gastric juice, into the stomach to accomplish the solution of the food.

“After the food has undergone the action of the gastric juice, it loses its sensible properties, and is converted into the homogeneous semi-fluid mass which has received the name of chyme. Specific differences are distinguishable in chyme, according as the food from which it is formed has consisted of vegetable or animal matter, and according as it has contained fatty or oily substance, or has been destitute of them. Usually, however, it consists of a pultaceous mass, of a greyish colour; it has a sweetish taste, and is slightly acid. The character common to it, from whatever kind of food it may have been produced, and therefore distinctive of it, is its acidity.

“Gradually, as it is formed, the chyme accumulates in the pyloric extremity of the stomach. When the accumulation amounts to a certain quantity, the pylorus relaxes, and allows the chyme to flow from the stomach into the first portion of the small intestines, the duodenum. Here it is mixed with the mucus of the intestines, with the pancreatic juice, and with the bile. The bile, slowly and at intervals, a drop about twice in a minute, flows into the duodenum, and diffuses itself over the neighbouring surface. On coming in contact with the chyme, the bile imparts to it its sensible qualities, its colour and bitterness. But in a short time a spontaneous change takes place in the chyme. It separates into a whitish tenacious fluid termed chyle, and into a grey pulp: the first is the nutritive part of the food, the second is its excrementitious portion. If fat or oil, whether of vegetable or animal matter, have formed part of the aliment, the chyle is of an opaque white colour; if not,

it is of a greyish colour. It differs in its chemical character from chyme; for chyme is acid: chyle, on the contrary, is alkaline.

“The chyle, together with the excrementitious portion of the food, is slowly transmitted along the small intestines. The progress of the chyle is rendered slow, partly by its own tenacity, in consequence of which it adheres with some degree of firmness to the villi, and its progress is still further retarded by the *valvule conniventes*, which act as partial valves. In its course through the small intestines, the chyle gradually disappears, being absorbed by the lacteal vessels, so called from the milk-like fluid they contain. The lacteals commence by open mouths on the surface of the villi. Loaded with chyle, the lacteals penetrate the coats of the intestine, pass between the layers of the mesentery, and enter the first order of mesenteric glands. In the mesenteric glands the lacteals unite freely with each other, and become exceedingly convoluted. On emerging from these glands the lacteals pass, still between the layers of the mesentery, on to the second order of mesenteric glands, which they enter, and in which they present the same convoluted appearance as in the first order. On emerging from the second order of mesenteric glands, the lacteals pass on to the receptacle of the chyle, which forms the commencement of the thoracic duct. In the receptacle of the chyle terminates another system of absorbent vessels, termed lymphatics, from the colourless and pellucid fluid, called lymph, which they contain. From the receptacle of the chyle, the chyle and lymph commingled flow into the thoracic duct, by which tube they are transmitted through the abdomen and thorax to the left subclavian vein, where they are mixed with venous blood. Together with the blood contained in this great vein, the chyle and lymph are sent by a direct and short course to the lungs.

“The result of the successive changes thus wrought upon the food by these progressive steps of the digestive process, is to approximate the crude aliment more and more nearly to the chemical condition of the blood. ‘This is accomplished partly by the gastric and intestinal juices, and partly by matters combined with the food, highly animalized in their own nature, and endowed with assimilative properties, as the salivary secretion mixed with the food during mastication; the

pancreatic and biliary secretions mixed with the food during the conversion of chyme into chyle; the mesenteric secretions mixed with the elaborated chyle of the mesenteric glands; and, lastly, organized particles which have already formed a part of the living structures of the body, mixed with the chyle under the form of lymph in the thoracic duct.'

"In the stomach, by the agency of the gastric juice, a superfluity of water is chemically combined with the original element of the nutritive matter contained in the food, by which the solution of the food is effected. This Dr. Prout terms a reducing process, because, by its combination with water, the nutritive element is reduced to a weaker state. This element Dr. Prout conceives to be albumen, although he states that he has been unable to detect true albumen in the stomach when none has been present in the food. 'Though the proportions,' he says, 'of the different ingredients of the chyle, as ultimately formed, are liable to be much varied, according to the nature of the food, yet whatever the nature of the food may be, the general components and character of the chyle remain always the same. The stomach must therefore be endowed with a power or faculty, the agency of which is to secure the uniform composition of the chyle by appropriate action upon such materials as circumstances may bring within its reach. For indeed the chief materials from which chyle is formed, namely, the albuminous and oleaginous principles, may be considered as already fitted for the purposes of the animal economy, without undergoing any essential change in their composition. But the saccharine class of aliments, which form a very large part of the food of all animals (except of those subsisting entirely on flesh,) are by no means adapted for such speedy assimilation. Indeed, one or more essential changes must take place in saccharine aliments previously to their conversion either into the albuminous or into the oleaginous principles. Most probably, under ordinary circumstances, these essential changes are altogether chemical, that is to say, they are such as do take place, or rather would take place, if the elements of the substances thus changed in the stomach could, out of the body, be so collocated as to bring into action the oppositions necessary to produce these changes. Thus the saccharine principle spontaneously becomes alcohol, which is merely an oleaginous body of a weak

kind. When therefore in the stomach it is requisite that sugar be converted into oil, it is probable that the sugar passes through precisely the same series of changes it undergoes out of the body, during its conversion into alcohol. We cannot trace the conversion of sugar into albumen, because we are ignorant of the relative composition, and of the laws which regulate the changes of these two substances.'

"If the indications of albumen in the chyme be not well marked, albumen is largely developed in the chyle of the small intestines, while, in that of the mesenteric glands and the thoracic duct, a large portion of the watery particles in the chyme of the stomach and the chyle of the intestines is removed, so that the action of the mesenteric glands seems to be the converse of that of the stomach, namely, a completing power by which the albumen is progressively brought nearer and nearer the condition in which it exists in the blood.

"It is the office of the large intestines into which only a very small portion of chyle enters, to prepare the excrementary part of the aliment for its expulsion, and to generate the force by which, when duly prepared, it is conveyed from the body. These organs possess a modification of structure adapting them in the most admirable manner for the performance of this two-fold office."

DILL. A plant very much resembling fennel in many of its properties. Distilled dill water was formerly much used as a remedy for hysteria in domestic medicine. The seeds of dill are recommended as a good carminative, and may be employed in making stomachic liqueurs.

DINNER — MODE OF SERVING. Of late years the mode of serving a dinner, that is to say, the order and arrangement of the dishes, has been very much changed by the introduction of French customs as regards what is called high life, but in plain families it has not undergone much variation. After the soup, which should be of two sorts if the party be large, one at the top and the other at the bottom of the table, comes the first course, which consists of boiled and fried fish, served in the same way at the top and bottom of the table; but in many families the fish is served at the same time as the soup, in order that those persons who do not take soup may not be kept waiting. The second course consists of boiled meat or poultry, with vegetables; the third, of

made dishes and vegetables; the fourth, of roasted meat, poultry, or game, (or these may be divided into two courses, making a separate course for game;) the fifth, of jellies, macaroni, tarts, and other sweet articles; the sixth, of cheese and salads; and the seventh, of dessert, after which comes the coffee. In the early part of the dinner, French white wines and hock are served, or sherry; where light wines are served it is customary to take a glass or two of Madeira after the soup and fish; as the dinner advances, the more generous French wines, such as Chambertin, Volnay, &c., may be offered; and at about the third course the servant in attendance should go round and fill the champagne glasses; indeed, there are many of the best families in England who make it a custom to serve champagne immediately after the first course, and to have the glasses filled at each course afterwards; port wine should never make its appearance before the dessert. In France, champagne wine is seldom served until a short time previous to the dessert. The French mode of serving a dinner differs essentially from the old English custom, but many of the upper classes of the English now adopt the French plan; in France, for family parties the greater part of the dinner is served at once, the jellies and dessert figure with the first dishes, thus giving a full and elegant appearance to the table, and the only change during the dinner, after the removal of the soup, is bringing in the roasted game as a separate course. Generally speaking, a round dining table is used, and the master of the house takes his seat in the centre, with the mistress of the house either opposite to him, or seated at some other part where she can pay attention to her guests; this is a much better mode than that adopted in England, for all the guests are thus more readily attended to. Coffee is seldom served at the table except at public dinners; but immediately after the dessert, the ladies and gentlemen rise and proceed to the drawing room, where the coffee is ready on a table in the centre. Just before the dessert, champagne wine is offered, and at dessert red wines of the finer kind are placed upon the table; the custom of inviting ladies to take wine in the formal English way is seldom followed, every gentleman is expected to accommodate the lady next to him, and the really absurd practice of calling out to a lady at several feet distance to do a gentleman the honour of taking wine with him

is unknown. A French dinner is in fact altogether less formal and unrestrained than an English one, and the ungallant practice of gentlemen remaining a long time at table after the dessert, drinking port and claret, the ladies having withdrawn, is unknown. An immense number of families in England have altogether adopted the French habit of withdrawing from the dinner table with the ladies. In other houses, a modification of the English and French customs has been adopted, and this is perhaps the best plan; the gentlemen remain at table only a quarter of an hour or so after the ladies have quitted, which gives them an opportunity of talking over politics, agriculture, commerce, &c., without annoying the ladies with such conversation; and it affords the ladies an opportunity of a little gossip in the drawing room before the arrival of the gentlemen; the French would do well, perhaps, to adopt this habit, instead of talking over such subjects at the dinner table. At large dinners in rich French families, the courses come in regular order, and the long table is used from necessity, for otherwise it would be impossible to accommodate the guests, unless the dining room were very large; there is the same latitude as to the courses as in England, for much must depend on the taste of the entertainers.

The following account of a dinner, served in 1840, at the table of one of the French princes, will give the English reader an idea of the kind of service in high life in France; and as it will admit of any modification, by blending it with the English mode, it may be found useful. The dinner was for forty persons, and was during the spring; the dishes are of course varied according to the season:—

SOUPS of four sorts.

FIRST COURSE. Calf's head, en tortue; beef, with sauce piquante; a quarter of lamb; a turbot.

SECOND COURSE. A fowl, with rich sauce; a hot paté of vegetables; two loins of mutton; mackarel à la maitre d'hotel; lamb's feet, with rich gravy; a ragout of mixed meats; fricassée de poulets, with peas; a knuckle of veal, stewed; pigeons, stewed; legs of geese, roasted, and served with mashed green peas; oyster patties; stewed ducks; ox palate, with gravy.

THIRD COURSE. A paté of partridges; a ham; a Savoy biscuit; lobsters.

FOURTH COURSE. Roasted fowls; roasted rabbits; smoked tongue; fried soles; roasted hare; roasted wood pigeons;

roasted quails ; fried smelts, served on silver skewers.

FIFTH COURSE. Peas, with sugar ; lettuces, stewed ; French beans, plain boiled, as in England ; cauliflowers, ditto ; tarts of different kinds ; spinach ; cherry fritters ; beans ; poached eggs, with gravy ; orange jelly ; blanc-manger ; asparagus ; rice fritters.

SIXTH COURSE. Salads of different kinds.

SEVENTH COURSE. Dessert of different fruits, and preserved fruits, cakes, confectionary, &c.

DISTILLATION, in chemistry, is the art of drawing off the spirituous, aqueous, oleaginous, or saline parts of a mixed body, and collecting and condensing them by cold. Spirituous distillation is produced by previously fermenting liquids containing saccharine matter, and collecting the vapour in a receiver, stopping the distillation as soon as the condensed vapour ceases to be alcoholic. Brandies, and other spirits, are in this way made from the fermented juice of the grape, or from the wort or wash of fermented grain, potatoes, or any other articles possessing the necessary properties. In distilling spirituous liquors, the period for checking the distillation is ascertained by the spirit gauge, which marks the strength of the condensed vapour ; but in order to have great strength, the spirit obtained by a first distillation must be distilled a second or a third time, according to circumstances, leaving behind in the still the quantity of liquid which would no longer yield spirit, or yield it only in a lower degree of strength than that required. The process of distillation for domestic purposes is very simple ; it consists of a vessel placed over a fire, with a round or spherical top to collect the vapour in a larger body, a free opening for the vapour to escape, and a connecting pipe, which runs into a vessel containing cold water, and there being formed into what is called a coil, or worm, the vapour as it flows through this worm is condensed by the cold water, and flows into a receiver in a liquid state ; thus, if any fermented liquor, such as wine, or a strong wort from malt, or any other grain, or from potatoes, be put into this vessel on the fire, the vapour which is driven off becomes spirituous, and that spirituous product re-distilled increases in strength, taking care, of course, that the distillation in the first instance be not carried so far that the watery vapour shall come over with what is spirituous. Where

the article to be distilled requires delicacy of process, the fire should never strike immediately upon the still, but there must be two vessels ; that in which the liquid to be distilled is put must fit into a boiler containing water, and the heat which drives off the vapour is received from the water in a high state of ebullition, and not from the direct action of the fire, which would in many cases, particularly in distillation of perfumes, destroy the product. Another mode is to place the still or boiler in a bath of sand, which receives its heat from a fire, and acts upon the contents of the still. Distillation in experimental chemistry, and even for perfumes, where direct heat is not injurious, may be carried on by the very simple apparatus of a glass retort, suspended over a spirit lamp, with its point luted into the mouth of a glass receiver, this receiver being put in water, which is to be renewed from time to time so as to keep it cool. The luting in all distillation on a small scale must be attended to with great care ; strips of paper, or rag covered with a paste of wheaten flour, will answer very well ; but whiting, or white lead, mixed with the white of egg, is better. As private distillation is forbidden by law as regards spirituous liquors for consumption, it is quite unnecessary to give any instructions for the mode of preparing and fermenting grain, potatoes, or any other vegetable, for that purpose ; neither is it necessary to give a more minute description of the still and its accompaniments, as this article can be purchased of almost every tinman and ironmonger ; for common distillation a tin still will answer very well, but the solidity and durability of copper make that metal preferable. Domestic distillation is of two kinds ; first, for perfumed or medicinal waters made by drawing off the vapour from a boiling infusion of plants, seeds, &c. ; secondly, for distilling mixtures of essential oils and alcohol. In the first the leaves or flowers of the plants to be employed are placed in the still with the proper quantity of water, and the vapour is driven over as long as it yields a fine liquid, well impregnated with the virtue of the plant, stopping the distillation when this ceases to be the case ; it is always advisable to throw away what comes over for the first three or four minutes, as it has seldom the necessary degree of strength. Some plants in distillation give out a large quantity of essential oil ; where this is the case, the oil may be either collected and kept separately, or left in the bulk of the liquid. If, instead

of water, the plants be distilled in spirits of wine, the spirit used should be as tasteless and odourless as possible, and the still should not be brought in immediate contact with the fire. When essential oils are distilled with spirit, the distillation should never be carried on very rapidly, but the vapour should be allowed, when condensing, to come out in large drops, and not in a continuous stream. Some distillers of perfumes are in the habit of mixing with the liquid in the still a certain quantity of fresh made animal charcoal, (see ANIMAL CHARCOAL,) which they consider to have the effect of correcting the empyreumatic flavour of some of the articles employed. Although many liqueurs and perfumes are much better when distilled than when made by infusion, there are others which do not require distillation, being equally good if infused, filtered, and kept for a sufficient length of time to mellow down. In distilling plants or flowers, of whatever kind, with water, it is essential that the leaves should be freshly collected, and that the flowers should be gathered before sunrise; the distillation should be carried on rapidly, and on as large a scale as possible, as the quality is improved by the extent of the distillation. The quantity of water used should never be more than sufficient to prevent the plants from burning, and after the first distillation, a fresh quantity of plants or leaves should be distilled with the water from the previous distillation, adding only a small quantity of fresh water, and repeating the distillation according to the degree of strength required. By the repetitions of the distillation the water will be well saturated with volatile oil, which will either, according to its specific gravity, sink to the bottom of the liquid, or float on the top, when it is to be separated from the watery liquid. It is almost impossible to get much of the essential oil from plants by a first distillation, and as it is this oil which constitutes the principal virtue, the re-distillation becomes important, for although it may be separated afterwards to a great extent, the water is well saturated by it.

DUCK. A rich flavoured bird, not so indigestible as the goose, but partaking very much of the properties of that animal. Both the wild and the domestic duck are used at table; the former is the most digestible of the two, and is generally served rather underdone, whereas the domestic duck requires to be cooked thoroughly. The observation made on

the goose, as to the comparative nutrition of the old and young animal, will apply equally to the duck.

BOILED DUCK. This is not a common dish, nor is it an agreeable way of cooking the duck. Boil it for nearly an hour, and serve with onion sauce. Another mode is to stuff the duck as for roasting, enclose it in a paste with a little jellied gravy, boil up in a cloth, and serve it with brown gravy poured round it.

DUCK PIE is made as goose pie. The city of Amiens, in France, is celebrated for duck pies. The bones are all taken out, after a slight stewing with spices and white wine, then the flesh is baked in a plain thick crust. From the quantity of spice used, and there being no butter in the crust, these pies are exported to a great distance without becoming tainted. The crust is not eaten, but on the day following that on which the meat is served, the soup of the day, instead of being put into a tureen, is served in the pie crust, and this imbibes all the rich flavour of the duck and spices.

TO ROAST DUCK. Clean singe the duck, wiping it well; then season with pepper, salt, and onion, and two or three leaves of sage chopped fine; baste as for goose; a good sized duck will require from twenty minutes to half an hour. Green peas are usually served with roast duck.

TO STEW DUCK. Cut them into quarters, and fry them lightly in butter, then put them into a stew pan with a pint of gravy for two ducks, a tea-cupful of port wine, four whole onions, some parsley, two sage leaves, a sprig of winter savory and sweet marjoram, and pepper and salt; cover the vessel, and when the ducks are quite tender take out the herbs, and having heated again the gravy, which is to be thickened with a little flour, pour it over the ducks, and serve; the dish is to be garnished with the onions.

DUCK STEWED WITH PEAS, (FRENCH WAY.) Scald and draw a couple of ducks, and truss them as for roasting; boil for two or three minutes in water, and then put them into a stew pan with some brown roux, a pint of green peas, a bunch of parsley, and two or three onions; let them cook over a very slow fire till quite tender, and serve with a thick sauce.

DUCK WITH TURNIPS, (FRENCH WAY.) Having trussed a duck, make a white roux, and let it cook in it until the flesh is quite firm, then add about half a pint of water, salt, pepper, and a bay leaf;

when this boils, taking care to turn the duck that it might be cooked equally, add some parsley and chiboles, and just before the duck is thoroughly done put in some turnips, which have been previously fried in butter, and a small bit of sugar; let these cook together for about twenty minutes over a slow fire.

DYES. Although the domestic preparation of dyes for liqueurs, ices, creams, and other articles of the kitchen and housekeeper's room is to be recommended, as by that means only can it be known that there is nothing in them injurious to health, it is advisable for all other purposes to purchase the dyes ready made at the colour-sellers, who, having experience and convenience for manufacturing which few private persons possess, must necessarily supply a superior article to what can be made at home. Under the head of LIQUEURS some instructions are given for the preparation of dyes; and it may be stated here, in addition, that a beautiful straw colour may be produced by boiling the leaves of horseradish; if this dye be required for silks or other stuffs, they should be boiled with the leaves and a little alum, to fix the colour. A fine brown dye for liqueurs, &c., may be obtained from a very strong and filtered decoction of highly burnt coffee. Several new dyes for stuffs have been recently introduced into England from India; they are the *caspilly* for orange colour, the *maddi chickha* for dark red, the *poppli chickha* for bright red, the *maen* or *sakhr* for fine black, the *hurda* and *tarihay*, which are the Indian nutgall, and *toon-derva* and *rekulhere* for yellows.

DYING. Generally speaking, the process of dying should be entrusted to a person who makes it his profession. The following hints, however, which have been supplied by an eminent retired dyer, will be found useful:—

SIMPLE METHOD OF DYING. Pour the colour desired into water as hot as the hand can bear it, pass the stuff to be dyed through this water as often as necessary for it to imbibe the colour perfectly, taking care not to squeeze or express it; next, hang the stuff up till it is quite cold, which will only require a few minutes, then plunge it in two pails of soft water, and afterwards in one of hard, and before hanging it up to dry, pass it through a little alum water; the process is terminated by pressing or ironing out the stuff before it is thoroughly dry.

To fix any colour perfectly, pour a

small quantity of muriate of tin into the dye. This muriate may be easily prepared by dissolving some tin (a bit of an old spoon, for instance,) in spirits of salt.

Remark.—While potass darkens a colour, cream of tartar serves to brighten it.

EAU DE COLOGNE. This preparation has been long famed, particularly in France, and although it has ceased to be so fashionable an article of toilette as formerly, it is destined to remain a favourite perfume from its agreeable pungency and its fine aromatic flavour. All that has been written about it, however, as to its medicinal qualities otherwise than as an aromatized alcohol is complete absurdity. The best eau de Cologne is certainly that which is distilled from the plants themselves, and that of Farina is deservedly in high repute, for although less perfumed than some of the toilet eau de Cologne, it has a sharpness which is more agreeable to many persons than the finer perfumes. There are now several recipes for eau de Cologne published, but one of the best is that of M. Durochereau, of Paris, which was protected by patent, since expired; this preparation is so simple that any lady can prepare it; it is as follows:—Take seven quarts of good spirits of wine, and the following essential oils—Portugal, 1 oz. 3 drachms; bergamot, 1 oz. 5 drachms; lemon, 1 oz.; neroli, first quality, 2 oz.; rosemary, 1 oz.; lavender, 1 oz.; essence of jasmine 1 oz. 5 drachms, mix these together, shaking them well, and at the end of fifteen days, during which the bottle or jar is to be carefully corked, distil twice; it should be then left for some months in a temperate situation; the distillation however, may be dispensed with if the mixture, after standing for a fortnight, be carefully filtered, and kept in rather a warm situation.

Another preparation of eau de Cologne is the following:—Dissolve in six quarts of spirits of wine the following essential oils, an ounce and a half of each—lemon, bergamot, cedrat, Portugal, neroli, rosemary, and lavender, and half an ounce of oil of cloves; let them stand together for a month, and then filter. This eau de Cologne improves very much with age.

The following is given by "Le Chimiste Populaire" as the genuine receipt for making Farina's eau de Cologne:—Infuse in a quart of spirits of wine at 33° a piece of benzoin about the size of a nut, and a drachm and a half of small cardamom seed; when these have stood

forty-eight hours, add half an ounce of animal charcoal, shaking the bottle well, and when it has stood for an hour, filter it through blotting paper; when filtered, add a drachm and a half of bergamot, half a drachm of oil of rosemary, two drachms of essence of lemon, half a drachm of oil of lavender, fifteen drops of neroli, and two drops of oil of cloves; shake these together, and filter again.

EAU DENTIFRICE. Take four ounces of spirit of guaiacum (which is prepared by infusing for a week an ounce of guaiacum in five ounces of spirits of wine,) one drachm of camphor, eight drops of mint, ten drops of rosemary, and six of neroli, mix together and filter; when it is to be used, put four or five drops in a wine glass of cold water, and rinse the mouth thoroughly. This mixture keeps the gums in good order, and has also a tendency to check caries of the teeth.

EAU DE MELISSE. A favourite preparation on the Continent, used in the same way as eau de Cologne.

Take Balmint, in flower, 13 ounces.

Angelica - - -	2¼ "
Hyssop - - -	1½ "
Marjoram - - -	1½ "
Thyme - - -	1½ "
Rosemary - - -	1½ "
Cinnamon - - -	1½ "
Coriander seed -	1½ "
Cloves - - -	1¼ "
Nutmegs, bruised	1¼ "
Aniseed - - -	0½ "
Fresh lemon peel -	1 "
Spirits of wine, at 22°	10 pints.

Let all the above macerate for several days in the spirits of wine, then distil in the water bath, draw off all the spirit that will come over hot; let it undergo a second distillation, in which about one pint and a half are to be left behind in the still; this may be subsequently drawn off and kept separately. The distillation may be dispensed with by leaving the infusion for two months, then straining and filtering, but the product will not be so fine.

EAU DE MUSC. A French perfume. Take, strong rectified spirits of wine one quart, essence of ambergris one ounce, balsam of tolu one ounce, tincture of vanilla one ounce, (this tincture is made by infusing an ounce of vanilla in a pint of spirits of wine for a fortnight, then filtering it off,) essence of musc half an ounce, otto of rose six drops.

EAU SUCRÉE. A French beverage; it is merely sugar and water; a few

lumps of sugar are put into a tumbler of water, to which a little orange flower water is added. Eau sucrée is served at evening parties, and is sold at all the coffee houses. It is a favourite beverage with persons who are unwell, and is ordered even by the faculty, although in many cases sugar would seem to be injurious; probably the addition of orange flower water tends to correct the properties of the sugar. This beverage does not suit the English taste at first, but habit soon renders it highly agreeable.

EAU VULNERAIRE. A composition in high esteem on the Continent for the cure of bruises; it is also used internally in the same way as eau de Cologne. To make it, infuse in six quarts of spirits of wine at 26° a small handful of each of the leaves of sage, wormwood, fennel, thyme, rosemary, marjoram, basilic, lavender flowers, hyssop, rue, and vervain; cork the jar, and let this stand fifteen days; then strain off, squeezing the plants, and filter. A little animal charcoal should be put into the filter.

EGGS. In domestic economy, the only eggs employed are those of the common hen, the turkey, the goose, and the duck; but the three latter are never used, on account of their strong flavour, or greater cost, where the egg of the common domestic hen can be had. Eggs are best when not more than three or four days old; it is of little consequence that they should be more fresh than that; but they may be kept in a good state for all the purposes of the kitchen for several months. There are various modes of preserving them, but in every case it is important that they should be kept from exposure to the external air, and from excessive heat or cold, or damp. Some persons pack them in bran, but this is objectionable as it generates worms; others in sawdust; some in layers of straw. A good method is to dip them in lime water, then sprinkle over them the powder of lime, and pack them in cases; or they may be placed in very clear lime water in large mouthed bottles or jars, which are to be kept corked. Another mode is to dip them in melted butter, and when cold to place them in a drawer, taking care to turn them two or three times a week. The latter mode was adopted by a celebrated pastrycook in London, and his eggs were always good. The Chinese preserve eggs in the following manner:—For every ten eggs they take a pint of the ashes of cypress wood or beanstalks,

(some use potash,) half a pound or more of powdered chalk, and two ounces of pulverized coarse salt; this is wetted with a strong infusion of tea, so as to form a paste, with which the eggs are entirely covered, they are then put into an earthen vessel and hermetically sealed. It is said they will remain good for seven or eight years. The Malays possess the secret of salting eggs without breaking the shells, and they keep good for a great length of time, but they are boiled hard. The best eggs for keeping are those which are laid in October. In order to ascertain if they are fresh, hold them before a lighted candle; if they appear clear and transparent, they are good; but if there be any opacity, they are not fresh. Another mode is to hold them before the fire; if they appear damp they are fresh, for a newly laid egg has more humidity than an old one, and the humidity finds its way readily through the pores. Eggs are generally considered light of digestion; but bilious persons should not indulge in the use of them too freely. It is a common error to suppose that the less an egg is boiled the more digestible it is; it is as indigestible when slightly cooked as when quite hard; in the one case it is glairy, and offers resistance to the dissolvent juices; in the other it is heavy and oppressive to the stomach. On the Continent, eggs are seldom boiled for more than two minutes; and in some parts of the south of France, boiling water is merely poured over them. In England an egg is considered well cooked for breakfast when it has been three minutes or three minutes and a half in boiling water. It is never better cooked, as far as digestion is concerned, than when it is put into cold water and kept over the fire until the water boils. Invalids whose stomachs are very weak sometimes take the yolk of an egg beaten up raw, and mixed with sherry and sugar; this is very good if the yolk be previously slightly boiled. An excellent article for a weak stomach, when the gnawing sensation arising from acidity, and which resembles excessive hunger, is felt, is the yolk of an egg which has been boiled for about three minutes beaten up with a table-spoonful of brandy, a little sugar, and a small quantity of water. Generally speaking, omelettes and all preparations of eggs, in which they are cooked hard or nearly so, are of difficult digestion. By heat and peculiar food, hens may be made to lay during the whole of the winter. In England, some persons shut them up in rooms, and feed

them with boiled potatoes highly peppered. In France and in some parts of Germany, the dairy keepers place a partition sufficiently open to admit light and air in a part of the cow-house, which is fitted up with laying boxes, and there shut up the hens, which are fed on Indian corn, with every morning a small quantity of paste, made of hempseed mixed with a little barley meal, and one sixth of pounded brick finely sifted. The warmth of the cow-house, and the highly stimulating nature of this food, cause them to lay during the whole of the winter; but by the spring their productive powers are exhausted, and they are no longer fit for anything but fattening up for the boiling pot. In English cookery, eggs form a far less important article of food than on the Continent, where they are served up in twenty different ways, from the plain *omelette aux fines herbes*, one of the most frequent dishes at the tables of the lower and the middle classes, to the most complicated preparations of the *cuisinier royal*. The following are some of the most favourite dishes made from eggs; the mode of using them for omelettes is shewn under the proper head.

EGGS A L'AURORE. Cut into two, ten hard eggs; take out the yolks, mince the whites, and arrange them at the bottom of the dish with some rich gravy; pound the yolks with a bit of butter, and pass them through a sieve with salt and pepper, and garnish the edges with small squares of bread; put the whole over the fire for a few minutes, and brown with a salamander.

BROILED EGGS. Take a large sheet of white paper which will cut into equal squares; fold each square double so as to form a sort of bag, which must be buttered on both sides; then take a bit of butter mixed with a little crumb of bread, chopped parsley, chives, a very small quantity of garlic, and salt and pepper; put this at the bottom of the bag; break an egg into each bag, and put over the egg a little salt and pepper, place them on the gridiron, at a good distance from the fire, long enough to set the egg, then pass over the salamander, and serve.

EGGS BROUILLES. Put the eggs into a saucepan with a little butter, two table-spoonfuls of good stock, and cook over a charcoal fire, stirring frequently with a fork; when they are well set, serve them up quickly.

EGGS WITH BREAD CRUMBS. Take a dish that will stand the fire, and cover the

bottom of it with a mixture of bread crumbs, butter, a chopped anchovy, chopped parsley, chives, and a shalot, and the yolks of three eggs, all well mixed together; let these remain upon a slow fire until they are well set, then break over them seven or eight eggs, as for poaching, and add salt and pepper; cook gently until the yolks are set, but not hard, brown with a salamander, and serve up.

EGGS AND CHEESE. Put into a dish that will stand fire a few table-spoonfuls of good milk, break in the eggs in the same way as for poached eggs, and powder them well with rasped Parmesan cheese; cook them over a charcoal fire until they are well set, and brown with a salamander, or if you have an oven, bake them in it.

Another mode: cover your dish with a thin layer of butter, upon which place thin slices of bread and gruyere cheese; break upon this eight or ten eggs; season with salt, pepper, and a little nutmeg, and cook gently over a charcoal fire.

FRIED EGGS. Cover the bottom of a frying pan with fresh butter; break in the eggs the same as for poaching; when set, take them up with a slice, and serve each egg upon fried or toasted bread, with sauce according to taste.

EGGS AND MILK. Beat up six eggs with a table-spoonful of flour, two table-spoonfuls of powdered white sugar, a little salt, and a pint of milk; place the mixture in the dish in which it is to be served, and cook gently over a charcoal fire for a quarter of an hour; then brown the surface with the salamander, and serve it up as soon as possible.

EGGS AU MIROIR. Take a dish that stands the fire, butter the bottom of it, break in the eggs; season with salt, pepper; two table-spoonfuls of milk; cook them gently until they are set, over a charcoal fire; brown them with a salamander, and serve them up.

EGGS SUR LE PLAT. Take a dish that will stand the fire, spread a little butter on it, and a slight quantity of salt; then break the eggs into the dish with the same precaution as for poached eggs; pour over them a little melted butter, mixed with a few table-spoonfuls of milk, salt, and nutmeg; put the dish on the fire until the eggs are done, and brown with a salamander.

POACHED EGGS. Boil some water in a saucepan, with a little salt and a very small quantity of vinegar; break the eggs

gently, so as not to injure the yolk, dropping them into the water, which is to be kept boiling, with care, and when they are set; take them out with a slice, and serve them up with chicorée, sorrel, or any other mashed vegetable which has been previously made hot.

SCOTCH EGGS. Boil them hard, and when the shell has been removed, cover them thickly with a forcemeat made as follows:—Take some veal or calves' kidney, with a slice of ham, a bit of butter, shalot, cayenne, and a green onion, all finely minced together, and mixed to a proper consistency with the yolks of eggs; dredge them with flour, and fry in boiling lard or beef dripping; serve up with a rich gravy.

EGGS EN SURPRISE. Take twelve eggs; break a small hole in each end to blow out the contents, having first introduced a straw to break the yolk; wash the shells carefully, and put them to drain; having done this, block up one end with a little paste made of flour and white of egg, and when that is dry, fill the egg, by means of a little funnel, with raw custard, then block up the other end in the same way; boil them the same length of time as would be necessary for custard, and send them to the table as an entremet between the courses.

EGGS IN THE TURKISH WAY. Put an onion cut into slices, with some fine herbs and butter, into a saucepan, adding a little flour, salt, and pepper; when these have been on the fire a few minutes, add a glass of white French wine, and the whites of a dozen hard eggs cut into slices; when these ingredients are well united, add the yolks which had been previously set aside, and serve up very hot.

CHEESE OMELETTE. Mix some rasped Parmesan cheese with the eggs; about a quarter of a pint of cream; beat the whole together, then add four whites of eggs whipped to a good froth, and fry in the ordinary way.

OMELETTE WITH FINE HERBS. After having well beaten up any number of eggs you may require, and mixed with them a little salt and fine herbs, throw them into a frying pan in which you have previously melted a little butter; when fried sufficiently brown, turn the omelette over on the dish in which it is to be served. To make an omelette with bacon, truffles, veal, kidney, mushrooms, &c., those ingredients must be always previously cooked and seasoned; when cold, they must be minced fine, and mixed with the eggs as above.

OMELETTE SOUFFLÉE. Break a dozen eggs, separate the yolks from the whites, add to the former three quarters of a pound of powdered sugar, a little orange flower water, and beat the whole together; fry it a short time in a frying pan with a small piece of butter, and then turn it out on a silver dish; place this dish on some hot ashes, and cover it with a cottage oven, on which hot ashes are also placed; cover it with powdered sugar, and when it has well risen and is of a good colour, serve it quickly.

OMELETTE SOUFFLÉE IN A MOULD. Break six eggs; separate the yolks from the whites; add to the former three table-spoonfuls of fine powdered sugar, a table-spoonful of potato fecula, four macaroons broken up, a little salt, and a little orange flower; mix the whole together; butter the mould well; beat up the whites of the eggs, and add them to the yolks, and fill the mould, but not too full; then put the omelette into a slow oven, and bake until it is of a nice brown colour, taking care that it do not become hard; when it is just sufficiently set to hold well together, turn it into the dish.

OMELETTE WITH SWEETMEATS. Make an omelette in the common way, without herbs, adding thereto a little powdered sugar; before folding it, cover it with sweetmeats, and sprinkle it well over with fine powdered sugar; make an iron red hot, and form designs on the omelette by pressing the sugar with the iron.

SWEET OMELETTE. This is nothing but the plain omelette, upon which powdered sugar is put before it is turned; when turned, powder the outside also with white sugar, and press upon it a red hot iron; the iron should be about half an inch square, and pressed in streaks from one end to the other.

EGG HOT. A very agreeable posset, taken in many parts of England after great fatigue, and not unfrequently as a remedy for colds; in which case, however, it is not to be recommended, as it increases fever, if it fails to promote copious perspiration. The usual mode of making it is as follows:—Beat up the yolks of three eggs and the white of one in a teacupful of weak ale, with a little nutmeg; in the meantime have upon the fire a quart of the same kind of ale; when it has nearly boiled, add the eggs thus beaten up, and let the boiling finish very gently, stirring the whole time; when it has thickened, pour it into a jug containing about a quartern of brandy and three ounces of

loaf sugar; have another jug handy, and pour backwards and forwards for three or four minutes before serving; white French wine mixed with about a third of water may be substituted for beer.

ELIXIR DE LONGUE VIE. A favourite domestic cordial and purgative medicine. Infuse in a quart of brandy five drachms of socotrine aloes, one drachm of saffron, one of rhubarb, one of gentian, one of cinnamon, and two ounces of powdered sugar-candy; when these have stood for a fortnight, strain and filter; from one to three teaspoonfuls are taken for a dose.

ENDIVE. The seed of this plant must be sown twice, thinly scattered; the first sowing is about the beginning of June, and the second in July; when the plants are about three inches high, they are transplanted in rows about a foot asunder and about a foot apart, taking care to water in dry weather; the blanching is effected in the same manner as for sea-kale. It is chiefly used for winter salad, and from the bitter quality contained in it it is considered a good stomachic.

ESSENCES FOR MEAT. M. Carême devotes a great number of pages of his "Art de la Cuisine Française," to the mode of making what he calls essences from game and the high flavoured meats; there is little, however, in what he says on this subject, as to game, of any practical utility, and one must be very rich indeed to be able to purchase game for the purpose of stewing it down merely for the sake of a few table-spoonfuls of the essence, throwing away all the meat. His practice consists in stewing these meats for a very long time with herbs, and seasoning and straining off the rich gravy or essence. In Russia, many noblemen who have extensive forests have occasionally battues, in which several thousand head of game of different kinds are killed, and these are all stewed down upon the spot, and the essence strained off, which is then poured into skins and bladders, and becomes hard and fit for exportation, from the quantity of spices used, as soon as it is cold; many tons of this preparation are exported to France, England, and other countries, every year, where it is sold at from five to twelve shillings per pound; an ounce or so of this portable meat added to any ragout gives a flavour which cannot otherwise be obtained. Where expense is not regarded, M. Carême's plan of boiling down hares, pheasants, partridges, or any other game, with spices, until the gravy, when strained off, is so concentrated that

it becomes a rich firm jelly when cold, may be very useful for flavouring ragouts when the animal itself is not in season, but the expense of this preparation is quite a prohibition as regards domestic cookery. Some of his essences, however, of ordinary meats, vegetables, &c., may be made without great expense, such, for instance, as the following:—

ESSENCE OF GARLIC. Chop up a quarter of a pound of lean ham, an onion, a carrot, and two cloves of garlic; put these into a saucepan with a bunch of sweet herbs, some pepper, and nutmeg; add three ladlefuls of consommé, and simmer until it is reduced one-half; then strain through a sieve. It is used with roasted and broiled meats.

ESSENCE OF HAM. Slice six ounces of the leanest ham; put them into a saucepan with two onions, two sliced carrots, a bunch of sweet herbs, half a tumblerful of champagne wine, two ladlefuls of good consommé, and two of plain veal jelly; simmer until reduced one-third; then add another half tumblerful of champagne; let these boil, and then strain through a fine sieve. This is a good essence for broiled meat and game.

ESSENCE OF FINE HERBS. Put into a saucepan two table-spoonfuls of Tarragon vinegar, four ladlefuls of good consommé, a bunch of fine herbs, and a little pepper; reduce these one-half over a very slow fire; then take out the bunch of fine herbs, and add a table-spoonful of chervil and tarragon, chopped very fine; having simmered again for a few minutes, squeeze in the juice of a lemon. This is used with steaks and chops of any kind.

ESSENCE OF LEMON WITH OIL. Put into a little pan a table-spoonful of chopped parsley and tarragon, a little salt and pepper, two table-spoonfuls of tarragon vinegar, six of good olive oil, and the juice of a lemon. This essence is used for broiled poultry, and game, and fish.

ORANGE ESSENCE. Put into a stewpan six ounces of ham, a little nutmeg, a small bunch of sweet herbs, half the peel of an orange, a ladleful of plain veal jelly, and two of consommé; reduce these one-half, then add the juice of an orange, and strain through a sieve. This essence M. Carême recommends for wild ducks and ducklings.

ESSENCE OF SHALOTS WITH MUTTON GRAVY. Simmer in a saucepan two chopped shalots, a little pepper and nutmeg, and two ladlefuls of good consommé; reduce these about half, then add the

gravy from two roasted legs of mutton; give these a simmer together, and then strain off. This essence is served with broiled meat of any kind.

ESSENCE OF TRUFFLES. Put into a saucepan a pound of chopped truffles, a bunch of sweet herbs, a little lean ham, half a tumblerful of Madeira, a ladleful of consommé, a little pepper and mace; let these simmer for half an hour, then add three ladlefuls of consommé, and simmer till the whole of the liquid is reduced one-half; strain through a fine sieve, and put by for use. This essence is for roasted game, and poultry cooked with truffles.

M. Carême also gives a number of preparations from fish, as essences, or fish sauces; but they are so inferior to the various fish essences sold by the oilmen in England, that it would be a waste of space to insert them.

ESSENTIAL OIL. The oil which floats on the water in the aqueous distillation of plants, fruits, &c. There is a more simple mode of obtaining the essential oil of lemons and oranges than by distillation: rasp the rinds, and as soon as there is enough to fill a table-spoonful, put it into a bottle, which is to be carefully corked, and continue the process in the same way until the quantity required is obtained, thus taking care to avoid unnecessary exposure to the air, and the consequent loss of aroma. When this kind of pulp is ready, put it between two thick pieces of glass, and press out the oil, which is to be kept in a closely stopped bottle. By dissolving these essential oils in spirits of wine, they form a beautiful perfume for the toilet table.

FASTING. Although the system of fasting, when carried to excess as a religious penance, may be very injurious to health, it has frequently the contrary effect, if adopted only occasionally and for a short time; and the abstinence from butchers' meat observed by the Roman-catholics, on at least one day in the week, is calculated to produce very beneficial effects. If the same system were observed as a general rule by persons who do not take sufficient exercise to digest the usual meats when taken every day, they would frequently obviate the necessity of taking medicine.

FENNEL. A strong aromatic plant, the leaves and seeds of which in infusion are used as a remedy for flatulency, and assist the digestion; it is used in the green state also mixed with sauces, and is some-

times used as a pickle; the flavour, however, is much disliked by many persons. The mode of cultivation is not difficult; the seed is sown in the spring in the usual garden soil, and the plant thrives well without much care.

FERMENTATION. There are three kinds, or to speak more correctly, three stages of fermentation—the vinous, the acetous, and the putrefactive; but although this is the usual order of fermentation, we sometimes find that it is changed. Bodies which are thoroughly dry will not ferment; a certain degree of moisture is essential for this process. What is usually the first stage of fermentation with liquids in which there is a saccharine principle, the vinous, and which is invariably the first stage when fermentation is aided by artificial means properly applied, has the singular property of rendering liquids intoxicating which were not so before they were fermented. The process of artificial fermentation is not a modern discovery; it existed in the remotest ages, and is adopted by many tribes of savages in the least advanced stage of civilization. A certain degree of heat is necessary for the vinous fermentation by yeast; under 32° of Fahrenheit it does not take place, at 50° it goes on feebly, and at 60° it is rapid, beyond 70° it goes on too quickly, and there is danger of its turning to the acetous stage, for which a greater degree of heat is necessary than for the vinous fermentation. At a high degree of heat, or a low degree of cold, fermentation will not take place, and for the vinous stage the body must be actually liquid; although all bodies containing sugar and gluten are susceptible of fermentation in their natural condition, yet pure sugar, deprived by manufacture of its natural principle of fermentation, will not only not ferment naturally in a solution of water, but cannot be fermented by the addition of yeast, although it will undergo a certain stage of putrefaction by the decomposition of the water. Each stage of fermentation has its peculiar principle: the vinous principle of one liquid will promote the fermentation of another liquid; the matter deposited from vinegar will act as an acetous ferment; and the proximity of putrid flesh will rapidly putrefy that which is fresh. The chief principle in the yeast, which is used to promote vinous fermentation, is supposed by chemists to be gluten. The manner in which the decomposition which takes place during the process of fermentation occurs is still a

mystery, although some chemists attempt to explain it. The presence of a certain portion of air seems to be necessary for the working of beer and some other liquids, but others ferment readily in the absence of atmospheric air, and their flavour is very much improved by the fermentation in vessels which allow the carbonic acid gas to escape, without admitting the external air. Acetous fermentation takes place with liquids that have undergone the vinous process, if they be exposed to the air, and a higher degree of heat than that which was required for the first stage. Beer or wine placed in casks in the sun, with the bung-hole open, become vinegar; and the strength of the vinegar will be in proportion to the previous extent of the vinous principle. When vinegar undergoes a change, it is by putrefactive fermentation; this may, however, be prevented for a very long period by the precaution of boiling the vinegar before it is bottled; the best way of doing which is to place the bottles uncorked in water, and keep them there until the vinegar boils, corking them afterwards and sealing the corks. Strong vinegar treated in this way will keep for several years. The process called *mothering* in vinegar is the commencement of putrefaction, and is owing to the vegetable matter present; distilled vinegar, as it destroys to a great extent the vegetable gluten, which is the chief cause of putrefaction, will keep longest. The best vinegar is made from wine, because it has a larger quantity of alcohol, and is less mucilaginous than that made from malt or any other grain; but even wine vinegar requires boiling, if it be used for pickling. It is the opinion of Saussure that in the acetous stage of fermentation, nothing is abstracted, except the carbon; and that acetic acid is alcohol without carbon; but this opinion is disputed by Gay-Lussac and other chemists; and no attempt to restore the alcoholic property, where the acetous fermentation has taken place, by the mere addition of carbon, seems to have been successful. (For the mode of making and fermenting BEER and WINES, and for the making of VINEGAR, see the proper heads.) As regards the putrefactive fermentation, carbon, preparations of lime, or soda, and other antiputrescents, are much used for the purpose of retarding it in animal substances; pure alcohol will also prevent it, if used in sufficient quantity. Meats, deprived of their natural moisture and kept entirely secluded from the action of

the air, will resist putrefaction for a much longer period than in their natural state; but, with the exception of strong alcohol, we know of nothing that will entirely prevent putrefaction, unless it be certain alkaline solutions, which entirely change the nature of the substance to which they are applied. Strong acetic acid, made by distillation, will also check the putrefaction of meats; but all these things are of very little use in domestic economy, for although by the use of them we keep away the putrefactive fermentation, the object preserved becomes entirely useless. For the purposes of science and health, however, the discoveries which have been recently made in antiputrescent preparations are admirable; the chlorides of lime and soda rapidly neutralize the putrescent principle, and are, therefore, highly valuable in purifying the air when it is contaminated by the miasma of putrescent bodies; they have, consequently, a tendency to prevent malignant fevers. M. Gannal, a French chemist, has discovered that the human body after death may be kept for several weeks, or even months, from decomposition by simply injecting a solution of sulphate of alum, in the proportion of two pounds to a pint of hot water, by the right carotid artery. He uses three or four quarts of this liquid in summer, and less in winter, according to the temperature of the season; all the blood vessels are distended by this liquid, and as there is no part of the human body free from them, decomposition is arrested. The body of a murdered boy thus treated was exhibited for recognition at the Morgue, in Paris, for several weeks, even during the hottest weather, and with the exception of the sinking of the eyes, no change of decomposition was visible; even a portion of the colour in the cheeks remained. He seems to think that, by repeating this process occasionally, putrefaction might be prevented altogether; and that nothing more would take place than the drying up of the flesh, as in cases of embalming. His process is now rather extensively adopted in the preservation of the dead bodies of domestic animals.

FEVER BEVERAGE. The decoction of various herbs, such as balm, rue, sage, &c., or the same herbs used as tea, is a common remedy in cases of fever for promoting perspiration; but there is nothing better in such cases than drinking copiously of whey on going to bed. A great mistake, however, is generally committed in the mode of preparing this

article. The quantity of strong white wine that is put in will not only neutralize the good effect of the whey, but even increase the fever. The best plan is not to use wine at all, but to turn the milk with lemon-juice. The juice of a good sized lemon put into the milk just before boiling, adding a sufficient quantity of sugar to make the whey palatable, and then straining off the curd carefully, will answer all the purpose of wine without any of its inconvenience; but if wine be used, it should be light French wine, and should never be in larger quantity than just sufficient to separate the curd. In all cases of fever, whether of the slow or the acute kind, the following mixture will be found highly useful, and it is particularly so in the slow fever of indigestion. Reduce to powder about ten grains of fresh carbonate of ammonia, put this in a rummer, which is to be filled about two-thirds with cold water, and add to it as much lemon juice as will suffice to neutralize the alkali; drink it in a state of effervescence. The quantity of lemon juice should be such, that neither the alkali nor the acid may prevail, for if either were in excess, the benefit would not be obtained. In medicine, an article called Mindererus' spirit, very much used in fevers, is made in nearly a similar manner, but the effervescence has gone off, and it has, consequently, neither the agreeable flavour, nor the mildly exciting properties of the above mixture. In many cases of indigestion, attended with obstinate costiveness, the occasional use of this beverage is found, by the tone which it imparts to the stomach, to render other remedies unnecessary.

FIGS. These are a very wholesome fruit, either in their raw or dried state. They seldom, however, come to high perfection in northern climates. In England, figs are either eaten ripe as they are gathered, or preserved in sugar; but they have not a very fine flavour in the latter state, particularly as they are gathered for the purpose when unripe. To preserve them, they are first laid in a strong brine of salt and water for eight or ten days; they are then boiled in plain water, until sufficiently tender for a pin to pass through them easily; they are next laid in a large quantity of cold water for three days, and on the fourth, boiled in strong syrup; they are then taken out and thrown into cold water again for six hours, and this operation is repeated in the whole four times, leaving them for a

longer time in the syrup at the last boiling. They may now either be put into jars with some of the syrup, in which state they make a pretty dish for a dessert, without, however, being particularly desirable for eating; or they may be well powdered with sugar, and dried in a slow oven. They may also be preserved in brandy by putting in the jar, after their last boiling, one-third syrup, and two-thirds brandy. The finest figs are grown in the Levant, where they are dried in the sun, or in ovens, and packed for exportation. In this state they are one of the finest of the dried fruits, and certainly one of the most wholesome. Some persons take figs boiled in milk for a cold; and in quinsies which are suppurating, it is recommended to apply a fig boiled in milk, and as hot as the throat will bear it, to the diseased tonsil, repeating this as the fig cools. Suppuration is frequently advanced rapidly by this application.

FILBERT, a large kind of nut, the flavour of which is very agreeable. Filberts, like common nuts, are indigestible, and should therefore be eaten in small quantities, and always without the skin. On the Continent they are used as in England for dessert; but are also preserved, and made into biscuits.

TO PRESERVE FILBERTS. Blanch them, and when the skins are removed, let them simmer in very thin syrup for about an hour; put them to cool, and then set them on the fire again, adding more sugar, so as to thicken the syrup; simmer for another hour, and then let them cool. Repeat this process a third time, adding more sugar, until the syrup has become so thick as to candy when cold; take out the filberts before the syrup is cold, and cover them well with pounded loaf sugar; then dry in the sun or in a slow oven. The syrup may be used for any other preserve.

TO MAKE FILBERT BISCUITS. (See BISCUITS.)

A pleasant oil is extracted from filberts by pressure, but it is much inferior to olive oil for domestic use.

FIRE IRONS, ETC., TO CLEAN. Rub with a paste made of one pound of putty powder and half a pound of whiting, and clean-off with plain whiting. If rusty, rub with emery powder and soft soap. To prevent rust, see RUST.

FISH. This food is considered, with the exception of a few species, to be very light of digestion, and at the same time nutritive, from its gelatinous nature;

indeed this quality has led some medical men to believe that fish is indigestible. We do not find, however, that this is the case as a rule, although it may be so as an exception. That fish is exceedingly nutritive is proved by the fact, that in situations where it forms the chief food of the inhabitants they are generally a hardy people, and exceedingly prolific. Montesquieu attributes the large population of China to the frequent use of fish; and we know that on the side of the Tagus, opposite Lisbon, where from the poverty of the people, fish is almost the exclusive food, the number of children in a family is nearly double the average of the interior of the country. The Romans considered fish to be such an important article of diet for the poorer classes, that there was at one time a law forbidding the venders of fish in the markets from sitting down until all their stock was disposed of, in order that this regulation might induce them to sell at more reasonable prices, and avoid a protracted market. The productiveness of fish is so great as scarcely to be credible, if the fact were not well authenticated. A female salmon weighing twenty pounds has been known to have 27,850 eggs; a moderate sized female pike 148,000; a female tench of four pounds 297,200; a female mackerel 546,681; the female of a carp of nine pounds 621,600; and a female cod the enormous number of 9,344,000. It is generally considered that the most agreeable and nutritive fish is from the sea; river fish comes next; and last in point of quality, is the fish of ponds and lakes, because they have no current; and as to river fish, the best is that which is taken out of rivers whose current is very rapid. The fish of some lakes, however, is very superior to that of others, and we find the flavour increased very much in proportion as the lakes are in an elevated situation. The best sea fish is that which feeds in rocky places; the next is the fish which swims in deep waters; and the least wholesome, that which approaches nearest to the coast. The fat of all fish is more or less unwholesome; as far as health is concerned, therefore, the fish which is the least oily is to be preferred; and where fish of an oily nature is used, it should always be made to undergo a previous boiling, if intended for stews, that the excess of oil may be got rid of. In cooking fish, as far as health is considered, the best mode is boiling, as fried fish disagrees with many

stomachs; and whenever fish is used in stews, it is always advisable to put a little wine with it to correct its aqueous quality. The common plan of taking brandy after eating fish is not perhaps a bad one, provided the quantity be very small; but if this be not the case, the corrective is much more likely to do harm than the fish is to disagree with the stomach without that precaution. (For the various kinds of fish, look to the different heads.)

FISH, mode of feeding and breeding. Fish ponds for breeding should, generally speaking, have gravelly and sandy bottoms, and shoals near the sides for the fish to sun themselves on, and lay their spawn. If the pond be destined for carp, which is the best fish for breeding, as it spawns several times in a year, the bottom should be of clay, with plenty of weeds and grass for the fish to lie in during the hot months. The pond should be drained every three or four years, and the smaller fish taken out to stock other ponds. Carp basins must be supplied by a constantly running stream, with an outlet just sufficient to carry off the excess of water; and artificial rocks, with cavities for the fish to repose in, should be rather numerous. With this precaution, there will be no danger of making the fish shy or wild by keeping the water in the basin transparent. In some parts of Switzerland, where there are trout basins of this kind, the fish are sometimes so tame that they will come and feed out of the hand. Carp, tench, &c., in ponds, may be fed with any boiled corn, or with malt grains, if perfectly fresh; malt, however, in the unbrewed state is best.

ANCHOVIES, a small highly flavoured sea fish, chiefly used in a dried or preserved state for seasoning dishes, and as a sauce for other fish when reduced to a liquid state. In southern climates, where this fish is abundant, it is eaten fresh in the same way as the Sardinia, broiled or fried. With us, however, it is seldom seen, except in its dried or pickled state. The smaller the fish, the finer is the flavour. The pickled anchovy is sold in barrels or jars. It is either in a strong brine or in oil, having been previously salted. It is digestible when fresh, but less so when pickled. Before anchovies are used, they should be well washed and the gut be taken out. An anchovy sandwich is an agreeable food, and on the Continent anchovies are frequently served at table after the soup to excite appetite; for this purpose they are cut into slices

and placed in a small dish, garnished with the yolks of eggs boiled hard and cut into halves, with a little salad oil in the bottom of the dish; they also make a dish, fried in oil and seasoned with a sauce composed of oil and vinegar, pepper, chopped shalots, chibols, and parsley, or dipped in butter and fried, and then served between the courses without sauce. In England, anchovies are eaten upon toast, which is made by frying the slices of bread in butter, and either spreading the anchovy upon the bread in the state of a paste, which is made by pounding the fish in a mortar with a little butter, after having boned it, and thrown away the head, or placed whole upon the bread when the bones have been taken out, and garnished with curled parsley. The butter of anchovies, which is used as fish sauce, is made by pounding the fish in a mortar with butter until a fine smooth thick liquid is obtained, and then rubbing it through a sieve. If it is intended to keep this for a great length of time, a little spice should be added. A great deal of the sauce which is sold as anchovy sauce is made from sprats which are salted down in layers, with a large quantity of common and bay salt and saltpetre as for other pickles, and allowed to remain for several months, with the addition of a little cochineal to give them colour, and are, at the expiration of that time, pounded and converted into imitation anchovy butter in the same way as anchovies. This is not a bad preparation, but it is inferior to the genuine article.

BREAM. This fish is not unlike a perch in appearance, but grows much larger; it is a salt water fish, but occasionally comes up navigable rivers, and is partial to docks and basins. It is generally stuffed as carp or tench, and baked; but may be cooked in any of the ways directed for those fish: serve with a good sauce.

BRILL. A flat fish bearing a very strong affinity to turbot both in appearance and flavour; indeed, it is by many persons preferred to that fish, from its being more easy of digestion. It is in season from January to March, and from July to September. For the different modes of cooking brill, see **TURBOT**.

CARP. This is a very good fish when not too old, but as it lives to a very great age, many that are brought to market are not of fine quality; they should also be chosen not too fat, as they are in that case difficult of digestion. River carp are considered superior to those which are taken

in ponds; they are best in the months of March, May, and June; but the most successful fishing is in June, July, and August, when they bite freely at almost any bait. Some fishermen, in order to attract the carp, rub their hooks with a composition of musk and camphor. Four or five days before fishing, some boiled beans, mixed with honey and scented with musk, should be thrown, night and morning into the spot in which it is intended to fish. The head of the carp is considered most delicious eating, and next to that, the flesh nearest the back.

BROILED CARP WITH CAPER SAUCE. Scale a large carp, crimp it, and put it in a dish with chopped parsley, chibols, salt, pepper, and oil; when it has lain in this for about an hour to give it a flavour, broil it over a brisk fire; serve it up covered with caper sauce.

FRIED CARP. Split a carp by the back, flour it, as also the roe, and fry it quickly in good lard or oil.

FRIED CARPS' ROES. Take some roes which have been previously thoroughly cleaned, and having boiled some water with a little vinegar and salt, put them into it, and simmer for two or three minutes; then take them out, let them drain very dry, and dip them in a light batter; fry them of a good colour, and serve them up with fried parsley.

GERMAN MODE OF COOKING CARP. Cut a carp into pieces and put it into a saucepan with salt, pepper, and other spices, a few slices of onion, and one or two bottles of beer, so as to cover it well; stew this over a brisk fire until only about half a pint of the liquid remains, then serve it with its sauce.

MATELOTE OF CARP. Cut the fish into slices, and put them into a saucepan with a few river craw fish, adding young peeled onions which have been previously scalded, and chopped mushrooms; pour under it a little roux made of flour and butter moistened with stock; add some fine herbs, red wine, salt, pepper, and a little butter; and cook over a brisk fire. In sending it to table, garnish the dish with slices of bread, cut in the form of a heart and fried in butter. Eels are generally added in making this matelote. The quantity of wine should be sufficient to form, when cooked, a sufficient quantity of liquid to prevent the fish being dry, but it should not be in excess. Matelotes may be made of any other fish in the same way.

STEWED CARP. Put into a saucepan an equal quantity of French or port wine and

water; add a little mace, some fine herbs, some young onions, some whole pepper and salt, and a little scraped horse-radish; put in the carp, cover the saucepan, and let it boil very gently for at least an hour; then take out the carp and drain them, and into another saucepan put a pint of wine, two chopped anchovies, an onion, a little lemon juice, a quarter of a pound of butter rubbed in flour, a little cream, and half a pint of the liquid in which the carp were first boiled; boil these together for a few minutes, then add the yolks of two eggs mixed with cream, and the juice of half a lemon; then put the fish upon a dish, and pour the sauce over quite hot.

STEWED ROES OF CARP. Simmer for some time over a slow fire in a saucepan some butter, champignons, a slice of ham, the juice of a lemon, and a bunch of sweet herbs; then add a little flour, the roes of the carp, and a little good stock; boil for a quarter of an hour, seasoning with pepper and salt; when done, thicken the sauce with two or three yolks of eggs, a little cream, and chopped parsley.

CARP WITH VINEGAR. Put the carp into a fish-kettle and pour over a sufficient quantity of vinegar made boiling hot to cover it; let the fish simmer for an hour or more, according to size, in the vinegar; then serve upon a dish covered with a cloth and garnished with parsley, without any of the liquid. Carp dressed in this way, however, is generally eaten cold.

COD. This fish is seldom or ever boiled whole, as they are generally too large; the head and shoulders are considered the finest part for boiling, and the part towards the tail to cut into steaks for frying. The cod is in perfection from January to June.

TO BAKE COD. The thickest part of the cod should be chosen for this dish, which is to be filled with a stuffing made of grated bread crumbs, a bit of butter, the yolks of three hard boiled eggs, pepper, salt, grated lemon peel and nutmeg, and anchovy finely cut up, binding the whole with white of egg beaten up; put the whole on a dish that will stand fire with bits of butter over the top of it, and bake it in the oven for an hour. A Dutch oven is the best suited for this dish, as it requires to be frequently basted and turned; melted butter or oyster sauce may be served with it.

TO BOIL A COD'S HEAD AND SHOULDERS. After it has been well washed, tie up, to prevent its falling to pieces, and dry

it well; put a good handful of salt into the water in which it is to be cooked, and when it boils, skim well, and put in the fish, which must be kept boiling fast for about half an hour. The liver should be always boiled and served with the fish, or it may be served as sauce rubbed up very fine with melted butter; oyster sauce and plain melted butter are also served with it.

Another excellent way of dressing a cod's head and shoulders is given by Mrs. Dalgairn:—"Wash the cod's head and shoulders well, cut off the fins, lay it on a dish, pour some boiling water over part of the fish and instantly scrape off all the black scales, taking care not to break the skin; repeat this till every part of the fish looks white, and then wash it in cold water; put it on in boiling salt and water, and boil it for a quarter of an hour; then lay it on a dish and rub it all over with the yolks of two or three beaten eggs, and strew it thickly with grated bread crumbs, mixed with pepper and minced parsley; stick it all over with little bits of butter, and put it in an oven to brown. Mix a large table-spoonful of flour with a quarter of a pound of butter, a quart of gravy, a tea-cupful of white wine, some pepper, salt, and a little grated nutmeg; mince the white meat of a lobster, slightly brown three dozen of oysters in a frying pan, and put them with half their liquor and the lobster to the gravy and other things; beat it up and pour it round the dish; garnish with cut lemon. It is not necessary to have lobster and oysters, but it is the better for both.

TO CRIMP COD. Cut the fish into steaks, and lay them in a mixture of salt and water and vinegar for four hours; then boil. If to be fried, they must be rubbed over with yolk of egg beaten, and covered with bread crumbs.

SALT COD. This fish when prepared in this manner is highly esteemed by many, and it is to be procured at a season of the year when fresh fish are scarce. Before cooking, it should be soaked for some hours in cold water, and then boiled gently, until it feels tender. It is usually eaten with melted butter and egg sauce; boiled parsnips are usually served with this dish.

SALT COD EN BLANC. After the fish has soaked for twelve hours in water, put it on in cold water, and when it begins to boil, take it off the fire and drain it; then put into a stewpan a piece of butter rubbed in flour, some pepper, and a little

milk; mix the whole well together; heat the fish in this sauce, which serve with it.

SALT COD—BELGIAN WAY. Having soaked the cod previously in fresh water, put it into a saucepan with some sliced potatoes, a few fine herbs, and fresh butter; let it cook until the fish and the potatoes are thoroughly done.

SALT COD WITH CREAM. Boil the fish in water, and when done, drain it well and pull it into flakes; then put into a stewpan a piece of butter, a little flour, some pepper, with half a pint of good milk or cream, and thicken over the fire; then put in the fish and heat it well, and serve. It may be thrown into a deep dish, the top covered with yolk of egg and bread crumbs, and browned with a salamander.

SALT COD A LA MAITRE D'HOTEL. Wash the fish well and put it on in cold water; as soon as it boils, take it from the fire, and after it has stood for about ten minutes, take it up and drain; then place it in a dish that will stand fire, with some parsley and green onions chopped fine, a slice of butter, grated nutmeg, a little lemon juice, and a little lemon-thyme rubbed fine; put the dish over some hot ashes for a quarter of an hour, and serve.

SALT COD, MARINATED AND FRIED. After it has been boiled, pull it into flakes, and steep them for two hours in vinegar and water seasoned with pepper, sliced onions, a few cloves, parsley, and a shalot cut fine; then dry the pieces, flour, and fry them of a good colour, and serve with crisped parsley.

SALT COD A LA PROVENÇALE. When the cod has been boiled and drained, put into a dish that will stand the fire two spoonfuls of sweet oil, a piece of butter, some parsley and green onions chopped very fine, some coarse pepper, and a shalot sliced very fine; place the fish upon this seasoning, and pour some of it also over the fish; stew over hot ashes, and serve very hot.

SALT COD STEWED. Put into a dish that will stand fire a slice of butter, some parsley and green onions chopped fine, pepper, and a few capers; place pieces of the fish in layers in the dish, covering each with the above seasoning, until the dish is full, then cover the whole with grated bread crumbs; stew gently over hot ashes, and brown with a salamander.

CRAY FISH. A shell fish resembling the lobster in appearance and flavour, but coarser; the shell is more irregular, with projecting points, and the flesh is harder

than that of the lobster; they are generally eaten cold, as lobster, but may be dressed in the various ways recommended for that fish. There is also a species of cray fish caught in rivers, which resemble the lobster in external appearance, but are very much smaller, the largest in size seldom exceeding the smallest sized lobster; they are eaten very much in some parts of France, where they are caught in great abundance, and are served plain boiled, as a sort of entremet, at dinner; but in Paris, where they run very small and are dear, they are chiefly used for garnishing other dishes; they are not disagreeable eating, but have a slight bitter. In the neighbourhood of Le Mans, in France, where they are plentiful and run large, they are potted in the same way as lobster, and the slight bitter taste being overpowered by the spices which are used in potting them, it would be difficult to distinguish them from potted lobster.

DORÉ. Commonly called John Dory in England, and in France St. Peter's fish. It is a very ugly flat fish, but the flesh is even more delicate than that of the sole; it brings a high price in the English markets, but in many parts of France is sold at a very cheap rate; latterly, however, this fish has been much in request in the French sea-ports frequented by the English; at Boulogne the same sized doré which a few years ago would have been sold for five pence will now fetch five francs. For the mode of cooking, see **SOLE**.

EELS. This fish forms a nutritious diet; but from the quantity of oil contained in the larger sorts, they are frequently very difficult of digestion. Eels of the larger kind should never be used until a great portion of the grease has been previously extracted; this is done by boiling them very gently for some time until the oil rises, when the eels are to be taken out and set aside for use; much of the richness of the fish is indeed lost in this way, but persons of weak stomachs should not use them without this precaution. Eels are generally taken by the line, or by eel baskets, so constructed that the eels may crawl into them to get at the food which they contain, but, having once entered, are unable to escape. There is another rapid mode of taking them in rivers or harbours by what is called bobbing; this is effected by passing worsted through large worms, and tying them in bunches at the end of a rod; these bunches of worms are

lowered to the proper depth, and the eels, biting at them, get their teeth entangled in the worsted, and are thus drawn out. Where they are plentiful, seven or eight are frequently taken at the same time; some dexterity, however, is required for this mode of fishing.

TO BOIL EELS. For this the smaller ones should be chosen. When they are well cleaned and skinned, cut off the heads, and put them into boiling salt and water, adding a little vinegar; parsley and butter is generally served with them.

COLLARED EELS. Having taken out the bones, and cut off the heads and tails, cover the eels with a seasoning of chopped sweet herbs, a little salt and pepper, and some grated nutmeg and lemon peel; then roll them tight, and tie them firmly with tape. The heads, tails, and bones, are to be boiled in three-fourths water and one-fourth vinegar, with an onion or two, three or four bay leaves, two or three leaves of sage, and some salt and pepper; when this mixture boils, put in the eels, and boil them until tender; then take them out and give the liquor another boil, adding as much vinegar as in the first instance, with two or three cloves, and a little whole pepper; and having done this, strain the liquor and set it by to cool; when cold, put in the fish. Mackerel, herrings, and flounders, are very good done in the same way; but in this case the fish are pickled whole, and more cloves and whole pepper are used than with eels, the sage being left out.

CONGER EEL. This fish is considered in England a very coarse fish, but the same opinion is not entertained of it on the Continent, where it frequently appears even on the tables of the rich; when quite fresh, however, it eats tough, and should therefore be kept as long as possible before it is cooked. The best way of dressing it is to boil it very gently, and half an hour before serving, put it into a stewpan with some floured butter mixed with a couple of eggs, some chopped herbs, and a dash of vinegar; it may, however, be prepared according to the instructions given for fresh water eels.

TO FRY EELS. Having properly cleaned them, cut them into pieces of three inches long, scoring them across in two or three places without separating them; dust them with flour, and fry them in boiling lard to a good brown. To vary the dish you may dip them in a batter, and sprinkle them with finely grated bread crumbs; serve with melted butter.

EEL PIE. Cut the eels in pieces, and put them on the fire in a stewpan with butter, spices, sweet herbs, parsley, mushrooms, pepper and salt, and a sufficient quantity of water; let them stew very gently for some time, then take them out and lay them in a baking dish, with a rich crust; bake in an oven. Truffles may be put into the saucepan, or laid with the eels in the baking dish. Before baking it is proper to add a little more seasoning, with a little of the liquor in which they were stewed, having carefully removed all the grease.

Eel patties should be made in the same way, which is merely to parboil them in plain water, and then bake with seasoning.

TO POT EELS. Having skinned, cleaned, and boned the eels, cover them well with pepper, salt, and a little Cayenne, and let them lie for a few hours; then cut them into small pieces, and bake them, closely packed in a dish, with a paste over them, to prevent any of the flavour from escaping; remove the paste when quite cold, and cover the eels to the thickness of an inch with clarified butter.

TO SPITCHCOCK EELS. Choose some large eels, and having cleaned and skinned, cut them into pieces of three or four inches long; sprinkle them with pepper and salt, beat up an egg, dip them into it, and cover them afterwards with a mixture of bread crumbs, chopped parsley, and pepper and salt; broil or fry as preferred. They may be eaten with either melted butter, parsley and butter, or with mustard sauce.

TO STEW EELS. Having cleaned and skinned the fish, and cut them into pieces of about three inches long, take an onion, two or three shalots, a little thyme, parsley, two or three bay leaves, some pepper, a pint of good gravy, half a pint of vinegar, and four anchovies bruised in a mortar, and put the whole, with a pint of port, or French red wine, into a stewpan, and let them boil for about ten minutes, when take out the fish; let the sauce continue boiling until considerably reduced; thicken it with a little flour, previously rubbed smooth in a little cold water; put the eels in again, and let them boil until they are found to be tender.

EELS A LA TARTARE. Having skinned and cleaned a good sized eel, cut it in pieces of about four inches in length; put into a saucepan a bit of butter, some sliced carrots and onions, a little chopped parsley, and a bay leaf; brown these, and then add a little water acidulated with vinegar

or some French white wine, salt, and pepper; when this sauce has been sufficiently cooked, strain it through a colander, then set it on the fire and let your slices of eel simmer in it, but not sufficiently to cook them; then take them out, and let them get cold, when they are to be covered with crumbs of bread, and broiled over a slow fire. Before serving them, put some tartare sauce in a dish, and lay the broiled slices in it, garnished with crisped parsley. The tartare sauce is made in the following way:—Take two or three shalots, some chervil, and tarragon, shred them very fine; then add some mustard, salt, pepper, and a very little oil and vinegar, stirring constantly; if your sauce gets too thick, put a little more vinegar, and if it tastes too salt, add a little oil and mustard.

FLOUNDER. A small flat fish usually caught in rivers and harbours: in season from January to April, and in August and September. When it can be got firm the flounder is a very delicate fish, but it often has an unpleasant muddy flavour. The usual way of cooking flounders is by cleaning them well, flouring, and frying them to a good colour in boiling lard or oil. They are sometimes pickled in the same way as mackerel, when they form a very agreeable dish for luncheons and suppers.

GUDGEON. A small river fish exceedingly delicate and fine flavoured; the smaller sized gudgeon is indeed very little, if at all, inferior to whitebait. There is but one way of dressing gudgeons in perfection, which is frying; all other modes destroy the flavour of the fish. In Paris, where fried gudgeon are served at almost every table of the rich as well as the poor, they are much better cooked than in London, merely from the circumstance of their being fried in an immense quantity of lard. At the restaurants they are not fried in a common frying pan, but in deep vessels, so that the liquid fat may be very abundant, and are generally dipped in batter, or at least floured before fried; none but the smallest sized gudgeons are used for that purpose.

GURNET. There are two kinds of gurnet, the red and grey; but it is considered a coarse dry fish; it is, however, improved by filling the eyes and gills with salt, as directed for whiting and haddocks, and letting them remain in this state for twelve hours before dressing. The usual plan is to boil them and serve with melted butter; or to bake, stuffed with veal stuffing, and

covered with a little butter; in this mode the flavour is much improved.

HADDOCK. This fish bears a very strong affinity to the whiting, and indeed is by many persons considered superior in flavour. It is quite free from oily matter, and may be therefore looked upon as very easy of digestion. The haddock is in season from February to May, but in December and January is in the highest perfection.

TO BAKE HADDOCKS. Cut off the heads and fins of two or three haddocks, and put into a stewpan, with an onion, some parsley, salt, pepper, and two anchovies cut up fine, a little flour, two table-spoonfuls of French white wine, and a little catsup. Boil all this well up together, and when the fish has been skinned and cut into pieces, lay them in a deep pie dish; pour the above sauce over them, and bake in an oven. Strew the bottom of the dish with bread crumbs, and strew some more over them, having seasoned them well with pepper and salt and a little grated nutmeg.

TO BOIL HADDOCKS. Proceed precisely as directed for whiting, (which see under proper head.) The same remark with regard to filling the eyes and gills with salt applies to this fish, as thereby the flavour and firmness are much improved.

FINNAN OR ABERDEEN HADDOCKS. The following directions for curing the fish are given by Mrs. Dalgairn:—Clean the haddocks thoroughly, and split them; take off the heads, put some salt on them, and let them lie two hours, or all night, if they are required to keep more than a week; then having hung them two or three hours in the open air to dry, smoke them in a chimney over peat, or hardwood sawdust. When there is not a chimney suitable for the purpose, they may be done in an old cask, open at both ends, into which put some sawdust, with a red hot iron in the midst; place rods of wood across the top of the cask, tie the haddocks by the tail in pairs, and hang them on the sticks to smoke; the heat should be kept as equal as possible, as it spoils the fish to get alternately hot and cold. When done, they should be of a fine yellow colour, which they should acquire in twelve hours at furthest. When they are to be dressed, the skin must be taken off. They may be boiled or broiled, and are generally used for breakfast.

TO FRY HADDOCKS. When the fish have been well cleaned, and the scales

scraped off, wipe them dry; rub them over with the yolk of an egg well beaten, and cover them with flour or finely grated bread crumbs. Fry them to a good colour in boiling lard or oil, drain on a sieve before the fire, and serve with melted butter.

TO FRY HADDOCKS IN SAUCE. Having skinned and cut off the heads, cut the fish into four pieces; then put a piece of butter and flour into a frying pan and brown it, or use a little brown roux, into which put an onion chopped very fine, and season with pepper and salt, and then pour in as much boiling water as will nearly cover the pieces of fish. When it boils, put them in, and fry to a good colour, turning as required. Serve with the sauce, garnished with fried parsley.

HALIBUT, a large coarse fish, cooked in the same way as sturgeon.

HERRINGS. This fish, although very agreeable to the palate, cannot, from its very oily nature, be considered as suited to very delicate stomachs. The herring, to be eaten in perfection, should be as fresh as possible, for no fish suffers more by keeping than this. The finest herrings caught in England are at Yarmouth, which place is famous for their mode of curing them; and at Clovelly, on the north coast of Devon. They are in season from February to July. The general mode of cooking herrings, when fresh, is by frying or broiling; but on the Continent they are cooked in other ways.

HERRINGS A LA BOURGEOISE. When the herrings have been scaled and washed, dry them in a cloth and broil them. Serve with a sauce made as follows:—Put into a stewpan a piece of butter which has been rubbed in flour, a little lemon juice, salt, pepper, and a little gravy; thicken the sauce over the fire, and pour it over the herrings.

TO BROIL HERRINGS. (See MACKEREL or WHITING.) On the Continent, the favourite way of eating broiled herring is with mustard sauce, which is certainly a great improvement.

TO FRY HERRINGS. After having scaled them and cut off the fins, gut them, leaving in the roes and melt; then wipe them in a cloth, dredge them with flour, and fry them in boiling lard or oil to a good colour. Drain them before the fire, and serve hot. Melted butter, or parsley and butter, may be served with them; many persons are partial to an onion sliced up and put into a sauce-boat, and boiling water poured over it, seasoning with pepper and salt.

TO MARINATE HERRINGS. Clean the fish well without washing. Open them so as to remove the back bone, and season them well with pepper, salt, and onion chopped very fine. Roll them up tight, and place them in a jar, and pour over them some vinegar and water in equal quantities; tie over the jar with paper, and bake in rather a slow oven for an hour. When they are cold, pour over them a little cold vinegar. They may also be pickled in the same way as Mackerel. (See MACKEREL.)

TO SALT HERRINGS. Gut them carefully, leaving the roes in the fish, but throwing away the melts. Wash them and put them into a brine strong enough to float an egg. Let them lie in this pickle for eighteen hours, after which, they must be taken out and well drained on a sieve; then pack them in a keg in layers, strewing between each layer a handful of salt, until the keg is full. Strew the top with salt and cover closely. When dressed, they are to be put on in cold water, and allowed to cook for ten minutes after they begin to boil.

TO SMOKE HERRINGS. Lay them in salt and a little saltpetre for ten or twelve hours, and follow the same directions as for smoking Finnan haddocks. (See HADDOCKS.)

LAMPREYS, as for EELS.

LOBSTER, a very fine flavoured shell fish, said to be highly nutritious, but which is of difficult digestion. Lobsters are eaten hot or cold, but chiefly the latter; they are also made into a rich pie, and are a fine relish when potted. In boiling lobsters, they are to be put into boiling water with salt, and kept boiling for twenty minutes or half an hour, according to size. When taken out, they should be rubbed with a little butter, to give them a gloss, and served when thoroughly cold; the shells, claws, and legs, being broken, and the body and head cut through the middle. If they are to be eaten hot, melted butter must be served with them as for any other fish; but whether hot or cold, the dish should be garnished with parsley. Hot lobster is also sometimes served in the following way:—Boil the lobster, and when cold, pick out all the meat; chop it, and mix with it some grated bread, salt, Cayenne pepper, and good vinegar, (the Indian pickle vinegar is the best for this purpose,) and work up with the mixture a little melted butter. Put this mixture into scollop shells to get thoroughly hot, and brown with a salamander.

LOBSTER CATSUP. Pound all the meat, including the red part and the spawn, in a mortar, with a little sherry wine and Cayenne pepper, until a good paste is formed; then add by degrees more sherry, and put into wide mouthed bottles with some whole black pepper; cork the bottles, and tie over with leather. A very large lobster will require about a pint and a half of sherry, a table-spoonful of black pepper, and a tea-spoonful of Cayenne. This catsup much resembles, when used fresh, lobster sauce. Good French white wine is preferable to sherry; but as it is not so strong, the catsup will keep less time.

LOBSTER DRESSING. This is usually composed of the following ingredients:—Salad oil four table-spoonfuls, white wine vinegar two table-spoonfuls, the yolk of a hard-boiled egg rubbed up with the oil, and salt, pepper, and mustard, according to taste. The same dressing does for crabs.

LOBSTER FRITTERS. The following dish owes its origin to one of the cooks of Prince Talleyrand:—Chop up the meat, with the red part and the spawn of two large lobsters, very fine, with finely grated crumbs of bread, and a little butter, and season with pepper, and salt, and a very small quantity of chopped sweet herbs; make this into a kind of paste with yolk of egg, and having formed it into pieces about two inches in length and an inch thick, dip them into a good thick batter, and fry.

LOBSTER PATTIES. The same mixture will do for patties, with the addition of some chopped oysters, and a little white wine, and with or without chopped parsley; heat the mixture, and when the patties are baked, take off the tops, and fill them. For the mode of making the patties, see PASTRY.

LOBSTER PIE. Pound the meat of boiled lobsters, including the red part and the spawn, in a mortar, with pepper, salt, and nutmeg; then mix with the pounded meat melted butter, in the proportion of a quarter of a pound to a large lobster, and some very finely grated bread; a little lemon juice or vinegar may be added; bake with a puff paste. This is a very rich dish, and is generally eaten cold, and in small quantities at a time. A layer of oysters may be put at the bottom of the dish, with their liquor.

TO POT LOBSTERS. Lay the meat, with the red part and the spawn, well seasoned with pepper and salt (with or

without a little mace, and clove powder,) in clarified butter, and bake for nearly half an hour; when cold, pound it up with the butter in which it was baked, and put into pots, covering with some more clarified butter. If it is intended to keep the potted lobster for a great length of time, the quantity of spice should be increased. A large sized lobster will require about three ounces of butter in baking. The flesh of crabs, shrimps, prawns, &c., may be potted in the same manner; or they may be picked out and baked whole for ten minutes, the jars to be tied over afterwards, clarified butter being poured over them. They must be well seasoned.

LOBSTER SALAD. Lobsters may be cut up and mixed with vegetable salad of any kind, or made into a salad separately, by broiling them when boiled, and mixing the meat with minced onions, and pickles of any kind, green capsicums, salt, pepper, and vinegar, or lemon juice.

LOBSTER SAUCE. (See SAUCES.)

LOBSTER SAUSAGES. Chop up the meat of a large lobster very fine, with two ounces of butter, which has been browned with two table-spoonfuls of flour, season well as above, and make hot over the fire with sufficient stock, or plain water, to make a mass, but not too liquid; when cold, make this up into the form of flat sausages; cover with crumbs of bread and yolk of eggs, and fry brown.

STEWED LOBSTER. Pick out all the meat of cold lobsters, and have ready some gravy, made by boiling the shells previously pounded roughly for a long time in water; strain this liquor, and season it with pepper and salt, and a little mace; thicken it with flour and butter, and when it is thoroughly hot, put on the lobster, and heat it up; just before serving, add a little lemon juice to increase the flavour.

MACKEREL. This fish is found in different parts of the ocean, particularly on the French and English coasts, but very few are taken on the coast of Holland. Mackerel are considered to be in season from the beginning of April to the beginning of July; out of these months they are said not to be wholesome; indeed, at all times mackerel, from their oily nature, are not so good food for weak stomachs as many other sorts of fish; but where it does not disagree, it affords great nourishment. In England mackerel are seldom cooked in more than three or four ways; but on the Continent there is a greater

variety. Plainly boiled, this fish is, perhaps, most wholesome; but its greatest flavour is when cut open and broiled, and well seasoned with salt and pepper.

TO BAKE MACKEREL. The heads and tails are to be cut off, the fish being well cleaned and scraped, and then seasoned with pepper and salt, and laid in a dish with a little fresh butter, and baked in a slow oven. They may be eaten hot or cold; if hot, with any of the usual fish sauces; and if cold, with vinegar. A richer way of baking mackerel is to put a little vinegar and port wine to them, with seasoning as above.

TO BOIL MACKEREL. Having cleaned them well, let them lie in an equal mixture of water and vinegar for a quarter of an hour, then put them on in boiling water, with a little salt, for a quarter of an hour. The dish on which the fish is served should be garnished with fennel, and a sauce served with them of melted butter with chopped fennel or parsley, or green gooseberry sauce, (see SAUCES.)

TO BROIL MACKEREL. After they are well cleaned, split them down, and having wiped them dry, rub them well with pepper and salt, and let them stand for a short time; then broil them thoroughly; when served, put a bit of fresh butter on them. The French generally broil them in buttered paper; but in either case, always serve with broiled mackerel a few chopped fine herbs, laid on with the fresh butter.

MACKEREL IN THE ITALIAN WAY. Clean and cut off the heads of four mackerel; then put the fish in a stewpan with half a bottle of French white wine, a few slices of onions and carrots, a little parsley, a bay leaf, and some salt; stew them gently, and when they are done, take them out, drain them, and serve them with a little white Italian sauce, (see SAUCES.)

MACKEREL EN PAPILOTE. Clean the mackerel; and having cooked the roes in a saucepan with some butter, pepper, salt, and a little lemon juice, put a roe into the inside of each fish; and having wrapped them up separately in buttered writing paper, broil them over a clear fire; they are to be served in the paper, and eaten with fresh butter, salt, and pepper.

TO PICKLE MACKEREL. Having cut and split the mackerel, cover them with a little thyme, parsley, and shallots chopped fine; then fry the fish carefully; when done, pour over them some vinegar boiled with black pepper, a few cloves, and three

or four bay leaves; this liquor is not to be poured upon them until it is cold.

Another mode is to cut the fish into pieces, and to cover them well with a mixture of black pepper, nutmeg, mace, and salt, reduced to a fine powder; then fry them brown in oil; and when cold, put them into a jar, and fill it up with strong vinegar previously boiled. If it is intended to keep them for some months before using, the top of the jar should have a depth of at least an inch of good sweet oil, and be carefully tied over with parchment. This is a rich preparation. The quantity of spices required for six common sized mackerel is, three nutmegs, six blades of mace, and an ounce of black pepper; a good handful of salt should be used.

TO SOUSE MACKEREL. When they are boiled, put half a pint of vinegar to a quart of the liquor in which the fish has been boiled, half an ounce of whole black pepper, two or three bay leaves, and a little mace; let these boil together for a short time, and when cold, pour it over the mackerel.

MULLET, GREY. This fish bears a very strong resemblance in appearance to salmon, except that the scales are larger; it is, when not too large, a delicate fish, and is boiled in the same way as any other fish; and when small, may be dressed according to any of the directions given for trout; it may be also stuffed and baked, as directed for carp and tench. It differs from the red mullet in as much as it requires to be gutted before cooking.

MULLET, RED. This fish is highly prized by epicures for its game flavour, which is chiefly given by its liver. As it is always in England dressed in its trail, it has acquired the denomination of Sea Woodcock. The usual mode of cooking red mullet is to fold them in a buttered paper, lay them in a dish, and bake them before the fire in a Dutch oven; throw off the liquor which comes from them into a saucepan, and boil up with a slice of butter rolled in flour, a little essence of anchovy, and a wine glass of white wine. Serve the sauce in a sauce-boat, with the fish on a dish in the paper in which they have been cooked.

RED MULLET EN MARINADE. Having washed and drawn them, place them in a dish with a seasoning as directed for tench; and when they are well seasoned, broil them in sheets of paper covered with the seasoning, and serve with any good sauce, allowing the paper to remain on them. They are also cooked as whittings,

en matelotte, and *au gratin*, (see WHITTINGS.)

MUSCLES. In English cookery muscles are considered to be a very ordinary dish, and are almost exclusively the food of the poor. They are also objected to on account of the injurious effects which they sometimes produce; there is reason, however, to believe that in most of the cases of what is called poisoning by muscles, and on the precise cause of which medical men do not appear to be well agreed, they were eaten to excess, or prepared without those condiments which are necessary to counteract their injurious tendency. On the Continent, where, from the mode in which they are cooked, they form a luxury rather than a main article of food, cases of poisoning seldom occur. The symptoms of poisoning by muscles are rather painful than dangerous; they appear to disorder the stomach in such a way as to prevent digestion, and to distend the intestines with flatulency, which, pressing upon all the surrounding parts, causes a swelling, or, in most cases, a sensation of swelling in the whole system. The most effectual remedy, where the symptoms are very severe, is the use of the stomach-pump to remove the exciting cause of the disease; where this cannot be applied, or the symptoms are not sufficiently grave for its application, an emetic should be taken; and as soon as possible, if effectual relief is looked for without a course of medicine, a lavement composed of a quart of warm water, two table-spoonfuls of salt, and half an ounce of camphorated spirits of wine, should be used. In France, in the few cases that occur, nothing more is done, unless the case be very serious, than to administer about fifteen grains of rhubarb, by the stomach, and a lavement. In some countries, muscles are eaten raw, like oysters; but the taste of sea weed, which they have in their natural state, is removed by steeping them previously in verjuice. They may be eaten raw with impunity, if eschalot sauce be used with them. This is made by cutting eschalot fine, and mixing it with vinegar and a good quantity of pepper.

TO BOIL MUSCLES. Having washed them clean, put them into a dry saucepan; when they are sufficiently opened by the heat, remove a portion of the shells, and half of the natural liquor; then put them into a saucepan with a little butter and chopped parsley, and let them remain no longer over the fire than a sufficient time to make them thoroughly hot; they

are to be eaten with vinegar or lemon-juice.

MOULES A LA POULETTE. This is the favourite way of eating muscles in France. Open them as above described, then clean the shells, rejecting the half of each, and clean the muscles themselves, leaving them attached to the shells; some take them entirely out of the shells: now put them into a saucepan with butter and a little chopped parsley; add a little flour, and moisten with water, or rather beef stock, if there be any at hand; when there is very little moisture left, beat up two or three whites of eggs, according to the quantity of muscles, with milk, and let them simmer in it for a few minutes; add a little vinegar, and serve them up in their sauce.

OYSTERS. Few articles of food are more digestible than the oyster when eaten raw, or slightly cooked; there are, however, some persons with whom oysters in the raw state disagree; in this case each oyster should be dipped, before it is eaten, in a sauce composed of vinegar, pepper, and eschalots, or mild onions, chopped fine; this is the usual mode of eating raw oysters in Normandy. It is generally thought in England wine should not be taken with oysters, as it impedes the digestion; but on the Continent this notion does not exist; white wine, such as Chablis, Grace, or Sauterne, is always taken with oysters, and no inconvenience is found to result. When eaten raw, the small oysters are to be preferred, as being more delicate; but the larger sized oysters may be used for cooking. The best oysters in England are those which are found near Milton, in Kent, and are called "Native Oysters;" the oysters found in the river Colne, in Essex, are the next in quality; and after them come the Dorsetshire oysters. The London dealers bestow great pains in preserving and feeding the oysters in tubs, containing an infusion of salt and oatmeal.

BAKED OYSTERS. Chop the oysters fine, and then pound them in a mortar with the crumb of bread dipped in cream, a little parsley and chives, an anchovy, or a portion of one, according to the number of oysters, (there should be an anchovy to about six dozens,) fresh butter, salt, and pepper. When well pounded, add white of egg beaten up, in the proportion of one egg to two dozen oysters, and having mixed all well together, put into scollop shells, and bake in an oven until nicely brown; this is a very rich and agreeable dish.

OYSTERS FRIED IN BATTER. Blanch and drain them as above, dip them in thick batter, and fry them.

OYSTERS EN MARINADE. Put the oysters in a saucepan for a few minutes, to blanch with their liquor; then put them in a linen cloth to drain for an hour; next place them for two or three hours in lemon juice, or vinegar, pepper, and salt, and a little nutmeg; dip them in batter and fry them.

OYSTER PIE. Bake for rather more than half an hour in a dish, with a rich puff paste, a quart of bearded oysters with their liquor, some slices of the kidney fat of a loin of veal, white pepper, salt, and grated lemon peel; if the oysters are intended for patties, bake without a crust, and fill the patties when they are ready. For patties, however, the best way is to stew the oysters, with the seasoning as above, thickened with butter, flour, and cream; they should not stew so long as to become hard.

RAGOUED OYSTERS. Put three dozens of oysters, with their liquor, into a saucepan; as soon as they have had their first boil, take them off, and let them drain nearly dry; now put them into another saucepan with or without herbs, according to taste, and a little butter, adding gradually half a pint of milk; keep them for a few minutes simmering; and a minute before they are taken off the fire, add about two ounces more butter, and the proper quantity of pepper and salt.

SCOLLOPED OYSTERS. Take the oysters out of their shells, and put them with their liquor into a saucepan; let them get quite hot without boiling; add finely chopped herbs, such as parsley, thyme, &c., according to taste, butter, salt and pepper; put them into scollop shells, cover with crumbs of bread, and cook them on a gridiron over a clear fire; brown them with the salamander.

OYSTER SOUPS. See SOUPS.

PERCH. A river fish, which in France is considered so delicate that it is commonly designated the river partridge; it does not, however, enjoy so high a reputation in England, as it is usually thought to be a very dry fish. The largest and fattest fish are considered best, but they are not very digestible. The river perch is far superior to those taken in ponds, the flesh of the latter being browner and not so delicate. It is in season from June to November, but is in the greatest perfection in June and July. The perch may be cooked according to any of the directions given for carp.

PIKE. An ill-looking fresh water fish, which, from its ravenous propensities, is styled the "fresh water shark." When small, or of only a moderate size, the flesh is rather delicate; but when of a large size, it becomes strong and unpalatable. The pike is a fish that affords more amusement to the sportsman than, as cooked in England, gratification to the gastronome; it is in season from July to November. Pike are exceedingly destructive to all other fish, whether in pond, stream, or river; and are so voracious, that a pike has been known to seize a fish as large as itself, and almost to be suffocated by its prey; it is not at all unusual to find in the body of a pike, when taken, two or three fish, and even a water-rat, partly digested. Although the voracity of the pike would seem to require a constant supply of food, this fish has been known to attain a great age and an enormous size, when food was by no means plentiful.

PIKE A L'ALLEMANDE. Clean and scrape a large pike, and cut it into small pieces; rub them over with yolk of an egg, cover them with bread crumbs, and fry of a good colour; then rub a little butter on a dish that will stand fire, put into it a layer of sour kroust, which has been previously boiled, and some grated cheese; then a layer of the fish, and a little sour cream; then another layer of kroust, and so on, till the dish be full. Put some pieces of butter on the top, with some good gravy; strew bread crumbs over it, and bake for half an hour.

TO BOIL PIKE. Wash the fish clean, and take out the gills; make a stuffing of grated bread crumbs, butter, a few oysters, and a little parsley chopped very fine, some onions, pepper, salt, some fine herbs dried and rubbed to powder, binding the whole with an egg; fill the inside and the gills with this stuffing, and sew the fish up, and put on in boiling salt and water, with a little vinegar in it, and boil for half an hour. Serve with melted butter and oyster sauce.

PIKE A LA CHAMBORD. After having gutted the fish, fill the body with carp roes; lard one side of the fish, and cook it in a fish-kettle with French white wine, pepper, salt, thyme, bay leaf, cloves, and slices of onions. When the fish is cooked, garnish it with boiled sweetbread and river crawfish, and serve with espagnolle sauce.

TO ROAST A PIKE. When the fish has been well cleaned and scaled, take out the inside, and fill it with a stuffing made of

the crumb of bread, a little butter, pepper, salt, grated nutmeg, and lemon-peel, with an egg to bind it; baste it well with butter, and roast in a Dutch oven. Serve with melted butter and lobster sauce.

STEWED PIKE. Put the fish into a stewpan with two or three anchovies, a bit of larded rump steak, some pickled cucumbers, two or three carrots sliced, salt, and pepper, and a few truffles. Put as much French white wine as will cover the fish, and stew gently for an hour.

PILCHARD. This fish bears a very close resemblance to the herring; and is caught in large quantities on the coasts of Devon and Cornwall, but is seldom found higher up either of the channels. It is of a more oily nature than the herring, and may be cooked in the same way as that fish. The principal consumption is for the Italian market, to which part they are exported in a salted state. Those fish which are bruised in the landing are sold for manure to the farmers, and are highly esteemed; one fish, it is said, will manure two square feet of ground.

PLAICE is a flat fish, in season at the same time as Brill, (see BRILL,) but very inferior in quality, being generally very watery. When plaice can be got quite alive, and the tails cut off, and gashes cut across them, in the way that cod are served for the London market, (which is called crimping,) they become firmer. The large ones are generally boiled in the same manner as brill or turbot, and the smaller ones fried in the same way as other small fish.

PRAWNS, a small sea fish, with thick scales. It is delicious eating, and partakes of the nature and properties of many shell fish. Prawns are seldom cooked in any other way than by boiling, when they may be eaten either hot or cold. To boil prawns or shrimps, all that is necessary is to throw them, with a good quantity of salt, into boiling water, and let them remain until they have thoroughly changed colour. The flesh of prawns may be potted in the same way as that of the lobster. (See LOBSTER.) It is rather indigestible.

SALMON is by many persons considered the finest of all fish; but medical men are generally of opinion that it is indigestible; this, however, is only the case when the fish is not young. The flesh of a half grown salmon is tender, nutritious, and easy of digestion. There are, at least, fifty modes of dressing salmon, but broiled or boiled, with a proper sauce, (see SAUCES,)

is better than any other mode. We shall, however, give a few of the most approved preparations in Paris and London.

TO BAKE SALMON. Clean and cut the fish into slices, put it in a dish, and make the following sauce:—Melt an ounce of butter, kneaded in flour, in a pint and a half of gravy, with two glasses of port wine, two table-spoonfuls of catsup, two anchovies, and a little Cayenne. When the anchovies are dissolved, strain and pour the sauce over the fish, tie a sheet of buttered paper over the dish, and bake it in an oven.

SAUMON AU BLEU. Having gutted the fish, and split it, put it into a stewingpan, with sufficient white French wine to cover it and the other articles well, and to allow for loss in stewing; add a few carrots and onions sliced, four or five cloves, a few bay leaves, some parsley, and salt and pepper; let these simmer for two hours, and serve up, covered with a sauce made with butter, flour, veal jelly, pepper, and salt; garnish the dish with capers, anchovies sliced, and sliced pickled gherkins, or let these articles be tossed up in the sauce.

TO BOIL SALMON, (THE ENGLISH WAY.) Let the water be boiled with a good quantity of salt, and when boiling, put in the fish; boil for nearly half an hour, if the fish be whole; but if cut in slices, from ten to twenty minutes, according to the thickness; serve with lobster, anchovy, or caper sauce.

TO BROIL SALMON STEAKS. Cut the steaks from the thickest part of the fish, nearly an inch thick; butter pieces of white paper, fold the steaks in them, and broil them over a slow fire for ten or twelve minutes; take off the paper; serve, garnished with plenty of fried parsley. Dressed in this way, they may be put round salmon boiled, in slices. Sauces:—melted butter, lobster, or shrimp sauce.

CAVEACH SALMON. Boil in two quarts of vinegar three heads of shalots, half an ounce of whole black pepper, three cloves, two blades of mace, and a little salt. Cut the fish in slices, and fry them of a light-brown colour in fine oil, or clarified dripping; put them, when cold, into a pan; pour over them the vinegar and spices, and put on the top eight or ten spoonfuls of oil.

SALMON FRITTERS. Cut small some cold boiled salted salmon; pound some boiled potatoes, moistened with cream, and the yoke of an egg beaten; mix them together, and make it into small fritters, and fry them of a light brown in fresh

lard, or beef dripping; serve them with hard-boiled eggs, cut in quarters. For sauce, melt two ounces of butter, with a little cream and flour mixed, and add, when it is hot, a dessert-spoonful of soy, and two of mushroom catsup.

KIPPER, OR DRIED SALMON. Cut the fish up the back, and take out the bone; wipe it very clean with a cloth; score it, and put a handful of salt on each side, and let it lie for three days; then hang it up to dry, and it will be fit for use in two days, and eats well with a little pepper put over it, and broiled.

PATE DE SAUMON. Cut some salmon steaks, and season them well with salt and pepper, then simmer them in a saucepan with slices of eels and a few anchovies; when cold, put them into a fine crust and bake them.

PICKLED SALMON. Cut the salmon into pieces, boil it as for eating, and lay it on a dry cloth till the following day; boil two quarts of good vinegar with one of the liquor the fish was boiled in, one ounce of whole black pepper, half an ounce of allspice, and four blades of mace. Put the salmon into something deep, and pour over it the prepared vinegar when cold. A little sweet oil put upon the top will make it keep a twelvemonth.

TO POT SALMON. Take off the head, cut the salmon in thick slices, wipe it dry, but do not wash it; pound half an ounce of nutmeg, mace, and cloves, (the least part of cloves,) half an ounce of white pepper, and some salt; chop fine one onion, six bay leaves, and six anchovies; with this season each slice; put them into a pan with very thin slices of butter between each layer; bake it. When well done, drain off the butter, and when cold, pour over it some clarified butter.

TO SALT A SALMON. Cut the fish up the back, and cut out the bone; wipe it clean, and sprinkle it with salt; let it lie a night to drain off the liquor; wipe it dry; rub on it two or three ounces of pounded saltpetre; cut it into pieces; pack it close in a pot, with a thick layer of salt between each layer of fish. If the brine does not rise in a few days, boil a strong one, and pour it, when cold, upon the salmon, which must always be covered with it.

SAUMON SAUCE AUX CAPRES. This is the favourite mode of dressing salmon in France. Lay the salmon, cut into thick slices, in oil, parsley, cibols, salt, and whole pepper. Stew for an hour, adding from time to time merely sufficient water to

keep it moist, then serve up covered with plain butter plentifully mixed with capers.

TO STEW SALMON—THE ENGLISH WAY. Clean and scrape the fish; cut it into slices, and stew it in a rich white gravy. A little before serving, add two table-spoonfuls of soy, one of essence of anchovy, a little salt, some chopped parsley, and chives.

VOL AU VENT AU SAUMON. Take a portion of salmon which has been boiled, hash it up with a knife, with mushrooms, and an anchovy or two, and season well; put it into a stewpan time enough for the mushrooms to be well done, and when the "vol au vent" comes out of the oven, take off the top and put in the fish, adding a rich gravy, (see SAUCES,) replace the top, and serve. The "vol au vent" will be improved, if after the fish has been put in it is placed in the oven for a few minutes. Salmon may be cooked also according to the directions for sturgeon; it may also be scoloped as oysters, using salmon which has already been boiled.

It is stated, in a work recently published, that it is wrong to cook salmon quite fresh; the flakes, it is said, are hard; whereas the oily matter by keeping for a day insinuates itself into the flesh, and renders it tender.

SARDINIA. A species of pilchard, but smaller. They are taken in enormous quantities in the Mediterranean, and form one of the chief articles of food of the lower classes on the coasts of Spain and Portugal. In Lisbon they are broiled and sold in the streets, in the same way as roasted chesnuts are sold in the streets of Paris. The sardinia is generally broiled, but it may be cooked with the same variety as herrings; great quantities are preserved in the same manner as anchovies. From the excessive quantity of oil contained in this fish, it is difficult of digestion.

SHAD. A sea fish; but which in the spring and summer goes into rivers to feed and fatten. The goodness of this fish depends essentially upon the locality in which it feeds; some shad are almost uneatable, whilst others are nearly as good as salmon; the shad taken at sea are generally dry and flavourless. Any of the directions for cooking salmon may be followed with this fish.

SHRIMPS. A small fish resembling prawns, but smaller; the flavour is nearly the same, except that it is less exquisite. Shrimps are boiled in the same way as prawns, (see PRAWNS,) and the flesh may

be potted like the flesh of the lobster, (see LOBSTER.) Shrimps, when boiled, are chopped up and served with melted butter, as a sauce for various descriptions of fish. (See SAUCES.)

SKATE. A hideous-looking salt-water fish, and difficult of digestion, but of an agreeable flavour; it remains fresh in a high temperature longer than most other species of fish. In ordinary cookery it is boiled plain, or crimped, and served with melted butter, catsup, or some other fish sauce being mixed with it, according to taste. Crimped skate is considered the most digestible; it is certainly the most firm. The fish is crimped by drawing a knife through it, in lines, when first caught. Cooks should be careful to boil this fish thoroughly. The sauce of melted butter is improved by the addition of capers.

SKATE WITH BLACK BUTTER. ("Raie au Beurre Noir.") Boil a piece of skate (not crimped) in the ordinary way, and serve it up with the following sauce:—Burn fresh butter in a frying pan until nearly black, adding vinegar sufficient to give a good acidity; just before the butter is done, throw in some chopped parsley. The fish is to be served up in the dish with this sauce. This is a very agreeable way of eating skate.

FRIED SKATE. Take slices of crimped skate; lay them for four hours in butter, with salt, pepper, cloves, a little garlic, onions, parsley, chives, and vinegar; keep it sufficiently near the fire for the butter to be melted; at the end of the time mentioned take out the slices of skate, and fry them in butter; garnish the dish with parsley.

SKATE A LA SAINTE MENEHOUD. Put in a saucepan half a pint of milk, with salt, pepper, butter thickened with flour, two onions sliced, a little parsley, a little of the ordinary dried pottage herbs, two or three cloves, and a laurel leaf; let them boil; then put in the slices of crimped skate, and cook quietly; after which remove the skate and broil them, and serve them up with a remoulade. (See REMOULADE.)

SMELTS. May be dressed as whiting, in any form, but it is unusual to cook them in any other way than by frying. They are not to be washed, but wiped with a clean cloth, and dredged with flour, or brushed over with a feather, dipped into the yolk of an egg beaten, and rolled in a plate of finely-grated bread crumbs, and fried in boiling dripping, or fresh lard. They vary in size, and

some will be done sooner than others. When of a clear yellow brown, take them out carefully, and lay them before the fire upon the back of a sieve to drain and keep hot. Dish them, heads and tails alternately, or serve them up on a silver skewer. Garnish with fried parsley. Sauce:—melted butter.

SOLE. A delicate fish, containing a very small quantity of oily matter, and, therefore, particularly recommended to invalids and persons of weak stomachs. The smaller sized soles are always to be preferred, as they are tender when cooked quite fresh; whereas the larger sort eat tough, unless they are kept for some time. The skin of the smaller sized soles, carefully dried in the sun, is a good substitute for isinglass, for clearing coffee, and various other purposes. In English cookery, soles are seldom eaten in any other way than boiled or fried; but there are many excellent modes of cooking them on the Continent.

To BOIL SOLES. Clean them well, and put them on in boiling water, with a little salt, and let them boil till the fish rises to the surface; when they are done. Serve with melted butter, and shrimp, or anchovy sauce.

To FRY SOLES. Having taken off the brown skin, and scraped the other side, wash them well, and lay them in a cloth to dry; then rub them well over with yolk of egg well beaten, and cover well with grated bread crumbs; fry them of a good colour in boiling lard, and when done, lay them on a sieve to dry; serve with melted butter, and shrimp sauce, garnishing the dish with crimped parsley.

FRIED SOLES, (ITALIAN WAY.) Clean well; cut off the heads and tails, and put them into a frying pan, covering them with chopped parsley, chiboles, salt, pepper, a little powdered nutmeg, and adding a good piece of butter, previously warmed for that purpose. Cook over a quick fire, and turn the soles as soon as one side is done; when ready to serve, pour over a little Italian sauce. (See SAUCES.)

SOLE AU GRATIN. Rub a piece of butter on a silver dish; then fry for a short time some chopped fine herbs, eschalots, chopped mushrooms, and salt, and pepper; when these are nicely browned put them in the dish, and place your soles upon them; then cover the soles with grated bread crumbs; add a little butter, and a small quantity of French white wine. Cook this dish gently under a braising pan, or over a slow charcoal fire; but if the

latter, brown with a salamander. Serve the soles in the dish in which they are cooked, and just before serving add the juice of one lemon, or less, according to the number of soles.

STEWED SOLE. Put a large sole in a stewpan, with a few fine herbs, a bay leaf, pepper, and salt, two or three mushrooms chopped, a dash of lemon juice, and a bit of the peel; to this add a little good gravy, and half a pint of port or white wine, according to taste. Stew very gently till thoroughly done, but not to be broken.

SPRATS. From the very great abundance of this fish in some parts of England, and particularly in the London market, it is very little eaten, except by the poor; and from its oily nature it is certainly not to be recommended for persons of difficult digestion. It has, however, an agreeable flavour if carefully cooked. For frying, which is the only way in which sprats are dressed, every fish should be separately wiped dry and floured, before putting into the pan; good lard or oil, in sufficient quantity for the fish to be well covered, must be used. Sprats are very frequently prepared in the same way as anchovies, for sauces, and are not a bad substitute; they are also dried and smoked like herrings, and are an agreeable relish for breakfast. Enormous quantities of this fish are used on the coast of England as manure.

STURGEON. This fish in England is honoured with the appellation of "royal;" it is a very scarce fish, and only in season in January and February; its flesh is coarse, and it seems to owe its celebrity to its scarcity; the roe of the sturgeon, however, is a favourite dish, either fresh, pickled, or potted. It sometimes attains an enormous size, in which case it is usually cooked in portions. Like salmon, it goes into rivers to feed. It is very oily, and difficult of digestion, but is said to be very nourishing; it should never be eaten by persons of delicate stomach. From the roe of this fish is prepared the celebrated dish called caviar, which is done by pickling it, and pressing it down for exportation.

STURGEON A LA BRAISE. Put some slices of the fish into a braising pan, with slices of veal and rashers of bacon, a tumblerful of French white wine, a bunch of sweet herbs, two or three onions, salt, and pepper, and a little good stock, or gravy; serve with the same sauce as when roasted.

To BROIL STURGEON. Cut the fish into cutlets; rub each over with the yolk

of an egg well beaten; cover with chopped parsley, grated bread crumbs, pepper, and salt; and broil, wrapped in buttered paper. Serve with melted butter and oyster sauce.

STURGEON EN MATELOTE. Cut the fish into small thin slices; lay them on a fireproof dish, with a slice of butter, a little salt and pepper, and put them over a very slow fire; when the slices of fish are done on one side, turn them; when quite done, which will be in about twenty minutes, take them out of the dish, and add to the sauce a little flour, which mix well with the butter, and three or four shalots, and a little parsley chopped fine; put the fish again into the sauce, and set over the fire, but do not allow it to boil; serve with the sauce thrown over the fish, and the dish garnished with diamonds of bread, fried brown in butter and drained.

ROASTED STURGEON. Lard the sturgeon with fat bacon, and roast; serve it with Italian or Espagnole sauces, (see SAUCES,) or with stewed truffles, or mushrooms.

TENCH—Is a fresh water fish, closely resembling the carp in shape, but having the scales smaller, and the colour more inclined to yellow; it is in season from July to September. The flesh of the tench is not very nutritive, and is difficult of digestion, and requires to be highly seasoned to be palatable. It is dressed as follows, but may be also cooked according to any of the directions given under the head of carp:—

TENCH BROILED. Scale and clean as above; then broil on the gridiron, wrapped in buttered paper; serve with melted butter, or any other sauce.

TENCH, FRICASSEED. Dip the fish for a minute or two into boiling water; then take it out, and take off the skin and the scales, beginning at the side of the head; then gut and wash it; cut it into pieces, and fricassee, in the same manner as chickens. (See CHICKENS.)

TENCH, FRIED. Draw and wash the fish well; then wipe it very dry; cut it open down the back; season with salt, and fry of a good colour in boiling oil or lard; serve with anchovy, or any other relishing sauce.

TENCH EN MARINADE. Scale and clean as above, and lay them in a dish, with some sweet oil, parsley, green onions, and shalots chopped fine, a bunch of fine herbs, salt, and pepper. When they have thoroughly imbibed the flavour of this seasoning, place them between two sheets of writing paper, well buttered, covering

them with the seasoning, and broil them on a slow fire; serve without the paper; pouring over them some good sauce made hot.

TENCH A LA POULETTE. Prepare the fish as directed in the first receipt, and dress precisely as directed for **EELS A LA POULETTE.**

THUNNY. A large fish caught on the coasts of Sardinia; where it is pickled in vinegar, or preserved in fine oil for exportation, being first fried in slices. It is eaten on the Continent as an entremet; stewed with fresh butter, sweet herbs, and seasoning; or again fried. It is also made into a sort of paste, by chopping and pounding in a mortar, and then put into a jar, and baked with butter, white wine, lemon juice, salt, pepper, and mushrooms. This fish was held in high esteem by the old Athenians, but it is far from being a delicacy.

TROUT. A delicate river fish; caught in great perfection in many of the streams and rivers of England. It is in the best condition for the table from May to July. As trout are very seldom taken of a large size in England, they are usually fried; but on the Continent, where they are much larger, they are cooked in a variety of ways. The flesh of salmon trout is red, that of the common trout white; but the first is considered far superior. They are both cooked in the same manner.

TO BOIL TROUT. When the fish has been cleaned and gutted, put it in boiling water, made pretty salt, and boil fast for about fifteen to twenty minutes; serve with melted butter.

TO COLLAR TROUT. When they have been well cleaned, split them down the back, and remove the bone; then dry them well in a cloth; season with black pepper, salt, and a little mace pounded; roll them up and pack them close in a dish; pour over them some vinegar, two or three bay leaves, and some whole pepper; and bake in the oven for an hour, covering the dish with buttered paper.

TO FRY TROUT. When well cleaned, dredge them with flour, and rub them well over with yolk of egg well beaten; then cover with grated bread crumbs, and fry to a good colour; serve with melted butter and lemon pickle.

TROUT, (ITALIAN WAY.) Put a large trout, or two middle-sized ones, into a stewpan; cover them with two carrots, and four onions sliced, some parsley and chibols, two bay leaves, a little thyme, two or three cloves, and salt and pepper;

add two bottles of common red French wine, and boil for three-quarters of an hour; then pass all the gravy through a sieve; and having melted in another saucepan about a quarter of a pound of butter, mixed with three table-spoonfuls of flour, add, by degrees, the strained sauce, stirring over a brisk fire until it has become well united and thick; put the fish into a dish, pour this sauce over it, and serve.

STEWED TROUT. Put into a pan some crumb of bread, with a little butter, some parsley, shalots chopped very fine, pepper, salt, two or three cloves, a little nutmeg grated, a glass of French white wine, and about the same quantity of good gravy; let it boil until it becomes thick; put the fish, which has been scaled, cleaned, and cut into slices, into another vessel, with a little stock, salt, pepper, and the juice of a lemon, and let it boil till the liquor is quite reduced; then dish up the fish, pouring over it the former sauce, and serve.

TURBOT. A very fine digestible fish, common to most countries, and taken frequently at the mouths of rivers; those caught off the Scilly islands, and on the north coast of Cornwall, are of very fine quality. This fish was held in such high estimation by the Romans, that in the time of Cato a turbot was sometimes sold at Rome for 250 crowns; and it was frequently styled by the ancients, *phasianus aquaticus*, "water pheasant." Juvenal even relates that the Emperor Domitian once summoned his senators together to deliberate on the kind of sauce with which turbot should be eaten. Turbot is good at most seasons of the year, but is in its greatest perfection about June and July. To dress turbot, it should be put into boiling water, in which has been previously put a handful of salt and a little vinegar; keep it boiling fast; when it is done, it will rise from the drainer; serve with melted butter and lobster sauce. Turbot is sometimes cooked in water to which about a pint of milk has been added, and when on the point of boiling, withdrawn from the fire, and kept only at such a distance that the cooking may be completed without the water boiling. In the event of milk being added, the vinegar must be omitted. Turbot is generally considered best when perfectly fresh, but it is preferred by some after it has been hung a few days by the tail in a cool place. In all dinners of ceremony, boiled turbot should be garnished with fried smelts. Mr. Careme says that a large

boiled lobster should be placed on the turbot, and this lobster be garnished with about a dozen smelts, skewered with silver skewers, three or four on each, and fixed in the lobster; the turbot should be served on a napkin.

TURBOT EN MATELOTE. Put the fish on a dish that will stand fire, and strew over it some onions cut into slices, a little salt, pepper, a bay leaf, a little lemon juice, and some butter melted for the purpose, and moistened with some white French wine; then place the dish over some hot ashes, and cover it with a braising pan. It must be moistened from time to time with a little wine, and served with some rich fish sauce.

TURBOT STEAKS BROILED. Cut the fish into steaks; season them with pepper and salt; dip them in melted butter, and cover them with bread crumbs, after having rubbed them over with yolks of egg well beaten; broil them of a good colour; and serve them with some rich sauce, or with melted butter.

STEWED TURBOT. Mix a pound of fresh butter, a little salt, pepper, and nutmeg, some parsley and mushrooms chopped, a chopped shalot, and the juice of two lemons; cover the bottom of the fish kettle with a portion of this mixture, then put in the fish, and cover it with the remainder; add a bottle of French white wine, and let the whole stew very gently for an hour. Another mode may be adopted by taking up the fish when it has been in about half an hour, and then putting it into a slow oven, moistening from time to time with the liquor in which it has been stewed; a quarter of an hour before serving, sprinkle crumbs of bread, and grated parmesan cheese, over the fish; in either case, some of the liquor is to be served with the fish in a sauce tureen.

WHITEBAIT. A small and very delicate fish, peculiar to the river Thames. Naturalists have long disputed as to whether the whitebait be a species of itself, or the young of a larger species of fish. The balance of evidence seems to be in favour of the former opinion. Whitebait should be eaten very fresh, as otherwise its flavour is much diminished. It is to be cooked in the same way as gudgeon. (See GUDGEON.)

WHITING. A very delicate fish, which seldom disagrees with any stomach, as it contains only a small portion of oily matter. There is, perhaps, no fish that requires to be eaten more fresh than the whiting, although many epicures, in order

to have the fish firm and flaky, prefer them to lay for a few hours with the eyes and gills filled with salt. Whiting are to be purchased almost all the year, but are in the highest perfection from January to March.

WHITING A LA BOURGEOISE. Put into a dish that will stand fire, a good sized piece of fresh butter; when it is melted, add some chopped parsley, mushrooms, chibols, salt, and pepper; lay the whittings over this, and having covered the dish, cook very gently over a charcoal fire; serve them in their own sauce; but just before serving, add a dash of lemon juice.

To BOIL WHITING. Clean them well, and put them on in boiling water, with a handful of salt; when done, they will rise to the surface, and must be immediately taken up; skim well, while boiling; serve with melted butter, or shrimp sauce.

To BROIL WHITING. Prepare in the same way as for frying, and cook on a gridiron; rubbing them over, before serving, with a little cold butter.

To DRY WHITING. Clean and scrape them, and cut them open to below the vent; take out the eyes, and fill the hollow with salt, and put salt also into the bodies; let them lie twenty-four hours; then place a small skewer across the head part, to keep them open, and hang them in a cool place in the open air. They will keep in this manner for some time, and may be either boiled, and eaten with egg sauce, or broiled.

To FRY WHITING. When the scales have been well scraped off, and the fish thoroughly cleaned, cut off the fins and wipe them dry with a cloth; then dredge them with flour, and rub them over with yolk of egg beaten up, and cover with bread crumbs; fry to a good colour in boiling lard or oil. If the fish is very large, it may be cut into steaks; but the small ones are generally preferred for frying, and are always dressed with the tails run through the eyes.

STEWED WHITING. Put the whittings into a stewpan, with some fresh butter, chopped parsley, and chibols, a little salt and pepper, and a little nutmeg; moisten them from time to time with butter and white wine; when done on one side, turn them; and when quite done, thicken with flour and butter, adding a little lemon juice.

FLANNELS, To WASH. When flannels have been washed several times they become yellow. The "Encyclopedie

Domestique" says, this may be prevented in the following manner:—Mix four table-spoonfuls of flour with four quarts of water, and put it to boil; taking care to stir the whole time. When it has boiled thoroughly, put the flannel articles that are to be washed into a pan or tub, and pour over them half the quantity of this flour and water in a boiling state. When the water in the pan or tub has become cool enough to be able to hold the hand in it, wash the flannels in the usual way, but without the addition of soap. Then rinse in three or four waters; and having let them drain as much as possible, put them back to the tub or pan, and pour over the remaining flour and water, also boiling. When cool enough, wash as before; rinse well, and hang out to dry, without wringing.

FLEA. Various remedies are resorted to by good housewives to get rid and prevent the increase of this most prolific domestic torment; but the best preventive and also remedy is great cleanliness. The rooms should be frequently washed, and the bed clothes exposed to the free action of the outer air. It is said that if the body, before going to bed, be spunged over with camphorated spirit, and the sheets be sprinkled with it, fleas will not come near the person; the thing is worth trying. The camphor may be sprinkled in the bed in powder, which is made by dropping upon a lump of camphor a few drops of spirit, and then reducing it by the hand to powder.

FLESH. The flesh of young animals is most juicy and soft, but that of the older is more nourishing. The juices of old animals, says Chambers, are spirituous, gelatinous, and agreeable to the taste; but the flesh is hard and difficult of digestion. The flesh of wild animals is more light and digestible than that of tame. Nearly a century ago, Dr. Hales suggested that the flesh of animals intended for storing should be preserved by injecting them immediately after killing, with strong brine. This does not, however, appear to have been acted upon, although the practice of injecting the blood vessels of the human subject with pyroligneous acid, to keep it for the purposes of dissection, has been long adopted in many hospitals. Flesh, among botanists, is that substance of any fruit that is between the outer rind and the stone, or that part of any root which is fit to be eaten.

FLOUR. Ground corn of any kind reduced to powder. The term flour,

however, is usually applied only to the powder of wheat and rye; the powder of barley, oats, &c., is generally called meal. Flour should always be kept in a dry state, and if intended for storing, its natural moisture should be evaporated by putting it into an oven or drying stove, heated to about 170° or 180° of Fahrenheit. This heat will not only dry the flour, but also destroy the eggs of any insects which it contains. When dry, it should be packed in barrels. Good wheat flour is white, light, and when rubbed between the fingers should readily drop from them; if it adheres, moisture, or the presence of some adulterating substance may be suspected. If flour be attacked by insects, it is unfit for use, as they devour the gluten, and leave only the starch. The presence of insects may be sometimes detected by a magnifying glass, but in other cases a microscope may be necessary. The most criminal adulterations of wheaten flour are sometimes practised in England. Plaster of Paris is not unfrequently mixed with it, to increase its weight; but this may be detected by boiling, for two or three minutes, two ounces of the suspected flour in a pint of water, then agitating it, and filtering through blotting paper. If there be plaster, it will remain in the paper; this being dried, and put into a narrow glass, and a little vinegar poured upon it, the plaster will give out a smell similar to that of rotten eggs. If chalk be mixed with the flour, it may be ascertained by throwing some of the flour upon water, when the chalk, being of the greatest specific gravity, will sink immediately to the bottom; if the water be poured off, and vinegar added to this deposit, an effervescence will take place. Or a little of the flour may be thrown upon a heated fire shovel, just on the point of becoming red; the flour will burn, and be reduced to a black ash, but the chalk or plaster will remain unconsumed. Flour is not always adulterated by deleterious substances, but sometimes with articles harmless in their nature, but very much cheaper than wheaten flour. The fecula of potatoes is used to a great extent for the purpose of adulterating flour, both on the Continent and in England. Hitherto it has been exceedingly difficult to detect this adulteration; but by a recent and most beautiful experiment the presence of potato fecula in flour is detected, even though it be in the proportion of only one-fiftieth part. We owe this discovery, which is by electricity, to

M. Sellier, a scientific gentleman belonging to the stamp office in Paris. It had long been known that certain vegetable substances were attracted by positive, and others by negative, electricity. M. Sellier following up this knowledge, covered a board with a coating of sealing-wax, and by means of a Leyden jar, charged one part of the board with the positive, and the other with the negative fluid. He then, with a barber's puff, charged with the flour to be experimented upon, threw a little over the board; immediately, the fecula was attracted to one side, and the wheaten flour to the other. On looking at each through a magnifying glass, the fecula was seen lying by itself, and shining like brilliants; whilst the wheaten flour, deprived of the adulteration, had a dead whiteness.

FOMENTATIONS. The name of fomentation is given to any external application to the skin by means of bandages or flannels. They are used hot or cold, according to circumstances. In cases of sprains, or other affections, where the application of heat is required, thick flannel is dipped in the hot liquid, and being slightly wrung, it is placed as hot as possible upon the part, and as it cools, another flannel is got ready. In colic, long constipation, and other affections of the bowels, the use of hot fomentations, which are usually made by boiling poppy heads and chamomile flowers in water, are frequently found to be very useful. This fomentation is, at the same time, emollient and soothing. Its strength may be increased by sprinkling laudanum upon the flannel when it has been wrung. As no danger can result from the use of hot fomentations for such affections, they may always be resorted to in the absence of a medical man, when the pain is violent, and the case is urgent. They are sometimes used in gout with advantage, and for quinsy, when it is necessary to bring the tumour to suppuration. Cold fomentations are useful in sprains, when active inflammation has subsided, and it is required to give tone and strength to the part. The best way of applying them is to put a thick bandage upon the part, and to keep pouring cold water over it. Cold astringent fomentations, mixed with extract of lead, are used for the dissipation of tumours; but this should never be done without medical advice, as a medical man only can be a proper judge as to whether such applications should be used, and great danger frequently results from an

injudicious attempt to dissipate affections of this nature. Warm fomentations to the feet, sharpened with the addition of mustard, or muriatic acid, (the latter in the proportion of two table-spoonfuls to a pint of water,) are not unfrequently ordered for the relief of pains in the head; but in such cases it is always more convenient to use the foot bath.

FOWL. The common domestic fowl is in great variety; but the flavour, although more or less delicate, has a strong resemblance. Two of the best species are the Russian, and the Normandy or Rouen fowl. The common fowl may be said to be in perfection at the end of its first season of laying, after that the flesh becomes tough and coarse; but old fowls do very well for stewing. The length of the spurs will give some idea of the age of the bird; but another plan is to lift the bird by the beak, when dead; if the beak will bear the weight of the bird, it will be advisable to dress it according to some of the modes best suited to an old fowl; if young, the beak will break readily. This will also be the case with the claws, when crushed, if the bird be young. Most of the directions given for dressing chicken are applicable to young fowls.

To BOIL A FOWL. When prepared as above, dredge it well with flour, and put on in boiling water, to which may be added a little milk. A large one will require an hour to dress; and if stuffed, a longer time will be necessary. It is served with parsley and butter, white, or liver sauce, or oyster sauce.

HASHED FOWL. Cut a cold roast fowl into pieces, and then put the trimmings into a saucepan, with two or three shalots, some fine herbs, a bay leaf, pepper, salt, a slice of lean ham, and a little stock, or gravy; simmer this for half an hour, then strain it off. Put a little brown roux into another stewpan, to which add the above gravy; let it boil a minute, and then put in the fowl. Before serving, squeeze in a little lemon juice.

FOWL A LA HOLLANDAISE. Remove the bone from the breast, fill it with forcemeat, and roast it for three-quarters of an hour, keeping it covered with buttered paper. When the fowl is done, have ready some batter, made of flour, eggs, and milk, well beaten and mixed together, and pour over it; when it becomes dry, add more, continuing to do so until it is well crusted over, and of a good brown colour. Serve with melted butter, or some good brown gravy.

FOWL PIE. (See CHICKEN PIE, or VEAL PIE.)

FOWL A LA PROVENÇALE. Divide a fowl up the back, and fill it with slices of bacon; put a slice of crumb of bread over the bacon, and sew it up, and roast it. Serve with brown sauce, or gravy.

To ROAST A FOWL. When it has been picked, well cleaned, and singed, cut the neck off close to the back, wash, and truss it. If the fowl is large it should be stuffed with forcemeat, as for veal. (See VEAL.) While roasting, baste it well with butter, taking care it does not burn. A good sized fowl will require about an hour to roast, but it may be considered sufficiently done when the steam from it is observed to draw towards the fire. Serve with gravy in the dish, and bread sauce, in a tureen. Boiled ham or tongue are always served with fowls.

To SOUSE A FOWL. When a fowl has been roasted, cut it into joints; sprinkle it well with pepper, salt, and two or three onions chopped fine; then pour over it some boiling water, and let it stand till cold, keeping it well covered.

STEWED FOWL WITH ONIONS. Wash and prepare as for boiling, putting a little pepper and salt into it; then put it into a stewpan, with some good gravy mixed with water; stew it until it becomes quite tender, then add some small onions which have been first boiled in another vessel, and let them stew for half an hour. If the fowl is old, it will require between two or three hours to dress.

FROGS. The use of frogs as an article of food is almost peculiar to France, although from the delicacy of the dish it is worthy of figuring upon every table. As only the hind quarters, however, are used, the dish is an expensive one. The flavour resembles very much that of a very fine chicken, but is superior; and the flesh is more light of digestion than that of chicken. There are two ways of cooking frogs; the one is *en fricassée*, the other by frying them in batter.

FROGS EN FRICASSÉE. Cut off the hind legs, with so much of the loin as will hold them together. Having put them in boiling water, and subsequently allowed them to lie in cold water for ten minutes, put them into a stewpan with some champignons, a little parsley, chibols, and some butter. After having given them two or three turns with the butter, add a little flour, a glass of French white wine, a little stock, and some salt

and whole pepper. Let them stew gently for a quarter of an hour, and then thicken with some yolks of eggs, butter, and a little parsley.

FRIED FROGS. Put the legs and loins for an hour in a mixture of half vinegar and half water, with some parsley, chopped onions, shalots, thyme, and two or three cloves. Then let them drain, and either flour them well, or dip them in batter for frying. The dish is to be garnished with curled parsley.

FUNNEL. An article in the form of an inverted cone, for transfusing and filtering liquids. Funnels are made of glass, tin, copper, &c. The best, as being most easily kept clean for filtrations, are of glass. In ordinary filtration, where nothing more is required than to separate from the liquid any rough particles which may be floating in it, all that is necessary is to put a little cotton, wool, or tow, into the funnel over the aperture of the spout or neck; but where transparency is wanted, the funnel must be lined with filtering paper of a single or double thickness, according to the neatness of the operation. The paper is fitted to the funnel by twice doubling a piece larger than the funnel, and folding it up in plaits in such a way that one end may be completely pointed. The upper and uneven end is then rounded off with a pair of scissors, and the paper on being opened and put into the funnel, with the pointed part downwards, may be adapted to it in every direction. The liquid to be filtered must be poured in gently, and a little at a time, so that the sudden weight may not fracture the paper. If the liquid be much troubled, some fresh charcoal, not so thick as to impede the passage, should be put into the bottom of the filtering paper. Fresh animal charcoal is the best for this purpose, but wood charcoal, if fresh, will generally answer. Powdered alum is frequently used, when the liquid is not for internal use, as for perfumes; but this must not be employed for liqueurs, or other preparations taken internally. In filtering perfumes, a covered funnel should be used to prevent evaporation during the process, leaving only a small opening for the air, to permit the passage of the liquid, which would not flow if air were entirely excluded. Filtering paper may be purchased of any stationer.

FURNITURE PASTE. To polish mahogany, or other wooden furniture, prepare a paste as follows:—Dissolve, with gentle heat, some yellow bees'-wax in

spirits of turpentine, using merely enough of the latter to dissolve the wax. When it is to be used, put a little of the paste on a piece of woollen cloth, and rub the wood well with it, working it off by sharp friction with another piece of woollen cloth on which no paste has been put. A small quantity of oil of lavender, added to the paste whilst it is dissolving, is an improvement.

GAME. We subjoin the most approved modes of preparing game. Generally speaking, game is considered the most digestible of animal food. (See **ALIMENTS** and **INDIGESTION**.) Many of the articles inserted under the general head **GAME** are not, properly speaking, regarded as game in England; but we have thought it right to place them under this head, as distinguished from domestic animals.

BLACK-COCK. There is no bird belonging to the category of game which is held in higher repute both by the sportsman and the *bon vivant*. It is found principally, if not wholly, in the Highlands of Scotland, where it is met with in great abundance. In appearance it much resembles the pheasant, but its plumage is not so rich. The directions given for roasting pheasants and partridges are equally applicable to the black-cock; it may also be dressed in any of the ways directed for these birds, but the best way is roasting.

GROUSE. A description of game in appearance very much resembling partridge, but considered of higher flavour. It is principally found on the moors in Scotland, but is also met with on some of the high downs in England. It is dressed according to all the directions given for partridge, (see **PARTRIDGE**,) and is also very good made into a pie, as follows:—

GROUSE PIE. Having picked and well cleaned as many grouse as may be necessary, season them with Cayenne pepper, salt, whole pepper, and two or three cloves pounded; put a bit of butter into each bird, and lay them closely into a pie dish, with a little stock, or good brown gravy, and a wine-glass of port wine; cover the dish with puff paste, and bake it an hour and a quarter. If intended to be eaten cold, have ready a little rich veal gravy, and pour into the dish when it comes out of the oven.

HARE. The flesh of this animal is light of digestion, if it be young and kept a sufficient length of time before dressing; many persons keep hares until the putre-

factive stage of decomposition is far advanced; but this is unnecessary as regards the tenderness of the flesh, which is never better than just as it is beginning to turn. The best part of the hare, when roasted, is the loin and the thick part of the hind leg; the other parts are only fit for stewing, hashing, or jugging. It is usual to roast a hare first, and to stew or jug the portion which is not eaten the first day. To ascertain whether the hare be old or young, feel the fore legs just above the joint; if there be a very small protuberance, equal in size to about the half of a split pea, the animal is young; the nose of the young hare is also more pointed than that of the old, and the ears are more tender.

HASHED HARE. Cut the hare into small pieces, and put them into a stewpan with some good stock highly seasoned, a glass of port wine, a little lemon-juice, and two or three cloves; let it simmer over a slow fire. Serve with currant jelly sauce.

TO JUG A HARE. This mode of cooking a hare is very desirable when there is any doubt as to its age, as an old hare, which would be otherwise uneatable, may be made into an agreeable dish. After having well washed the hare, cut it into pieces, and let it lie for about half an hour in lukewarm vinegar and water; then drain, and put into a stewpan with a little good stock, pepper, salt, two or three cloves, a shalot, and two or three green onions shred fine, a bunch of fine herbs, two or three bay leaves, and about a pint of water; let it stew for about an hour on a slow fire. At the expiration of that time, remove it from the stew-pan, and put it into a deep dish that will stand the heat of an oven; strain the liquor that may remain in the stewpan on it, adding, if necessary, a little more stock, or good gravy, a little Cayenne pepper, a squeeze of lemon, and about a pint of French white wine, or port wine. Let it bake in a slow oven for two hours, covering the dish with a coarse paste of flour and water; when done, remove the paste.

CIVET DE LIEVRE. Cut a hare in pieces, or take what remains of a hare previously roasted, of which little may have been eaten; put it into a stewpan with some fresh butter, a few slices of bacon, sweet herbs, and chopped mushrooms or champignons; when they are thoroughly heated, add a little flour beaten up with consommé or water, salt, pepper, and half a pint of white wine (French);

when done, pour over the hare a thick sauce made with the liver of the hare, and serve.

MARINATED HARE, ROASTED. Having skinned and drawn it, lard it with bacon, and put it in a dish with some vinegar and water made lukewarm, salt, pepper, two or three onions, a shalot, two bay leaves, a bunch of fine herbs, and a piece of butter floured. Let it lie in this seasoning for an hour and a half, and then roast, basting it with the same seasoning; strain what remains; add a little gravy, and serve very hot, in a sauce-boat, with the hare.

HARE PIE. Wash the hare well, and cut it into small pieces; put them into some cold water, and let them lie for half an hour; drain in a sieve, and season highly with two or three cloves pounded, and some black and Cayenne pepper; then lay the pieces in a pie dish, with a few small slices of ham mixed with them, some good brown stock, and a tumblerful of port wine; cover the dish with puff paste. If to be eaten hot, a suet crust is very good; if the pie is intended to be eaten cold, when it is taken out of the oven, raise the crust, and fill up the dish with a rich seasoned gravy, which when cold will become a firm jelly.

HARE PIE A LA BOURGEOISE. Cut up the hare, preserving as much of the blood as possible; lard with bacon; season with salt, parsley, and shalot, all cut fine; then stew it with a slice of butter, and half a glass of brandy; set it over a slow fire, and when the sauce is nearly consumed, add the blood, letting it heat, but not boil; then lay the pieces of the hare closely in a dish, cover with a crust, and bake; serve cold.

TO ROAST A HARE. Skin and clean it, and lay it in cold water for three or four hours, changing the water repeatedly; then rub it with a little salt, wash it again thoroughly, and dry it well; mince the liver, and mix it with grated bread crumbs, a little chopped fat bacon, and a bit of butter; grated nutmeg, pepper, salt, and a little grated lemon-peel; bind the whole with an egg well beaten, put it into the hare, and truss it. When first put down to the fire, baste with warm salt and water until the blood be out of it; pour off the water, and put into the dripping-pan some milk, with which the hare must be basted till nearly done; then baste with butter, and froth it well. Serve with gravy and currant jelly sauce, as for venison.

STEWED HARE. When all the meat has been cut off into small pieces, put the bones into a stewpan with a little consomme, or water mixed with any rich gravy, a bunch of sweet herbs, some whole pepper, and two or three small onions, and boil for half an hour; then strain it and put in the hare, adding at the same time two or three thin slices of bacon, a small wine glass of port wine, a little salt, and two cloves bruised; let it stew two hours, adding a little more gravy, if necessary. Serve with currant jelly sauce.

ORTOLAN. A bird smaller than the lark, very fat, and of delicate and exquisite flavour. Ortolans are seldom found, owing to their scarcity and dearness, but at the tables of the rich. The usual way of dressing them is to cover their breast with bacon, and roast them, (in a Dutch oven is the preferable mode,) basting them well; place a toast beneath them; when served, squeeze a lemon over them. They are sometimes placed within an eggshell, well buttered, and cooked in hot ashes; but this does not improve their flavour. They may be also dressed in any of the modes given for quails, (see **QUAILS.**)

PARTRIDGE. A bird about the size of a chicken, and highly esteemed. There are two sorts of partridge, the red and grey legged; the latter sort is the most common, being an inhabitant of almost every country, though its flavour and size vary in different climates. This bird forms a source of great amusement to the sportsman, and also considerable gratification to the *bon vivant*. Its flesh is equally suitable to the invalid as that of the pheasant, for its digestible and nourishing properties; but this only applies to it when young, as when old it becomes tough, hard of digestion, and of disagreeable flavour. The partridge should be hung some days before it is cooked, as it becomes more tender and high flavoured. It is dressed agreeably to all the directions given under the head of **PHEASANT**, and as follows:—

PARTRIDGES AUX CHOUX. When the birds have been trussed as for roasting, cover the breast with a slice of bacon, and put into the inside of each bird a bit of butter, floured, and seasoned with salt, pepper, and lemon-thyme rubbed fine; fry them a short time, and then put them into a stewpan with some good gravy, a slice or two of lean ham, a small wine glass of French white wine, a little Cayenne pepper, a shalot, and an anchovy chopped

fine. A short time before they are ready, put into the stewpan the hearts of three or four cabbages which have been previously boiled, and stew together till the birds are tender. Remove the slices of ham before serving.

PARTRIDGES A L'ETOUFFADE. This mode of cooking is more particularly desirable when there is a suspicion that the birds are old. Having picked, drawn, and singed them, lard their breasts with bacon, and season with salt, pepper, and fine herbs shred very fine; then put the birds into a stewpan on some slices of bacon, and place on them some slices of veal, two carrots, an onion, two or three cloves, a bay leaf, a little thyme, and a bunch of parsley; put a few slices of bacon at the top, and cover the whole with buttered paper; add half a tumblerful of French white wine, and about the same quantity of stock or highly seasoned gravy; let them simmer for about two hours, or until tender; pour over them, when served, a little sauce Espagnole, (which see.)

PARTRIDGES AU GRATIN. Birds which have been roasted and served at table on a former day may be made into an agreeable dish, as follows:—Put into a dish that will stand fire, a slice of butter, and when it is melted, strew in some grated bread crumbs, a little parsley, and two or three shalots shred very fine, and salt and pepper; let this seasoning brown over the fire for a short time; cut the birds into pieces, and having warmed them in some stock or gravy, with a little salt, pepper, and a squeeze of lemon juice, put them on the "gratin," and serve, with some crumbs of bread browned over them.

TO STEW PARTRIDGES. Make a forcemeat, as directed for pheasants, stuff the craw, and lard the breast; put a piece of butter, seasoned with pepper and salt, into the inside of the bird, dredge them with flour, and fry them in butter for a few minutes; then put them into a stewpan, with some good gravy, half a pint of French white or port wine, and a little mushroom catsup; let them stew for about twenty minutes, covering closely the whole time; take them out, thicken the gravy with a little flour, boil it up, pour it over the birds, and serve; garnishing the dish with force-meat balls, and yolks of hard boiled eggs.

STEWED PARTRIDGES, according to Mrs. Rundell's Domestic Cookery:—Truss the partridges with the wings over the back, and a skewer through the legs; cut

a piece of pork or bacon, and put it into a saucepan, with a piece of butter the size of a walnut; fry the bacon brown, and when quite done, put in the partridges, and keep turning them until they are very brown, taking care that the bacon shall be as much on the breast as possible; then add about a teacupful of gravy. Have ready some greens, or a large cabbage, boiled; when well drained, chop it with butter, pepper and salt; put it while warm, with the gravy, to the partridges, and let them stew gently for an hour, turning the birds frequently; serve up with the bacon underneath, and the greens round them.

PHEASANT. A bird which ranks almost as the first amongst feathered game; it is about the size of the domestic fowl, but with the bill rather longer, and more curved. The flesh of the pheasant is most delicate, particularly that of the cock, which is larger, and of higher flavour than the hen; it should not be eaten too soon after it has been killed, indeed, it can scarcely be kept too long for game eaters. The flesh of the pheasant is strongly recommended for convalescents, as it is easy of digestion, and very nutritious. Roasting is the usual way of cooking this bird in England.

PHEASANT PIE. For this dish the birds should be boned, and their heads cut off; then make a stuffing with grated bread, a little grated ham, a very small quantity of minced beef suet; season with nutmeg, pepper, and salt, binding the whole with yolk of egg, well beaten; put a little of this forcemeat into the birds, and fry them for about five minutes; then line a deep dish with slices of fat bacon, with some of this stuffing placed at the bottom; put in the birds, adding a small glass of brandy, a little more of the forcemeat, and lay slices of fat bacon over the whole; cover the dish with a coarse paste, and bake for four hours. Before using this pie, the coarse paste must be removed, and a rich puff paste substituted for it; bake until this paste is done, and serve. Mushrooms or truffles may be added to the forcemeat, and a few more put in the dish. If the pie is intended for keeping, or to be sent as a present, a large quantity of spice should be used, and the baking finished with the coarse crust, which should be nothing more than flour and water. In this case the pheasant is eaten cold, and the crust is thrown away; this, in fact, is the only way in which pheasant pie is eaten in France.

TO ROAST PHEASANT. Pick, clean, and singe the bird; remove the craw by making a slit in the back part of the neck; the head is to be left on, and in trussing is to be turned under the wing. The directions given for roasting fowl and chicken are equally applicable to pheasant. It is served with gravy in the dish, and bread sauce and celery sauce in sauce tureens. A good sized bird will require nearly an hour to roast.

French way: Having cleaned and trussed it, as above directed, lard the breast with fat bacon, or stuff it with a stuffing made of a little grated ham, parsley, and shalots shred very fine, pepper, and salt; serve with any highly flavoured sauce. Where the stuffing is used without larding, the breast should be covered with a slice of bacon, and a piece of writing paper, buttered, placed over the whole.

That amusing work, "Physiologie du Gout," recently published in Paris, has the following on the pheasant:—

"This bird, if eaten within three days after it is killed, has nothing peculiar about it, is neither so delicate as the domestic fowl, nor so high flavoured as the quail; but, cooked at the proper point of time, its flesh is tender, and its flavour is sublime, for it has then the taste both of fowl and venison. The pheasant should not be plucked until the moment when it is fit for roasting; it should then be plucked and firmly larded. To stuff it, take two woodcocks, remove the bones, and make two separate lots of the flesh and entrails—viz., the flesh in one, and the entrails and livers in the other; chop up the flesh with beef suet, a little bacon, pepper, salt, fine herbs, and truffles; with this stuffing fill the inside of the pheasant. This is sometimes difficult if the pheasant be not fresh; but by placing over it a crust of bread, and tying round with a bit of tape, the stuffing may be secured. The entrails and livers of the woodcocks are to be prepared as follows:—Pound them in a mortar with some truffles, and a little bacon and fresh butter; spread this paste on two pieces of toasted bread, and place the bread under the bird whilst roasting. When the pheasant is cooked, serve it up on the bread. This dish is worthy of being set before angels."

PHEASANT WITH SOUR KROUT. Clean, singe, and truss the bird as for roasting; and season the inside with salt, pepper, cloves, a little parsley, and chibole chopped

fine; lard the breast with fat bacon; then prepare some sour kroust, and cook it with a piece of pickled pork, and a cervelas, commonly called in England "saveloy," moistening it with a little good gravy, for about twenty minutes; then remove the pork and the cervelas, and put the pheasant into the middle of the sour kroust, and let it cook for about an hour; when done, put the bird on a dish, drain the sour kroust and place round it, skin and cut the cervelas into slices, with which, and with slices of the pork, garnish the outer edge.

POLOVER. A bird rather larger than a pigeon, but bearing a strong resemblance to it in shape. There are several varieties of the plover, all equally good for the table. The eggs of the plover are held in high estimation, as possessing more nutritious qualities than the hen's egg. For dressing plover, all the directions given for the woodcock may be followed; like that bird, they are usually dressed without removing the trail.

QUAIL. This bird is very much in form like the partridge, but much smaller, and when fat is of very delicate flavour, but not so nutritive and easy of digestion as the partridge.

QUAILS WITH BAY LEAVES. Draw and truss them, and having minced the livers, mix them with some parsley and green onions, a slice of butter, salt, and pepper, and stuff the birds with them; cover them with buttered paper, and roast; boil some bay leaves in water, make them into a sauce, with some cullis, and serve over the birds.

BROILED QUAILS. Singe, and draw them, and split them down the back; put them into a stewpan with a little salad oil, two or three bay leaves, and a little salt and pepper; cover them with slices of bacon, stew over a slow fire for about a quarter of an hour; then take them out, cover them with bread crumbs, and broil; serve them with the sauce in which they have been stewed, which must be strained and boiled up.

TO ROAST QUAILS. Having cleaned them, cover them with slices of bacon, and roast as directed for partridge, basting well at first with butter; serve with some Espagnole sauce.

TO STEW QUAILS. Place them in a stewpan, with a slice of veal, three or four rashers of bacon, a little butter, salt, pepper, a little stock or good gravy, and half a tumbler of French white wine; stew over a slow fire for half an hour; then

take them out, strain the liquor, and serve over the birds.

Another way: Singe, and draw them, and put them into a stewpan with a little brown roux, a glass of French white wine, some stock, parsley, and green onions, a bay leaf, and a few cloves; stew for half an hour, and serve, garnishing the dish with toasted bread.

SNIPE. A bird of passage; in habits and appearance resembling the woodcock, but much smaller and lighter in colour. Like the woodcock, it visits England only at the approach of cold weather, but a few rare instances of their breeding in that climate have occurred. They are dressed precisely the same as woodcock.

TEAL. A species of wild fowl, similar in appearance and flavour to the widgeon, but smaller; it is cooked in precisely the same manner as that bird. (See **WIDGEON.**)

VENISON. The flesh of deer stands first in the list of game, as being the most esteemed as to flavour, and very light of digestion. In the choice of this article, that of which the fat is thick, and bright in colour, is the best. Venison is a meat which is never eaten until it has been hung for some time; when it is desired that it should be merely tender, but without acquiring the high flavour caused by long keeping, it should be well rubbed over with powdered charcoal. For roasting, the haunch is considered the prime joint; before it is placed on the spit, it must be well washed in lukewarm milk and water, and then dried; it must next be covered with white paper well buttered, over which is laid a coarse paste of flour and water, to the thickness of a quarter of an inch; this paste is to be covered with another sheet of well buttered paper; put the joint down to a clear fire, basting with beef dripping until it is nearly done, when the paste must be removed, and the venison basted with butter, dredged with flour, till it froths, and acquires a fine colour. A haunch of venison is served with its own and also some good brown gravy; currant jelly sauce is also an indispensable addition, the jelly being beaten up and melted with port wine and sugar. A good sized haunch will require about four hours to dress. When the neck or shoulder is roasted, the paste is not used; but these joints are seldom roasted, being generally used for soups, pasties, &c.

VENISON COLLOPS. Cut two pounds of the lean part of venison into thin slices,

mince it very finely, to which add some brown roux, and beat it well together; have ready some beef gravy, which has been highly seasoned with Cayenne pepper, salt, and some port wine, in which stew the minced venison for half an hour; before serving add a little mushroom catsup.

TO HASH VENISON. Make a gravy by boiling the trimmings of the cold haunch in a little good stock; season with whole pepper, a little salt, and add a bit of butter rolled in flour, a little currant jelly, and a glass of port wine; when the sauce is hot, put in the venison, which has been cut into thin slices; heat it thoroughly, and serve with sippets of toasted bread.

HAUNCH OF VENISON, (FRENCH WAY.)

Lard with bacon, and put it into a large vessel with three quarts of vinegar, some salt, and pepper, three bay leaves, a few cloves, a bunch of fine herbs, a little parsley, and a few onions sliced; let it steep in this seasoning for two days; then roast, and serve with pepper sauce. An hour and a quarter is sufficient to cook a moderate sized joint.

VENISON PASTY. The neck or breast is chosen for this dish: cut the meat into small steaks, fat and lean; season them highly with sweet herbs, pepper, both black and Cayenne, a little beaten mace, and a clove pounded; fry them lightly in butter; then line the sides and edges of a pie dish with puff paste, lay in the steaks, adding some rich gravy, a glass of port wine, and the juice of a lemon; cover the dish with puff paste, and bake it nearly two hours; pour some more highly seasoned gravy into the pie before serving.

TO STEW A BREAST OF VENISON. After washing it well, dry it, and cut into pieces; dredge well with flour, and fry to a good colour; then put it in a stewpan, with some good stock, pepper, salt, and two or three cloves; and simmer till thoroughly done.

VENISON CUTLETS, are cut from the neck; seasoned with pepper, and salt, and broiled; serve with a rich gravy, and currant jelly sauce.

WILD GOOSE. (See **WILD DUCK.**)

WIDGEON. A description of wild fowl, resembling in appearance and flavour the wild duck, but smaller. All the directions given for cooking wild duck may be followed for widgeon. (See **WILD DUCK.**)

WILD BOAR. The flesh of the wild boar is superior to that of the domestic hog. It may be dressed according to the instructions given under the head **PORK.**

WILD DUCK, ROASTED. The wild duck is seldom served in any other way in England. In purchasing wild ducks care should be taken to ascertain that they are not fishy; this may be known by opening the beak and smelling. In roasting, they should be sufficiently underdone to leave in some of the blood. In serving them, it is usual for the carver to slice the breast, and strew over it a good quantity of Cayenne pepper, and also to squeeze over it the juice of half a lemon. On the Continent, wild ducks are sometimes roasted, and when cold, are cut up, and stewed for a short time with claret, salt and pepper, and a dash of lemon juice. In this way they are not a bad dish.

WOODCOCK. This is a migratory bird, which only visits the southern countries of Europe at the approach of winter. Much speculation has arisen as to the country whence these birds come, as their first landing place is the Scilly Islands; great numbers of them are there killed, as for two or three days after their arrival they are so exhausted from the long flight they have taken as to be readily knocked down with sticks. After a few days rest, they again start for the main land, and are no more seen in these islands until the next season. They soon recover their fatigue, and get in good condition; they afford good amusement to the sportsman. The woodcock is such a timid bird as to frequently fall, and be picked up by the sportsman, when the closest examination has not been able to discover a wound.

WOODCOCK PIE. The birds must be cleaned, and drawn, and the trail made into a forcemeat, as below directed, and placed at the bottom of the dish; cover with a puff paste; and before sending to table, pour in some rich highly seasoned gravy made hot.

TO ROAST WOODCOCK. This is the usual way in which this bird is dressed in England; but, for the sake of variety, it is sometimes cooked in other ways, but without any improvement being thereby derived to the flavour. Having well picked the birds, truss their heads under the wings, and put them in a Dutch oven, with toasted bread under them, to catch the trail, and on which the birds must be served; baste with butter, and serve very hot. They may be served with melted butter in a sauce tureen.

STEWED WOODCOCKS. When the birds have been picked and singed, draw

them; and make a stuffing of the trail, with the addition of some bacon cut small, a little parsley, and a shalot chopped fine, the yolk of a raw egg, salt, and pepper; when these ingredients have been well mixed together, fill the woodcocks with the stuffing, sew them up, and brown them in some butter; then put into a stewpan some slices of bacon, lay the woodcocks on them, and cover with more slices of bacon; let them stew for twenty minutes, then add a little stock or good gravy, and a glass of French white wine; continue the cooking over a slow fire until thoroughly done; then serve, straining the sauce, and pouring it over the birds. Just before they are taken off the fire, add a squeeze of lemon juice.

GARGLES. A wash or lotion for the throat, which is held there for some time, the patient making a muscular effort to wash the throat thoroughly, without swallowing the liquid; as there is always, however, a chance of a small portion passing into the stomach, gargles are usually composed of harmless ingredients. The best gargle for sore throats, at any stage before suppuration, is an infusion of red rose leaves, an ounce to a pint of boiling water, two drachms of alum, and a few drops of vitriolic acid; these are strained, and about half a wine-glassful is used at a time. As the acid affects the teeth, when used frequently, the mouth should be well washed after gargling, with water in which carbonate of soda has been dissolved. In the early stage of sore throat, the best gargle is a wine-glassful of half vinegar and half water, and as much Cayenne pepper as will lie on a sixpence; if this be used as soon as the first symptom of a sore throat comes on, the chances are a thousand to one that it will disappear in two or three applications; but it might be dangerous to use it if the symptoms have been of many hours duration. In the incipient sore throat, the mechanical irritation of this gargle overpowers the morbid inflammation of disease, and the pain thus mechanically caused rapidly subsides; but if the inflammation of disease has made much progress, and has become acute, the irritation of the Cayenne pepper might rather increase than subdue it. It may, however, be laid down almost as an infallible rule, that a strong stimulating gargle in the early stage of sore throat, from taking cold, will remove all danger, particularly if the bowels be opened at the same time by some cooling purgative. Persons who are subject to quinsy should

never allow the symptoms of a sore throat to go on, but check them at their first appearance, by the Cayenne gargle. As soon as the throat begins to feel sore, a dose of salts should be taken, the feet should be put into a mustard bath, composed of two gallons of water and two ounces of the flour of mustard, and kept there in the same temperature, just warm enough to be agreeable and no more, for half an hour; and the Cayenne gargle should be used once or twice. If this be done at night, the probability is that every unfavourable symptom will be gone in the morning; whereas the neglect of a few hours might lay the foundation of a long and dangerous illness.

GARLIC. This bulbous root should be used sparingly, even by persons who do not disapprove of its flavour in excess, as it is of a strongly stimulating nature. It is a diuretic and sudorific, and a decoction of it is, therefore, sometimes used in medicine to promote copious perspiration and increase the urinary secretion. It is generally considered to have anti-putrescent qualities, but these appear to have been much exaggerated; as have also its effects in asthma, and other affections of the lungs; it is used, however, beneficially for children as a vermifuge, or remedy for worms. In cookery, a very small portion of garlic improves the flavour of many dishes, and a clove introduced into a joint of meat before roasting imparts a flavour which is far from disagreeable. It is a common practice in many parts of England, as well as on the Continent, to put a clove of garlic in the knuckle of a leg of mutton. It is propagated in the same manner as shalots, planting the sets in the early part of March, and taking them up in August.

GASTRIC JUICE. A transparent fluid, secreted from the interior of the stomach, and the principal agent in digestion. From the experiments which have been made both on man and on the lower animals, it has been ascertained that during digestion this juice is acid and strongly anti-putrescent. When the stomach is fasting, this juice is neither acid nor alkaline, but has a saline taste. (See DIGESTION AND INDIGESTION.)

GASTRONOMY. The term applied to the science, if so it may be called, of good eating and drinking. The French call all connoisseurs in this way *gastro-nomes*, and divide them into two classes, the *gourmands*, or gluttons, who devour everything that is good, and the *gourmets*

who eat but little, and that of the choicest descriptions.

GIBLET PIE. Scald and clean two sets of goose giblets; and having cut them into proper sized pieces, wash them well, and put them into a saucepan, with two or three small onions, some salt, and whole pepper; let them stew in a little water for half an hour; then put them into a pie dish with some more seasoning, and the liquor in which they have been stewed; when cold, line the edges of the dish, and cover it with a good puff paste; before serving, open the crust, and pour in a little rich white gravy, and a glass of French white wine, seasoned, and made quite hot; it will require an hour to bake. A well seasoned rump-steak placed at the bottom of the dish is an improvement.

GIN. A liquor distilled from grain, and flavoured with juniper berries. The Hollands gin is seldom sweetened, but that made in England generally is a little. In some of the Hollands gin an additional flavour is given by celery seed. Much of the English gin contains turpentine and sulphuric acid. (See SPIRITS.)

GINGER. The root of a plant exported in a dried state from the countries in which it grows to Europe. The root is also preserved, when in a fresh state, in sugar, and then becomes a fine dish for dessert. The best preserved, as well as dried ginger, comes from Jamaica. When ginger is of good quality, it has rather a full appearance in the root, grates easily, and becomes a fine light straw coloured powder. Ginger is the finest of all stomachics; it fortifies the stomach, assists digestion, excites appetite, and dispels flatulency. It is rather suited, however, to old persons, and cold constitutions, than to the young and bilious. In some of the countries where ginger grows, the leaves are mixed with other herbs and eaten as salad. Ginger, in its dried state, is reduced to powder by the druggists, sifted, and sold in bottles for use. This powder, taken in tea, prevents the debilitating effects of that plant, and is said, if used in sufficient quantity, to be a sovereign remedy for hæmorrhoids. It is also made into very small grains with sugar, which are called ginger seeds: this is a very agreeable mode of taking ginger medicinally. What are called digestive pills, which are taken before dinner, and at night, are chiefly made of rhubarb and ginger, and are the most wholesome of all preparations for aiding digestion. The tincture or essence of ginger, which may

be substituted in all cases for the powder, is made by infusing an ounce of the powder in three ounces of spirits of wine, and leaving it for some days, occasionally shaking the bottle, then allowing it to settle, and filtering it. A few drops of this in tea, or any liquid, make a fine stomachic. Ginger also forms the basis of an agreeable beverage called ginger wine, (see WINES,) and of another called ginger beer,—(see GINGER BEER.)

GINGER BEER. A very agreeable and wholesome beverage when well made. It was first invented a great many years ago by a Mr. Pitt, a surgeon at Lewes, and rose rapidly into fame. Even when made as it ought to be, it is a cheap beverage, but as it is usually made, it is still cheaper, tartaric acid being used instead of lemon juice. The best way of making ginger beer is as follows:—Pour eleven gallons of boiling water upon fourteen pounds of white sugar, the juice of eighteen lemons, a pound of bruised ginger, and the rind of two lemons. When at the proper temperature, (see BREWING,) add two or three spoonfuls of yeast, and let it ferment for about a day; then put it into a cask to finish the fermentation; and when that is completed, fine it, and bung it down closely. It may be bottled in stone bottles almost immediately. Some persons boil the water and sugar together before it is poured upon the ginger; but this trouble is unnecessary, unless it be intended to add raisins, which is a great improvement; in that case, a pound of good raisins may be boiled with the water and sugar. The quantity of ginger above ordered is rather larger than would suit every taste; it may, of course, be reduced. In bottling, very good corks should be used, and the bottles must be tied over with twine.

A work called the "Economist" states that a great improvement has lately been made in the manufacture of ginger beer, by boiling green rhubarb, and extracting the juice, which is to be used instead of cream of tartar. This may be an improvement as a substitute for cream of tartar, but it cannot be one as a substitute for lemon juice.

GINGERBREAD. This article was formerly much more used than it now is, except by children. In England it is very seldom used by grown persons; but in Paris it is still frequently served with the dessert at *déjeuners à la fourchette*. The basis of the French gingerbread is rye flour and honey; as it is much less

spiced, and less cloying than the English gingerbread, a larger quantity of it may be eaten without inconvenience. English gingerbread in small quantities is, however, by no means unwholesome; and in travelling, where the meals are irregular, it is an excellent article to stay the cravings of hunger. Invalids also sometimes eat it with pleasure, when the stomach rejects other food. The late Mr. Jeremy Bentham is said to have made this article his breakfast for several years. The practice of giving it to children, however, in large quantities, is exceedingly injurious. Gingerbread is made in England in various ways, but treacle always forms one of the chief ingredients. There is no better mode of making it than the following:—

Three pounds of treacle are to be mixed with three pounds and a half of good flour; a pound of fresh butter, and a pound of brown sugar; five ounces of caraway seeds; six ounces of candied orange and lemon peel, cut very small; a quarter of a pound of powdered ginger; five eggs; and rather more than half an ounce of pearl-ashes; the butter is mixed with the other ingredients by being beaten to a cream. The mixture must stand for twenty-four hours; and on the following day is to be worked up like bread, and baked in a cake, of about an inch thick, in a slow oven. The same mixture, made more liquid, and without the pearl-ashes, the butter being melted instead of beaten, dropped with a spoon upon a buttered tin, makes gingerbread nuts; but it is usual to put a larger quantity of ginger. Gingerbread nuts are also made by rubbing up a pound of butter with two pounds of flour; a pound of brown sugar, and rather more than an ounce of powdered ginger. These are mixed together with as much treacle as will form them into the consistency of dough; it is then made into the form of nuts, and baked upon tins. In order to make them richer, a little powdered allspice, and powdered cinnamon may be added. Nutmeg, and the pulp of pounded almonds may also be added either to gingerbread or gingerbread nuts.

GLASS, TO CLEAN. Make with some blotting-paper a quantity of pellets of various sizes; put them into the decanters, bottles, &c., to be cleaned, with warm soap-suds very strong; shake the bottle frequently; and having poured off the mixture, rinse with cold water.

GLOVES, TO CLEAN WITHOUT WET-

TING THEM. Lay the gloves on a clean board, and with a hard brush clean them with Fuller's-earth and alum in powder; having beaten out this powder, brush them with powdered whiting and dry bran; beat out this powder, and rub clean with dry flannel.

GOLD CHAINS, &c., TO CLEAN. Dissolve three ounces of sal ammoniac in six ounces of water, and boil the article in it; then boil for a few minutes in a quart of water, with two ounces of soft soap; wash afterwards in cold water, rub dry with flannel, and shake the articles for some time in a bag with very dry bran.

GOOSE. There are two kinds of geese, the domestic and the wild; the latter, on account of its strong flavour, is seldom eaten; the flesh of the domestic goose is very nutritious, but is so difficult of digestion as to be unfit food for delicate persons. Geese, when very young, are less indigestible; but their flesh, at that time, is viscous, and but slightly nutritious. In England, geese are eaten by all classes; but in many parts of France they are considered a coarse food, and are never served upon the tables of the rich, who only eat the liver of this bird made into pies, under the name of "Paté de foie gras," one of the most indigestible and unwholesome meats of French cookery, but of exceedingly rich and fine flavour. The livers of geese used for this purpose are brought to an enormous size, either by some peculiar mode of feeding, which brings on a disease and increases the volume of this organ, or, as it is said, by the cruel practice of placing the animal in a situation where it is exposed to intense heat and denied the use of water. Independently of its use as an article of food, the goose furnishes a considerable quantity of down and feathers, and very good quills for making pens; but even the collection of these quills is attended with cruelty, as those which are plucked from the living goose are said to be the best in quality. The fat of the goose had formerly a high medicinal repute, but is now very little used except as an ointment for chapped hands. The fat obtained from roasted geese is not unfrequently used on the Continent to flavour vegetables. The giblets of the goose form of themselves, or mixed with the giblets of other poultry, a very agreeable soup or stew. In England, goose is rarely dressed in any other way than roasted, and as a pie; boiled goose is indeed eaten in some countries, but it is not

a dish that can be recommended as to flavour.

GOOSE HAM. When a goose is too old for roasting, it may be cured as a ham, in the same way as pork.

GOOSE PIE. This pie may be made in the same manner as a chicken or fowl pie; but it is usual to add to it some other poultry, having first taken out all the bones; in this case, in addition to the usual directions for making poultry pies, the bones should be broken, and having been stewed for a very long time, the gravy should be poured into the dish in which the pie is to be baked.

TO ROAST A GOOSE. When it has been well cleaned and singed, stuff it with a stuffing composed of four table-spoonfuls of grated bread, an onion, three sage leaves chopped very fine, and a well beaten egg; baste at first with butter, and afterwards with its own fat. A good sized goose will require about an hour and a half to dress. It is served with its own gravy in the dish, and with apple sauce in a sauce tureen. Mrs. Dalgairn recommends, both for roast goose and roast duck, that when brought to table, a wine-glassful of port wine, mixed with a large teaspoonful of mustard, should be poured into the body. When a goose is only about two or three months old it should not be stuffed, but merely seasoned with pepper and salt; and as at that age it has little fat, it must be basted with butter. A green goose will require one hour to cook. The French put no stuffing into a goose for roasting, but fill it with the pulp of boiled chesnuts; sometimes truffles are used.

STEWED GOOSE—FRENCH DISH. Lard the goose, then put it into a large stewpan, with chopped parsley, chibols and shalots, a bay leaf, a little thyme, salt, whole pepper, and a little grated nutmeg; add a pint of water, a pint of French white wine, and half a wine-glass of brandy; stew over a very slow fire for three or four hours. This dish is generally eaten cold, when the gravy is become a jelly.

STEWED GOOSE GIBLETS. Having cleaned them thoroughly, parboil them, and take the outer skin off the feet; then cut them into portions, and stew them until they are quite tender, with some good stock, or water mixed with gravy, sweet herbs, an onion, cloves, whole pepper, and a little catsup; when done, strain the sauce, and thicken it with flour and butter; then pour it hot over the gIBLETS. Just before serving, add a dash of vinegar,

or a little lemon juice. If the gIBLETS are to be made into a pie, they should be previously stewed for about an hour, and put into the baking dish with a portion of their gravy, and covered with a rich crust.

A French writer (M. Parmentier) gives the following instructions for rearing and fattening geese:—

“As soon as the first eggs are hatched, the young birds are taken away from the mother, to prevent her abandoning the eggs which remain unhatched; they are put into baskets, covered with a cloth, and when all the eggs are hatched, they are restored to her. If the weather be warm, the young birds may be allowed to go out soon after their birth, taking care, however, to keep them out of the great heat of the sun, which would kill them. Their first food should be barley, coarsely ground, and steeped in hot milk; lettuce leaves and bread crusts boiled in milk. When the young are become pretty strong, they may remain in the sun for some hours; but in the rainy or cold weather they must be confined, and when they go out they should be kept apart from the larger birds, who would ill treat them. Until the plumage begins to get firm, their food should be barleymeal and bran; at this time, raw vegetables, such as lettuce, &c., of which they are very fond, may be given to them freely. The best food for the full grown birds is lettuce leaves, chopped and mixed up with bran and lukewarm water; but where circumstances permit, full grown birds, and goslings which are more than two months old, should be allowed to go out during the day to seek their food, and to swim, if water be near at hand; in order, however, to prevent their wandering too far, it is usual to pluck some of the feathers from their wings; this will not be necessary if the birds, when young, have been regularly fed at home, at fixed hours; they will in such case always find their way home. If it is intended to fatten them, neither the old nor the very young should be chosen for that purpose, and very noisy geese must be kept away, for the others would not fatten if they were disturbed by noise. To fatten a goose will require from forty to fifty pounds of barleymeal, and three weeks time; as soon as the geese are sufficiently fat, they should be killed, for afterwards they would fall off rather than increase in size. The proper time for fattening is the month of November. There are various modes of fatten-

ing : where there are few to fatten, they should be put into a cask laid sideways, with holes at the end, for them to put out their heads to take their food. They will feed freely, for the love of food is greater with this bird than the love of liberty; milk and boiled potatoes may be mixed with their barleymeal instead of water. In Poland, each goose is enclosed in a sort of earthen pot, only just large enough to allow for its growth, and so contrived that the excrements of the bird may fall out; in a fortnight it is generally so fat that it is necessary to break the pot to extricate it. The ordinary mode of fattening geese, however, is to put them up in a kind of hutch, so made that they have scarcely room to move, and to give them barley and other food in abundance, with plenty of water, changing their litter very frequently; at the end of about three weeks the appetite usually falls off; they are now to be crammed with barleymeal, in the same manner as turkeys, and by the end of the month they acquire a prodigious size, frequently double that which they had before their confinement. In order to cause the swelling of the liver, and give it that peculiar richness which is so admired by epicures, M. Parmentier informs us that the birds are cooped up in narrow hutches, as for the ordinary process of fattening, with bars at the bottom, to allow the excrements to fall through, and that about the twenty-second day some spoonfuls of poppy oil are mixed with the food; in a few days the obesity of the hepatic regions becomes so great that the bird is in danger of suffocation, and when in this state it should instantly be killed. He states that it is essential to keep the bird during this process of fattening in darkness. There is no notice in his work of the barbarous use of heat, to which some writers have alluded, but he admits, that in many parts of France, famous for goose livers, the eyes of the bird are plucked out, in order that it may be in darkness, and its feet nailed to the floor of the cage, to prevent motion. And this in what is called an enlightened country!

GOOSEBERRY. This is a very wholesome fruit, when fully ripe, and is agreeable when cooked in tarts, puddings, &c. (See PASTRY.) Gooseberries are of various kinds, and, from careful cultivation, are frequently brought to a large size. The tree is of a very hardy nature, and thrives well in most soils; but there is no fruit in which attentive cultivation

produces greater changes. It may be propagated by cuttings, but as it does not bear well for two or three years, it is usual to have the trees in their young state from a nursery ground: they seldom fail to strike root readily. Jelly may be made from gooseberries as from currants; but the quantity of juice is much smaller, and the flavour is not so agreeable. The ripe gooseberry, boiled into jam, with an equal weight of sugar, makes an agreeable preserve. The green gooseberry is very much used in England for home-made wine; and as it sparkles beautifully, it is considered by many to be a very good substitute for champagne. It cannot, however, be recommended to dyspeptic persons. (See WINES.)

GOOSEBERRY FOOL. A favourite dish in some parts of England. It is made by boiling the fruit in water until perfectly tender, and then mixing them with some good milk or cream. Sweeten to taste. It is usually eaten cold.

GRATES, TO CLEAN. Grates which are not polished are first to be rubbed with a hard brush and fine sand, if there be rust or dirt; a quarter of a pound of black lead is then to be rubbed up in a mortar, with a tea-cupful of vinegar, to be laid on, and when dry, to be polished off with a dry brush.

GUINEA FOWL. The flesh of this bird, although not bad eating, is very inferior to the pheasant. It may, however, be cooked according to any of the modes directed for that bird.

GUM. The resinous juice of trees, which, being punctured, yield a fluid, that congeals as it becomes cold. Gums are more or less medicinal. The gum usually called gum-arabic does not appear, however, to have any other medicinal quality than its fine mucilaginous character; this gum is valuable in colds, urinary diseases, diarrhoea, and all other affections where it is necessary to soothe and shield the membranes from the effect of acrid substances. The value of gum-arabic in this respect may be appreciated from the fact, that if strong gum water be taken copiously, whilst under the operation of blistering, there is no danger of strangury. Gum, however, if taken to excess, renders the bowels costive; this must be counteracted by gentle opening medicine. A very pretty preparation of gum, called *sirop de gomme*, is made in France:—Boil two pounds and a half of white sugar in a pint of water; when the syrup boils, stir in the whites of six eggs, previously

beaten up with half a pint of water; having skimmed the syrup, add a quarter of a pound of gum, previously dissolved in a quarter of a pint of cold water; boil for a few minutes, and when about half cold, strain through a jelly bag, and put into bottles.

The celebrated paste for colds, called *Pâte de Guimauve*, is made as follows:—Take ten ounces of gum-arabic, broken into small pieces, half a pound of white sugar, and the whites of five eggs (not whipped); dissolve the gum and the sugar in a sufficient quantity of cold water, stirring frequently; strain through clean linen, and on the following day decant the mixture carefully, to separate any sediment; evaporate this solution over a slow fire, without boiling, until it is of the consistency of clear honey; now add the whites of the eggs at two separate times, stirring briskly, to make them mix with the mass; continue the evaporation, taking care that the paste does not burn, until it will no longer adhere to the hand. Just before taking it off the fire, stir in two drops of neroli; now pour the paste out upon a marble slab, covered with powdered starch, and roll it out to the thickness of a quarter of an inch: it is to be kept for use in a tin case. In order to prevent all danger of burning during the evaporation, it is advisable to have a vessel so contrived, like the common glue-pot, that the heat may be communicated from the water.

HAIR DYE. No hair dye has yet been invented which is not attended with some inconvenience, or which effectually answers the desired purpose. The basis of most of the powders is quicklime, and that of the lotions, nitrate of silver. The powder is thus made:—Dip six ounces of quicklime in water, and when it has fallen to pieces, pound it, and sift it through a fine sieve; then add four ounces of litharge, and two of starch, also sifted; this is made into a paste with warm water, and the hair is completely covered with it, after which an oil-skin cap is bound on, and allowed to remain the whole night. The hair is washed on the following day with soap and water, and then oiled. This gives a deep black, but with rather a purple hue; by increasing the starch the shade will be lighter. The hair lotion or water is made as follows:—Pour upon half an ounce of pure silver three quarters of an ounce of nitric acid, and expose to sharp heat to dissolve the

silver; decant the liquid, and add half a pint of water; by increasing the quantity of water lighter shades are obtained.

HAIR POWDER. The use of this article is now so much out of fashion that the mode of manufacturing it has but little interest; it may, however, be briefly stated, that it is made by grinding good wheat starch to a fine powder; the most delicate way of perfuming it is to put alternate layers of powder and flowers, such as orange flowers, violets, &c., in a box, and to let them lie for twenty-four hours, then to sift the powder through a sieve, and add more flowers, in the same way, until the powder has acquired the full perfume desired. A more ready and less expensive mode is to add some essential oil to a portion of the powder, and rub it up with the mass. Hair powder, although but seldom used now for its original purpose, is a very valuable article to nurses and mothers, who apply it to children when the skin is chafed or heated. It is also invaluable to many grown persons who are troubled with a constant perspiration under the armpits, or in the lower part of the body, and which no ordinary mode of cleanliness will correct; if the part affected be washed every morning with cold water, and then powdered with hair powder, every unpleasant result will be prevented.

HARICOT, or FRENCH WHITE BEAN. The early dwarf white bean is very much used in French cookery, and ought, from its nutritious qualities, which have been proved by experiment to be greater than those of any other garden vegetable, and nearly equal to bread, to be of more general use in England. As there are several species of beans sold by the seedsmen in England as French beans, persons who wish to grow the haricot should be careful to ask for that particular sort. They grow freely in many soils, but are very liable to the slug; it is therefore advisable, when they spring from the ground, to protect them on each side by a layer of soot and lime. When fully ripe, the beans should be taken out of the pods, put into bags, and kept in a dry situation. There are several modes of cooking them, but those most frequently adopted are the following:—Boil some water in a saucepan, with some salt, and a little butter; then put in the haricots, and when they are quite tender, strain off the water; then add to the haricots a good-sized piece of butter, and let them simmer for a short time, taking care that

they do not become brown; then add a ladleful of good velouté, or any other gravy, with pepper and salt, and just before serving thicken with white of egg. Another mode is, when the haricots have been boiled as above, to put them into a saucepan with a light roux, and some rich gravy, pepper, and salt, and let them do gently for some time. To cook them with cream, take a quart of haricots, first boiled in water as above, but with the addition of salt, pepper, sweet herbs, two cloves, and a bay leaf; when they are boiled, drain the haricots in a cullender; then boil for a short time a pint of rich milk, and a few table-spoonfuls of cream, with a little salt and pepper, and a few minutes before you take off the saucepan, put the haricots into it. When the haricots are rather old, it is advisable to let them soak for a night in cold water before cooking them.

HARTSHORN SHAVINGS. These are prepared by boiling the raspings of deer's horns in water, and drying the produce, as with isinglass (see **ISINGLASS**). This article makes a beautiful jelly, which is lighter of digestion than isinglass, and very nutritive. It may be employed for all the purposes of diet in the same way as isinglass.

HEAT. In England, where coals are not very dear, as compared with the Continent, the expense of fuel for cooking is not so considerable as to lead to the general use of newly invented stoves or ovens, by which economy is effected; there are, however, many large establishments in which cooking apparatus of different kinds, so contrived that a small quantity of fuel may go a great way, are fitted up; indeed, very great perfection has been arrived at in the manufacture of such articles: in some cases, their use is attended by an economy of at least one half, and by a saving of great time and trouble. The Belgians, also, have made great improvements in apparatus of this description: at some of the hotels in Brussels the economy of a cooking apparatus for roasting, boiling, and baking, is, as compared with open fires, almost incredible. As far as roasting is concerned, many persons are of opinion, that meat cooked in these stoves has not the same fine flavour as when roasted before an open fire; this opinion may be correct to some extent, but the objection is not of sufficient importance to counterbalance the saving which is effected. In Paris, there are stoves for cooking by charcoal, by which

a dinner for twenty persons may be prepared at a cost of about sixpence; whereas, if the various dishes were cooked over separate fires, the expense would be at least two shillings. A very ingenious mode of cooking, on a small scale, in England, is a cone, in which charcoal is burned, and upon which two, three, or more saucepans are placed, so adapted that each receives the necessary quantity of heat; by this contrivance, a dinner of four or five dishes, for two or three persons, may be cooked for about one penny. But the most economical mode of cooking, where gas can be had by measure at a moderate charge, is the gas-stove, for with that the heat may be regulated with more certainty, and is more concentrated than in any other: the stove being fitted up with proper divisions for baking, roasting, boiling, or stewing, the heat may be raised or lowered in a second by means of cocks, and if the stove be well constructed, no portion of it will escape. Meat may be roasted by gas without imbibing the slightest smell, provided the flame of the gas be kept exceedingly low; the joint should be placed in the centre of two or three circles of very small tubes, pierced with fine holes, and the gas being turned on, the flame from each should be no higher than what is barely sufficient for keeping up combustion; this precaution being carefully attended to, it is impossible to roast better than by gas. And every other process of cooking is necessarily carried on with more certainty and convenience by gas than with open coal or charcoal fires. But as regards economy, the gas stove is never useful if the gas cost more than eight or nine shillings the thousand cubic feet; at this rate, rooms may be heated by gas with great economy, but in this case the stove must be so constructed that the cold air may be heated by the gas, and pass into the room without carrying with it any of its offensive properties. It has been stated, indeed, that gas stoves are very unwholesome, by deteriorating the atmosphere; but if the air be merely heated by the gas, this result is no more than what takes place from a stove heated in any other way. If the gas be allowed to escape, the consequences must be serious, for the best of the coal gas that is made is more or less impure; and many of the gas companies, from the immense number of lights which they have to supply, frequently send out gas strongly charged with sulphur and ammonia. All persons who use gas ought

to test it themselves, both as to sulphur and ammonia, but particularly the former. The mode of testing is very simple:—Some writing paper should be saturated with a solution of nitrate of silver, and dried. When the gas is to be tried, let the flame be extinguished, and then hold a piece of this paper over a stream of unlighted gas; in proportion with the quantity of sulphur contained in the gas will be the discolouration of this test paper. If the gas be exceedingly free from sulphur, that is to say, as pure as coal gas can be made, the paper will be slightly discoloured; but if there be much sulphur in it, the surface of the paper will become very dark, and will bear evident marks of sulphur. Should this be the case, the consumer of gas who values his health would do well to discontinue its use, for although in combustion it is not so injurious as it would be in an unconsumed state, it is sufficiently so to make it desirable to prefer having less light and a purer atmosphere. The test for the ammonia is the tournesol paper, which is to be applied in the same way as the test for sulphur; if the quantity of ammonia in the gas be large, the paper will be wholly discoloured. Of late years a new stove for warming rooms by charcoal has been introduced, and much has been said of its economy; but as it has been clearly ascertained, that charcoal cannot be used with safety in any form, if it be allowed to mix with the atmosphere, these stoves, unless so constructed as to have a free draught and a pipe for the vitiated air to escape, give an economy which is not desirable. It was said by their inventor, that the charcoal sold by himself was freed from its noxious properties; but by experiments, both in London and in Paris, it has been proved, that what he called his prepared charcoal was quite as injurious as that which had undergone no preparation. Generally speaking, the use of stoves is by no means conducive to health, although they are sometimes attended with great economy: Dr. Arnott's self-regulating stove is perhaps the best that has been invented, but even this is not so wholesome as an open fireplace. Wherever stoves are used, there should always be placed upon them a shallow dish containing water, to supply and refresh the atmosphere of the room, which is vitiated by the stove. If a little vinegar be added, delicate persons will be much less liable to headaches than they would otherwise be; water alone will generally prevent

this inconvenience, but it is obviated with more certainty by the addition of vinegar.

HERBS. See the different heads under the proper letters.

HONEY. Before the manufacture of sugar, honey was the luxury of the poor, and the only saccharine matter used by the rich; it was also the basis of a spirituous liquor, the honey being fermented, and then distilled: this liquor is still much used in countries where wild honey is found in large quantities, but it is by far too expensive to compete, as an article of commerce or domestic use, with the spirit distilled from wine or grain. Honey is valuable both as an article of food and for medicinal purposes; in the latter, it is much recommended in affections of the throat and lungs; like all saccharine matter, however, it is cloying and injurious to the digestion; the custom of giving bread and honey to children is therefore to be discountenanced, unless the quantity of honey be small. To extract honey from the combs, they should be sliced and laid over wire frames to drain, turning the slices when one side has drained out. The honey which flows out in this way is called primary, or virgin honey, is the best, and from its superior quality should be kept by itself. If the weather be cold, the operation should be carried on over a charcoal brazier, taking care that the heat be not too great: all dead bees, or any other extraneous substance, must also be carefully extracted. A second quality is obtained by cutting the slices into very small pieces, and letting them drain; the third quality is obtained by placing the pieces in a press, or wringing them between hair cloths. When the different kinds of honey have been obtained, they are to be put into earthen jars, and kept in a cool cellar, to prevent fermentation: should fermentation take place, the honey will only be fit for mead or vinegar. (See **MEAD** and **VINEGAR**.)

To PURIFY HONEY. Take, for every five pounds, three ounces of powdered chalk, five ounces of charcoal powder previously washed and dried, and the whites of fifteen eggs beaten up in a pint of water; put the honey, the chalk, and a quart of water, to boil for two minutes in a vessel larger by one third than the bulk of its contents; then throw in the charcoal, mixed with the white of egg, and boil for two minutes longer, stirring well the whole time. When boiled, set it to cool for about a quarter of an hour, and

then pass it through a hair sieve or bag; as what runs off first generally is discoloured a little by the charcoal, return it to the bag until all runs off clear. Honey prepared in this way is very valuable for medicinal purposes in coughs and colds. The peculiar taste of honey may be removed, and the article rendered an excellent substitute for sugar, by boiling it well, skimming it frequently, and then throwing into it four or five times a large nail made red hot; when nearly cold, a table-spoonful of brandy is to be added to each half-pound of honey. A fine honey-water, as an article for the toilet, is obtained by infusing for four days eight ounces of fine honey, eight ounces of bruised coriander seed, three drachms of vanilla, an ounce of fresh lemon peel, six drachms of bruised cloves, four drachms of bruised nutmeg, four drachms of benzoin, and a few drops of attar of rose, in three pints of spirits of wine, and then distilling in the water bath. An excellent gargle may also be made, by infusing honey for twenty-four hours in a strong decoction of red rose leaves, in the proportion of one pound of honey to a quart of the decoction; filter for use.

HONEY WATER. Take of honey, one pound; coriander seed, one pound; cloves, one ounce and a half; storax, one ounce; bruised nutmegs, one ounce; lemon peel, one ounce and a half; calamus, one ounce; spirits of wine, two quarts; let these macerate in a well-stopped jar for one month, then distil. Add to the produce of the distillation half a drachm of neroli, four drops of attar of roses, a quarter of a drachm of pulverized ambergris, and a drachm and a half of vanilla; let this infuse for a week, then filter.

Another: Narbonne honey, one pound; coriander, one pound; fresh lemon peel, one ounce; cloves, six drachms; nutmegs, one ounce; benzoin, one ounce; storax, one ounce; rose water, four ounces; orange flower water, four ounces; spirits of wine of 36°, three pounds; let them infuse for a few days, and filter.

HORSE-RADISH. This is a strong pungent and stimulating root, chiefly, and indeed almost exclusively, used as a garnish for certain dishes; for which purpose it is scraped and covered with a little vinegar. It is propagated by cuttings of the knotty parts of the root, leaving one or two eyes; the soil must be rich and deep. The time for planting is early in the spring, putting the cuttings a foot

deep in the earth. The roots are fit for use the second year, and the bed will last four or five years, if, in digging, the original stock be not injured.

HUILE ANTIQUE. The name given to most of the oils which are sold for promoting the growth of hair. The basis of all these compositions is, oil of sweet almonds, oil of ben, or fine olive oil; the latter seems to be quite as good as any other. The oil is perfumed either by allowing the flowers, such as jessamine, lavender, rose, &c. to infuse in it, exposed to gentle warmth; or much more expeditiously, although in that case the perfume is not quite so delicate, by adding a little of the essential oil of the flowers to the olive oil, and filtering the whole through a filtering bag, or blotting-paper. Thus, if a few drops of the otto of rose be added to half a pint of fine almond or olive oil, and the whole be carefully filtered, we have *Huile Antique à la Rose*; and the same with lavender, &c. How far the use of these oils really promotes the growth of hair, is still a question. In many of the compositions which are sold for this purpose, spices are mixed; and probably they act beneficially, as a gentle stimulant. Lime-water of weak strength is also said to have a powerful effect in giving tone to the skin, and producing a renewal of the hair; washing with cold water, and rubbing dry with a coarse cloth is, however, better than either; a little tincture of cloves may be added to the water. The following are a few of the most celebrated compositions for promoting the growth of hair:—

MADAME LEU'S HUILE CELEBRE.—Fine olive oil, one pint, four cloves, a quarter of an ounce of cinnamon, cut small; boil them together for an hour, then add a quarter of an ounce of cinnamon, and the same quantity of sandal wood; boil again for ten minutes, and filter; add half an ounce of essence of Portugal.

HUILE COMOGENE. Olive oil, four ounces; spirits of wine, four ounces; oil of rosemary, one drachm; oil of nutmegs, a quarter of a drachm.

NAQUET'S MACASSAR OIL. Oil of ben, one quart; oil of nuts, one pint; spirits of wine, half a pint; essence of bergamotte, half an ounce; essence of musk, half an ounce; essence of Portugal, half an ounce; otto of roses, quarter of a drachm. Infuse in a bottle near the fire, for two or three hours; then set the bottle by for a week, shaking it frequently.

HYPOCRAS. A liquor made with wine, and considered to be very stomachic. Infuse in six quarts of good white wine (the white Cape, called stein, will do very well) six drachms of cinnamon, two drachms of cloves, two drachms of cardamoms, one drachm of ginger, and the fresh rind of a lemon, all pounded in a mortar, with a pound of white sugar; put the mixture into a jar, and let it stand in the sun, or near a fire, for a fortnight; then decanter carefully, and bottle for use.

HYSSOP. This herb may be grown from seeds sown in the spring, and propagated by cuttings and slips. It is now little used in medicine, and not a great deal in cookery. A poor and dry soil is best for it.

ICE. Water congealed by the action of cold. Ice is used externally in many diseases where the application of intense cold is necessary, particularly in some affections of the brain. It is employed extensively in confectionary, for freezing creams, &c., and for giving coldness to champagne and other wines. In some cases of chronic indigestion, ice is also taken internally, by swallowing it in small pieces.

ICE-WELL. The storing of ice for summer consumption is conducted as follows:—A spot which is at all times free from the action of the sun, such as a cellar, is chosen. A hole is then dug to a depth of about twenty feet, beginning with a diameter of from ten to fifteen feet, and ending in such a way that the well may have the form of a reversed sugar-loaf, large at the top, and pointed at the bottom. This is then lined with brick-work, a hole being first made in the bottom, four feet wide and two deep, under the pointed part, to receive the water which falls from the ice which may melt; over this a grating is placed, upon which the first bed of ice is laid. Before the ice is put in, however, fresh straw is laid over the grating, and as the well is filled, straw is laid against the walls, so that the ice may touch only the straw. In filling the well, the largest pieces of ice should be put in first, and this rule is to be observed for the remainder, the size of the pieces becoming smaller and smaller as the top is approached; the more closely the ice is packed, the better it will be preserved. When the well is full, straw is laid over the top, and upon that planks are laid, covered with heavy stones, to press down

the straw. Where it is practicable, the entrance to an ice-well should be double, to enable the person who has to extract any ice to enter, and close the first door before he opens the second, by which he will prevent a sudden rush of comparatively warm air; but if the well be made in a cold cellar, this precaution is unnecessary, as the cellar itself forms the outer entrance. Snow may be stored in the same way as ice, by beating it into a compact mass. Dr. Cumming recommends that ice-wells should be made above ground, as he has found that the damp of the earth dissolves the ice much more rapidly than heat: he builds a well above ground, under cover, to keep off the sun, and then an inner well, leaving a space for air between the two. In this way ice will, he says, keep in the hottest weather.

ARTIFICIAL FREEZING MIXTURE. In some parts of India, and other warm countries, where ice cannot be obtained, the following artificial mode of freezing is adopted:—Instead of ice, a mixture is made of eleven parts of ammoniacal salt, ten of nitre, and eighteen of Glauber's salts; the nitre and ammoniacal salt are used in very dry powder, but the Glauber's salts are in their natural state: a quantity of water, nearly equal to that of the mixture, may be frozen by it in the hottest period of summer. Mr. Walker found that nitrous acid, Glauber's salts, and sal ammoniac, mixed, lowered the thermometer several degrees below the freezing point. In some parts of France, where it is not convenient to have a regular ice-well, a cask is sunk in the ground in a cellar, having in it a little grating at the bottom, as in an ice-well. In this cask is placed a smaller one, pierced with holes, and having a lid; the small cask is filled with pounded ice and charcoal, not pressed, and the space between the two casks is filled up in the same way, hardly pressed down; the lid of the inner cask being put on, a cloth or sack filled with charcoal is laid over, and a lid to fix on the outer cask is then put on, after which, the whole is covered with straw. In the summer, when wine, creams, &c., are to be cooled, the two lids are taken off carefully, so as not to allow much air to enter, and the bottles are placed in the mixture contained in the inner tub for half an hour, the lids and the charcoal bag being in the meantime replaced. In this way great coldness may be obtained, but the articles will not be frozen so thoroughly

as by the refrigerating mixture above mentioned.

ICES, in confectionary. Mixtures of cream, &c., frozen by the external application of ice. Ice pails are sold for this purpose, with full instructions for use. The object to be frozen is placed in an inner vessel, and this in another, the space between the two being filled with pounded ice, mixed with salt. The more rapidly the object is to be frozen, the more salt will be required, but the flavour is injured by freezing too rapidly. In the first part of the operation, the mixture to be frozen should be stirred from time to time with a spoon in the inner vessel, which, as also the outer vessel, should be of strong block tin (not sheet iron tinned). When the object begins to turn, put on the lid of the outer vessel, and allow it to remain until it is sufficiently frozen; when taken out, the iced cream or water is either to be put into moulds, or formed pyramidically, in ice-glasses. If the ice is to be of different colours, the vessel in which it is to be frozen should have divisions for each colour, as should also the mould; but in the latter the divisions must be movable, the partitions being drawn out when the ice has been well pressed in. It is advisable, however, before the partitions be withdrawn, to put the mould for a few minutes into the ice pail, to freeze a little longer. The following are the favourite preparations of ice in Paris:—

ICE CREAM, WITHOUT FRUIT. A pound and a half of fresh milk, half a pound of fresh cream, the peel of a lemon, and twelve ounces of sugar; boil, and stir until it thickens; then take it from the fire, and strain through a sieve: set it to cool, and when cool, put it into the ice pail.

VANILLA ICE. Milk, cream, and sugar, as above. Vanilla, four drachms, cut into small pieces, and pounded with a little sugar in a mortar. Proceed as for ice cream.

COFFEE ICE. As above, mixing with the milk a very strong cold infusion of coffee (see **COFFEE**) sufficient to give flavour.

CHOCOLATE CREAM. As above, boiling with the milk and cream, six ounces of fine chocolate, reduced, by rasping, to a fine powder.

STRAWBERRY ICE. The pulp of two pounds and a half of strawberries and of half a pound of red currants, rubbed through a sieve, and a pint of water in which the sugar has been dissolved; mix well together, and put into the freezing

pail. If strawberry cream is required, take the juice of the fruit, strain it, and add it to the cream with a little lemon juice; whisk up the whole with the sugar, and set to freeze.

RASPBERRY ICE. Two pounds of raspberries, four ounces of currants, four ounces of cherries, sugar one pound, water one pound and a half; mix the pulp with the water and sugar, and set to freeze. For raspberry cream, use cream instead of water, and whisk up gently; or use only the juice of the fruit.

Mrs. Dalgairn, in her *Modern Practice of Cookery*, recommends that ices from fruits should be made as follows:—"Press through a sieve the juice of a pint of raspberries or currants; add four or five ounces of pounded loaf sugar, a little lemon juice, and a pint of cream; whisk previous to freezing." The juices of any other fruits may be used. For water ices, substitute water for cream. The ices made from the pulp of fruits, as in France, are, however, very superior, but they require more time and care.

LEMON AND ORANGE ICES are made generally with water, and finely grated lemon-peel is usually added. For orange ice, take the juice of three large oranges and of one lemon, strained, to a pint of water, made sufficiently sweet to correct the acid. For lemon ice, use as much juice as will make an agreeable acid.

All ices may be coloured, either with carmine, cochineal, or arnatto; but as the red and purple colours are generally preferred, carmine and cochineal are chiefly used; for this purpose it is well to have some colour ready: by infusing either carmine or bruised cochineal in hot water the dye is obtained; filter it, and add the quantity necessary to the cream or water; let the infusion be made strong.

MOCK ICE. Families who have no freezing pails sometimes make a sort of mock ice, by mixing half a pint of water, in which rather more than a quarter of an ounce of isinglass has been boiled, with a pint of cream, and a sufficient quantity of sugar, and the juice of any fruit; the mixture must be made before the solution of isinglass is quite cold. If there be ice at hand, this mixture is set in a mould in some vessel, and surrounded with ice; or if there be none, it is put into the coldest situation possible. The solid appearance given to the mixture when cold by the isinglass, and which, if that article were absent, could only be given by the freez-

ing pail, causes this to be a pretty good imitation of an ice, if it can be made quite cold.

IMITATION SILVER. The following preparation is said to make a very good imitation of silver, for spoons, forks, &c.:—Put into a crucible eight ounces of melchior, eight ounces of zinc, twelve ounces of tin, three ounces of copper, six ounces of arsenic, and two ounces of borax; when melted, pour into moulds, &c. The experiment may be tried with a smaller quantity.

INDIAN CORN, OR MAIZE. A particular kind of grain, which grows abundantly in the south of Europe and in tropical climates. Made into bread or cakes it is used as food for man, and is the chief food, in many countries, of horses, pigs, and other domestic animals. The flour made from Indian corn is very inferior to that of wheat. An attempt was made by the late Mr. Cobbett to introduce the cultivation of it into England, but, owing to the variableness of the climate, the attempt was a failure.

INDIGESTION. A few practical remarks on this malady, to which the name of dyspepsia is generally given, may be very useful in connexion with the considerations of the quantity and nature of food. The symptoms of indigestion are various, according to the temperament of the individual; but almost all cases are attended more or less with flatulency, and with an unpleasant sensation in the mouth. When the disease has made some progress, severe pains are also felt at the pit of the stomach and in the fore part of the head, and, where the liver is affected, pains are also felt between the shoulders; but nine cases out of ten of ordinary dyspepsia arise more from a torpidity of the lower bowels than from any actual disease of the stomach itself or from organic affections. One of the worst symptoms of dyspepsia, as regards the sensations of the patient, is the feeling of tightness about the abdomen, which some medical writers have attempted to describe as a sensation similar to that which might be supposed to be produced from tying a string round the great alimentary canal, and thus impeding the passage. Where there is much flatulency, eructations are sometimes frequent; but in other cases this relief is denied to the sufferer, and there is a constant sensation of a desire to vomit, but with great difficulty of such evacuation. The symptoms of indigestion are very much increased by taking cold, and

in such cases there is always great prostration of strength. In dyspepsia of long standing the patient loses all physical energy; and, although convinced of the necessity of exercise, is frequently wanting in the moral force which would lead to physical exertion. It is generally after taking food that the symptoms of indigestion assume an aggravated form; and some who do not experience any great inconvenience from solid food, suffer very much from liquids. Whenever indigestion, in whatever form, is present, the patient should never load the stomach beyond its powers, and those meats which are most digestible in their nature should be preferred; game, tender mutton, and poultry, are the best; the white meats, such as veal and pork, should be taken only in small quantities, if at all. In laying it down as a rule that the stomach is not to be overcharged, care must be taken to avoid the opposite extreme. The starving system, as it is called, although it may be very proper in acute cases, is not so in chronic indigestion; and as to liquid, although wines and fermented liquors of any kind should be taken with great moderation, they are not to be entirely abstained from. A small quantity of wine or beer, in its pure form, or diluted with water, if it should be found too strong for the stomach, may be very useful; but the common practice of taking spirits for what is called the expulsion of wind, either in their pure state or mixed with water, unless very much diluted indeed, is highly objectionable.

A notion is prevalent that, in cases of indigestion, eating very frequently, and in very small quantities at each time, is conducive to the health of the patient; this, however, appears to be an erroneous doctrine. The eating of small quantities of food is certainly to be recommended; but the number of meals, or rather periods of eating, should never exceed three or four in the day, for unless the stomach have time for repose, it cannot perform its functions: eating hard biscuits in the intervals between meals is also injurious for the same reason. As in many cases of indigestion the patient has a sensation of hunger, and sometimes even a craving desire for food, this habit of eating frequently is created by its own sensations: the feeling of hunger, however, is not genuine; it arises from a morbid state of the stomach, and should not wantonly be administered to. The best food, in severe indigestion, is probably water-gruel, made thick,

slightly sweetened, and with the addition of a very small quantity of brandy; by taking this food for two or three days, and no other, very severe symptoms of indigestion are frequently removed, and the stomach is gradually brought to a tone which enables it to digest food of a more stimulating character. Many sedentary men are obliged to abstain entirely from the ordinary food taken by persons in health for a week, a fortnight, or even a month together; Voltaire is said to have lived for more than three months at a time on nothing but mashed potatoes, and Rousseau frequently passed three or four days together with no other food than dry bread and cold water. It is evident from experience, that by such self-mortifications as these, acute and dangerous disease may be averted, and the stomach brought to a state in which enjoyment and digestion can both go on at the same time. Of all farinaceous foods, however, gruel is certainly the best; but the patient must attend to his symptoms during the use of it. There is scarcely any case of digestion in which the stomach does not require a certain degree of stimulus; but the great difficulty is in harmonizing that stimulus with the slow fever which is going on at the same time. Whilst the patient is living upon farinaceous food, he must not conclude, from any gnawing sensation of the stomach, or from any increased symptoms of the complaint in other parts of the body, that the diet is injurious to him, for these may arise from fortuitous causes, and may be at the point of departure at the very moment when they appear most sensible; but if, during the period that he is living upon farinaceous food, he finds an increase in the clammy or metallic sensation of the mouth, it may be generally taken as an indication that the stomach is enfeebled by the diet, and that a slight change must be made. In this case, he should take a plain mutton chop once during the day, and may even try a small quantity of beer which is not too strong; he should on no account fall into the ordinary mistake of taking soups, or strong broths, under the supposition that they are light, and at the same time nourishing. There is frequently much less difficulty in digesting a mutton-chop than in the digestion of a small basin of soup; and generally speaking, food in its concentrated form is more wholesome than when in a liquid form. This observation applies, of course, only to that period of the regimen when stimulating food may be

eaten. If water-gruel be not liable to the same objections as soups, it is because it is mucilaginous and lubricating, and, by the absence of any bad stimulating property, allows the stomach time to perform its own functions. In food, as well as in medicine, there is no curative process, properly so termed; the natural tendency of the system is towards its normal state—health, and the real curative process consists in removing the causes of irritation, and enabling nature to perform her own work. In ordinary indigestion, where the symptoms are not so grave as to render an exclusively farinaceous diet necessary, it may, however, be very important to abstain wholly or partially from one or both of two articles which form a considerable item in the mode of living—these are tea and coffee; but as they are treated of, under their proper heads, in relation to their effects upon the animal economy, it is not necessary here to do more than refer to them.

Pure air, sufficient but not excessive exercise, cheerful society, equanimity of temper, and everything that can promote the energy of the brain, and assist in giving tone to the stomach, that great fountain of health or disease, are the best and most effectual remedies. Sedentary pursuits necessarily contribute very much to dyspepsia, and if it is possible, they should be laid aside for a time, until the stomach has recovered its tone. When this cannot be done entirely, exercise should be taken as frequently as possible, and not taken merely by way of exercise. If a sedentary man walks out for health, the mind is still agitated by the knowledge that he is health-seeking; a person employed in an office may walk ten miles in a day for the sake of health, if he has no other object, without deriving the same benefit as he would have if he were necessarily compelled to live at a distance, and walk backwards and forwards to the same extent for the purposes of business. Even rich persons, who are able to travel, should endeavour to have some direct object of business or pleasure in view: in short, everything should be done in chronic indigestion to divert the mind from dwelling upon the existence of disease. In most cases of dyspepsia the evacuations are irregular, being attended alternately with costiveness and diarrhoea; the early symptoms, however, are generally those of costiveness, and as these are relieved for some time by stimulating the liver with mercury, and rousing the action of the

bowels by purgative medicines, this course is adopted to a very great extent, until the habit of taking medicine can no longer be dispensed with; and although each temporary relief is a seed sown for chronic and almost incurable indigestion, drugging becomes, like dram-drinking, a daily practice, and the moral energy necessary for subduing it becomes daily and daily weaker as the practice is persevered in. Medical men, more desirous frequently of relieving patients instantaneously from unpleasant symptoms, than of laying the foundation of permanent health, prescribe a mercurial pill at night and an opening draught in the morning, although perhaps the temperament of the individual may be such that the one and the other, if repeated, as they necessarily must be, will act as slow poison; but the greatest mischief is done by the use of purgative pills, sold by advertising quacks, and which are taken more or less by persons who are subject to indigestion, and who do not call in medical aid. If these persons would adopt the more simple and rational course of reducing the quantity of food in a reasonable proportion, abstaining from exciting drinks, and keeping the body and the mind actively and usefully employed, they would gradually arrive at a more healthy state of existence, and although they might have none of that sudden and factitious relief which is given by purgative medicines, they would bring the frame by degrees into a state which would render drugging totally unnecessary, and they would learn to distinguish between those cases of urgency, when opening medicines are actually necessary, and the habitual use of purgatives for chronic indigestion. The French frequently express great astonishment at the fondness for drugging shewn by the English; some of them can scarcely believe that nearly one-third of the British nation are in the habit of taking purgative pills at night, or what are termed digestive pills a short time before eating. They do not understand the principle of tearing the stomach to pieces, in order to get at the bowels, which is, indeed, in ordinary cases, quite as absurd as it would be for a man to go from London to Brighton by way of York, and they adopt the much more simple and reasonable remedy of the lavement, which is, in fact, substituting mechanical irritation for that healthy and natural irritation of the bowels which is absent in the torpidity occasioned by indigestion. Very false notions of delicacy are entertained in England, as to the use

of the injecting pump; there are many persons, particularly females, who prefer one of the two evils of costiveness or drastic purging to the use of this instrument. If they would reflect, however, upon the injury inflicted by either, and upon the proofs which are afforded by Continental works on medicine of the numerous advantages attending the use of the injecting pump, their prejudices and their false delicacy could not fail to give way to such evidence. This, like all good things, may be abused, and that it is abused on the Continent is very certain; but it is an extraordinary fact, that those acute and fatal diseases which follow long continued indigestion, such as pulmonary consumption, dropsy, and sometimes diabetes, are hardly ever known to occur to persons who adopt this mechanical remedy. But the most valuable consideration, in connexion with this part of the subject, is the following:—Persons of costive habits in England attempt to keep up the evacuations necessary for health by one of two systems: either by taking a strong purgative at once, and repeating it on every occasion, the repetition becoming the greater, by the adoption of the practice; or by taking very frequently small doses of a mild purgative, hoping by degrees to obtain the desired result. Now in the latter practice, although the preferable one of the two, the mind is kept constantly on the rack, as to the state of the body; and the very consciousness of the existence of the evil, prevents that beneficial action of the nerves of the brain upon those of the stomach, which promotes digestion and evacuation. But he who has at all times this simple remedy at hand, is perfectly tranquil as to the course to be pursued; he does not become wretched and melancholy because his bowels are torpid: he knows that he can at any time, without inconvenience or danger, rouse their functions; and it frequently happens that at the very moment when about to use this instrument, nature renders it unnecessary. There is also another great advantage in the use of it: the most distressing of all the symptoms of indigestion is, without dispute, flatulency; now this is not always relieved by purgative medicines, and even when it is, it returns with aggravated force, from the use of them. There is nothing of this kind in the use of the lavement, which, on the contrary, relieves the sensation at once, and on repetition, diminishes more

and more the torpidity of the bowels, which is its principal cause. Lavements, in cases of indigestion, should consist simply of warm water, with the addition of a small quantity of soap or salt; but where there is great obstinacy, a small quantity of turpentine may be added. Proper instructions may be obtained, as to the mode of administering lavements, from any of the druggists who sell the injecting pump. The greatest sufferers from indigestion are persons of delicate nerves, and with these the symptoms assume an endless variety: they have sometimes pains in the pit of the stomach, flatulency, hypochondriasis, prostration of strength, pains in the legs, ear-ache, tooth-ache, diarrhœa, dysentery, cough—in fact, the whole train of nervous maladies; and when one symptom disappears, it is only to give way to the occurrence of another. Instructions for the cure of any one of these symptoms would be useless, inasmuch as they proceed from one and the same exciting cause. For such patients, the general instructions for indigestion must be attended to, with the additional observation, that warm clothing, frequent frictions of the skin, and occasional foot mustard baths are to be recommended. In the medical treatment of indigestion, the faculty appear to have very different views. The homœopathic doctrine has lately got much into vogue, and several important cures are said to have been effected; this is not at all surprising, for putting aside all contention as to the intrinsic excellence of this system, there are three things attending it which cannot but promote the welfare of the patient. First, the tearing system of mercurial doses and drastic purges is got rid of; secondly, strict attention to diet is imperatively imposed; and thirdly, the pomp and mystery with which the system is enforced, has a tendency to excite hope and create faith, which are so important for the cure of nervous diseases. Dr. Wilson Philip is said to have adopted the sensible and comprehensible part of homœopathy, by administering blue pill in very minute doses; and there are cases on record of persons, who after having taken, for three weeks or a month, such very small doses of blue pill as the eighth or even the sixteenth part of a grain, three times a day, have derived very great benefit. There is no mystery about the action of blue pill in such doses; they are quite sufficient, if long persevered in, to have an effect upon the system, where

diet is at the same time carefully attended to, without producing any of the ordinary evils of mercurial treatment. In some cases of indigestion, the use of counter-irritants is attended with great benefit, without the necessity of adopting any other means: the application of a mustard poultice or plaster upon the pit of the stomach will not unfrequently subdue the morbid irritation by the mechanical one, and thus allow nature to assert her rights. A very simple, safe, and useful tonic medicine, in difficult digestion, is an infusion of gentian, rhubarb, carbonate of iron, and Spanish liquorice: this should be prepared, by pouring a pint of boiling water upon twenty grains of each article, and taking of the infusion about two or three table-spoonfuls three times a day; this does not act directly as a purgative, but as a mild tonic—imparts a strength to the stomach, which assists the digestion of food, and promotes evacuation; it acts upon the principle of assisting, and not of forcing nature.

INDIGO. A dye prepared from a plant peculiar to hot countries: most of the indigo comes from the East Indies. As a great deal of Prussian blue is sold for indigo, it may be useful to give the following process for detecting the fraud:—Reduce the article into fine powder, and throw it into a glass containing about four or five parts of its bulk of sulphuric acid: if the article be pure indigo, it will immediately dissolve, and the liquor will be of a fine blue colour; but if it be Prussian blue, it will be decomposed, and the colour destroyed, and the result of the operation would be sulphate of iron.

INK. To make common ink, put into a stone bottle a quart of vinegar, two pounds of the shavings of Campeachy wood, an ounce of gum-arabic, two pounds and a half of pounded nutgalls, a quart of water, a pound of sulphate of iron, and four drachms of indigo; let them stand for a month in a warm place, shaking the bottle night and morning; then strain for use. Japan ink is made as follows:—Take twelve ounces of sulphate of iron, eight ounces of sulphate of copper, twelve ounces of nutgalls, four ounces of Campeachy wood, ten ounces of gum-arabic, one ounce of indigo, and six quarts and a half of water. First, break the nutgalls, and infuse them in five quarts of water of a high temperature, but not boiling; the water must be kept at the same temperature for three quarters of an hour, being careful that it does not

boil, and keeping the vessel covered; at the expiration of that time, put in the Campeachy wood and the indigo; after it has stood ten minutes, strain it through muslin, squeezing well, to extract all the liquor, and let it cool; then pound slightly the sulphate of iron, and place it over the fire in a fire-shovel, and let it heat by degrees until the iron becomes red hot; when the sulphate has become of a red colour, and is thoroughly calcined, remove it from the fire, and when it is almost cold, throw on it a quart of boiling water; let it stand for ten minutes, and then strain it, and add it to the former infusion; dissolve separately the sulphate of copper and the gum-arabic, and add them also to the ink, which is fit for immediate use.

TO DILUTE INK WHICH HAS BECOME THICK. Add strong infusion of coffee.

INTOXICATION. There is an immense number of substances capable of producing that state of the system which we call drunkenness, or intoxication. Opium has generally been considered the most powerful amongst these substances; but we have lately heard of a preparation from hemp, which far exceeds, in its intoxicating effects, the power of opium, for it produces downright madness. The French papers have contained an account of an experiment made with a small quantity of this preparation from hemp, which had been received from India, by three young men of Marseilles; shortly after they had taken a moderate dose, they were attacked with all the symptoms caused by opium when it acts inspiringly, (which is not always the case,) but in an aggravated degree: the brain of each person became excited in a violent manner; they danced, they sang, they imagined themselves to be kings and emperors, they gave vent to their joy in loud shouts, and, rushing into the street like madmen, they performed a variety of antics, and were for several hours in the same state of delirium. When the exhilarating effects of the poison had subsided, however, it was succeeded by great depression of spirits; all their muscles had lost their force, they were unable to stand upright, their eyes were sunk in their heads, and they had all the appearance of men about to expire: two of them recovered in the course of three or four days, but the third was seriously ill for more than a month; he declared, however, that, severely as he had suffered, when the first effect of the poison had

gone off, his rapture was so intense, when under its exhilarating powers, that he was almost tempted to repeat the experiment. Intoxication is produced more or less by all fermented liquors, when taken in sufficient quantity to affect the brain, and if frequently repeated, seldom fail to lay the groundwork of the most frightful maladies, bodily and mental. The habit of drinking fermented liquors to excess, seems to be common to all nations, civilized and uncivilized. The inhabitants of Siberia and the north of Russia get tipsy with *brago* and *quass*, which are beers made from rye; the Tartar intoxicates himself with the *kermis*, a fermented liquor made from mares' milk; the South American has his *chica*, from Indian corn; and the Chinese, his *fachi*, from rice. Many tribes of savages manufacture an intoxicating liquor from the palm tree and other plants; and the Turks, whose religion prevents their drinking fermented liquors, find a still more fatal substitute in opium. In Europe, the chief liquids which produce intoxication are beer, cider, wine, brandy, rum, which is imported from the colonies, and gin, whiskey, and other distillations from grain: of all these, beer is the most nourishing, and a large quantity is required to produce intoxication; but if beer be taken to excess, there is no fermented liquor the effects of which are more certain. The person who uses beer with intemperance becomes fat, and is even, for a time, under a delusion that he enjoys good health, but the result is apoplexy, or dropsy, arising from diseased liver, most frequently the former. It has been observed by a French writer, that the drunken John Bull is a fat, heavy, and stupid-looking man, under the influence of beer, whilst the Frenchman, under the habitual use of brandy, is thin, desperate, and furious, but that one and the other rush with equal certainty to destruction. As strong cider contains, in comparison with strong beer, only a small quantity of alcohol, the intoxication from cider is less rapid, and as its chief element is less narcotic, the stupor produced by it is not so great as that of beer; but it has been remarked, that the results of habitual intoxication from cider are equally fatal. Wine drunkards are the smallest sufferers, if the wine is good, for the quantity of alcohol in sherry wines, when genuine, does not exceed one-sixth, and in the weaker wines it is only one-fifteenth; but as it is the habit of wine

growers to mix alcohol with the wines which they export, to give them body and additional strength, and as this admixture seems to be much more injurious than the same quantity of alcohol would be in the natural state of the wine, it is prudent to be sparing in the use of this beverage, when there is no certainty as to its genuineness. When wine is genuine, it appears in many cases to produce no permanent injury to the system, even when indulged in daily to such an extent as to produce intoxication; these cases, however, are comparatively rare. The alcohol is said to be much corrected by the tannin of the grape, particularly in the red wines, the colour being communicated by expressing it from the skins, which contain a large quantity of tannin. The most rapidly destructive liquids are those which are called spirituous, such as brandy, gin, &c. Death is the certain result of an excessive use of these, but it is death preceded by brutalization of the mind, and painful disease of the body. One of the ordinary, but most frightful results of a habit of intoxication with spirituous liquors, is delirium tremens, but the catalogue of diseases attendant upon this habit is almost endless. Dyspepsia, in its worst form, is a common symptom; dropsy, marasmus, pulmonary consumption, general debility, loss of appetite, immoderate thirst, hypertrophy of the kidney, melanosis, cyrrhosis, tubercles, fungus, hæmatoides, many hæmorrhagic diseases, and insanity—one or other of these complaints, and not unfrequently several of them, in a complicated form, await the unhappy being who indulges—if to so frightful a propensity the word indulgence can be applied—in the frequent and excessive use of ardent liquors.

The habit of drunkenness is exceedingly difficult of eradication; for just in proportion with the general excitement of the brain, seems to be the debility of those organs of reflection, which in a healthy state could be appealed to with a fair chance of success. Phrenologists say, we have an organ of destructiveness, which when brought under the control of the reasoning faculties, enables us to triumph over obstacles, and to accomplish great and glorious purposes, but which, when the intellectual powers are weakened, and the moral faculties are dormant, is the mere executive of the baser passions. This appears to be the case with the drunkard; he is persevering only in folly, obstinate only in brutality. In vain do we appeal

to his morality, for he has destroyed its energy; in vain do we knock at the door of his reason, it is closed by sensuality. Where, indeed, must reason and morality be, when we see a man wasting his resources, robbing his family of the enjoyments which, in a state of sobriety, he would be able to provide for them; inflicting upon his best and dearest friends the continued spectacle of his degradation, and bringing upon himself premature old age, a whole train of bodily diseases, and preparing for a death-bed, without honour, without sympathy, without the consolatory influence of a pure conscience? Talk to such a man of his moral duties—talk to him of self-respect, of religious veneration;—if he be under the immediate operation of drink, you are addressing your remonstrances and your counsel to a madman; if he be sober, you have to do with an enfeebled intellect—with a child who has just sense enough to know that it does wrong, but not sufficient energy to do better. To cure the habitual drunkard, he should be treated as—what he is—a madman: he should be placed under restraint, and the body having been restored to something like health, his mind may be gradually acted upon. When reason has recovered her empire, there may be some hope that you will be able with effect to paint to him, in vivid and lasting colours, the disgustingness of intoxication; there is none whilst the brain is on fire, burning with an unquenchable rage, which constantly calls for fresh fuel, or when, in the rare moments of sobriety, it is in a state of debility almost as pitiable as in its excited state it is appalling. The upper members of society in England have much to answer for, for they have set the example of drunkenness: they are indeed vastly improved themselves, by intercourse with foreign nations, and drunkenness is now no longer a fashionable vice; but the improvement has not yet extended to the lower orders, and the evil habit is not so thoroughly eradicated in the class from which example should come, that it can enforce its new views with full effect upon the people. The time has passed when the one-bottle man was the positive degree of society, the two-bottle man the comparative, and the three-bottle man the superlative. The time has passed when the hospitality of the entertainer was considered to be proportioned to the quantity of wine which he could compel his guests to drink, and when he who fell last

under the table was the king of the debauch. We no longer live in the days when ministers, judges, and generals would reel into the presence of ladies, hot from the fumes of intoxication, and offensive both in gait and language. It is delightful to think that such an improvement has taken place among the upper orders, and still more delightful to know that the prudent and virtuous of the lower orders have, by the establishment of temperance societies, set an example to the mass, which thousands are following. But drunkenness is not yet a solitary vice; it is not yet one of those crimes which the national character repudiates; it is not yet an offence which men are ashamed to own; and the law which inflicts a fine of five shillings upon drunkenness, is not of that high moral order which tends to reform, by either the exposure of the offender or his punishment. If the rich man is fined, he throws down his fine, with a laugh of scorn or an expression of anger at an attempt to interfere with his right of self-management; and if the penalty falls upon a poor man, he thinks it hard that his enjoyment, for such indeed he calls intoxication, is to be taxed at the same rate as that of the wealthy man, to whom, comparatively, five shillings is but as the hundredth part of a farthing.

We have heard of various remedies for the immediate effects of drunkenness, arising from either beer, wines, or spirits; but the volatile salts seem to be the most powerful. If a few drops of liquid sal volatile be taken in a glass of water, the drunkard is immediately relieved; and by repeating the dose he is brought to a state of sobriety. This recipe will be without value to the habitual drunkard, for he finds pleasure in his degradation, but there also are many persons who suffer themselves to be led occasionally to a practice, of which their reason, even when obscured by the fumes of liquor, teaches them to be ashamed, and who may be disposed to avail themselves of the remedy.

ISINGLASS. A preparation made by boiling the skins and gelatinous parts of fish, previously well cleaned, in water; the decoction having been brought to the required consistence, is carefully dried. Isinglass is a very good glue for paper work, and is of much use in clarification, as it separates all the thick parts of a liquid, which fall to the bottom and leave the mass clear. If a piece of isinglass be boiled with coffee, the grounds are rapidly

precipitated, and in a few seconds the coffee is clear. Sole skin, well cleaned and dried in the sun, will do as well for coffee, but for delicate preparations the finest isinglass, which is almost tasteless, should be used. In diet, isinglass is used to support the stomach, in the form of jelly, when more solid food would be rejected. Its nutritive properties are very great, but, like all gelatinous food, it is difficult of digestion. The jelly may be made by boiling the isinglass in water, with a little sugar and lemon-peel, then straining it, and adding, if acid be not objectionable, a little lemon-juice. A quarter of an ounce of isinglass will be sufficient for a pint of water; if more be used, the jelly will be too compact when cold. Where milk does not disagree with the stomach, isinglass may be boiled in it, and thus a very nutritive food be prepared.

JAM. A fruit boiled down with an equal weight of sugar. The fruit should be put into the preserving pan a few minutes before the sugar is added, being bruised and mashed well with a spoon. The sugar, which should be in powder, and always of good quality, so that it may communicate no unpleasant flavour to the fruit, must be well stirred up with it, and the whole should boil from ten to fifteen minutes, skimming it as much as possible. It is better to boil rather more than less than the time above mentioned.

JELLY. A transparent preserve, consisting of the expressed juice of fruit, or the essence of meat prepared with sugar, and solidified by the action of cold. All kinds of jellies should be cooked over a slow fire. Jelly is also made from isinglass and sugar, with the addition of wine, liqueurs, or other ingredients. The Marasquino jelly, which figures upon the tables of the great on the Continent, is made as follows:—Two ounces of isinglass are melted in a syrup made from three quarters of a pound of sugar; these are kept simmering on the fire for about half an hour, and then taken out and kept until nearly cold; two wine-glasses of Marasquino and half a wine-glass of Kirchenwasser are then added, and the whole is passed through a silk sieve, the passage of it being assisted by adding from time to time part of a tumbler full of filtered water; when it has all run through, it is to be put into a mould, and frozen in pounded ice. Jelly may be made in the same way with rum, Madeira, Malaga, or other wines, or with

a strong infusion of coffee prepared with cold water, according to the instructions given under the head **COFFEE**. A beautiful jelly is made in Russia, by whipping up the mixture of isinglass and sugar, prepared as above, with four glasses of Kirchenwasser, and the juice of two lemons; when this has become of the consistency of white of egg, it is placed in a mould, and frozen in the usual way. (For jellies from meats, see the different heads.) Jelly from the bones of animals is usually called gelatine. Until lately, this kind of jelly was supposed to contain great nutrition; but, from some experiments lately made by M. Magendie and other members of a commission of the Academy of Sciences, it would appear that it is simply an antiphlogistic aliment, the nutritive powers of which are extremely small—so small, in fact, that when continued to be used exclusively for two or three months, or even less, it is found to be destructive of animal existence. The experiments of the commission were upon a very large scale on the lower animals; and from the analogy of the nutritive functions, it is fairly presumed that a like effect would attend the long continued use of gelatine by man.

JESSAMINE. A plant which bears a sweetly smelling flower, the essence of which is much used in perfumery. As this flower does not yield in distillation either sufficient essential oil, or the flavour of it is destroyed by heat, the perfume is obtained by steeping the flowers in very fine oil, for what is called huile antique; but what is called the essence of jessamine is obtained in France in the following manner:—A layer of the flowers is spread over the bottom of a hair-sieve, and upon the flowers is laid a layer of small and detached bits of cotton wool, which have been dipped in oil of ben, that oil being preferable to olive oil, as it does not turn rancid; over the cotton are laid other flowers, and so on alternately, flowers and cotton, until the sieve is full. When these have lain twenty-four hours, the flowers are taken away, and the cotton is laid in the same way between layers of fresh flowers, and this operation is repeated, until the cotton is thoroughly impregnated with the perfume of the jessamine; the cotton is then collected, put into a press, and the oil squeezed out. If kept as oil, it must be in well stopped bottles, but the usual plan is to add to it at once some very finely rectified spirits of wine, which is as odourless as possible,

and in this state the preparation is called essence of jessamine. The jonquille and other delicate flowers, which do not furnish a good essential oil by distillation, may be treated in the same way.

JUNIPER BERRY. A strong diuretic, conjoined with a tonic principle. In some parts of France, the juniper berry is fermented with barley, and made into beer. In Holland and in England, the berry is used in the distillation of gin, to give flavour. The oil of juniper, in doses of two to six drops, is a more powerful diuretic than any other known. The diuretic property of gin is wholly owing to the presence of the essential oil given out by this berry in distillation.

JUJUBES—(*Pâte de Jujubes*.) A composition for coughs and colds, made with gum-arabic and a decoction of the fruit of the jujub tree. The jujubes sold by the confectioners and druggists, however, seldom contain any of this decoction, nor does it indeed seem to be essential: when made from gum and sugar alone, the paste is not liable to fermentation, as when the vegetable decoction is mixed with it. The jujubes of commerce are made in the following manner:—Take half a pound of the whitest gum-arabic, and having broken it into the smallest pieces possible, dissolve it with one ounce of fine isinglass, in just the quantity of hot water necessary for that process, and no more. In the meantime, make a syrup with half a pound of fine loaf sugar, and the same weight of water; skim this frequently, and when it is become thick, pour into it the dissolved gum, previously strained through a flannel bag, and continue the boiling or rather simmering, skimming from time to time, until it is very thick; now set it by to cool, and when the greater part of the heat is gone off, pour in three or four drops of neroli. Before the syrup has begun to set thoroughly, pour it out upon a marble slab, and roll it to a thickness of about the eighth of an inch. Before it is quite cold, pass a large flat knife, like that used to cut a round of beef, under the paste, to prevent its sticking; and when cold, either cut the paste in small sheets, which are to be kept in a tin case, or into squares and diamonds. These jujubes are a good pectoral for colds, but they have, of course, no other medicinal virtue than that of the gum, which, taken without any preparation of this kind, would be equally efficacious.

KALE. See **CABBAGES**.

KID. The young of the goat. This, when very young, is of delicate flavour, and is by many preferred to lamb. In Portugal, kid is a regular dish at all the eating-houses, but it is seldom dressed in any other way than roasted. It may, however, be prepared for the table in all the modes prescribed for lamb.

KILLENG. The destruction of animals for the support of human life is not only justifiable, but appears from our formation, our teeth being partly carnivorous, to have been ordained by nature; and as the destruction of life by the direct hand of God is generally attended with more suffering than that which accompanies the infliction of death by human agency, when it is not unnecessarily protracted, there can be no cruelty in the operation. Unfortunately, however, the legislature is not sufficiently severe in the regulations for killing animals. Nothing can be more cruel than the barbarous mode in which oxen are sometimes killed, when by scientific means death might be rendered almost instantaneous; and even in the case of the smaller animals, required for domestic use, more expeditious, and consequently less cruel modes of killing might sometimes be adopted. In France, for instance, one has only to see the mode of preparing frogs for the table to be struck with the culpable negligence of the authorities on this subject. When the hind legs are cut off, the body and head of the animal are cast into a basket, where they remain for several hours, full of life; whereas, if they were thrown immediately into a strong solution of lime, or any other similar mixture, death would be instantaneous. It is pretended, indeed, that the cold-blooded animals have very little sensation of pain, and certainly they do appear to have less than those animals which are warm-blooded; but it is difficult to believe that, whilst the brain is capable of sensation, any animal that has received an injury can be entirely free from pain. We know that the limbs of frogs, taken from the body, and also detached portions of the eel, have muscular life even when skinned, long after their separation, but as the nerves of these portions have no longer any connexion with the brain, which is the seat of pain, there is nothing in the muscular agitation really calculated to excite horror, even in the most humane mind; but where the head and a portion of the trunk are left in connexion with each other, it is but reasonable to infer

that the protraction of life is the protraction of suffering. Humanity, even if there be a doubt on the subject, would therefore prescribe the rapid extinction of life in that part of the animal which is the seat of sensation. Habits of cruelty in the mode of slaughtering animals for domestic use tend materially to brutalize the mind, and are a sad example for young persons. There is, perhaps, no nation on earth in which greater cruelty is exercised in this way than in the French; and the want of feeling displayed by the lower orders of that people in the relations between each other may, perhaps, be not unfairly traced to an early indifference as to the sufferings of animals. It is much to be desired that all persons whose duty it is to slaughter animals for human food should acquire such a knowledge of the anatomy of the animal to be destroyed as would enable them to adopt the most expeditious mode; and masters of families, who attach any importance to considerations of humanity on the one hand, and of the brutalizing effect of cruelty on the other, would do well to study this subject themselves, and insist upon the adoption of the fruits of their study by those who are in their service.

KIRCHWASSER. A spirit distilled from cherries. The best kirchwasser, or kirchenwasser, is made in Switzerland. It is a dangerous liquor, if taken to excess, as it contains much of the principle of the prussic acid; but in small quantities, and mixed with water, is a good stomachic. In France, kirchwasser is made as follows:—Infuse for four days in two quarts of spirits of wine, half a pound of the kernels of cherries, bruised; then distil until rather less than the two quarts of spirits have come over; add twelve drops of neroli, two quarts more of spirits of wine, and two quarts of water. This will be improved if about two ounces of the bruised kernels of cherries be infused in half a pint of spirits of wine for a fortnight, and the infusion added.

LABARRAQUE'S DISINFECTING LIQUIDS. These are preparations of a celebrated French chemist, for the disinfection and cleansing of the air of rooms; their bases are the chloride of lime and chloride of sodium. They may be had of any druggist, with printed instructions on the bottles.

LAMB. This meat is in perfection only from the end of December to the beginning of April. The flesh of lamb is

white, tender, and gelatinous; but if the animal has been killed too young, or before it has been sucking, for at least five months, it is not easy of digestion. The best lambs for the table are those which have been nourished from the milk of the mother alone; but the fattest are those which have sucked from several other ewes at the same time.

LAMB CHOPS. Having cut a neck or a loin of lamb into chops, rub them over with a yolk of an egg, well beaten; then grate some bread fine, and mix with some chopped parsley, a little lemon-peel, pepper, salt, and a very small quantity of nutmeg, and sprinkle this over the chops; after which, fry them to a good colour, and serve with a sauce made of the trimmings of the chops, a bit of butter floured, and a little mushroom catsup. They may be served without gravy, if preferred.

LAMB CUTLETS. They should be cut off the loin, in small round bits, carefully trimming off the fat and skin: prepare them as above. Fry them to a good colour either in beef dripping or butter; serve with a brown sauce.

HASHED LAMB. Rub a piece of butter into some flour, with the point of a knife, until it is well mixed; then put it into a stewpan, with some mushrooms cut in pieces, and a bunch of herbs; moisten with stock, and let it stew gently till the sauce is nearly consumed; cut up some cold roast lamb into slices, and put into the stewpan, with the yolks of four eggs beat up with some milk; let it thicken over the fire, but do not let it boil: when served, add the juice of lemon. Cold roast meats of all sorts may be hashed in the same manner.

LAMBS' HEADS. Let the heads be well trimmed and blanched, and stew them with some good stock, a little French white wine, some parsley, a little salt, covering them with rashers of fat bacon, cut thin; when done, dish them, and pour over espagnole or pepper sauce, thickened with flour.

LAMB'S HEAD AND MINCE. After having scalded the head, and carefully removed all the hair, parboil it with the pluck; then divide the head, and take out the brains; mince the heart and lights, adding an onion shred fine; put it into a saucepan, with a little good thick gravy, and a little salt and pepper; let it stew gently for about three quarters of an hour. The head should be rubbed over with the yolk of an egg beaten up, and be covered with bread crumbs; stick bits of

butter in different parts over it, and brown before the fire: the liver is to be cut into slices, and fried; the brains to be formed into cakes. The head is to be served upon the mince, and the dish garnished with the liver and brain cakes.

LOIN OF LAMB A LA PERIGORD. Put a loin of lamb over a slow fire, in a stewpan, with a little oil, some mushrooms, and two shalots chopped fine, salt and pepper, and keep it over the fire until it is thoroughly warmed through; then have ready another stewpan, into which has been put slices of veal seasoned, a few thin rashers of fat bacon, four or five truffles cut in slices, and half a lemon sliced; put in the loin of lamb, moisten with gravy, and stew over a slow fire; when done, the lamb should be served on a dish with the truffles, and the sauce be strained and poured over.

LAMB PIE is made in the same manner as beef pie, (which see,) choosing for the purpose either chops from a loin, or steaks from a leg.

LAMBS' PURTENANCES. By this term are meant the head, liver, heart, lights, and feet. When they have been soaked in lukewarm water, and blanched, stew them with some stock, a few slices of bacon, a bunch of sweet herbs, some parsley, and a shalot; then put into another stewpan, some chives, onions, bay leaves, shalots, the juice of a lemon, a small quantity of salad oil, and a little good stock; let all these simmer together, without boiling. Well drain, and dish up the purtenances, placing the head in the centre and the other parts round it; serve, with the sauce strained in a sauce-boat.

TO ROAST A FORE QUARTER OF LAMB. The time required for dressing this joint is to allow a quarter of an hour to a pound. This is considered as a general rule in all roasting; but young meats require a longer time than more mature. It should be placed at first at a moderate distance from the fire, and gradually advanced; it must be well basted from time to time with butter. The gravy for it is made as for beef or mutton. When the shoulder is cut off, a lemon should be squeezed, and a little salt and pepper strewed on the rib part. The most usual manner of dressing the hind quarter is to boil the leg, (see **BOILED LEG OF MUTTON**,) and cut the loin into steaks; fry, and serve round the dish with the leg. Mint sauce is served in a tureen, and made by chopping fine some green spearmint, to which add vinegar, and a sufficient quantity of sugar

to give a certain degree of sweetness. Spinach boiled is the vegetable mostly eaten with lamb.

QUARTER OF LAMB ROASTED, (French method.) Take a fore quarter of lamb, lard the upper side of the joint with bacon, sprinkling the other side thickly with bread crumbs, and roast it, covering the joint with writing paper, buttered, to prevent its burning. When it is nearly done, take it from the fire, and again cover the unlarded side with bread crumbs, a little salt, and some parsley chopped very fine; then place it again by the fire, to brown it. Squeeze a lemon over it before serving.

TO STEW A BREAST OF LAMB. Put into a stewpan a glass of French white wine, some weak stock, a little pepper and salt, and a small bunch of sweet herbs; cut the lamb into pieces, and stew it in the above till quite tender; then thicken the sauce with a little roux. (See SAUCES.)

LAMBS' SWEETBREADS. See VEAL SWEETBREADS.

LAMBS' TROTTERS, (*à la Poulette*.) After having well scalded and cleaned the feet, take the bones out, and put the meat into a stewpan, with five or six large table-spoonfuls of velouté and some chopped parsley; thicken the sauce with an egg, and throw over the feet, shaking the stewpan well; add a little lemon juice and whole pepper. As the trotters are always bought in a parboiled state, they do not require much stewing, and must not be allowed to boil.

LARKS are considered very delicate eating. The usual mode of dressing them is by roasting, with thin slices of bacon fastened on their breasts. Dress with the trail, placing toasted bread under them, which is to be served with them, with melted butter and espagnole sauce, in a sauce tureen. They are also very good made into a pie, with forcemeat balls and slices of bacon, the dish covered with a rich crust. Before serving, pour into it some rich gravy.

LARKS WITH FINE HERBS. Having picked and trussed about a dozen and a half of larks, put them into a stewpan with a slice of butter, some salt, whole pepper, and a little allspice; set it on a clear fire, and when they have been boiled up for five or six minutes, add a little parsley, two shalots, some mushrooms, all chopped very fine; let it boil up again for five minutes, and then add two large table-spoonfuls of espagnole, and the same quantity of consommé; let

them stand on the fire for about five minutes more, shaking them well, and serve.

TO POT LARKS. Follow the directions given for potting pigeons, (see PIGEONS,) putting rather more spice.

LAUREL. The leaves of the common laurel are sometimes used in culinary preparations, to give flavour, but it should always be in very small quantity, for it contains a strong principle of prussic acid. It does not appear, however, that about the third of a large laurel leaf, in any dish, is dangerous. If laurel leaves be distilled in spirits of wine, they yield a liquor which would be poisonous if taken internally, but which has great virtue as an external application for rheumatic and other pains seated in the muscles. It has been sometimes used with effect for the face-ache, and even the tic-doloureux; the most simple and efficacious mode of application in such cases, however, is the leaf itself. Several laurel leaves, stripped of the projecting parts, to make them lie flat, are to be sewn together, and made hot before the fire; they are then laid on the part affected at night, being bound over with flannel, and are allowed to remain on until the morning. Very severe pains may be removed by this application.

LAVENDER. There are few plants more agreeable than this. The green leaves may be infused with balm and rosemary, for tea; in case of illness, the flowers distilled (see DISTILLATION) make a fine perfumed water, and the essential oil which comes over in distillation forms a component part of many perfumes. The dried flowers, placed among linen, yield a very pleasant odour; and burnt on a piece of red-hot iron, in a sick room, purify the atmosphere. Lavender is grown in enormous quantities in France, but it is very inferior to the English—at least, the essential oil sold by the druggists is so; but this may arise from the want of care in the preparation, or from being largely adulterated with oil of rosemary. The French oil of lavender has a greater empyreumatic flavour than the English, which should therefore be always used for perfumes; but if the French oil of lavender be diluted with a third of its bulk of spirits of wine, and kept for two or three years, it improves considerably. Lavender-water, or rather, spirits of lavender, may be made without distillation in the following manner:—Take a pint of good spirits of wine, an ounce of English oil of lavender, ten grains of musk, and an ounce of essence of am-

bergris; let them stand in a well-corked bottle for a month; then filter through blotting-paper, and put by in a well-corked bottle. This is a beautiful perfume, and improves much by keeping. Lavender should be propagated in the spring, by slips, in a dry, gravelly, or poor soil.

RED LAVENDER DROPS. Steep for a week in a pint of spirits of wine as many lavender flowers as the liquid will contain, with a drachm each of powdered nutmeg, cloves, mace, and cochineal; strain, filter, and bottle. A few drops are taken on sugar or in water, for nervous attacks and in bowel complaints.

LEECHES. It is always desirable, in large families, or in the country, at a distance from an apothecary, to have a certain number of leeches in the house for use, in case of accident or inflammation. Some care, however, is to be exercised in selecting and preserving them: they should neither be very large nor very small; very large leeches are generally less active than the smaller, but if they are too small, the bite will not be sufficient to produce the flow of blood that may be required. They are to be kept in wide-mouthed bottles, covered with muslin, to admit the air and prevent their escape; and the water must be changed, in winter once a week, and in summer at least twice. In very hot weather the water should be changed every other day, and the leeches should be separately cleaned gently with the hand, to get rid of the slime, if they are much covered with it, and then be placed in a sieve before they are returned to the bottle, and cold water should be frequently poured over them. When they are required for use, those which it is intended to apply should be put into a bottle without water, for four or five hours in winter, and about two hours in summer, for they are thus irritated, and bite freely. If the weather be very cold, they may be warmed by the breath, or placed for a short time before the fire; and before each leech is applied, it should be gently wiped with a towel. The usual mode of applying leeches is to hold them one by one in a towel, until they have bitten; but this is a tedious practice. It is much better to put three or four at a time into a wine-glass, and to hold the glass over the part; in this way they almost always bite rapidly. Leeches should be kept in a very cool place, and the water which is put to them should be as nearly as possible of the temperature of that which is

taken away. They must also be looked at from time to time, to see that none are dead; for a dead leech must be removed immediately—the decomposition would endanger the lives of all in the bottle. Many of the leeches which are imported from Germany are taken by throwing fresh meat in the ponds, upon which they feed, and are then taken out gorged, and comparatively useless. The best are those which are taken by men who go into the ponds bare-legged; the leech having laid hold, is immediately removed, and put into a vessel brought for the purpose.

LEEKS. Two kinds of leeks are cultivated for the table—the long, and the short; they are both very wholesome, and in a cooked state are a mild diuretic, but they have a much stronger effect if taken raw. One of the best diuretics for domestic use are the fibres from the bottom of the root, washed, and steeped for a week in Hollands gin; about half a wine-glass to be taken at night in a tumbler of water. The long leek is more productive than the short, but it does not resist the frost so well as the latter. Leeks are raised much in the same way as onions: they are sown in beds about the end of March, and are thinned out to about from four to six inches apart; the leaves should be topped two or three times during the summer, which causes the stem to swell and lengthen. Leeks are much used in soups, and they are also very good boiled, and served with melted butter, or stewed with good gravy; they may also be made into a pie in the same manner as parsley, (see **PARSLEY**,) using only the white parts.

LEMON. An acid fruit, the juice of which is much used for flavouring various dishes; for mixing with sugar and water, as a beverage called lemonade; for flavouring punch, and a variety of other purposes. The juice of the lemon evaporated and crystallized is called citric acid; this may be used as a substitute for the juice itself in many cases, where a pure acid is required, but it has not the fine flavour of the juice. Lemon-juice and citric acid are much used in medicine, for neutralizing alkalies, such as soda, &c., forming an effervescing draught: taken by itself, this acid is liable to the objection of all other acids, as to its effect upon the system; but in diseases requiring the administration of acids, lemon-juice appears to be preferable to all others. The outer rind of the lemon has a rich and agreeable

fragrance, and when distilled gives the essence of lemon, which alone, or mixed with other perfumes, is highly pleasant. Lemon peel is also much used to give a flavour to various culinary preparations. Sugar rubbed upon the rind of a lemon receives its essential oil, and in this state gives a fine flavour to punch or any other mixture. The rind of the lemon, when candied, by boiling it in syrup, and drying it in the mode recommended for various fruits in this *DICTIONARY*, is much used in making puddings, cakes, &c.; it is sold by all grocers at so moderate a price that the trouble of preparing it may easily be avoided. The juice of the lemon, mixed with clarified honey, is considered a fine remedy for coughs. The juice may be purified by adding to it fresh charcoal, finely powdered, in proportion of an ounce to a quart of the strained juice; when this has stood twelve hours, it is to be filtered through blotting-paper, put into small phials, corked tightly, and kept in a cool place. If intended to be kept for a long time, an equal weight of finely-powdered sugar should be added to it. Lemons may be kept for a considerable period, if hung up separately in small nets, and kept in a cool dry place. The dry peel of a lemon, when grated, gives a nice flavour to many dishes; a pleasant marmalade is also made from lemon, in the same way as with oranges, allowing a larger quantity of sugar, in consequence of the excess of acid, and adding to the flavour by grating some dried peel. Lemons grow in almost all southern climates, and large quantities are imported from Portugal.

LEMONADE. This is merely the mixture of lemon juice with sugar and water, forming a very agreeable beverage in warm weather, but injurious to weak stomachs, unless taken with great moderation. It is said, however, that if taken in the aerated form, it is much less likely to disagree with the stomach. The aerated lemonade made for sale is nothing more than carbonic gas forced into the lemonade by great pressure. For domestic use, the addition of a sufficient quantity of carbonate of soda to cause effervescence produces an agreeable and wholesome drink. If aerated lemonade be made for bottling, the following plan may be adopted:—Having prepared the lemonade not quite so sweet as it is intended to be, make a very thick syrup of sugar; and when nearly done, stir into it a quantity of carbonate of soda, sufficient to give

about half a drachm to each bottle; pour out the syrup into a plate or dish previously oiled, and when the sugar is nearly cold, divide it with a knife into as many portions as there are to be bottles of lemonade; roll up each portion in writing paper in an elongated form, so that it may enter the bottle freely. As this will not dissolve immediately, there will be abundant time to cork the bottles without loss of gas. The bottles then being corked, and carefully tied over and sealed, the lemonade may be kept fit for drinking for two or three months.

LENTILLE. A kind of flat pea, much used in the south of France, but little known in England. The lentille is a very productive plant, and contributes largely towards the support of the poorer classes in the countries where it is cultivated. The flavour of this pea, however, is not very agreeable; it may be cooked in the same way as the common garden pea.

LETTUCES. This is an agreeable vegetable, and exceedingly sedative. The expressed juice of fresh lettuces is used with much benefit in cases of pulmonary disease, and it is also said to be a substitute, in large quantities, for opium, without any of the dangerous properties of that drug. The juice of the lettuce converted into extract is a very useful article in domestic medicine, for coughs, and difficulty of breathing; it may be made in the following manner:—Chop up four or five lettuces with their stalks, having cleaned and trimmed them, in a sufficient quantity of water to cover the vegetable; boil this over a slow fire for about two hours, then strain off the liquid; when cold, pour it off very gently, so as to leave behind any sediment that may be in it, and evaporate the liquid in a shallow pan that will stand the heat, taking care to place it at such a distance from the fire that the evaporation shall go on very slowly; when it is evaporated to such an extent as to be very thick, add to it a little thick syrup to give it flavour. The evaporation should be continued sufficiently long to yield at the utmost only two wineglassfuls of extract, which must be put into a bottle, and corked closely; when required for use, one or two teaspoonfuls may be taken in water every morning and evening, always at least half an hour after eating. The two kinds of lettuce in most general use are the coss and the cabbage lettuce, but of both of these sorts there

are many varieties. Of the former, the Egyptian green and the Versailles are the most esteemed; and of the latter, the sorts mostly cultivated are the Roman and the White Celicia or Lisbon. An early sowing may be made under a frame, in January; and when large enough, transplanted at distances of about twelve or fifteen inches. The ground for lettuces should be well manured with good rotten stable dung; an old cucumber bed is the best suited for this purpose. The seed should be sown very thin, and merely raked in. When the plants are very young, and the nights and mornings are frosty, cover the beds with matting. The principal sowing for the summer supply should be made about the end of March, if the weather be open; but in order to keep up a regular succession of plants, a small quantity of seed should be sown every three weeks. In dry weather, let the young plants be well watered, and the beds kept clear from weeds. The cabbaging of cos and other lettuces is forwarded by tying up the leaves with strands of matting; do not tie up too many of the plants at a time. The lettuce is seldom used in England, except as a salad, or to stew with peas, or in green-pea soup; but on the Continent, they are cooked in different ways, although there they are mostly used in salads.

BOILED LETTUCES. Wash and boil them in boiling water, with a little salt, until tender; strain them in a colander, and chop them up; then put them into a saucepan with some fresh butter, a spoonful of flour, a little nutmeg, salt, and the juice of a lemon; let the whole boil for a quarter of an hour. This may be varied by omitting the lemon juice, adding some good cream, and thickening with the yolks of two eggs.

STUFFED LETTUCES. Choose some large cabbage lettuces, and having boiled them a quarter of an hour, dip them into cold water and let them drain; then open the leaves without breaking them, and fill the centre part with a good forcemeat, and tie them up; stew them for a short time, then drain them on a cloth, dip them in a batter, and fry to a good colour. When done, cover them with bread crumbs, and serve with some white sauce.

LIGHT. This being a very important article of expenditure in a family, every practicable economy should be attempted. The cheapest light, when burnt by measure, is that of gas; but as there are

many objections to the use of this light in private houses, it is seldom seen there, except in kitchens and out-offices. Whenever gas can be had for the use of the kitchen, it ought to be preferred; for the master or mistress of the house may, by means of a cock placed under their own control, regulate the quantity of light to be given, and prevent the waste which is so common in oil and candles. As regards these latter articles, it is always an economy to use the best oil in those lamps which, from their construction, give the greatest quantity of light, with the least comparative expenditure of oil. Great improvements have recently been made in the manufacture of lamps, by which an addition of at least 20 per cent. of light is now obtained without additional consumption of oil. In candles, there does not appear to be a very great saving in adopting those imitations of wax called composition candles, which are, for the greater part, made of compressed tallow, mixed not unfrequently with some white powder, to give them consistency and weight. The real comparative cost of different kinds of candles, and of the light of various kinds of lamps, can only be ascertained by the following experiment, the eye alone not furnishing a conclusive test on this subject:—A stick of deal, or any other wood, about five feet in height, and two inches square, is fixed in a stand; at a few inches from the top of this stick, place a projecting piece of wood, with a slit in it to admit of the introduction of a card; place upon the wall, at a distance of about a foot from this stick or frame, a sheet of white paper. In order to try the comparative strength of any two lights, such for instance as a candle and a lamp, place the candle in such a situation that the shadow of the card shall be thrown full upon the sheet of paper which is placed upon the wall; then bring the lamp, which has been previously kept covered, and place it at such a distance from the card that the shadow shall become double, each portion having the same strength of shade; as long as the shadow from the lamp is darker than that from the candle, the lamp must be removed more and more until the shadow has become of the same hue; when this is the case, measure the distance, first, from the shadow to the candle, and multiply it by its square. We will suppose this distance to be six feet, which multiplied by six will give thirty-six; we will next suppose that the lamp is at a distance

of twelve feet, twelve multiplied by twelve gives one hundred and forty-four; now, divide the larger number by the smaller, namely, one hundred and forty-four by thirty-six, and the result will be four, thus shewing that the light of the lamp is equal to the light of four candles. The light of different lamps, and of common candles of different descriptions, may be ascertained in the same way. The comparative cost of any particular lamp or candle is easily obtained, by ascertaining the duration of the time of burning; for instance, we will suppose a pint of oil, with which a lamp is filled, to cost one shilling, and to burn twelve hours, this will give one penny per hour; now, if four candles, weighing a pound, and costing one shilling, be lighted at the same time and burn only eight hours, then there is a saving of oil as compared with candles of one-third, for we have seen that the lamp gave the light of four candles. This mode of ascertaining the comparative powers of different modes of lighting should occasionally be practised by persons who burn gas by measure, as they will thus be able to ascertain the real cost of their light as compared with oil or candle. To do this, the gas light, which is always the strongest, is to perform the same part in the experiment as the oil lamp would do in the experiment with the candle. It may be stated here, as a general observation, that when coal gas is of a good average quality, a sixteen hole burner gives as much light as that yielded by two good lamps; by ascertaining, therefore, the cost of each per hour, the saving to the consumer may be at once ascertained.

LIME, Burnt Chalk, or Limestone. The use of lime in domestic economy, although not attended with much variety, is really important. The preparation called chloride of lime which is sold by druggists has a most powerful effect in correcting miasmatic exhalations of every kind; and these will, in spite of the greatest cleanliness, sometimes occur. A little of this liquid thrown over water-closets, which are imperfectly ventilated, immediately removes all offensive odour, and it has the same effect with drains, decayed vegetable or animal matter, &c. In the sick room, it is indispensable; as it corrects the atmosphere, and renders it wholesome, not merely for the patient, but by all who are in attendance. The powder of lime recently slacked is useful in removing stains from

grease in floors, &c.; the best mode, however, is to place a piece of quick lime, previously dipped in water, over the stain, and allow it to fall to pieces where it has been placed. Lime water, which is made by putting an ounce of quicklime into a pint of water, and decanting the liquid, when the lime has been slacked and is well settled at the bottom, is one of the finest remedies known for acidities of the stomach, and to correct diarrhœa, some of this water being taken from time to time in milk. Lime water made of greater strength, and mixed with oil, is a preservative from rust; and also in its pure state for preserving eggs. The powder of lime mixed with litharge is used for dying hair. (See **HAIR DYE**.) Lime may be also employed for cooking, but this is rather a curious than an useful process. In a tin box, so made that a drawer may contain the chop or steak to be cooked, (and these only can be well dressed in this way,) and the heat evolved from the lime may be received on all parts of the drawer, put a large piece of quicklime, previously wetted. The box must be so contrived, that none of the heat can escape.

LIME. A fruit rather smaller than the lemon, which it resembles very much in appearance, and also in its properties. The juice of the lime is, however, preferred by many punch-drinkers to that of the lemon. The lime may be used as a substitute for the lemon in almost all cases.

LIP SALVE. This is made by simmering together over a slow fire two ounces of virgin wax, two ounces of fresh suet, one ounce of spermaceti, one ounce of oil of sweet almonds, half an ounce of balsam of Peru, one ounce of honey, and a little alkanet root, bruised, to give colour; after simmering for a quarter of an hour, strain through muslin, and put into pots. Dr. Guerin recommends that lip salve should be made in the following manner:—Take two ounces of oil of sweet almonds, half an ounce of white wax, half an ounce of rose-water; set a mortar in a vessel containing boiling water, and put the wax, cut into very small pieces, into the mortar; when it has melted, take out the mortar and add the oil by degrees, beating with the pestle until it is a little cool; then mix the rose-water, or instead of that, four or five drops of otto of roses, with the mass. If it is to be coloured, rub up a little carmine with the oil before mixing it with the wax. This is a more

elegant preparation than the above, and answers the purpose equally well.

LIQUEURS. These are made in two ways, either by distillation or infusion; but there are very few liqueurs which are not nearly as good when made by infusion as they would be by the other more tedious process; it is only where the flavouring substance has a deteriorated flavour, in the form of essential oil, that distillation is necessary. As liqueurs are usually sold at a high price, and they can be manufactured at home with perfect ease, the following instructions for making them will be found useful.

HUILE DE ROSE. Make a syrup of a pound of sugar, (see **SUGAR**.) with just such a quantity of water as will give, when boiled, about a pint of syrup; when this is perfectly cold, add to it a pint of good white French brandy, and about ten drops of otto of rose, colouring it of a rich pink by a tincture of cochineal, which may be made by boiling some crushed cochineal in a little water, and straining it off fine. Brandy may be replaced with economy by well rectified spirits of wine, using rather less than two-thirds of the quantity of brandy; it is essential, however, that the spirits of wine should be of the best quality.

NOYEAU. Considerations of health as well as economy should induce the house-keeper to make this liqueur at home, for the common mode of making it is by using bitter almonds, which, from the quantity of prussic acid they contain, may cause great injury. Sometimes, indeed, noyveau is flavoured by prussic acid itself. The richest and the best way of making noyveau is to collect the kernels of peaches, apricots, and plums, and having bruised them, put them to steep, for about a fortnight or three weeks, in strong spirits of wine, in the proportion of three ounces of kernels to half a pint of spirit; about half a dozen blanched bitter almonds may be added, for in this quantity they increase the flavour without being injurious. The syrup is then to be made in the same way as recommended above, and mixed with brandy or spirits of wine, using just so much of the clear tincture of the kernels as will give a fine rich flavour to the liqueur; this may be easily ascertained by adding the tincture slowly, and tasting it from time to time; if pink noyveau be required, the colouring tincture, as above, must be used.

LIQUEUR STOMACHIQUE. This preparation was long a secret; it is simply

an infusion of the kernels of apricots in spirits of wine. When using apricots for jam, preserve the kernels, and having beaten them in a mortar, put the paste into spirits of wine, in the proportion of an ounce of kernels to half a pint of spirit. Infuse for a fortnight, then filter or pour off carefully. Persons of weak digestion may take a teaspoonful twice or thrice a day, in water; or the infusion may be used with safety and benefit in flavouring pastry, &c. The principle of the prussic acid resides in this infusion, but so blended with other vegetable substances as not to be dangerous, except in immoderate doses. In some cases of nervous indigestion this is a sovereign remedy; the dose may be extended to a table-spoonful by degrees. By adding some of this infusion to a mixture of strong syrup and spirits of wine, (nearly two-thirds syrup,) a fine noyveau is obtained; the quantity of the infusion is to be regulated according to taste.

VESPETRO. This is a very favourite cordial on the Continent; it is made as follows:—Take equal quantities of angelica seed, aniseed, fennel seed, and coriander seed, and let them steep in white brandy or spirits of wine for about a month, shaking the bottle from time to time; when ready for use, proceed with the syrup and spirit as above, regulating the flavour in the same way as for the tincture of the kernels, but observing that as this is a stomachic cordial, and is used in some respects as a medicine, the flavour must be rather a marked one. For this liquor, as for the others, brandy, if it be really good, is to be preferred to spirits of wine; the latter ought never to be made a substitute where pure French brandy can be obtained.

Dr. Guerin, in his *Chymiste Populaire*, a work which has gone through several editions, gives the following receipts for liqueurs, with the proportion of sugar and water as stated under the head **SYRUP**, in this **DICTIONARY**; we would recommend, however, that the syrup should be boiled, for the reasons stated in that article, observing the same proportions of sugar and water as prescribed by Dr. Guerin, but allowing for the evaporation in boiling, and deducting the quantity of spirit accordingly:—

ALKEERMES. Pound one drachm of cardamom seeds, one drachm of nutmegs, two drachms of cinnamon; infuse for a week in some of the spirit, then strain and filter; add to this five drops of otto of

rose, and proceed as with any other liqueur. Colour, rose colour.

ANISETTE. To five pints of good spirits of wine add a drachm and a half of essence (oil) of aniseed, eight drops of oil of cinnamon, and add the syrup as recommended under the head **SYRUP**.

BAUME HUMAIN. Eight drops of oil of cinnamon, eight of oil of mace, twenty-four of essence of cedrat, and three of otto of rose.

CURAÇAO. Boil for five minutes in the syrup, the juice and rind of four large oranges and three bitter oranges; strain and filter; add six drops of oil of cinnamon and six drops of neroli. This is also made by simply infusing the peel of four bitter oranges in some of the spirit for a week, and adding the infusion, without the cinnamon or neroli, to the other spirit and syrup.

CREME DE PORTUGAL. Two drachms of essence of Portugal.

CREME DE JASMIN. Two drachms of essence of jessamine.

CREME A LA FLEUR D'ORANGE. One drachm of neroli.

EAU DE CHASSEUR. Thirty-six drops of oil of mint, twelve of nutmeg. A very strong cordial, and therefore called hunting water.

ELIXIR DE NEROLI. Infuse four drachms of myrrh in some of the spirit, for a week; then filter, and add twenty-four drops of neroli.

EXTRAIT D'ABSINTHE. (Wormwood cordial.) One drachm of oil of wormwood, one drachm of oil of aniseed, half a drachm of fennel seed, and sixty drops of tincture of benzoin; this liqueur is generally mixed with water, and taken before dinner, to procure an appetite.

GOLD WATER. Ten drops of oil of mace, six drops of oil of cinnamon, and one drachm of essence of lemon; filter when the spirit and syrup are added; then put two gold leaves rubbed up in a mortar with a little honey to each bottle.

MINT. (Huile de Menthe.) Take one drachm of essence (oil) of mint. It may here be remarked, that when Dr. Guerin speaks of essences he means the essential oil of the article.

HUILE CORDIALE. Twelve drops of oil of mint, eight drops of oil of cinnamon, six of cloves, and six of nutmeg.

HUILE DE THÉ. Infuse for a week two ounces of good green tea in a pint of spirits of wine.

HUILE DE GIROPLE. (Clove cordial.) Half a drachm of oil of cloves.

HUILE DE LA MARTINIQUE. One drachm of oil of vanilla, ten drops of neroli, (see **NEROLI**,) and eight drops of oil of cinnamon.

HUILE DE RHUM. This is made simply by using rum instead of spirits of wine with the syrup, without any other article.

HUILE D'ANANAS. (Pineappleliqueur.) Infuse for a week a pound and a half of pineapple, scraped, in the spirits of wine which is to be used; then strain off, and add the syrup.

HUILE DE CANNELLE. Half a drachm of oil of cinnamon and three drops of oil of cloves.

HUILE DE KIRCHWASSER. Use the kirchwasser simply with the syrup, without other admixture.

HUILE DE VIOLETTES. Three ounces of dried violets, boiled for two minutes with water and sugar, and when strained and filtered, added to the spirits and syrup.

MARASQUINO. One drachm of oil of marasquino and one quart of kirchwasser; there are to be one pound of sugar and one pint of spirit less than the general quantity ordered.

PARFAIT AMOUR. One drachm of essence of lemon, eight drops of neroli, and eight of otto of rose.

RATAFIA OF RASPBERRIES. The juice of three pounds of the fruit, strained and filtered; strawberry ratafia is to be made in the same way. In order to make up for the extra liquid, the syrup should contain rather more sugar; the best plan is to boil the juice for a few minutes with a pound and a half of sugar. (For other Ratafias, see that word.)

ROSOLIO. One drachm of vanilla is to be put, for a week, in about half a pint of the spirit to be used; then strain and filter. Use this liquor with six drops of neroli and five drops of otto of rose; boil the syrup, before mixing, with the juice of six oranges and one ounce of syrup of capillaire; then filter and mix.

SILVER WATER. One drachm of oil of cedrat, four drops of otto of rose, and six drops of extract of angelica; two leaves of silver to each bottle.

All other essential oils and essences may be used in the same way, varying the quantity to taste.

The undermentioned liqueurs are generally made by distillation, by the following process:—Six pints of water are put into the still with a pint and a half of spirits of wine, in which the aromatics &c. which are to be distilled have been

infused for a few days. The distillation is to stop when a pint and a half has been drawn off; this is to be added to three pints and a half of spirit, and then the syrup, as in the foregoing receipts; the whole being filtered.

ANISETTE DE BORDEAUX. Eight ounces of green anise (the leaves), one ounce of coriander seed, and four drachms of cinnamon.

CREME DE MOKA. Eight ounces of well-roasted ground coffee.

CREME DE CACAO, (Cocoa.) Eight ounces of ground cocoa nibs.

CREME DE NOYEAU. Twelve ounces of apricot kernels and eight ounces of peach kernels, broken, and infused for three weeks with a drachm of cinnamon; instead of infusing in a pint and a half of spirit, take two pints, and add the other three pints afterwards.

CREME D'ABSINTHE. Six ounces of green wormwood, and two ounces of aniseed, bruised.

CREME IMPERIALE. One ounce of cinnamon, one ounce of carrot seed, two ounces of angelica seed, and two ounces of powdered iris.

DISTILLED CURAÇAO. Infuse for forty-eight hours only, the rinds of three bitter oranges and four lemons, one ounce of cinnamon, one drachm of aniseed, and one of cloves. (Colour as for Curaçao, by infusion.)

EAU CORDIALE. Two ounces of cardamoms, one of cinnamon, one of cloves, and two drachms of myrrh.

EAU DE VIE D'AUDAYE. Two ounces of green anise, two ounces of angelica seed, one ounce of cinnamon, and one ounce of juniper berries. In this receipt only one-fourth of the usual quantity of sugar is to be used.

EAU DE VIE DE DANTZIC. Four ounces of cocoa, one ounce of cinnamon, four drachms of mace, and the rinds of four lemons; when filtered, add a gold leaf to each bottle.

ELIXIR DE GARUS. Two drachms of socotrine aloes, the same of cinnamon, nutmegs, and cloves, three drachms of each of dried lemon and orange peel. This cordial is used medicinally in France.

HUILE DE CELERI. Three ounces of celery seed.

IRISH SCUBAC. Increase the spirit and syrup by one pint each; take the rinds of two lemons, coriander, angelica, and aniseed, of each one drachm, two drachms of cinnamon, half a drachm each of cloves and mace; infuse for three days, then

distil; add twelve drops of neroli. Colour a deep yellow.

LIQUEUR DES MILLE FLEURS. Among the almost innumerable liqueurs sold in Paris is one under the above name, which we are gravely assured by a very celebrated work, *L'Encyclopédie Domestique*, is made as follows:—"Collect in hot and dry weather, and when it has been dry for several days, the dung of cows in the meadows which has become quite dry from the action of the sun, choosing those which have the strongest smell of musk; infuse five ounces of it in five quarts of spirits of wine and four quarts of water for twenty-four hours, then distil slowly in the water-bath; it will yield a fine aromatic spirit, which is to be mixed with a syrup made with five pounds of sugar and four quarts of water, the whole being afterwards filtered."

VESPETRO. Two ounces of angelica seed, one ounce of cinnamon, two drachms of mace, one drachm of coriander, and the rind of three lemons and two oranges—these are better without infusion; put them into the still with the spirit and water.

Many of the above liqueurs may be coloured: for red colour, use an infusion of Brazil wood; for violet, cochineal, boiled with a little alum, and filtered; for yellow, use saffron, boiled and filtered; for green, infuse trefoil leaves.

LIQUORICE. A hardy plant, which is grown very extensively for its root; it will thrive in all moderate climates, but the liquorice of Spain and Italy is in the highest reputation. In its fresh state, it is used by many of the druggists for infusions, either to sweeten other liquids or for its own medicinal virtues, which are highly pectoral; in the state called Spanish liquorice, which is the juice of the root evaporated from a strong decoction, it is excellent for colds, and has the great advantage over many other pectoral medicines of being slightly laxative, and of being harmless to the stomach, no matter the quantity which may be taken, for the worst that can happen is a little nausea from an excess of saccharine matter. In the south of France, mothers, when their children are teething, put a bit of liquorice root into their mouths, instead of adopting the absurd use of coral or crystal, which only hardens the gums, and augments the pain and danger. The plant requires a good soil, and may be propagated by cuttings from the roots, which are not fit for use until three years old.

LOOKING GLASSES AND WINDOWS, TO CLEAN. Dip a sponge in spirits of wine, and rub well over the glass; then dust well with powdered whiting, and clean off with soft linen cloths.

LOVING-CUP. A very agreeable beverage, much used by sportsmen. Toast some bread, and place it in a large cup or bowl, which will hold two quarts; grate over it some nutmeg, and pour on a quart of ale, and two-thirds of a bottle of sherry, sweetening to taste with syrup of sugar; immediately before serving, add a bottle of soda water.

LOZENGES AND PASTILLES. These are now sold at so cheap a rate, and in such variety, by the chemists and confectioners, that it is hardly worth the trouble of making them at home, where they cannot necessarily be made of such perfect shape; a few receipts, however, may be given.

BLACK CURRANT LOZENGES. Put black currants into a preserving pan, and press out the juice with a spoon; then squeeze them through a sieve, and having got out the juice, put to every pint four ounces of sugar, and half an ounce of isinglass, and boil, stirring frequently, until it is become very thick; pour this out into plates, to the required thickness, and dry in a drying stove, or slow oven, or before the fire, for three or four days; then cut out the paste into squares or rounds, and put into boxes in white paper.

ROSE LOZENGES. Triturate two pounds of loaf sugar in a mortar, sift it, and put the fine powder into a pan, with four ounces of rose water, or four ounces of water with six drops of otto of rose, dissolved in a little spirits of wine; as soon as it boils, stir in the other sugar, and then drop the syrup in drops upon a cold marble or metal slab. Peppermint, lemon, lavender, ginger, and any other lozenges may be made in the same way, by mixing the quantity of essential oil required, according to taste, in the water with which the syrup is made. The essential oils are all to be dissolved in spirits of wine previously. The essence of ginger is made by infusing powdered ginger in spirits of wine, and filtering at the end of a few days. All these lozenges may be coloured with infusions in water of carmine, cochineal, &c., adding a very small quantity of alum to the infusion, to bring out the colour. Acidulated lozenges are made by adding the solution of citric acid. Medicated lozenges are made by adding

the required drug, in its liquid state, by infusion, to the syrup; but these lozenges may all be had of the chemists. Chocolate lozenges are made by mixing very finely powdered chocolate with the syrup, and dropping it in the same way; but in this case the quantity of sugar is to be less, and the water more; the chocolate should fall in drops, like a thick paste; half a pound of sweet chocolate, in fine powder, should be mixed with enough syrup to make it liquid and no more.

MACARONI. A paste made of flour in a peculiar way, and dried. It is sold by the grocers in different shapes, but generally in pipes. The best macaroni is prepared in Italy. The Neapolitan mode of cooking it is to boil it plainly in water and salt, and then put it into a soup dish, with an alternate layer of grated Parmesan cheese, sprinkling the layers with some hot gravy, and pouring over the top layer melted butter, in the proportion of half a pound to two pounds of macaroni. In France, macaroni is boiled, in the first instance, in plain water and salt, and the water being poured off, a little butter, and grated Gruyère and Parmesan cheese are added, with a few spoonfuls of cream or gravy, according to taste. Some cooks, however, in cooking macaroni, do not make two boilings, but add butter in the first instance, and boil for three quarters of an hour before the cheese is added. The most favourite way of eating macaroni is to boil it well with a little butter and water, till it has swelled properly; then taking it out of the saucepan, putting it in a fire-proof dish, and covering it with crumbs of bread, grated Parmesan cheese, and a sufficient quantity of fresh butter to keep it moist; this must be browned under a brazing pan, or by a salamander.

MACE. The second coat of the nutmeg. It was an article formerly very much used in cookery and medicine, but is now less so. It is highly aromatic, but disagreeable if in excess; as many persons dislike the flavour of mace, it should never be used in cooking for mixed parties. As a stomachic, it resembles nutmeg in its effects. Mace water may be made by distillation, in the same way as clove water: it also yields a strong essential oil.

MALLOW. A very mucilaginous plant, the decoction of which is much recommended for colds and urinary affections. In France, a paste, called "*Pâte de*

Guimauve," is sold as a remedy for coughs and colds, but no mallows enter into the composition; the basis of this preparation is gum. (See GUM.)

MANNA. The concrete juice of a species of ash, which grows in the East and in the south of Europe. It is in some countries still used as food, but in Europe it is employed as a laxative medicine for children.

MAPLE TREE. The evaporated juice of this tree is much used as a sugar in the United States; it is, however, of very inferior quality to sugar made from the cane or the beet-root.

MARJORAM is used as a seasoning for the kitchen, and as an infusion for colds, indigestion, &c. The sweet marjoram is obtained from seed sown in the spring; pot marjoram may be propagated by slips or cuttings, and will stand the winter, if placed in a sheltered border, with a dry soil.

MARMALADES. For this preparation of fruit, see under the heads of the different fruits.

MASTICS. There are two sorts of mastics necessary in domestic economy: first, for china and earthenware; secondly, for glass.

FOR CHINA AND EARTHENWARE. Burn some oyster-shells in the fire, and pound them, by beating them in a mortar until the powder is become very fine, then sift through a fine sieve, so as to have the powder impalpable; when thus prepared, put it into a bottle with a ground glass stopper, and keep it by for use. In using it, beat up the white of an egg, and having let it stand some time to settle, make a paste with some of the powder, sufficiently liquid to join closely the edges of the broken article; the pieces are to be held firmly together for a few minutes, until the mastic has set.

MASTIC FOR GLASS. Cut some good cheese into shreds, and having put it into boiling water, agitate it and press it well until it has become of the consistency of thick gruel; then mix with it a sufficient quantity of very finely-powdered quick lime to form a thin paste, and rub it over the broken edges of the glass which is to be repaired, pressing the edges closely together.

MEAD. A liquor made from honey. It is of two sorts, vinous and simple. To make the vinous mead, boil twenty pounds of honey in thirty quarts of water, and skim frequently; when this has been reduced by evaporation to one half, put

half of it into a cask capable of containing the whole; cover over the bung with a piece of coarse linen, and set the cask near a fireplace to ferment; the other half of the liquid is in the meantime to be kept in bottles in a cool place, with the mouths tied over well with linen; as the mead in the cask works and leaves a space, fill up by degrees with the mead from the bottles. The working will continue for two or three months, according to the temperature; when it ceases, bung up the cask, and a year afterwards bottle the liquor: the bottles must stand for a month upright, and then be laid down in sand. When the mead has been a month in cask, add some aromatics, such as ginger, cloves, cinnamon, &c., to correct the taste of the honey. Mead made in this way is a very strong and agreeable drink. "The juice of fruits," says the *Encyclopédie Domestique*, "may be added when the honey and water are being boiled. In the Jura, the common people make a mead by boiling all that remains of the honeycombs, after extracting the honey without pressure." Simple mead is made by boiling ten pounds of honey in twenty quarts of water, reducing it one third, and skimming; fill a barrel of the proper size, leave it for four days to settle without fermentation, and draw it off for use. A very wholesome beer may be made by fermenting the mixture, when it has been boiled and strained, with some good yeast, the liquid being at the same temperature as for making beer. It may be fined and bottled in the same way as beer from malt.

MELON. There is great variety in this fruit, in size, appearance, and flavour, but little as to its properties. It is cold and indigestible, and should never be eaten without pepper and salt, drinking at the same time a glass or two of generous wine. In England, melon is usually served with the dessert, but this is seldom the case in France; it is there eaten after the soup; and it is sometimes used for making soup, almost the only mode of culinary preparation that it undergoes. To grow melons, the seed should be sown towards the end of January, in a hot bed, putting three seeds, previously soaked in water for five or six hours, under each glass; the glasses are then to be covered with straw to protect them from cold, and this kind of shelter is to be continued, if necessary, during a part of the day as well as at night, until they are transplanted, giving them air from time to

time, by raising one side of the glass, and placing under it a bit of wood or a stone. When fit to transplant, proceed as with cucumbers, and water when necessary. As the melons advance to maturity, they are to be watered, but never to excess, as that would render the fruit aqueous. The ripeness of the melon may be known by its colour, and by the stalk beginning to detach itself. If it is to be sent to any distance before it is eaten, it must be gathered before it is quite ripe; indeed, many who have melon beds prefer this plan for their own use, as the fruit does not deteriorate by being gathered in an unripe state, and kept in the house for two or three days. Slices of melon, divested of the rind and outer coating, may be preserved in sugar in the following manner:—Boil them gently in syrup for three or four minutes, take them out when cold, and lay them in cold water; repeat this operation four or five times, and then put them in jars, with some of the syrup. If they are to be preserved with brandy, this spirit should be added to the syrup in which they are placed, after the different boilings, in the proportion of one half. When eaten raw, melons frequently bring on flatulency, and sometimes cholice.

MICE. The best protector against the ravages of these little animals is a good cat; but where this is not found effectual, poison may be laid for them, as for rats (see RATS). A smaller quantity will, of course, suffice. Three or four grains of strychnine would be sufficient to destroy thirty or forty; the nux vomica alone, boiled with grain, is generally found effectual. Mice, when numerous, are even a greater nuisance than rats, as they find their way to cupboards, and render the food which they do not eat unfit for use by the dirt which they leave upon it. Traps of various kinds have been devised for catching mice: one of the most ingenious is a jar half filled with water, on which is strained a piece of parchment; towards the middle of the parchment it is cut through in different ways, and a piece of cheese is so placed, than when the mouse nibbles it the parchment gives way, and causes the animal to drop into the water.

MILK. The quality of milk may be ascertained by various scientific processes, but the smell and colour are sufficient for persons who attend to the results of experience: when the blue tint is evident, the milk is not unctuous; and when too clear,

the presence of water may be suspected. If the substance of this article be good, a drop placed upon the nail of the finger will remain attached to it with a pearly appearance; if, on the contrary, it be thin, it will run off like water. The richer the quality of the milk, the more abundant is the cream; but connoisseurs agree that the richest milk does not make the best cheese. In warm weather, milk will turn in a few hours, but in the winter it will remain good for two or three days; very severe cold, however, will sometimes decompose it, unless it be kept from the action of frost: during the hottest weather, milk may be kept sweet for several days by boiling it night and morning, if a little carbonate of soda previously dissolved in water be put into it; an ounce of carbonate of soda should be dissolved in half a pint of water, and a table-spoonful be added to a quart of milk. When this has not been previously done, and in boiling the milk should begin to turn, add it immediately, and if not sufficient, increase the quantity by a few drops at a time; the flavour of milk is not injured, and as the watery parts are driven off, it becomes thicker than in its natural state. It has also been found, that if new milk be put into a closely corked bottle, and then plunged in boiling water for a quarter of an hour, it will remain good for a long period. For travelling in countries where milk cannot be had, a powder is obtained from it, by slow evaporation in shallow vessels; this is a tedious process, as the heat must be gentle, but the powder mixed with water is an agreeable substitute for milk. The milk used for domestic purposes in Europe is principally that of the cow; but asses' milk, from its greater analogy with that of the human breast, and its being much lighter of digestion, is much employed as medicinal diet for persons of weak or diseased lungs. Goats' milk, in many parts of Europe where cows are scarce, is used exclusively; it is wholesome, and being more astringent than cows' milk, is sometimes preferable to the latter. The milk of sheep is much used in France, but chiefly for the purpose of making cheese: in the fromage de Roquefort, a cheese resembling Stilton, but of a still richer quality, sheep's milk is the chief article employed. In Switzerland, cheese is made from goats' milk alone, or mixed with that of the cow, and sometimes sheep's milk is also used with the other two: the cheeses of Switzerland have, however, a high flavour, which does

not suit every palate. Of the milk of mares it is unnecessary to treat, for it rarely enters into the domestic uses of Europe. Of the nutritive properties of good cows' milk there cannot be two opinions, where the stomach digests it with facility; but with many persons it is highly indigestible, particularly if unboiled, and nothing can be more objectionable than its indiscriminate use in schools as an article of food: the old proverb of what is one man's meat is another man's poison, was never so fully verified as with this article of diet. Medical advice as to the use of milk in quantity may be taken, but generally speaking every person may judge of the extent to which it may be used, for it is one of those things which gives speedy evidence of injuriousness or benefit. In France, where the stomach has been enfeebled by bad habits, or is of itself so weak that all stimulating food is difficult of digestion, physicians prescribe a long course of milk diet: in many cases the effect is almost magical; in others, however, it is highly injurious. Some persons who are unable to digest milk in its ordinary form, either boiled or unboiled, are able to digest it with ease when made into puddings. The whey from milk, which is made either by boiling in it a little rennet, or acid of any kind, and then separating the curd, is much recommended in cases of cold, and is an agreeable drink; but if it prove difficult of digestion, some gentle tonic, such as rhubarb and gentian, with a small portion of carbonate of iron, should be occasionally used. An eminent physician has advised, that where milk disagrees with the stomach, and yet is essential, two pills, composed each of three grains of rhubarb, two of gentian, and three of carbonate of iron, should be taken daily, except in cases where there is actual disease, which renders the administration of tonics in any form improper. As a refreshing drink, milk is injured by boiling, for a portion of the serum is thus carried off. Cream is, in many cases, more indigestible than milk, but if it be whipped into a froth it is much lighter of digestion. The quality of milk depends much, of course, upon the food of the animal; but it is by no means necessary that the quantity of green food should be large: cows which are in the pasture only two or three hours in the day, and are well fed in the stable with hay, corn, carrots, and potatoes, give very rich and good milk, although in inferior quantity. Milk is adulterated in

various ways: some of the vendors of milk, after diluting it with water, mix with it flour or starch and the whites of eggs, which give to it the appearance of the genuine article; it requires, however, a very slight degree of judgment and but little experience to detect these adulterations. The dilution of milk is seen by its thinness, and if a little genuine milk be boiled and its appearance be carefully watched, the housewife has only to do the same with milk which she suspects is not genuine, to be convinced whether it is so or not; the taste and smell will do the rest. A very agreeable and wholesome substitute for milk, for tea or coffee, at sea, or under other circumstances when it cannot be had, is the yolks of eggs beaten up with fresh water; two yolks are beaten up, with a spoon or a fork, in a cup, and about a wine-glass of water is gradually added; this mixture is very agreeable, and is even preferable to milk for those persons with whom the latter disagrees. On the Continent, in the preparation of whey, when it is taken medicinally, it is the custom, when the curd has been separated, to place the whey again over the fire, and to pour into it the white of an egg, previously beaten up in a wine-glassful of water, and five or six drops of vinegar; it is then filtered through blotting paper or fine linen, and served up.

MILK OF ROSES. A favourite cosmetic. The mode of preparing it is as follows:—Dissolve over a slow fire, in a glazed pan, half an ounce of spermaceti, half an ounce of virgin wax, and half an ounce of white soap cut into shreds. Pound in a mortar half a pound of sweet and one ounce of bitter almonds, previously blanched by putting them into hot water, and removing the skins; now remove three-fourths of the almonds, and pour upon the remainder in the mortar the contents of the pan, pounding sharply, to incorporate them with the almonds, adding from time to time those which had been taken out, until a fine paste is produced from the whole; mix in a bottle a quart of water, a pint of rose-water, (see *Roses*,) and half a pint of spirits of wine, in which about ten drops of attar of roses have been dissolved. Pour three-fourths of this mixture, by degrees, upon the mass in the mortar, and work it up thoroughly; then strain the milk through a cloth. With the remaining fourth of the mixture, laid aside, work up in the mortar the pulp which remains in

the cloth, strain it, and add to the milk first expressed; before the milk is bottled, it should be strained through a fine sieve. As, notwithstanding the greatest care in the preparation, this composition will frequently decompose, it must be shaken up in the bottle before it is used. A more simple mode of preparing milk of roses is, to mix twenty drops of the oil of tartar with an ounce of fine olive oil and an ounce of almond oil, and having poured it off carefully, add it gradually to a quart of rose-water and an ounce of spirits of wine in which four drops of attar of roses have been mixed, shaking the bottle in which the whole is mixed carefully. The milk of cucumbers is a favourite cosmetic in the south of France: it is made in the same way as the milk of roses, using the expressed juice of cucumbers, instead of rose-water, and adding spirits of wine in the proportion of two ounces to a pint of cucumber juice. Any perfume, such as rose, lavender, &c., may be given to the milk, by dissolving a few drops of the essential oil of the perfume to be used in the spirits of wine. The usual perfume, however, is the essence of jessamine, in the proportion of two drachms to a pint of the juice; the essence should be diluted in spirits of wine, in the proportion of a drachm to an ounce.

MINT. A very pleasant herb as seasoning and in sauces. There are two kinds of mint in general use, but the spearmint is chiefly used for distilling. Mint-water, made by distilling the leaves, (see **DISTILLATION**,) is used as a vehicle in medicine, for the administration of Epsom salts, rhubarb, &c., and is also a favourite water among the good housewives for flatulency, cholic, hysterics, &c. Infused in brandy or spirits of wine, with the addition of a syrup, or distilled with spirit, it forms an agreeable cordial, and is considered good where there is flatulency, but it may be laid down as a general rule, that all alcoholic drinks are bad in such cases. Where mint is used, therefore, it should either be as a distilled water, or by taking a very small quantity of the essential oil, dissolved in as little spirit as possible, and then mixed with spring water. Where distillation is not convenient, it is advisable to have a phial of what is called essence of peppermint, which is sold by all druggists, and to take two, three, or four drops of it, in a wine-glassful of water, first dissolving the oil in a small quantity of brandy. As Epsom and other purgative salts, when taken alone, are

frequently found to be too cold for the stomach, it is well to have a little of this essential oil on hand. Nothing is so easy as the propagation of the plant: in the spring and autumn, this is done by parting the roots and planting them; in summer, the cuttings put deeply into the earth strike rapidly. To preserve this herb, like most others, for winter use, it is to be gathered just before it comes into flower, and dried slowly in the shade.

MOSS. The moss which is found upon rocks and trees is, in some of the northern countries, used extensively by the poorer inhabitants as food, and some species are considered highly medicinal. In England, during the last few years, Iceland moss, and the Irish moss, called Carageen, have been prescribed by the medical faculty in pulmonary and some other diseases, as an unirritating, and at the same time nutritious food. But many persons seem to have fallen into the error of supposing that it is a specific in cases of consumption, where that distressing malady admits of cure: neither the Iceland nor the Carageen moss has any specific and direct action upon the lungs; whatever good it may do must be through the stomach, by enabling the patient to keep up his strength, and thus giving to nature a better chance of struggling with disease. The Iceland moss is more medicinal, but less nutritive than the Carageen: it has a pleasant bitter, and is, therefore, tonic; but the Carageen is so much more mucilaginous than the Iceland, that, as food, two ounces of the former are fully equal to three of the latter. The mode of preparing either is exceedingly simple. If it is intended as a beverage, two ounces of it are to be well washed in cold water, and then to be put over a slow fire with two quarts of cold water, to simmer until reduced to half the quantity; it is then to be strained. A large breakfast teacupful of this should be taken every morning, on rising from bed, without sugar or milk, unless the stomach of the patient should digest milk with facility, in which case as much as one-third of boiled milk may be mixed with it; but if it be found unpleasant without sugar, a very small quantity may be used; it is decidedly better, however, as far as health is concerned, to dispense with sugar. In cases of indigestion, where the stomach at its first meal would be over excited by tea or coffee, and chocolate would be too heavy, a cup of this decoction is exceedingly useful, and two or three hours

afterwards a regular breakfast may be taken without injury. In such cases, also, a cup of the same beverage may be taken with benefit at night, and then a small portion of sherry wine or a little brandy may be added to it, with enough sugar to make it agreeable; but in pulmonary affections it is advisable to make the moss almost an exclusive food, and for that purpose the preparation of it may be varied. It should be boiled down to one-third of the quantity of water first used, and made into a jelly, precisely in the same way as the calf's-foot jelly; of this some may be taken at any time during the day. As the Carageen moss is the more palatable of the two, the jelly may be made from that; but in this case we would recommend the patient to drink also a teacupful of the plain decoction of the Iceland moss every morning. As food only, the Carageen moss is exceedingly nutritious, and by no means disagreeable, when made into soup with meat and vegetables; it is, in fact, quite equal to the far-famed bird's-nest soup of the Chinese.

MULBERRIES. The fruit of the mulberry tree. This fruit is of an agreeable acidity, and is said to be very useful in sore throats, as a jam or jelly, and also in fevers, in the form of syrup mixed with water. It enters but little into pastry in a distinct form, but gives an additional flavour to some of the other fruits. Apple jelly, also, is improved by adding a proportion of mulberry juice.

TO PRESERVE MULBERRIES IN SUGAR. Choose large and very ripe mulberries, put them gently into some strong syrup, and let them boil, covering over the pan, and shaking it gently from time to time; then take them off the fire, skim the syrup, and let them stand for two hours; they are then to be put on again, and boiled until the syrup has become exceedingly thick; pour into glasses and pots, and keep by for use.

TO PRESERVE MULBERRIES IN A DRY STATE. Gather them when not quite ripe, and give them a boil in syrup; then let them stand for twenty-four hours near the fire, so as just to keep warm; at the end of this time, take them out, drain them, and put them upon tins, powdering them well with fine sugar, and exposing them to the sun; when they are dry on one side, turn them, powder them in the same way, and finish the drying.

RATAFLA OF MULBERRIES. Take half a pound of red currants, three pounds

of ripe mulberries, and half a pound of raspberries; put them for a very short time over the fire; then put the juice, with half a drachm of mace, to infuse for three weeks in eight quarts of brandy; now melt three pounds and a half of sugar in a pint of water, which mix with the brandy; filter the whole, and put into bottles.

SYRUP OF MULBERRIES. Choose them very ripe, put them into a saucepan, and let them break over a slow fire; then pass them through a sieve, to get out the juice; having clarified this juice by putting it through a jelly bag, add to it a quantity of very strong syrup, in the proportion of two pounds of sugar to a pint of juice; keep this near the fire until it is reduced about one fourth, and when cold pour into bottles.

MULLED WINE. Boil in a quarter of a pint of water, for about ten minutes, three cloves, a bit of cinnamon, a little fresh lemon-peel, and one ounce and a half of loaf sugar; skim, and then add a pint of port wine; when the whole begins to boil, take it off, strain it, and grate in some nutmeg; serve with toasted bread. French red wine may be used, but in that case more sugar will be necessary.

MUSHROOMS. Too much care cannot be taken in the choice of this article, as there are many species which are more or less poisonous; nor are even the best a very digestible food, if taken in a large quantity. As many mushrooms which are of a poisonous nature have a near resemblance to those which may be used without danger, the purchaser should deal only with those persons whose probity and experience are guarantee against danger. In cases, however, where, for want of these precautions, or from any other cause, mushrooms of a poisonous nature may have been eaten, and where medical assistance is not immediately at hand, the following treatment, as recommended by M. Orfila, should immediately be had recourse to:—On the first symptoms of poisoning, take three grains of tartar emetic in a glass of water; a quarter of an hour afterwards take a third of a second glass of water, in which have been dissolved twenty-four grains of ipecacuanha and an ounce of Glauber's salts; the other two-thirds of the mixture are to be taken at intervals of twenty minutes each. As soon as pretty sharp vomiting has been induced, recourse should be had to purgatives—the best in this case is an ounce of castor oil; if this should fail in its effect, the dose must be repeated; and if the

disease should make rapid progress, notwithstanding these precautions, and the poisonous substance should not have been evacuated, an ounce of tobacco must be boiled in a quart of water, and administered as a lavement; the usual action of which remedy is vomiting. When the poison has been evacuated, the patient must take a few table-spoonfuls of a mixture composed of mint-water or orange flower water, or plain water, if these are not at hand, and a quarter of an ounce of ether. If, in despite of this treatment, the disease does not give way, and the patient complains of severe pains in the abdomen, the part must be fomented with flannel dipped in hot water; and where a hot bath can be had, it must not be neglected. If the pain does not cease, from twelve to twenty-four leeches are to be applied. If no treatment has been adopted until the fever has become intense, and the abdomen much swelled and very painful, the tongue being dry, the thirst great, and the skin, mouth, and throat hot, irritating purgatives must not be adopted, but the patient must be bled, both from the arm and by leeches on the abdomen, and fomentations and linseed lavements be had recourse to. A very mistaken treatment has sometimes been adopted in cases of poisoning by mushrooms, by the administration of vinegar, ether, and very strong salt water. It is known that mushrooms steeped in either of these liquids lose in a short time their poisonous qualities, but these properties are transferred to the liquid itself, consequently whilst any mushrooms remain on the stomach neither the one nor the other should be employed. It is hardly necessary to state that where medical aid can be at once obtained, the stomach-pump, in the first instance, is the best and surest remedy.

MUSHROOM CATSUP. Having skinned and peeled the large field mushrooms, crush them into a pulp, adding a table-spoonful of salt to every quart of pulp: let them stand for a day and a night; then pour off the clear liquor, and add to every quart about twenty cloves, thirty peppercorns, and the same quantity of allspice; boil very gently for about half an hour; then put into bottles with the spices. Some persons add port wine, but this rather injures than improves the flavour, and is objectionable for many sauces. A little mace may be added, but it is not essential.

BROILED MUSHROOMS. Take large and

fresh gathered mushrooms; cut off the stalk, wash, and skin them, make little incisions in the under part, then powder them with salt and pepper; let them lay for a short time in olive oil, and broil them on both sides: they may be served up with a little fresh butter, laid on while hot; or, in the French way, with a sauce composed of good salad oil, chopped parsley, and shalots. The steeping them in oil before broiling may be omitted; this, however, is the invariable mode on the Continent.

SCOLLOPED MUSHROOMS. Put the mushrooms into a saucepan, with fresh butter, chopped parsley, shalots, and a few mushrooms, also chopped up; moisten them from time to time, with a little butter and water, mixed with flour, and stew them gently for about half an hour; then put them into shells or a dish, covered with crumbs of bread: put them over a charcoal fire for a short time, and brown with a salamander.

STEWED MUSHROOMS. Put the mushrooms into a saucepan, with salt, pepper, chopped parsley, young onions, or chives, a little vinegar, and some fresh butter; let them stew very gently, until they are thoroughly tender.

MUSK. An animal secretion, of strong, and, in an unmixed state, almost offensive odour, but which mixed in small quantities with many other perfumes, improves them much, and fixes the preparation: thus, a small quantity of musk in the essence of lavender, or what is called spirituous water of lavender, (see LAVENDER,) softens the mixture, and renders the perfume durable. Musk is generally used in perfumery in the form of a tincture, which is made simply by infusing the musk in spirits of wine, and at the end of some days filtering the infusion. Musk of good quality retains its odour longer than any other perfume. It was formerly used extensively in medicine, for spasmodic and hysterical affections, but is now rarely administered. On account of its high price, musk is very much adulterated; and in Germany an artificial musk is made, by mixing nitrous acid with some oil, which gives a precipitate; this is washed with hot water, and then has a very high odour of the genuine article.

MUSTARD. This is a very useful article, as a condiment, and is frequently employed with great benefit in medical practice. It is an agreeable stimulant, and seldom disagrees with the stomach in the quantity which is generally used

in diet; in large quantities, however, taken internally, it acts as a powerful emetic: from one to two table-spoonfuls of the powder, freshly mixed, will be found very useful as an emetic, in cases of poisoning, where medical assistance may not be at hand to prescribe other and immediate remedies. Of late years, the white mustard-seed, swallowed whole, to the extent of half an ounce three times per day, has been recommended in cases of indigestion and some other affections, and many cures have been pompously announced. It was pretended, that to the medical properties of the seed were added mechanical properties, when taken in this way, and that the gentle irritation of the round substance passing through the lower bowels, roused them to action, and mixing with the excess of mucus and slime, carried it off. There does not appear to be much truth in this explanation, nor is it by any means certain that there is any essential difference between taking, as a medicine, mustard in the seed or in a more concentrated form, such as the oil or essence which it yields when chemically treated. Where stimulants are necessary, as in some cases of hæmorrhoids, the use of mustard may be very beneficial, and as taking it in the seed is agreeable, that may be the best mode; but the indiscriminate use of this article in large doses may do great harm, where stimulants are not called for by the state of the patient. It should not be persevered in if, after a few doses, the person taking it should find no sensible improvement; and, whenever it produces a dryness of the skin, and an increase of that peculiar hard and dry sensation of the hand, which is so common in cases of indigestion, it should be laid aside entirely, or at least be suspended until the effect produced by it has ceased. There are not, however, any of the objections to the use of mustard externally, which may apply to it as an internal remedy: it is invaluable as a plaster, a poultice, a lotion, and with a foot-bath.

MUSTARD PLASTER. Take an ounce of fresh powder of mustard, and mix it up with a sufficient quantity of water to form a paste; then spread upon cloth or brown paper, and apply it: let it remain on until the pain has become so severe that it can no longer be borne. In cases of sick head-ache, this plaster is excellent, applied to the temples, and at the same time, if convenient, to the feet; and for the ear-ache, it is also excellent, applied behind the ear. It is also very valuable

in incipient or continued sore throats, applied round the neck; on removing the plaster, the pain it has produced generally ceases gradually, and disappears altogether in the course of an hour; the only inconvenience produced is a redness, which sometimes does not disappear for several days.

MUSTARD POULTICE. Take two ounces of linseed meal, and mix with it an ounce of fresh powder of mustard in warm water to the proper thickness; put between the folds of a fine cloth, and apply to the part affected; the effect is the same as that of the plaster, but from its form, it is more applicable to the stomach, bowels, thighs, and feet. The cloth in which it is put must be fine, otherwise the effect upon the part would be impeded by it; the best way of using it is to apply it directly to the part, without the intervention of any cloth; but in this case the poultice dries upon the skin, and is removed with difficulty. This is a mild and safe counter-irritant, applied to the stomach in cases of indigestion or severe cold, and to the epigastrium, where there is torpidity of the bowels or inflammatory action. As a derivant, it may be applied to the feet and thighs, for the irritation which it produces has a tendency to equalize the circulation, by drawing the blood from one part of the system to another, and it also diminishes pain; for, in nature, a diseased and a mechanical action cannot well go on at the same time, if the latter be of sufficient power; the pain produced by the one causes a cessation of the other, and nature having been relieved by the diversion, has time to re-assume the functions of health.

MUSTARD FOOT-BATH. Fill the foot-bath with water sufficiently warm to be agreeable, but not more so, for it is a great mistake to take a hot foot-bath; the blood, instead of being drawn from the upper portions of the body and head, is rather driven towards the latter in this case. Stir in four ounces of mustard, and keep the feet and legs in the bath for half an hour, adding warm water from time to time, so as to keep up the first temperature; then go to bed. In recent, or even confirmed colds, this is an excellent remedy, and will frequently ward off severe disease.

STEAM MUSTARD-BATH FOR THE HEAD. Put an ounce of mustard powder into a large bowl or basin, with a drachm of camphor broken into small pieces; pour on them a quart of boiling water: hold

the head over the steam from time to time, taking care to cover the head with a cloth, so as to prevent the loss of the vapour. This is an admirable remedy in obstinate colds of the head.

MUSTARD LOTION FOR FRICTION.—Put two ounces of mustard into half a pint of spirits of wine, with two drachms of camphor; let the mixture stand for two or three days, carefully corked up in a bottle; then strain it off, and keep it in a bottle for use. It is good, in the way of friction, for sprains and rheumatism, and is sometimes used for gout, by laying linen which is moistened with it over the part that is affected.

MUSTARD FOR THE TABLE. The English mode of making mustard as a condiment for food is very simple: it consists merely in mixing the powder or flour with hot water, and a little salt; horse-radish is sometimes added; in this case, a small quantity of this root must be boiled in the water with which the mustard is mixed.

FRENCH MUSTARD. The mustard for the table used by the French differs materially from what is used in England, for vinegar, more or less, enters into the composition, and the grain itself is not the same; the finer sorts have always the addition of aromatic herbs. Some of the French mustards are very agreeable, particularly if taken with cold meats. The common domestic mustard is made with the grain of the senevé, which is of a darker colour than English mustard-seed. It is ground up with vinegar, on a stone slab, and then put into pots for use; where herbs are used, they are steeped in the vinegar with which the mustard is to be ground up. The choice of the herbs varies with the manufacturers: some use thyme, mint, tarragon, and even garlic; others make a different selection. The English who wish to make the common domestic mustard in the French way, must provide themselves with the senevé or seny seed; this being reduced to fine powder, may be mixed with the French vinegar, now sold by most of the grocers in England. In France, the white mustard seed is never used for the table; large quantities of it are taken medicinally, and, ground, it is used as an external remedy, in the manner stated above. In the foot-bath in France, a stronger and coarser kind of mustard than that employed for the table is used by the poorer classes, but the flour of the white mustard, which is called in France Eng-

lish mustard, is used by those who do not care for the extra cost. In Italy, mustard for the table is generally made up with wine.

MUSTARD AND CRESS. This is used as a small salad, and, from the bitter quality of the mustard, it is a good stomachic. It is sown early in the spring, in a sheltered border, in rows, and will be ready for cutting in a very few days. It may also be grown upon flannel frequently moistened with water, and placed by the fire-side.

MUTTON. This meat is very nutritious, and of easy digestion, and, from its being good at all seasons, is a very useful article in domestic economy; it is, however, eaten in greater perfection in winter, when it can be longer hung before cooking, by which it becomes tender and of higher flavour. This remark, however, only applies to roast mutton, for when it has been hung long it loses its whiteness, which is so indispensable a qualification when it is to be boiled. The sheep in most estimation for the table in England are the south-down, which are fed on the downs on the coast of Sussex, and derive a very fine flavour from the wild thyme, which grows in great abundance in those parts. The Welsh mutton is also much esteemed; it is very small, but of high flavour, and when well hung is little inferior to venison. The sheep most valued in France are those which come from Normandy, called *moutons de Presalé*; but the ordinary sorts, although very fine to the eye, are not equal in flavour to English mutton. The same remark is equally applicable to the beef. The best meat to be obtained in France is veal. The French have a very small kind of sheep in Brittany, some of which, when at full growth, do not weigh more than fifteen or twenty pounds, the flesh of which very much resembles Welsh mutton, but is, if anything, superior. The fine flavour of the mutton from these sheep is attributed to their feeding upon aromatic herbs peculiar to the country; they degenerate when they are removed to any other part of France. The mountain sheep of the Ardennes are also in high estimation.

ROAST LEG OF MUTTON. The rule already given for roasting beef is equally applicable to mutton. The leg for roasting should always be hung a longer or a shorter time before cooking, according to the temperature of the weather. The same rule applies with regard to the time

necessary for cooking, taking care not to put it too close at first, but approaching it gradually; let it be well basted the whole time, and when served it should be placed on a water-dish or on a spirit-lamp, as no meat so soon gets cold. Red currant jelly should be served with this joint. A very piquant flavour is given to a leg of mutton by the following forcemeat:—Take bread-crumbs, a piece of butter the size of an egg, a shalot, some parsley, and a small smoked herring, skinned and boned; let these ingredients be finely chopped and mixed together, then make an incision in the part near the knuckle and introduce this forcemeat. Where a smoked herring cannot be obtained, anchovies may be substituted. For gravy, adopt the same plan as directed for roast beef. The other joints of the sheep which are usually roasted are the saddle, the loin, and the shoulder. With the latter, onion sauce is generally eaten. (See SAUCES.) A clove of garlic cut up and stuck into the knuckle is a great improvement, where the flavour of that article is not objected to.

SHOULDER OF MUTTON may be roasted as the leg; but another method of dressing it is to take out the bone, and having rolled it up, to boil it, putting it on as directed for a leg; it is best, however, to put it into a cloth. Prepare some of any sort of white sauce, to which add some thick cream and hot pickle chopped fine, which pour hot over the mutton when served; the sauce must not be allowed to boil.

BOILED LEG OF MUTTON. Choose a white, plump leg; put it over a fire in cold water, with a teaspoonful of salt; let the vessel be sufficiently large that the meat may be covered; when it begins to boil, skim carefully, and then let it only simmer. This joint should not be overdone; the red gravy should follow the knife when cut. Capers, chopped fine and put into melted butter, should be thrown over the joint, and some more of the same sauce be served in a sauce tureen. (See CAPER SAUCE.) The liquor in which a leg of mutton has been boiled may the next day be made into excellent soup, by the addition of a head of celery, some carrots, turnips, an onion, and a few split peas; all the vegetables to be cut small, except the onion, which is to be stuck with cloves. The middle part of the neck is also very delicate, boiled, and is usually preferred when broth is required; mashed turnips are usually served with boiled mutton. Many parties prefer putting on the meat

in boiling water, but it is always more tender when put on in cold.

SHOULDER OF MUTTON A LA TURQUE. Boil a shoulder of mutton in some good stock, adding some parsley, a bunch of fine herbs, six carrots, four turnips, two shalots, two or three cloves, and pepper and salt; when done, boil some rice, which has been well washed, in the stock, and when the mutton is dished up, make two or three deep incisions in it lengthwise, and fill the openings with rice; then grate some Gruyère cheese over the whole, and brown with a salamander; some good sauce must be served with it.

LOIN OF MUTTON STEWED. When the meat has been boned and the skin removed, put it in a stewpan with a pint of water; when done, which will be by the time the water is half wasted, take it out and strain it; mix the liquor in which it has been stewed with some highly seasoned gravy, to which add some small mushrooms, a shalot, two bay leaves, and a little parsley chopped fine, and put the meat into it, and heat it thoroughly.

LEG OF MUTTON STEWED. Having larded the thick part of the leg with bacon, put it into a large stewpan with some stock, a bunch of sweet herbs, salt and pepper, and two or three cloves; when done, drain it, and serve with a sauce made as follows:—Put a little stock into a stewpan, with a few capers, three or four anchovies, a little parsley, and a shalot; let the sauce boil five minutes, and serve it with the mutton.

MUTTON CHOPS AND CUTLETS. (See LAMB.)

MUTTON CHOPS WITH BREAD CRUMBS. Take away the skin, season with pepper and salt, and having beaten the chops flat, lay them in butter melted for the purpose; before the butter is cold, take them out, and cover them well with bread crumbs; then put them on the fire, and broil them rather quickly, taking care that the crumbs do not burn; they may be served with sharp sauce, or sauce of any other kind.

CHOPS A LA MAINTENON. Having beaten the chops flat, bruise the yolk of a hard boiled egg, and mix it with grated bread, salt, pepper, and chopped sweet herbs; cover the chops well with this mixture, wrap each up in white paper, and broil, turning them frequently; they may either be served up in the paper or with gravy.

HARRICOT MUTTON. Cut a loin of mutton into chops, not too thick; fry them brown; then put them into a stewpan with

a few onions which have been sliced and fried in butter, some carrots and turnips cut it thin slices, two or three cloves, some pepper, and a little allspice; this should be put to simmer very slowly for about an hour and a half, and then be served, adding a little mushroom catsup.

COLLARED MUTTON. The best joint for this purpose is the breast, but a shoulder may be used, if preferred. After having taken out all the bones, make a forcemeat with bread crumbs, chopped parsley, lemon thyme, and an anchovy minced; season it well with salt and pepper; when the meat has been rubbed over with an egg beaten up, cover it with the forcemeat, roll it firmly, and tie; put it on in cold water, and skim well when it begins to boil; make a good gravy, seasoned with herbs, and before serving add a little mushroom catsup.

CORNED LEG OF MUTTON. Rub it well with salt, and let it stand for a day; then wipe it dry, and put it into beef pickle for five or six days; boil it plain, and serve with melted butter: the vegetables usually eaten with this joint are broccoli or mashed turnips.

MUTTON HAM. Choose a fine hind quarter of mutton, and cut it into the shape of a ham; then pound an ounce of saltpetre, a pound of salt, and half a pound of brown sugar; let the ham be well rubbed with this, and let it lie for ten days, turning it, and rubbing it with the pickle every day; smoke it with sawdust for a fortnight, and hang it to dry. If not dressed immediately, it will require to be soaked two hours before boiling.

MUTTON AS VENISON. Hang up for several days a large fat loin or haunch; then bone it, remove all the kidney-fat, and take off the skin; rub it well over with some brown sugar and black pepper, mixed together, and pour over it some French red wine; it must be rubbed with this mixture and be turned daily for four days, covering it all the time with the skin which has been removed from the upper part. When roasted, it must be covered with paper, and served with the same sauces as venison.

MUTTON PIE. Cut the loin into steaks, removing the fat and skin, and season highly with pepper and salt, and minced onions; the kidney, sliced, should be added. When the meat is in the pie-dish, add a tea-cupful of stock, made with the trimmings of the meat, or the same quantity of water with a little rich mutton gravy, and a table-spoonful of mushroom cat-

sup; put over a rich puff paste, and bake.

SHEEP'S TONGUES. Parboil them, in order to remove the skin; when this is done, split them down the middle, and dip them in salad oil, in which has been mixed some parsley, shalot, and a few mushrooms, all shred very fine, and seasoned with pepper and salt; broil them after they have been covered with grated breadcrumbs, and serve with sharp sauce.

Another way: Prepare them as above, but add to the oil a little lemon-juice; then wrap up each tongue between two slices of fat bacon and the seasoning in a piece of white paper, oiled or buttered; broil over a slow fire, and serve in the papers.

ROASTED SHEEP'S TONGUES. Parboil them in salt and water, till the skin can be readily removed; then lard them with fat bacon, and put them on a small spit, wrapped in buttered paper; mix a tea-cupful of good gravy, a little lemon-juice, salt and pepper, and a bit of butter, rubbed in flour; and let the whole thicken over the fire, and serve with the tongues.

IRISH STEW. Having cut the best end of a neck of mutton into chops, put them into a saucepan, with some peeled potatoes, a few chopped onions, pepper and salt, and about a quart of water; when they boil, remove them to the side of the fire, and let them simmer for two or three hours: just before serving, a little catsup may be added. What is called *Haricot de Mouton* in France is made in nearly the same manner.

HASHED MUTTON. Cut cold roast mutton into pieces, dredge it with flour, and put it into a stewpan, with a slice of ham, moistening with stock or gravy and water; season it well, and let it get thoroughly hot, without boiling: when served, it should be garnished with poached eggs and fried crusts. If mutton is hashed with fine herbs, it is done in the following way:—Take a piece of butter, about twice the size of an egg, add to it about a table-spoonful of chopped shalots, and put them on the fire for a short time, but not sufficiently long to turn brown; then add four spoonfuls of finely chopped mushrooms, a spoonful of chopped parsley, and a spoonful of flour; turn them all well in, and add about a pint of good stock, or a little water and gravy, seasoning with salt, pepper, and a little nutmeg; then put in the mutton, and let it get thoroughly hot: in serving, garnish as before.

MINCED MUTTON. Chop the mutton very fine, and dredge it with flour; season in the usual way, and warm it up, without boiling, with a little stock, for which may be substituted some good mutton gravy and water. Minced mutton, with chicory, is a favourite dish on the Continent; it is thus prepared:—The chicory is chopped, and cooked with butter and a little consommé and espagnole sauce; in another saucepan the minced mutton is warmed with stock and seasoning; when the chicory is well done and quite thick it is put into the saucepan with the mutton, and stirred together for two or three minutes: it is served in a dish garnished with slices of bread fried in bread and butter. Another mode is, to put the chicory, boiled plain, and brought to a pulp, into the dish, and place the minced mutton over it.

SHEEP'S RUMPS. Stew five or six rumps for three or four hours, with some stock, a carrot, two onions, a bunch of sweet herbs, and salt and pepper. If not eaten in this way, they may, when cold, be dipped in yolk of egg, well covered with grated bread, and be either broiled or fried. If eaten as a stew, boiled rice may be served with them, as curry; or the rice may be stewed with them. In Prussia, sheep's rumps are stewed with cabbage and bacon, in the proportion of half a large cabbage and half a pound of bacon to six rumps: the rumps should be blanched in boiling water for a quarter of an hour before they are put on to stew. In stewing, a few onions, parsley, chiboles, two or three cloves, pepper and salt, and a small piece of garlic are added; they are stewed with good stock, or, in its absence, with a little butter, water, and rich gravy: just before serving, a slight dash of vinegar is thrown in.

RAGOUT OF SHEEP'S RUMPS. Put the rumps into a saucepan with a little bacon, carrots, onions, and sweet herbs, moisten with stock, and cook them over a slow fire for four hours; then let them drain, and having become cold, joint them, and put them into a saucepan with some sweetbread previously fried in butter, the bottoms of two artichokes previously boiled, and a little chopped mushroom covered with flour; let them stew very gently, moistening from time to time with stock, until the sauce is reduced one third.

SHEEP'S HEARTS may be stuffed and roasted or baked, in the same way as bullock's heart is, (which see.)

SHEEP'S TROTTERS. See **LAMBS' TROTTERS.**

SHEEP'S KIDNEYS ROASTED. Having slightly moistened the kidneys, split them, but not so as to quite divide them, and put them on a wooden skewer, first having dipped them in butter melted for the purpose, and fasten them to the spit, and roast; when served, put a bit of fresh butter on each, and season with pepper and salt. This is superior cooking to the usual mode of broiling.

FRIED KIDNEYS. Prepare the kidneys in the same way as above, and put them into a saucepan with butter, salt and pepper, a little chopped parsley, and mushroom; when they are browned on one side, turn them, and brown on the other; then add a spoonful of flour, well mixed with a glass or two of white French wine, and two ladlefuls of espagnole or any other rich sauce; keep them on the fire, stirring them well until they are thoroughly done, but do not let them boil. At the time of serving, add a bit of fresh butter and a little lemon-juice; garnish the dish with bread fried in butter, and cut into any fanciful shape. Beef or calves' kidney may be cut into slices, and dressed in the same way.

HAGGIS. Having washed the heart and lights, parboil and mince them small, with a pound of suet and two large onions; add rather less than two handfuls of oatmeal, and season thoroughly with pepper and salt: mix all these articles well together, sew them up tightly in a bag, and boil for about three hours; serve with some good gravy, seasoned and thickened, or with sharp sauce. This is a cheap, but not very delicate dish, more suited to the appetite of a rough Highlander than to a stomach accustomed to more savoury dishes.

NAPHTHA. A spirituous and oleaginous substance. The naphtha for lighting is extracted from wood, coals, &c., by distillation; that which is obtained from coals is exceedingly cheap, as the gas-tar yields it abundantly, and the residuum forms a pitch which is very saleable in the market. The light from coal-naphtha is more brilliant even than that from the burning of turpentine, but it is of a most unpleasant smell, and gives out an intense quantity of smoke. In order to burn naphtha, the wick of the lamp must be exposed to a free and strong current of air.

NASTURTIIUM, OR INDIAN CRESS. This plant does not thrive well in too rich a soil; it may be sown in any

situation, placing it near a wall or a tree, to which it may be attached, as it grows to the height of six or eight feet, and requires support. The flower is used in salad, and the buds or seed are pickled, and form a substitute for capers.

NEEDLEWORK. The art of needlework is one of great antiquity, and was long held in high honour, as it ought indeed to be at the present time, for although the refinements of modern education are admirable in their way, yet they are a very poor equivalent for the useful arts, when acquired to the exclusion of the latter. To dance well, to be a good musician, to have a certain degree of perfection in drawing or painting, are all good in their way; but where is the husband who would not feel as proud at occasionally wearing a shirt made by the hands of his wife or daughter, as he would be at times of eating of some dish of her preparation? No rank or position in life can excuse a neglect of this essential portion of the education of a female; for, independently of the consideration that no station is altogether secure against the possibility of a reverse, which might render proficiency in a domestic art useful, there is in needlework, as an accomplishment, quite as much elegance as in drawing and painting, and a much greater chance of proficiency. It is reserved for only one female in a hundred to become such a painter as to command admiration, and to make the art a means of support, in the event of an unexpected change of circumstances; but every female may acquire an useful knowledge of needlework for domestic purposes; and five out of ten may become so proficient as to render it an honourable source of income. There are too many young ladies in the present day who either despise this domestic occupation, or affect to be ignorant of it, lest it should be thought that their education had been homely, and these are always the females who make a display of their imperfect knowledge of music, the result of a boarding-school education, to the annoyance of their hearers, who, although too well bred to express dissatisfaction, would gladly escape from the infliction; there are, however, fortunately, some high-born dames whose minds are too truly elevated to despise what is useful, and whose precepts and example it would be well to follow. Amongst them we find none more amiable and prominent than the Countess of Wilton, who has published a large and well writ-

ten volume on the "Art of Needlework," with a view of shewing its antiquity, its beauty, and its application. In her introduction we find the following delightful passage:—"The genius of needlework was twin-born with necessity, the first necessity the world had ever known; [our authoress here alludes to the labours of the first sempstress, Eve, who, although not possessed of a gold-eyed needle, sewed together the first garment prescribed by innate modesty;] but she quickly left this stern and unattractive companion, and followed many leaders in her wide and varied range. She became the handmaiden of fancy; she adorned the train of magnificence; she waited upon pomp; she decorated religion; she obeyed charity; she served utility; she aided pleasure; she pranked out fun; and she mingled with all and every circumstance of life." Then, after stating that the genius of needlework had at one time been honoured and courted, the acknowledged and cherished guest of the royal and noble, reigning supreme in hall and palace, bedropped with gold, and begemmed with brilliants, our fair authoress adds, "In all the sweet charities of domestic life she has ever been a participant; often and again has she fled the splendid court, the glittering ball-room, and taken her station at the quiet hearth of the gentle and home-loving matron. She has lightened the weariness of many a solitary vigil, and she has heightened the enjoyment of many a social gossip. Nor even while courted and caressed in courts and palaces, did needlework absent herself from the habitations of the poor. She was their familiar friend, the daily and hourly companion of their firesides; and there she remained, happy in her utility, till again summoned by royal mandate to resume her station near the throne. The illustrious and excellent Queen Adelaide allured needlework from her long seclusion, and reinstated her in her once familiar place among the great and noble." And long may her balmy influence be felt in the halls and palaces, as the focus of example! But it is not in England alone that the art of needlework, so honourable amongst the ancient Hebrews, whose kings' daughters wrought beautiful garments with their own hands; and amongst the Egyptians, the Romans, and the Greeks, in the days of their highest splendour, has again become what the world calls fashionable: the Queen of France is a notable semp-

stress, and passes much of her time in this occupation; her daughter, the Queen of Belgium, does the same; and so does the Empress of Russia. These are high examples, and those who set them are all amiable women, for there is something soothing to the mind in the pursuit, and it diverts those who practise it from many of the idle dissipations which tend to make females fretful, irritable, and haughty. "I have seen many females in England," says a German prince, whose published travels in this country have created much sensation, "who thought themselves highly accomplished because they could spoil a yard of canvas with some wretched attempt at a portrait or a landscape, or set the teeth of an audience on edge by the miserable execution of a composition of Haydn or Mozart, but have never thought them sufficiently accomplished to become good wives. I have seen others quietly at work with their needle, on plain or fancy needlework, looking like angels of benevolence, as their taper fingers laboured over an embroidered handkerchief for a father or a brother, or on the frocks or gowns for the children of a poor peasant. These are the women for wives, for they are already housewives."

Needlework is of two kinds, plain and ornamental. The former comprises a whole range of utility; the latter, what is elegant, rich, and truly artistical. Both are equally honourable in the practice, but not equally attainable, for as much taste and contrivance are necessary in the making of a bonnet as in the construction of a palace; and it is not every female who can, whatever may be her assiduity, arrive at perfection in embroidery and tapestry, two branches of the art which require, the latter particularly, a high degree of talent, and may be made the lucrative source of income, as well as of private gratification. The spirit of industry, however, which presides over the operation of plain stitching, may produce unexpected results; and, after all, if perfection in this art only be attained, the female practising it will be well rewarded by the self-approbation which arises from a meritorious occupation of time. Lady Wilton says, "Sewing is in itself an agreeable occupation; it is essentially an useful one; in many of its branches it is quite ornamental, and it is a gentle, a graceful, an elegant, and a truly feminine occupation. It causes the solitary hours of domestic life to glide more

smoothly away; and in those social unpretending reunions, which, in country life and in secluded districts, are not yet abolished, it takes away from the formality of sitting for conversation, abridges the necessity for scandal, or, to say the least of it, as we have heard even ungallant, lordly man allow, it keeps us out of mischief."

Can anything more powerful than this be said in favour of the art of needlework? We think not, although we do not agree with the noble and fair authoress in her idea of the "necessity" of scandal. The necessity for vice—and can any vice be greater than scandal?—does not exist in our nature; it is the result of bad education, and is favoured by idleness. Scandal is the handmaid of idleness, as virtue is the handmaid of industry; but one is of human, the other of divine creation.

Our female readers will, we are sure, agree with us that it would be useless to attempt to lay down any instructions here for the exercise of the art, the cultivation of which we recommend; it can only be acquired practically, and no printed rules would be of the slightest benefit.

NEROLI. The essential oil of the orange flower. Three qualities are drawn off in distillation: the best quality is of a pale amber colour, and has a delicate fragrance; the inferior qualities are darker, and have an empyreumatic smell. Only the finest quality should be used in perfumes. Neroli is not unfrequently used medicinally, for the correction of flatulency, in doses of from two to four drops, taken in water.

NETTLES. A wild plant growing abundantly in the hedges and fields in England. When young, they form a favourite ingredient in the spring broth of the country people, in many parts of England, under a belief that they "sweeten the blood." Their real action is upon the kidneys, slightly promoting the secretion of urine. They are sometimes boiled and served in the same way as other plain vegetables.

NOUGAT. An article of confectionary, composed of sweet almonds and sugar. It is sold by all the confectioners in France, and is exported to various countries. It is made in the following manner:—Blanch a pound of sweet almonds, and having sliced them lengthways, let them lie in the sun for a short time, until they become slightly discoloured; now, dissolve in an iron stewpan, slightly but-

tered, twelve ounces of sugar, without water, stirring constantly, and when the sugar has melted and begins to change colour, throw in the almonds, which are to be previously made thoroughly hot in another vessel, over the fire, but without burning them; mix them well with the sugar, and as they mix range them round the sides of the saucepan, leaving about the same thickness at the bottom as at the sides; now, let the saucepan become a little cool, and turn out the mixture upon a plate; having done this, press the contents well together in the form of a thick cake, and wrap up in writing paper. It should be kept in a tin case. Nougat is served at dessert, or eaten at any time, as other sweetmeats.

NUTMEGS. Nutmegs are of two kinds, the myristica and the pyrrhosa, both from the tropics. It is the seed of an aromatic tree, and is much used in Europe as a condiment. It is tonic, stimulant, and anti-spasmodic, and is frequently given in cases of indigestion and flatulency. In cookery, pastry, &c., it is more particularly used as a spice, on account of its fragrant and agreeable taste. The preparations of it in medicine are various, viz., infusions, tinctures, confections, &c., and as a distilled water, as a vehicle for the administration of other medicines. The essential oil is used as a perfume, and also as a friction for rheumatism.

NUTS. (See **FILBERTS.**) The common nut is of an agreeable flavour, but is apt to disagree with persons who are dyspeptic, and should therefore be eaten with great moderation. Nuts should never be taken without salt, which, as a condiment, has a tendency to correct their prejudicial effects, but the precise action of the salt is not known.

OBESITY. An accumulation of fat in the human body, usually arising from excessive diet and want of exercise, but sometimes dependent upon other and, indeed, unknown causes. Obesity is not always a disease, for we have numerous instances of very fat men enjoying excellent health and living to a good old age; generally speaking, however, very fat persons are not of long life, probably because they indulge to excess in good cheer, and want that fair proportion of exercise which is requisite for the human body. Sedentary pursuits, unattended with mental exertion, are productive of obesity: fat coachmen and fat publicans are very numerous, and this is also the case with

butchers who are confined to their shops; it is not seen to the same extent amongst butchers who carry out loads of meat. With proper regard to diet, and abundant exercise in the open air, obesity may be avoided, except in those idiosyncrasies where there is a natural tendency to it, as a disease of the system; and in these cases it is exceedingly difficult at times to find a cure. Dr. Radcliffe recommends that the mouth should be kept shut and the eyes open; or, in other words, that the patient should eat very little food, and that of the least nutritive kind, and that the quantity of sleep should be diminished. These recommendations may be followed with discretion, but it may be dangerous to carry them too far. Females who are disposed to obesity, the great fault of which is to spoil the harmony of the human shape, sometimes resort to the most absurd and dangerous means for its prevention. Under the idea that acids will remove and prevent the accumulation, as giving gin to a dog is said to prevent its growth, they drink vinegar and lemon-juice. The remedy is sometimes effectual, but the cure is worse than the disease, for it frequently lays the foundation of some fatal malady. It is unfortunate that in Europe a slender shape should be so much regarded as the distinguishing mark of beauty, as to induce females to have recourse to such foolish and indeed criminal means of securing it. Without agreeing with the natives of some of the tribes of Asia and Africa, who consider no woman a beauty who does not weigh twenty stone, we may be allowed to observe that a little corpulence does not deform a female, and that the freshness of the complexion of most robust ladies, is an ample compensation for their rotundity of figure. A French author, alluding to the principal causes of obesity, says, "The first is, the natural disposition of the individual; nearly all men are born with certain predispositions, of which their physiognomy bears the external sign. Out of a hundred persons who die of diseases of the lungs, ninety have brown hair, long faces, and pointed noses; out of one hundred fat persons, ninety have short faces, round eyes, and obtuse noses. The second and principal cause of obesity is in the farinaceous diet which man makes the basis of his daily food; all animals fed upon farinaceous food grow fat, and man is not an exception to the rule. When sugar is mixed with this food, it becomes still more fattening, and

certain liquids, such as beer, contribute greatly to the accumulation of fat, where much farinaceous food is eaten. In 1817, when wine was very dear, many Parisians drank beer by way of economy, and gained an embonpoint which they would afterwards gladly have got rid of. A third cause of obesity is excessive sleep, and want of exercise. The human body recruits itself in sleep, and loses little, all muscular action being suspended; excessive sleep and little exercise in the day are two errors generally united in the same person, for great sleepers are averse to great exercise. A fourth cause of obesity is, excess in eating and drinking; this excess is productive of two evils: with persons whose stomachs are weak it produces indigestion; and people are astonished that so many good things taken into the stomach should turn to evil instead of profit. When the stomach is active, on the contrary, and there is not a corresponding portion of exercise, the excess of nutrition turns to obesity." The knowledge of the causes of obesity will enable most persons to avoid it, by abstaining from them; but in those cases where reasonable abstinence from good cheer, and avoiding excess of sleep, at the same time taking free exercise, do not produce the hoped for effect, the tendency to obesity is a natural disease, and it will be necessary to call in the doctor, and try the force of drugs; but these, fortunately, are very rare cases.

OIL. There are three modes of obtaining oil—by compression, by distillation, or by immersion; the usual mode is by compression. Olive oil is made as follows:—The olives are gathered in November or December, when ripe, and being carefully washed, if dirty, are laid out for several days, until they begin to turn, from over-ripeness; if they are used before this time, the oil is not of such good quality. They are then put into the pressing mill, and the oil is pressed out: what first comes off is the best quality, and is called virgin oil. Hot water is then poured over the lees, and they are again pressed; when the liquid that is extracted is settled, the oil is carefully separated from the water: this is the second quality. The water is poured on a second time, and the oil then collected is of the third quality; it requires nearly a month for this third expression to settle and become clear: this third quality of oil is very liable to become rancid. The best olive oils are from Aix, in France, and from Genoa and Florence;

the olive oils of Spain and Portugal are inferior, both as to the quality of the fruit and the mode of preparation. Much of the olive oil that comes to England is adulterated with walnut and other inferior oils; the best mode of detecting this fraud, as oil from walnuts or seeds does not congeal so rapidly as olive oil, is to put a phial of oil in iced water: if it is pure, it will congeal throughout; if otherwise, a portion will remain liquid; and if only one-third is pure olive oil, it will not congeal at all. Walnut oil is used in many parts of the Continent instead of olive oil, and it is made nearly in the same manner; it has a strong flavour, but is frequently employed, even in Paris, in the kitchen, for frying and for pastry; in some parts candles are made of the residuum, after pressure. Oil for burning is extracted in France from various kinds of seeds; it burns with a clear light, if carefully made, but is not equal in strength to the good spermaceti oil in England. Almond oil is made thus:—Blanch the almonds, then steep them in lukewarm water for two or three hours; now pound them in a mortar, and heat the paste in a sand bath; when a portion of the humidity is driven off, put the paste in a bag, which is to be placed in a hot-press to express the oil. Olive and all other eating oils are of a very indigestible nature, and it is difficult to conceive on what principle they are supposed to correct the action of salads. Olive oil is used in cookery, for frying fish, fritters, &c., as it gives a fine colour; but, as far as health is concerned, good fresh butter is to be preferred.

Dr. Guerin, in his "*Chimiste Populaire*," gives the following receipt for purifying common lamp-oil:—"Begin by beating the oil well with a stick, and, continuing beating, add at four separate times, for twenty-five gallons of oil, a pound and a half of sulphuric acid; a quarter of an hour afterwards add half a pound of tartaric acid, in powder, and three pounds of quicklime; continue to beat this liquid for about twenty minutes, then add six quarts of water, and stir well for five minutes. Four days afterwards, draw off the oil from the water, and filter it, if it should be necessary, through a hair bag, containing a pretty thick bed of animal charcoal.

OIL PAINTINGS, TO CLEAN. Mix an ounce of spirits of turpentine with an ounce of spirits of wine; with this mixture wash the paintings gently with cotton wool, then wash with turpentine alone; if there are any stains which this will not

remove, the paintings are to be washed with an infusion of kali; when dry put on a thin varnish, composed of two ounces of mastic dissolved in six ounces of turpentine; at the end of a few days another coat of varnish, such as is sold by the colour makers for oil paintings, may be added; the preparation of this varnish being very tedious, it is always better to buy it ready made.

OLIVE. A small fruit which grows in abundance in most southern countries, particularly in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the south of France; it is used in a salted or pickled state in many dishes, and is also served separately at table, for the purpose of exciting the palate and giving a relish to wine; in taste it is rather bitter, and it requires some habit to take pleasure in eating it. The largest olives are those of Spain, but the finest grow about Aix, in Provence; it is from this fruit we derive the salad oil. The oil from Provence enjoys a higher reputation than any other, partly from a greater care being taken in the preparation. The oil of the Spanish olive would, perhaps, if carefully prepared, be almost equal to that of Provence; the Spanish oil, however, is not only badly purified, but, as it is kept in goats' skins, it has generally a high and unpleasant flavour; next to the Provence oil that of Florence is to be preferred.

ONIONS. Medical men appear to be divided in opinion as to the medicinal properties of the onion; it appears, however, to act as a diuretic and as a sudorific; it is, therefore, common to eat a large roasted onion on going to bed, as a remedy for a cold. In the raw state onions disagree with many persons who can eat them without inconvenience when cooked, whilst others, particularly those who take great exercise, eat them raw with pleasure and benefit. In many parts of the Continent a raw onion with bread forms the daily breakfast of the peasantry, who attribute nutritive properties to this root. In Portugal the juice of the onion is used in lamps with the commoner sorts of oil, as it is supposed to have the effect of causing it to burn with a clear light; the experiment is worth trying with the commoner sorts of whale oil in England. The onion is much used in the cookery of all countries where it is grown, or into which it is imported; it gives a piquancy to ragouts and stews, but must be used in moderation, as the flavour should never predominate. There are several varieties of

this root in ordinary use, but the best are the Spanish and Strasburg; the Portugal onions grow to a very large size, and are very fine when roasted; but, whether it is that the soil or climate is not so congenial to them, the seed of the Portugal onion does not attain the same size in England. The soil for onions should be light and well worked, and not have been recently manured, and the seed should be sown about the beginning of April, choosing fine open weather; a second crop may be sown in August: the bed is merely raked over, as the seed does not require to be buried deep. When the plants are high enough, thin them out to about six inches apart; choose the opportunity after some smart showers for the operation, as the plants otherwise break off; keep the bed well cleared of weeds. When they are ripe, which is known by the leaves withering, let them be drawn up, and laid out in a dry walk, turning them occasionally; they must lie in this manner for a fortnight, and then be removed into a dry loft, keeping them as much as possible from the air. For pickling, the small silver-skinned are chosen; this sort is sown about the middle of April, in a poor soil, and do not require to be thinned out so much as the other sort. Another variety of the onion, called the potatoe onion, has of late years got into very general use: they are planted in the same manner as potatoes, in a rich, well dug soil, about ten inches or a foot apart; they produce by offsets, in the same manner as potatoes, and are very productive; they grow to a large size, and are of milder flavour than the common onion.

TO ROAST ONIONS. Choose the largest for this purpose, and place them in a slow oven, or in a Dutch oven before the fire. They require a very long time to cook. Some parties parboil them before putting them in the oven, but this destroys the flavour. They are eaten with cold butter, pepper, and salt.

TO STEW ONIONS. Take some brown roux (see SAUCES), to which add a little good gravy, and a tumbler full of French red wine. Having previously boiled the onions for about ten minutes in water, with a bunch of herbs, some parsley, two or three cloves, and a bay leaf, put them into the wine-sauce, and boil. Serve with the sauce in a dish, garnished with fried bread.

BOILED ONIONS. After peeling, let them lie a couple of hours in cold water; then put them on in cold milk and water,

boil them till tender, and serve with melted butter poured over them.

ONION SAUCE. See SAUCES.

PICKLED ONIONS. See PICKLES.

ONION SOUP. See SOUPS.

OPIATE, FOR THE TEETH. Take two ounces of cream of tartar, in fine powder, one ounce and a half of pumice stone, very finely powdered and sifted, half an ounce of powdered cochineal, and six drachms of red coral, finely powdered; having sifted all these ingredients, add twelve drops of bergamot, six of otto of rose, and as much syrup of sugar as will form the whole into a rather thick paste. Put the mixture into a pot, and allow it to undergo a fermentation, which will take place in a few days; when the fermentation has ceased, fill with the opiate small china or bright pewter pots.

ORANGE. A fine fruit, rich in juice, and the rind of which has an aromatic flavour, and gives out a fine perfume. It grows abundantly in Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Western Islands, and, in fact, in most southern climates. Strictly speaking, there are but two sorts of oranges, the sweet and the bitter; but sweet oranges vary so much in size and flavour, in some countries, particularly in China, that they almost appear like a different fruit. The juice of the orange is very refreshing, either taken in its pure state or mixed with water; and it may be used in many cases, when not over-ripe, as a substitute for lemons. The flower of the orange makes a delicious perfume, when distilled with water, and also yields the beautiful essential oil called neroli. Enormous quantities of oranges are imported into England from Portugal and from the Western Islands; the latter are the smaller kind, but they are preferable, on account of their being thinner skinned, and, therefore, more economical. These oranges are packed in rather an unripe state, and ripen on the voyage; but the orange is never eaten in perfection except in the country where it grows, as it can then be gathered from the tree in its full maturity. Although the orange, when ripe, is, perhaps, one of the most wholesome fruits, the juice only being taken, (for the flesh is very indigestible,) persons who are liable to much flatulency frequently suffer inconvenience from its use in an uncooked state.

ORANGE JELLY. Take ten oranges and three lemons; peel three of the former as lightly as possible, put the peel into a stewpan, and squeeze over it the juice of

all the oranges and lemons; then clarify half a pound of sugar, pour the juice and the peel upon it, and boil the whole up together; after that, strain the juice, and add to it half an ounce of isinglass, previously dissolved in half a pint of water: let this simmer for two hours, and strain.

Another way: Squeeze the juice into a pan with water, in the proportion of a quart to every pound of oranges; boil gently till this is reduced to less than one-half; then strain through a sieve, and to a pint of liquor add a pound of loaf sugar; boil these together till they jelly, skimming frequently.

ORANGE MARMALADE. See MARMALADE.

ORANGES IN BRANDY. Blanch them for a few minutes, to make them swell, then put them into cold water; having drained them, pour over them some clarified sugar, and let them stand for a few hours; then give them a boil in the syrup, and let them stand again till they are cold; repeat this three or four times; after which, put the oranges into wide-mouthed bottles, with brandy, and cork carefully.

ORANGE RATAFIA. Put eighteen oranges, in their natural state, into a gallon of brandy, with some cinnamon and coriander seed; let them infuse for two months, then strain off, and bottle.

CANDIED ORANGES. Peel the oranges, removing as much as possible the white part, divide them, and boil in strong syrup for half an hour; let them stand till cold, and repeat the operation of boiling three or four times, until the syrup has become exceedingly thick; then take out the oranges, powder them with fine sugar, and put them in a very slack oven to dry.

ORANGE SALAD. This is a dish used as dessert in France, and consists simply in cutting the orange into thin slices, without peeling, and serving it with brandy and sugar.

ORANGE FLOWER WATER. This is made by distillation of the orange flowers. As these are neither in sufficient abundance in England, nor of sufficient richness for distillation, a very good substitute may be made by mixing a drachm of neroli (see NEROLI) with two ounces of spirits of wine, and adding a pint of filtered water. This water is used as a cosmetic, but more frequently for flavouring creams, ices, &c., for the table and pastry.

ORANGEADE is made with the juice of

oranges, in the same way as lemonade (see LEMONADE) is made with the juice of lemons.

ORGEAT. A beverage made from almonds. It is thus prepared:—Take a pound and a quarter of bitter almonds, and half a pound of sweet almonds, the skins of which have been removed by blanching, nine pounds of white sugar, six pints of water, and the rinds of three lemons; pound the almonds in a mortar, with the sugar, and add the water by degrees; then put the mixture on the fire, with the lemon-peel; after one boil pour off the syrup, and press the almonds, to extract the milk; add this to the syrup, and strain the whole through a fine sieve; when cold, stir in six drops of neroli, and bottle. The orgeat, when required for use, is mixed with cold water, according to taste.

OX GALL. There are few articles so valuable as this for cleansing woollen and other articles: it combines readily with greasy substances, and assists powerfully the action of soap, which, however, in many cases may be dispensed with; nor does it, says Count Chaptel, sensibly affect the most delicate colours. The chief objection against its use is its highly disagreeable smell; this is got rid of in the following way:—Boil a quart of the gall, skimming it frequently, and then add an ounce of powdered alum, and leave it on the fire until the alum and the gall are thoroughly combined. When this is done, set the mixture to cool, and pour it, when cold, into a bottle which is to be slightly corked: now proceed exactly in the same way with another quart of gall, using an ounce of common salt instead of alum. The two bottles are to be put by for three months in a room of moderate temperature; a thick sediment will take place, but, as a good deal of yellow colouring matter still remains, the contents of the two bottles, carefully poured off from the sediment, are to be filtered separately, and then mixed in equal parts, a portion at a time. The colouring matter will now coagulate and be precipitated, leaving the gall perfectly pure and colourless. It is then to be again filtered, bottled, and kept for use. In this state it preserves all its detergent properties, is free from smell, and does not spoil with keeping. It must be kept corked, however, in a cool place. Silks and all other articles of even the most delicate colours may be cleaned with this gall.

PANADA. The crumb of bread boiled into a sort of pap. It is sometimes made for children and aged persons who cannot eat solid food. To make it, put some crumb of new bread into a saucepan with a little water, and boil until it becomes a thick pap; add water and a little salt, as the bread absorbs the water which was first put in; when it has boiled a short time stir in quickly the yolks of two or three eggs previously beaten up. Milk panada is made by boiling the bread with very little water, and adding new milk and sugar when the bread has boiled: the milk should not quite boil. Nutmeg, cinnamon, lemon-peel, &c., may be added to the water panada, and a little generous white wine and sugar may be added to it before serving.

PARSLEY. For ordinary use the curled double parsley is preferred. It is raised in drills at the edge of a bed; and besides being very useful in the kitchen, it forms a very neat border. The seed should be sown the latter end of March, as it does not make its appearance above ground in less than a month. In the winter the parsley rows should be covered with litter, to secure a supply of green leaves; the seed should not be sown too thick. This is a vegetable seldom used but with other herbs, as seasoning to ragouts, &c.; in the West of England it is made into a pie, in the following manner:—Take a sufficient quantity of parsley, and having picked it carefully from the thick stalks, scald it in boiling water, and place in a cullender to drain. Cut up some breast of veal into small pieces, and having seasoned them with pepper and salt, place them in a pie-dish, in alternate layers of meat and the scalded parsley, putting in each layer a slice or two of pickled pork; when the dish is full cover it with a suet crust, and bake in a slow oven; when done, lift the crust carefully, and pour into the dish a large tea-cupful of good cream, in which the yolk of an egg has been beaten up. Lamb chops, a part of a breast of lamb, or a fowl, may be substituted for veal. About a dozen of raisins should be mixed in the pie.

PARSNIP. This plant requires a stronger soil than the carrot, and should be dug very deep. The seed is sown the early part of April, and when the plants are become strong they must be thinned out to about eight inches asunder. The parsnip is not a vegetable of such general use as the carrot, but it imparts an agreeable flavour to soup, in which it is invari-

ably used on the Continent, but in England it is not in much request. Boiled, and mashed with carrots and turnips, it makes an agreeable dish; and it is also used, boiled plain, with salt fish. From its containing a large portion of saccharine matter, it is considered a very nutritive vegetable. The parsnip being of a heating nature, it should not be eaten in a large quantity by persons of a warm temperament.

PARSNIP WINE. See WINES.

PASTE. In perfumery, a mixture for the skin, said to have the effect of softening and beautifying the complexion. One of the pastes most in vogue is that called *Crème du Cathay*, for which a patent has been taken out in Paris, by Mr. J. M. Farina. It is thus composed:—Mecca turpentine, three grains; oil of sweet almonds, four ounces; spermaceti, two drachms; flowers of zinc, one drachm; white wax, two drachms; rose water, six drachms: mix them and put them into a sand-bath, where they are to remain until united in a fine paste. Another paste in vogue is that of M. Bazin, for which he also has a patent; it is called *Pâte Axérasine*, and is made as follows:—Powder of bitter almonds, eight ounces; oil of bitter almonds, twelve ounces; white soap, eight ounces; spermaceti, four ounces; powder of soap, four ounces; cinnabar, two drachms; essence of roses, one drachm: melt the soap and the spermaceti in the oil in a sand-bath, then stir in the soap powder, (see SOAP,) and when well mixed pound the whole in a mortar, adding the almond powder by degrees, then add both the essence of roses and the cinnabar, which latter must be previously rubbed up in a mortar with a few drops of essence of bergamot. When it is intended to use this paste, dissolve a little of it in water, so as to make it of the thickness of cream, and apply it with a sponge. It is said to be an excellent remedy for chapped lips and chilblains, as well as a cosmetic. Subjoined are a few of the best receipts for cosmetic pastes.

ALMOND PASTE. With yolks of eggs pound four ounces of blanched almonds in a mortar, and when they are in a paste work in three yolks of fresh eggs and a quarter of a pint of new milk; put these over a slow fire, stirring with a spoon, until reduced to a thick paste. Just before it is cold, add a few drops of any essence, and put into pots.

ALMOND PASTE WITH LAVENDER. Take a pound of white almond powder, sold

by the perfumers, and four ounces of white bitter almond powder, and work them into a paste in a mortar, with lavender water made by infusion, (see LAVENDER.) The same paste may be made with eau de Cologne.

ORIENTAL ALMOND PASTE. Blanched bitter almonds, twelve ounces; rice flour, seven ounces; bean flour, three ounces; iris powder, one ounce; finely powdered carbonate of potass, four drachms; essence of jessamine, three ounces; neroli, three drops. Pound the almonds, adding a little water, and then add by degrees the rice, bean, and iris powder; dissolve the carbonate of potass in a little rose water and add it also; then work in by degrees the essence of jessamine and the neroli. When the paste is well beaten and perfectly smooth, put into pots; if not sufficiently liquid, add a little rose water.

ALMOND AND HONEY PASTE. One pound of honey, previously clarified over the fire, one pound of white almond powder, two pounds of olive oil, perfumed with any essential oil, according to taste, and the yolks of six eggs. Pound the almond powder and the honey together; then add by degrees the oil and the yolks of eggs.

ALMOND PASTE A LA ROSE. Six ounces of blanched sweet almonds, and two of bitter almonds; beat these into a paste, then add two ounces of potato powder, four yolks of eggs, and a quarter of a pint of milk; work these well together, put the mixture in a pan over a slow fire, and stir until reduced to a fine thick paste; when nearly cold, add six drops of otto of rose.

RAZOR PASTE. Razor pastes are usually made of emery, finely ground, and mixed up with lard. The following, however, is a much better mode of preparing this article:—Mix one ounce of goldsmiths' rouge with three quarters of an ounce of very finely powdered slate, and as much lard as will make it into a stiff paste.

PASTILLES, for burning. Take two ounces of benzoin, one ounce of storax, one ounce of dry balsam of Peru, one ounce of cascarilla in powder, half an ounce of cloves in powder, one drachm of ambergris, one drachm of neroli, half an ounce of nitre, and a quarter of a pound of charcoal in powder; pound them all together in a mortar, and mix them up into a paste with gum, previously dissolved in water, sufficiently strong to make a compact mass; shape the pastilles, and put

them to dry on paper. Another mode of making pastilles is to substitute myrrh and frankincense for the cascarilla and neroli; but the perfume is not so rich. A very good pastille may be made with charcoal, nitre, storax, benzoin, and cloves, in the above proportions, and a few drops of oil of thyme. The finer essences, such as rose, bergamot, &c., do not answer for pastilles; musk, however, may be added, if the smell of it be not disliked. Pastilles are very useful in sick rooms, as they correct a vitiated atmosphere.

PASTRY. Under this general head of pastry may be included all kinds of puddings, pies, and tarts. Although perfection in the art of making pastry can only be acquired by practice, yet there are some few general remarks which may materially assist the beginner. The greatest nicety is necessary in the preparation of all the materials used, whether for tarts or puddings. Care should be taken that the eggs are fresh, and that they are well beaten with a whisk. The flour should be well dried on a plate in the oven, or before the fire. The cloth in which puddings are boiled should be clean and have no musty smell from lying by; it should be buttered and well floured before the pudding is put into it. It is always desirable to have a marble slab or a large slate to make pastry on. The butter used for pastry should always be of good quality, and should be laid in cold water for some time before using. In France tarts are not made as in England, in dishes, but in standing crusts, with thin strips of the paste placed in bars across the top: preserved fruits or marmalades are generally used for this purpose, though fresh apricots, cherries, and strawberries are also dressed in this way. Before serving, they are covered over with powdered sugar, and glazed with a salamander.

TO MAKE PUFF PASTE. Take equal quantities of flour and butter; rub half the former into about a third of the latter, adding as much cold water as will make it into a stiff paste, and work it until the butter is completely mixed with the flour; roll it up, and beat it with the rolling-pin, which is to be well dusted with flour, and then roll it out to an equal thickness; with the point of a knife put little bits of butter all over it; roll it up, beat it a little, and roll it out again; put some more butter, and roll it as before, repeating the same operation three times, and no more. Dredge the slab and the rolling-pin well with flour, that the paste may

not stick to them. The paste should be touched as little as possible with the hands, as it tends to make it heavy.

CRISP PASTE FOR FRUIT TARTS. Rub half a pound of butter into a pound and a half of flour; add three table-spoonfuls of powdered loaf sugar and the yolks of four eggs well beaten; work the whole well together with a wooden spoon, and roll it out very thin; bake it in a quick oven. Before serving, powder with finely-powdered sugar.

RICH SHORT PASTE. Take equal quantities of flour, butter, and pounded loaf sugar; rub the butter with the flour, and mix in the sugar, rubbing the whole together till it will roll out to about half an inch in thickness.

RICH PASTE FOR TARTS. To six ounces of powdered lump sugar add, by degrees, ten ounces of fresh butter beaten to a cream, and to these add five eggs beaten very light, a little grated lemon-peel, and some nutmeg; make it into the consistence of paste with some well-dried flour.

RICE PASTE. Boil half a pound of good rice in water; when tender, drain it dry, and bruise the rice in a mortar, with a little butter and an egg well beaten; roll it out thin.

SUET PASTE. Chop a pound of fresh beef suet very fine, having first cleared it well from the skin; add this to a pound and a half of flour and a teaspoonful of salt; mix it well into a stiff paste, with cold water, beating it out with the rolling-pin three times, as directed for other paste. This paste answers well for any kind of boiled fruit pudding or meat pie, where it is to be eaten hot.

APPLE TARTS. Having pared and cored the apples, cut them into small bits; then put into the pie-dish a table-spoonful of brown sugar, a little grated ginger and lemon-peel, then a layer of apples, alternately, until the dish is full; cover the dish with paste as for other tarts, pressing it down all round at the edges, and opening a small hole in the top of the crust with a knife.

RED CURRANT TART. Line the inside of the pie-dish with tart paste, and fill the dish up with the fruit, previously well picked and washed; mix about a third part of raspberries with the currants, and sweeten well with brown sugar; place a small teacup reversed in the centre of the dish before you put in the fruit; cover with paste, and bake in a quick oven.

BLACK CURRANT TART. See **RED CURRANT.**

RASPBERRY TART. Made in the same way as currant tart, but the fruit should not be washed. Although raspberries are often cooked alone, yet they are much better mixed with currants or cherries.

CHERRY TART. Proceed in the same way as for currants: stone the fruit or not, as is preferred.

RHUBARB TART. This plant is used alone, or mixed with an equal quantity of gooseberries; however used, the peel must be stripped off, and the vegetable be cut into two or three strips, and into pieces about an inch long: sweeten well with brown sugar, and cover with paste.

GOOSEBERRY TART. When the gooseberries have been trimmed, scald them in boiling water, and then drain them; proceed as for other tarts.

JELLY TARTS. Cover the bottom and edges of a tart-dish with puff paste, and bake it; when baked, cover the paste at the edge of the dish with sugar, and glaze with a salamander; when cold, fill the dish with any kind of jelly. This is the only plan to be adopted with jelly; it cannot be put into the oven, as it would melt.

APPLE TART—(FRENCH METHOD.) Scald eight or ten large apples, and when cold mash them with a spoon; then add to them the yolks of four, and the whites of two eggs, and mix the whole well together, adding grated nutmeg and sugar to taste; cover the inside and edges of a tart-dish with puff paste, filling the dish with the marmalade; bake for an hour: before serving, and cover with powdered sugar.

Another way: Take some rennets, cut them in halves, peel them, and take out the cores; cook them in a pan, with a sufficient quantity of sugar, a little water, a piece of cinnamon, and some lemon-peel; when they are well done, and the syrup is reduced in quantity, take them out, and let them stand until they are cold; then line a pie-dish with a rich crust, put in the apples, cover with another crust, glaze with white of egg, and bake in the oven.

APPLE CHARLOTTE. Peel and cut fifteen apples into quarters, taking out the cores, then cut each quarter into fine slices, put them into a saucepan, with a quarter of a pound of butter, half a pound of white powdered sugar, and a little cinnamon; they must be cooked over a very

quick fire, taking care that they do not turn to marmalade; now take out the cinnamon, and line a copper mould with thin slices of bread dipped in butter, put the apples into the mould upon the bread, and cover them with other thin slices; then bake in an oven; when they have attained a fine colour, turn them into a dish, and send to table. This charlotte, however, is usually eaten cold.

Another way: Peel and cut out the cores of as many apples as may be required, cut them in pieces, adding sugar and powdered cinnamon to taste; boil them to a marmalade; cut some long slices of bread very thin, and arrange round a mould, and pour in the marmalade; cover the top with crumb of bread dipped in butter; place the mould on some hot ashes, covering the top also with hot ashes, or a brasing pan: a quarter of an hour will cook it.

TARTLETS. Having made a puff paste, roll it to the thickness of a half-crown; with this paste line some patty-pans, which are to be filled with any kind of sweetmeats, covering them with fine strips of paste; bake for half an hour; when done, cover with sugar, and glaze with a salamander.

MINCE PIES. Take three pounds of bloom raisins, stoned and cut small, a pound of orange-peel cut fine, a dozen apples finely minced, half a pound of sweet almonds, pounded in a mortar with a little white wine, a nutmeg grated, half an ounce of Jamaica pepper, two or three cloves, and a little cinnamon pounded, three pounds of beef suet finely minced, and two pounds of brown sugar; mix all these ingredients well together, adding a pint of white wine and two glasses of brandy. The mass must then be packed closely in stone jars for use, covering well with paper. When used, dredge the patty-pans with flour, line them with puff paste, and fill with the meat, cover with paste, and bake in a rather hot oven. A little more wine should be added when the pies are made.

LEMON MINCE-PIES. Take as many large lemons as will weigh a pound, and having cut each of them into two, squeeze out the juice, and remove the pulp from the skins; boil them until tender, and pound in a mortar; then add half a pound of pounded sugar, half a pound of currants well washed and dried, and the same weight of beef suet finely minced. Mix all these ingredients well together, and fill the patty-pans as for the other sort of mince

pies. Some citron cut small to be added when used.

FRANGIPANE. Put into a saucepan a pint of fine flour, and beat it up well with a dozen eggs, then add a quart of milk, two ounces of butter, and a little salt; and beat the whole up; put it on the fire, let it boil for ten or twelve minutes, stirring constantly, and taking care to prevent its sticking; then take it off the fire, and beat up with it ten sweet and two bitter almonds blanched, and three or four macaroons, all previously pounded in a mortar, with a little orange flower water, and sufficient loaf sugar to sweeten the whole; stir these well together with a wooden spoon.

CHEESE-CAKES. To a pound and a half of pounded sugar, add the yolks of nine, and the whites of six, eggs, well beaten, the juice of four lemons, the rind of two grated, and half a pound of fresh butter; put all these ingredients into a saucepan, stirring gently over a slow fire, until of the consistence of honey; pour it into small jars, and when cold, put paper dipped in brandy over. It will keep good for a considerable time.

LEMON CHEESE-CAKES. Bruise in a mortar a pound of sweet almonds previously blanched; add to them the grated rind of four lemons, a pound of broken lump sugar, the same weight of melted butter when nearly cold, and the yolks of sixteen and the whites of eight eggs well beaten; mix all the ingredients well together, and put into patty pans lined with puff paste. Bake in a moderately hot oven.

ORANGE CHEESE-CAKES are made in the same manner, substituting oranges for lemons.

ALMOND CHEESE-CAKES. Blanch and pound in a mortar a pound and a half of sweet and twenty bitter almonds, add to them the yolks of twelve and the whites of six eggs, well beaten, a pound and a quarter of pounded loaf sugar, a pound and a half of melted butter nearly cold, a nutmeg, and the peel of two lemons grated, two wine-glassfuls of orange-flower water, and a little brandy. Let all these ingredients be well mixed together, and baked in patty pans, as above.

COCOA-NUT CHEESE-CAKES. Having washed and dried the nut, pare off the rind and grate it; dissolve a quarter of a pound of lump sugar in a little water, then add the nut, and stir it till it boils; when nearly cold, add the yolks of three eggs, well beaten. Mix thoroughly, and bake as above.

RICE CHEESE-CAKE. To half a pound of ground rice, add an equal weight of pounded loaf sugar, and melted butter, nearly cold; the yolks of eight, and the whites of five eggs, well beaten; a large glass of brandy, a little ratafia, and the peel of a lemon grated. Mix well together, and bake as above.

MAIDS OF HONOUR, OR PUDDING PIES. Beat a pound of broken loaf sugar, with the yolks of twelve eggs, in a mortar, some blanched sweet almonds, and a few bitter, and three or four table-spoonfuls of orange-flower water. The almonds must be mixed in the last thing before the patty pans are filled. Bake as above.

GALETTE. This is a favourite pastry with the working classes in France, and occasionally with the upper orders. Few persons in Paris go to the minor theatres on the Boulevarts without purchasing some galette to eat there between the acts, and it is really amusing to see the pretty grisettes munching away as soon as the act drop has fallen, although their eyes may just previously have been streaming with tears at some affecting passage of a melo-drama. These transitions from mental to bodily sensitiveness, are, however, by no means uncommon in the French, who seldom allow their grief to spoil their appetite. The extent to which the common people in France indulge in galette, may be judged of from the fact, that a man who kept a shop for the sale of it near the Porte St. Martin theatre in Paris, and who had a *renommée* over his contemporaries in the same locality, sold the good-will of his shop, a place about four feet square, for more than two thousand pounds sterling. The twelfth cakes in France are merely galette marked in slices. A bean is placed in one of them, and the person to whose share this falls, is chosen king for the evening, and is expected to do all the honours, and after having chosen his queen, to make a present of champagne wine, or some other luxury, to the party.

Mrs. Rundell, in her *Domestic Cookery*, gives the following as the recipe for galette, and calls it a Parisian. The English housewife will see that it is neither more nor less than puff paste, made a little more solid than usual: "Take equal quantities of butter and flour, a little salt, and two eggs, (in the commoner sorts of galette, however, no eggs are used, the ingredients are merely flour, butter, and salt,) knead the whole together into a paste, roll it as thin

as a crown piece, (here, again, we must beg to observe that the Paris galette is usually rolled to twice the thickness of a crown piece,) and make it the size of a desert plate, (or much larger) mark it with a knife so as to form diamonds; put it into the oven for a quarter of an hour, take it out, beat up two eggs with a little cream, and some salt, pour it over the cake, and return it to the oven to bake for another quarter of an hour." This recipe of Mrs. Rundell's is for galette of the finer sort. The common galette has only one baking, and is usually taken from the oven two or three minutes before it is quite done, to be glazed—viz., to have a little white of egg, mixed with a very small quantity of sugar, rubbed over it, as is done with a pie crust.

PLUM PUDDING. To a pound of fresh beef suet, finely minced, add a pound of raisins, stoned and chopped, the same weight of currants, well washed and dried, half a pound of flour, half a pound of grated crumb of bread, the peel of a lemon grated, half a nutmeg, grated, eight eggs well beaten, two ounces of candied lemon and orange peel, half a pound of brown sugar, a glass of brandy, and a teacupful of cream; mix all these ingredients well together, put them into a floured cloth, and boil for seven or eight hours, taking care that it does not stop boiling during that time, and keeping the vessel well filled up with boiling water as it wastes; before serving, strew powdered loaf sugar over it. Serve with it a sauce as follows: half a pint of white wine, four or five table-spoonfuls of powdered sugar, and a piece of butter, stirring it till quite hot. Plain melted butter, sweetened with good brown sugar, may be also used.

BAKED PLUM PUDDING. Scald a French roll in boiling milk, when the bread has become well soaked, drain off what milk remains, and with a silver spoon beat the bread to a pap, to which add a quarter of a pound of well-cleaned currants, a quarter of a pound of melted butter, a little lemon peel and nutmeg, grated, a few blanched sweet almonds, and the yolks of four eggs well beaten, and sweeten to palate; mix all well together, pour into a buttered pie dish, and bake for half an hour. This pudding is better when eaten cold.

FAMILY PLUM PUDDING. Take a pound of flour, half a pound of beef suet, minced fine, half a pound of well washed currants, the rind of half a lemon, grated, or cut fine, a few bitter almonds grated, a

little nutmeg, a pinch of salt, and an ounce of brown sugar; mix all these ingredients well together with four eggs, well beaten, and a little milk; pour into a buttered pie dish, and bake in a moderate oven for an hour. When done, turn it out, and strew it over with powdered lump sugar.

RIBBON PLUM PUDDING. Make a good suet paste, roll it out to an oblong shape, then cover it pretty thickly with currants well washed and dried, and a little lemon peel grated, and roll up tightly, closing at the ends; tie up in a cloth, put it in boiling water, and boil for an hour; serve with sauce made of melted butter, sugar, and white wine or brandy.

RIBBON PUDDING WITH PRESERVE. Proceed as above, substituting any kind of jam for the currants. Eat with a little cold butter.

CAMP PUDDINGS. Put into a saucepan half a pound of butter, two table-spoonfuls of brown sugar, a little lemon peel, and a pint of water; when it is just on the point of boiling, take it off, and stir in half a pound of well-dried flour, taking care it does not become lumpy, and when cold, mix in six well beaten eggs; pour this mixture into small cups, and bake in a quick oven. A sauce of wine, sugar, and butter, should be served with them.

MACARONI PUDDING. Mix any quantity of macaroni in some good milk, in the proportion of a quarter of a pound of the former to a pint of the latter, and when quite tender, sweeten with brown sugar, and add a little more milk, and three eggs well beaten. Bake in a buttered dish in a Dutch oven for three-quarters of an hour.

VERMICELLI PUDDING. Follow the directions given for macaroni pudding.

TANSY PUDDING. Prepare some crumb of bread with boiling milk, as directed for marrow pudding; when it is cold, beat up well the yolks of eight, and the whites of three eggs; pound some tansy with two or three leaves of spinach, and put in as much of the expressed juice as will make the pudding of a good green colour, a glass of brandy, a little grated nutmeg, and six ounces of fresh butter: mix all these ingredients well together, sweeten to taste, and stir it over the fire in a saucepan till it is hot; bake it in a buttered dish for three-quarters of an hour. Strew the top with powdered sugar before serving.

BAKED HASTY PUDDING. Boil in a quart of good milk, about a quarter of a

pound of flour, until it becomes pretty thick, then put it into a basin with some butter, a little grated nutmeg, and sweeten to taste; when quite cold, mix in six eggs, well beaten; line a dish with thin puff paste, covering the bottom of it with any kind of preserve (not jelly), pour the pudding over it, and bake in a slack oven for three-quarters of an hour.

WHITE PUDDING. Boil in a quart of milk, two table-spoonfuls of rose water, to which add three eggs well beaten, three table-spoonfuls of flour, and a little salt; stir it in the milk, and just before it is taken off the fire, put in a small piece of fresh butter; when served, cover the top with currant jelly or preserve.

OXFORD PUDDING. Wash some rice well in several waters, and tie it up, but not too tightly, in a pudding cloth; put it on in cold water, and let it boil for two hours; mix some well-washed currants with the rice, and eat with sweet sauce, or cold butter and sugar.

BAKED GOOSEBERRY PUDDING. Scald the fruit, and when quite tender, rub them through a sieve, and sweeten to taste with good brown sugar; then melt a quarter of a pound of butter in some cream, beat the yolks of six, and the whites of three eggs; grate a little lemon peel, and mix the whole well together, adding a little ratafia, and bake in a dish lined with puff paste; grate sugar over it before serving.

BOILED GOOSEBERRY PUDDING. Prepare the fruit as above, and having rolled out a light crust to a proper size, lay it on a large basin, pour in the fruit, and tie up and boil in a cloth; when done, cut a small hole in the top, and put in a good-sized piece of butter, and an egg beat up with a little cream; cover down again, and serve hot.

Another way: Take as many gooseberries as may be necessary to fill the dish, and simmer them till tender; rub them through a sieve, and sweeten; melt about four ounces of butter in some cream, and add to them, with the yolks of six, and the whites of four eggs well beaten, and a little grated lemon peel; mix the whole well together, and bake in a dish lined with puff paste.

RATAFIA PUDDING. Blanch a quarter of a pound of sweet almonds, and pound them in a mortar with a little orange flower water; then add half a pound of ratafia cakes, the yolks of eight, and the whites of three eggs well beaten, a quart of good cream, three glasses of sherry, and three ounces of powdered sugar.

Bake in a slow oven for an hour, in a dish lined with puff paste.

BATTER PUDDING. To twelve large table-spoonfuls of flour, and two quarts of good milk, add twelve eggs, very well beaten, and a little salt; mix well together, and let it stand for two hours, then pour it into a well-floured pudding cloth, or into a mould, and boil for two hours and a half; serve it with a sauce made by dredging a small piece of butter with flour, and melting it with a little water, to which must be added a little wine well sweetened with brown sugar, and the yolks of two or three eggs well beaten. It must be well stirred until quite hot, but must not be allowed to boil. Add a little cinnamon, or any other spice that may be preferred.

MUFFIN PUDDING. Split in halves as many muffins as may be required, and having put into a tin shape a layer of any sort of preserve (not jelly), put over it a layer of the muffin, then another of fruit, and so on alternately, until the shape is full enough; pour over it some warm milk, in which four or five eggs have been previously beaten up; cover the shape, and stand it in a saucepan of boiling water; let it boil in this manner for twenty minutes, then turn it out, and serve with sweet sauce. A French roll may be substituted for the muffins, and it will be better if this pudding be prepared some hours before it is boiled.

GERMAN PUFFS. Mix two large table-spoonfuls of flour, with a quarter of a pint of cream, two eggs well beaten, a little grated nutmeg, four or five bitter almonds pounded in a mortar, a little ratafia, and an ounce of butter beaten to a cream. Bake these ingredients in small buttered cups for half an hour; turn them out in a dish, and serve immediately with sweet sauce poured over them.

CITRON PUDDING. Mix well together a quart of good cream, two large spoonfuls of flour, half a pound of powdered loaf sugar, a little nutmeg grated, the yolks of seven eggs well beaten, and half a pound of citron cut very small; add a small glass of ratafia, and bake it in a dish lined with puff paste.

CHEESE-CAKE PUDDING. Boil two laurel leaves, and two sticks of cinnamon, in two quarts of good milk; strain it, and when nearly cold, add twelve eggs well beaten, and four in which three or four table-spoonfuls of flour have been beaten; put the whole into a saucepan, and stir it until it becomes of the consistence of cus-

tard cream; then take it off, and stir into it a half a pound of the best fresh butter, three-quarters of a pound of sugar, the same weight of well-washed currants, and a small nutmeg grated; add a large wine-glassful of brandy, and bake in a dish lined with puff paste.

COCOA NUT PUDDING. Add to the ingredients given for cocoa-nut cheese cakes, the yolk of an egg, and a quarter of a pound of fresh butter, and bake as above.

ORANGE PUDDING. Mix well together the yolks of nine and the whites of five eggs, six table-spoonfuls of orange marmalade, half a pound of lump sugar, and the same weight of melted butter; six table-spoonfuls of grated bread, and half a pint of cream; bake in a dish lined and edged with puff paste. Add a little ratafia or brandy, when put into the dish.

LEMON PUDDING. Boil four lemons in water until quite soft, keeping them closely covered the whole time, take out the pips, and pound the lemons to a paste; then add half a pound of loaf sugar, finely powdered, the same weight of fresh butter beaten to a cream, and the yolks of six eggs well beaten; mix these ingredients well together, and bake it in a tin lined with puff paste; before serving, turn it out, and cover the top with grated lump sugar.

SAGO PUDDING. Wash well, and pick two table-spoonfuls of sago, which boil in about a quart of water, with a little lemon peel, and cinnamon; when it has become rather thick, add as much white wine as may be necessary to flavour it well, and sweeten to the palate; then beat the yolks of five, and the whites of two eggs, and add to the above; mix together, and pour the whole into a pie dish lined with puff paste; bake about twenty minutes.

TAPIOCA PUDDING. Soak three table-spoonfuls of tapioca for an hour in warm water; then strain, and mix it with the yolks of six, and the whites of three eggs, well beaten, three pints of good milk, some grated nutmeg, a bit of lemon peel, and a little white wine; sweeten to taste; bake in a pie dish, well buttered, and lined with puff paste.

BUTTERMILK PUDDING. Turn a quart of new milk with a pint of buttermilk; drain off the whey, and mix with the curd the crumb of a roll grated, a little lemon peel grated, some nutmeg, some rich cream, three ounces of cold melted butter, the yolks of five, and the whites of two eggs; sweeten the whole to taste, and bake with puff paste for about half an hour.

MARROW PUDDING. Pour over the crumb of a French roll, three pints of boiling milk; cover it closely for an hour; then add to it a pound of marrow cut into small bits, half a pound of raisins stoned, the same quantity of currants, well washed and dried, twelve eggs well beaten, and a little grated nutmeg and lemon peel; mix well all these ingredients with the bread and milk, sweeten with brown sugar, and bake for half an hour in a slow oven. The dish may be lined or not with puff paste, as approved. A small glass of brandy may be added when the pudding is well mixed.

ARROW-ROOT PUDDING. The proportion of arrow-root for this pudding is two large spoonfuls to two quarts of milk. The arrow-root must be first well mixed with a small quantity of milk, and when the remainder of the milk has boiled, add it to the former; when it is nearly cold, add the yolks of three eggs, well beaten, three ounces of powdered sugar, and two ounces of butter, broken into small bits; add a little nutmeg or cinnamon, as the flavour may be approved. When all these ingredients are well mixed, turn it into a buttered dish, and bake for about a quarter of an hour.

BAKED POTATOE PUDDING. Follow the directions given for carrot pudding; or the following:—Boil any required quantity of potatoes in their skins; when done, but not split, peel and bruise them in a mortar, with about half a pound of butter, the yolks of six, and the whites of three eggs well beaten, a little grated nutmeg, and a small glass of ratafia, or brandy; bake in a dish well buttered, in a slow oven, for about twenty minutes. Before serving, turn it out, and powder it over with white sugar. It may be eaten with sweet sauce.

BOILED POTATOE PUDDING. Having boiled two pounds of potatoes, peel and pound them in a mortar with a pound of butter, previously melted for the purpose, the same weight of pounded lump sugar, a quarter of a pound of blanched sweet almonds bruised, a little grated nutmeg, and half a glass of ratafia. Boil in a cloth, or a buttered basin, and serve with sweet sauce.

CARROT PUDDING. Take the red part of two or three boiled carrots, and pound in a mortar with some grated bread, some butter melted for the purpose, a sufficient quantity of sugar, a table-spoonful of any sort of marmalade; then add a little grated nutmeg and lemon peel, and four eggs well

beaten; mix the whole well together, and bake in a dish lined with puff paste.

RASPBERRY PUDDING. Take a sufficient quantity of raspberry jam, a little good cream, the yolk of eight eggs well beaten, some sugar, and half a pound of clarified butter; beat the whole well together, and bake in a dish lined with puff paste.

CHEESE PUDDING. Put into a saucepan half a pound of good grated cheese, with a pint of new milk, five ounces of grated bread crumbs, and two eggs well beaten; stir well, till the cheese is dissolved, and then put it into a buttered dish, and brown it in a Dutch oven, or with a salamander. Serve quite hot.

EGG PUDDING. Take the yolks of eight, and the whites of three eggs, well beaten, half a pint of rich cream, half a pound of good brown sugar, a little flour, a little grated nutmeg, and a glass of brandy; mix these ingredients well together, and having melted half a pound of butter, add them to it when it is nearly cold, and put the whole into a dish lined with puff paste, and bake in a slow oven for twenty minutes.

TRANSPARENT PUDDING. Put into a stewpan a pound of good fresh butter, the same weight of lump sugar well pounded, and ten eggs well beaten; stir it over the fire until it gets pretty thick; then throw it into a basin to cool, and add to it a little grated nutmeg; bake it in a dish lined with puff paste; grate sugar over the top before serving, and glaze with a salamander.

CUSTARD PUDDING. Boil in a quart of milk, a bit of cinnamon, lemon peel, and grated nutmeg; when this is nearly cold, strain, and mix with it the yolks of eight, and the whites of four eggs, well beaten; boil in a cloth, or buttered basin, for half an hour; serve with wine sauce.

BREAD AND BUTTER PUDDING. Lay into the bottom of a mould, well buttered, some thin slices of a French roll buttered, strew over them a layer of well washed currants, until the shape is half filled; then add half a pint of currant wine, or, if not at hand, brandy or rum; let this stand for about an hour, and then pour over it a quart of good milk, adding six eggs well beaten, a little grated nutmeg, and sugar; boil it two hours, and serve with wine sauce.

BREAD PUDDING. Cut the crumb of a French roll into thin slices, and scald them with a sufficient quantity of boiling milk; when it is cold, mash the bread,

and having laid in the bottom of a pudding dish some preserved gooseberries or currants, add the bread; then pour over it some good milk, three well beaten eggs, and a little orange-flower water, and bake for half an hour. Grate nutmeg over the top when served.

BAKED GROUND RICE PUDDING. Take any quantity of ground rice, in the proportion of a quarter of a pound to a pint of milk, and when well mixed, boil it, stirring it all the time; then add a quarter of a pound of butter, (for the same proportion of rice and milk,) and when nearly cold sweeten it to taste, and add the yolks of six and the whites of three eggs, well beaten, a little orange-flower water, a little grated nutmeg, and a small glass of brandy; bake it in a Dutch oven, or brown it with a salamander.

BOILED GROUND RICE PUDDING. Mix in a quart of good milk and a little orange-flower water, half a pound of rice flour, boil it till thick, then take it off the fire, and mix in half a pound of butter, a little grated nutmeg, a little lemon peel, the yolks of six and the whites of three eggs, well beaten; sweeten to taste with brown sugar, and boil it in a buttered basin thoroughly filled; serve with hot sweet sauce.

BOILED RICE PUDDING. Boil half a pound of rice in water, till it is quite soft, then put into a basin, and stir into it four ounces of butter, four ounces of sugar, some nutmeg and lemon peel grated; work the whole well together, adding a pound of grocers' currants, well washed and cleaned; when the whole has been well mixed together, put it into a pudding cloth, and boil for two hours; serve with wine sauce.

BAKED RICE PUDDING. Wash well a quarter of a pound of rice, and let it simmer over a slow fire in a quart of milk, with a stick of cinnamon, or a few bitter almonds, till the milk begins to thicken; then take it off, and when a little cool stir in a good sized piece of butter, a quarter of a pound of good brown sugar; the yolk of four eggs well beaten, to be poured over the top, when all the other ingredients are well mixed; grate a little nutmeg over the top; bake for twenty minutes in a slow oven.

COTTAGE PUDDINGS. Having cut up very fine a pound of suet, add to it about a pound of currants, well washed and dried, the same quantity of crumb of bread grated, a little nutmeg, a wine-glass of ratafia, and a little orange flower water;

mix the whole well together, and with ten eggs, well beaten, form into a stiff paste; then rub the hands well with flour, roll the paste into small balls, and fry to a good colour, keeping them briskly moved about in the frying-pan, that they may not burn; when done, serve with sugar strewed over them, and sweet sauce.

DAMSON PUDDING. Make a batter with well beaten eggs, milk, flour, and sugar to taste, and mix in the batter some damsons stoned; boil in a buttered basin for two hours.

CAROLINA SNOW BALLS. Boil some rice in milk until quite soft; prepare some large apples as for apple dumplings, and having placed as much of the rice upon a small cloth as will entirely cover the apple like a crust; tie each up closely, and boil for two hours; serve with melted butter and sugar, or with wine sauce.

SUET PUDDING. Chop some beef suet very fine, adding to it an equal quantity of flour, and a quarter of its weight of crumb of bread, grated, a little salt, a pint of milk, and six eggs well beaten; mix the whole well together, and boil in a cloth for four or five hours; serve plain, to eat with meat, or with sweet sauce.

IMITATION SUET PUDDING. Mix half a pint of good cream, half the quantity of milk, three eggs well beaten, three quarters of a pound of flour, a little salt, and a teacupful of melted butter, well together, and boil in a buttered basin for two hours.

YORKSHIRE PUDDING. This pudding is usually made to eat with roast beef, and in the county from whence it takes its name, is a never-failing accompaniment to that joint; but it is frequently served and eaten before the meat. To make it, mix together six tablespoonfuls of flour, a little salt, a pint of good milk, and three eggs, well beaten; then put this batter into a shallow tin, well buttered, set it on a gridiron over the fire for a few minutes, and then place it under the beef that is roasting.

FLAN. Under the head **GALETTE**, we give the recipe for a common, but very favourite kind of pastry in France. Flan is another equally popular preparation. It is made exactly as a Yorkshire pudding is made in England, adding, however, a little sugar, and is baked in an oven without meat over it.

BAKED APPLE PUDDING. Choose some large apples, and when they have been pared and cored, put them into a stewpan with water just sufficient to cover them; when they have become soft, take them

out, and beat them smooth, adding as much powdered loaf sugar as they may require, some fresh butter, the juice and peel of a lemon, and the yolks of five or six eggs, well beaten; line a dish with puff paste, put in the apples, and bake for three quarters of an hour. Grate white sugar over the top when served.

BOILED APPLE PUDDING. Prepare the apples as for apple tart, and place them in a crust in the same manner as directed for beef-steak pudding; when done, cut out a round hole in the top, and put in a piece of fresh butter, and some good moist sugar.

APPLE DUMPLINGS. Having pared and scooped out the core of six large apples, put a clove and a little grated lemon peel into each, and enclose them in puff paste; boil them in small pudding cloths, separately, for an hour. Before serving, open the top of each, and put in a small piece of fresh butter, and strew over them a little powdered loaf sugar.

APPLE CAKE. Peel and core a dozen good apples, and make them into a marmalade with a little lemon peel and cinnamon; when done, pass them through a sieve, and put them into a saucepan with a tablespoonful of potatoe fecula, (see **STARCH**.) half a pound of sugar, and two ounces of butter; evaporate them over the fire, and when quite dry, beat up six eggs, and mix with them, then put the whole in a buttered mould, and bake in a slow oven.

APPLE FRITTERS. Cut some apples into small pieces, and stew them with a little water, sugar, and lemon peel; when quite tender, add a little white wine, the juice of a small lemon, and a small piece of butter; let this cool, and mix to a batter: fry, and serve with powdered sugar over them.

Another way: Make a thick batter, composed of six eggs well beaten, three quarters of a pint of cream, a little yeast, a glass of white wine, half a glass of ratafia, a little orange flower water, and a little grated nutmeg, adding as much flour as may be necessary; peel and core three or four apples, and cut into small thin bits, mix with the batter, which must be then covered over, and stood near the fire for three quarters of an hour; drop the batter into boiling lard, and fry to a good colour. Strew sugar over them when served.

Another way: Having peeled the apples, cut them into quarters, and remove the cores, and steep them for two hours in

brandy; drain and dry them in a linen cloth covered with flour; fry to a good colour, and serve, having first covered them with white powdered sugar.

Another way: Pare the apples, scoop out the core, and cut into slices about the thickness of a dollar; let them steep for some time in brandy, and then dip them in a paste made as for Brioche fritters; fry to a good colour, and glaze with sugar and a salamander.

PEACH FRITTERS—are made the same way as apple fritters.

APRICOT FRITTERS. For this article the fruit should not be too ripe. Cut in two as many apricots as you may require, and having taken out the stones, let them soak for an hour in brandy, with a little sugar and the juice of a lemon; drain them, dip them in the batter, and fry to a good colour. Before serving, powder them well with white sugar.

CREAM FRITTERS. Mix a handful of well dried flour with the whites and yolks of two eggs, and the yolks of six, four macaroons, bruised, a little preserved lemon-peel, cut very fine, half a pint of good cream, the same quantity of milk, and a large lump of sugar; let the whole boil over a slow fire for a quarter of an hour, until the cream has become of the consistence of thick paste; cool it on a floured dish, dredging flour over it; when the paste is quite cool, cut it into small pieces, roll them in your hands to a round form, and fry them of a good colour; when served, powder with fine sugar.

FRITTERS SOUFFLES. Mix a pound of flour, the whites and yolks of eight eggs, a spoonful of best salad oil, and a little salt, well together (the whites of the eggs having been separately well whisked) until it is of the consistence of paste. Make the paste into small balls, the size of a walnut, and fry in oil to a good colour, and serve quite hot, powdered over with sugar. The paste should be made some hours before wanted, as it is lighter.

BRIOCHE FRITTERS. Take some small brioche cakes (see **BRIOCHE CAKE**), and having cut them in two, take out the middle part, and fill up the vacancy with cream or sweetmeats; then put the parts together, dip them in paste made of flour, a little oil, and white wine, and fry of a good colour. Cover with sugar before serving, and glaze with a salamander.

BLANC-MANGE FRITTERS. Put into a stew-pan half a pound of ground rice, four eggs, a quart of milk, and a quarter of a pound of sugar; let it boil three

hours, stirring frequently; when it has become thick, take it off, and add to it a little grated lemon peel, and a little salt. When the whole is well mixed together, spread this cream upon a dish which has been floured, shake some flour over it; and when cold, cut them into bits, and fry in boiling lard, until a good brown colour; put sugar on them, and serve hot.

GOOSEBERRY FRITTERS. Prepare the batter as before directed; stewing some gooseberries, and mixing with it, instead of the apple.

ALMOND FRITTERS. Blanch a pound of sweet almonds; pour over them four table-spoonfuls of orange flower water, and in a short time after a pint and a half of cream; let them stand for two hours and a half, and then pound them to a paste; add the yolks of nine eggs, well beaten, a few Naples biscuits, pounded sugar, to taste, and mix well together; fry in butter to a good colour; serve with powdered sugar over the top.

CURRENT FRITTERS WITHOUT EGGS. Stir into some mild ale, as much flour as will form it into a thick batter, and add to it a little sugar, and some currants; beat up quickly; and drop from a spoon into boiling lard, and fry to a good colour. Powder with sugar when served.

POTATOE FRITTERS. Pound well in a mortar, a few mealy potatoes, with a little white wine, grated nutmeg, a piece of butter, about the size of an egg, a little sugar; mix this into a paste; roll it out with some flour, cut into small round pieces, and fry to a good colour; serve with sifted sugar over them.

COMMON PANCAKE. Mix half a pound of flour with six eggs well beaten, and add by degrees enough good milk to bring it to a proper consistence; drop into boiling lard, and fry to a good colour. When served, pile them up on the dish, with sugar strewed between each. A lemon should always be sent to table with pancakes.

FINE PANCAKES. To six table-spoonfuls of flour add twelve eggs well beaten, a tumblerful of white wine, half a pound of melted butter, nearly cold, the same weight of pounded lump sugar, a little grated nutmeg, a quart of cream, and a wineglass of ratafia; mix it well; beat the batter for some time, and pour very thin into the pan. When served, strew over with pounded white sugar.

FRENCH PANCAKES. Beat in separate basins the yolks and whites of ten eggs; mix with the yolks six table-spoonfuls of

pounded white sugar, the same quantity of flour, a pint and a half of good milk, the juice of a lemon, and half the peel grated, and a little orange flower water; add the whites the last thing; fry to a good colour, and serve with grated sugar.

MADRAS PANCAKES. To six eggs, well beaten, add six tablespoonfuls of boiled rice, sugar to taste, a little pounded cinnamon, and a little orange flower water; mix all well together, and fry in butter to a good colour. When served, divide it into quarters, and strew over with pounded lump sugar.

GERMAN PANCAKES. To the whites of six and the yolks of twelve fresh eggs, well beaten, add, by degrees, three quarters of a pound of powdered white sugar, a quart of good milk, lukewarm, half a pound of melted butter, almost cold, a little good yeast, and a large wineglassful of brandy; mix all these ingredients well together, and stir in as much flour as will bring it to a thick batter; let it stand covered by the side of the fire for half an hour; then roll it out thin, cut into square or oblong pieces, cover them with preserve or marmalade, double them, and after they have stood again for twenty minutes, fry them of a good colour in boiling lard. When served sift sugar over them.

PEACHES. This excellent fruit, according to some authors, was first introduced into Italy from Persia, by the Romans; others say that it was first brought into Gaul by the Phocians, from whence it was afterwards carried into Italy. The ancients attributed many deleterious effects to the peach. Galen himself was of this opinion; but experience has shewn that the only danger to be apprehended from it is when it is taken to excess; the same objection may be raised against any other agreeable fruit. If eaten with sugar and wine, no unpleasant effect is likely to arise. Peaches should be chosen ripe, well coloured, juicy, and of a fine odour. They refresh and gently cool the body; they are very pleasant and wholesome for young people of sanguine and bilious temperaments, but are not so good for elderly persons, whose stomachs are weaker. They are usually eaten with powdered sugar, which adds to their wholesome properties; they are also made into a delicious preserve. The leaves of the peach tree have a strong resemblance to those of the almond, but the colour of the peach blossom is a little redder. The peach tree throws out very few roots, for

which reason it does not endure long. It will thrive in any soil, but grows best, and bears the finest fruit, in a warm situation and a sandy land; it will not live in a bleak and exposed position. In clearing and digging the ground in the month of November, care should be taken not to bury any of the fallen leaves at the foot of the tree. A strong bitter would be drawn from the leaves, which would communicate its effects to the fruit. To raise the tree, kernels should be planted in furrowed ground, at two feet distance from each other, so that the plants when fit may be easily transplanted. The plant should be kept well cleared of weeds, and again transplanted in two years. They require to be well watered regularly through the summer. There is no tree that requires such frequent removals as the peach tree; its productiveness being thereby considerably increased. The peach tree should be watered in the evening in warm weather with cold water, sometimes mixing with it a little of the lees of wine, particularly when it appears to wither. In order to preserve the peach tree when there is a danger of its dying, head it down in the way that willows are done, and it will again branch out finer and stronger than before. Peach trees, if not trained against walls, should be propped up with poles, as from the small quantity of roots they throw out, they have not much hold in the ground.

PEACHES IN BRANDY. Take whole peaches, blanch, and peel them, and preserve them as hereafter directed, and put to them as much brandy as syrup; mix the whole well together without boiling. Half a pound of sugar should be put to a pound of fruit.

PRESERVED PEACHES WITHOUT BRANDY. Take some peaches which are nearly-ripe, peel them, cut them in two, take out the kernels, and blanch them a little; boil them gently in syrup, and leave them in it till the next day; then take them out and let them drain; now boil the syrup thoroughly, put your fruit into it, and let them simmer for a short time, after which put them into bottles. The quantity of syrup put into the bottles should be about equal to the bulk of the fruit. If they are to be preserved in their green state, they must be peeled, and the kernels taken out, destroying the form of the peach as little as possible. Blanch them over a moderate fire, in plain water; then take them out, and put them into cold water; drain them, and boil them

gently in syrup. After some time, they are to be taken from the fire, and allowed to get cold; and are then boiled again until the syrup becomes very thick; then bottle.

COMPOTE OF PEACHES. Select those peaches which are the hardest to the touch; peel them, and take out the stones; boil them until they are soft, take them out, and dip them in cold water; put them on again to boil, with some clarified sugar, until no more scum rises; then take them off, and serve hot.

PEACH MARMALADE. Peel and cut ripe peaches, and put them into an iron pot, with three quarters of a pound of sugar for every pound of fruit, taking care that they do not burn; stir them frequently, and, when nearly done, take the kernels, which have been previously put aside, and blanched, and add them to the marmalade; put into pots, covering the top with white paper, dipped in brandy, and tying over with paper, or thin parchment.

CONSERVE OF PEACHES. Make a marmalade as above, but without adding the kernels; dry it carefully upon a hot plate, or in a slack oven; and when nearly dry, mix a quarter of a pound of the marmalade with a pound of very finely pounded sugar; press it into the form of a cake, drying thoroughly, and it will keep for almost any length of time. It cannot be dried too slowly.

PEACH RATAFIA. Take four quarts of good French white brandy, two quarts of peach juice, and two pounds of powdered sugar; the peaches are to be fully ripe, and of good quality; the kernels are to be taken out, put into a cloth, and pressed by a hand press; the juice from the kernels is to be added to the above mixture; and when the whole has stood together for five or six weeks, in a closely-covered jar, it is to be filtered off, and put into bottles. If it be not convenient to press the kernels, put them in a bottle with some brandy separately, having first chopped them well up, or bruised them; and when the ratafia is decanted, add the brandy in which the kernels have been steeped.

In the United States, where peaches are very abundant, it is usual to make them into brandy, which is said to have a fine flavour.

For the use of peaches in pastry, see **PASTRY.**

PEACOCK. A large bird, of beautiful plumage, which may be domesticated nearly to the same extent as the common fowl, and be fed in the same way. The

female does not begin to lay until she is three years old, and then with such secrecy, that it is necessary to watch her, in order to find the eggs. When sitting, she never leaves her nest until pressed by hunger, and returns immediately after she has taken her food. If she be disturbed much while sitting, she will take such fright as either to abandon her eggs or destroy them. The eggs of the peahen may sometimes be hatched by a common hen, provided it be of large size. The flesh of this bird, both male and female, was held in high esteem by the ancient Romans and some other nations; but for the last century or two it has been rarely served at table in any country. In France, however, within the last few years, it has been considered fashionable, in large parties, to serve the young of the bird when at the same age as chickens. The flesh of the full-grown peacock is coarse; but the young, if carefully fed, are delicate and agreeable eating. They may be cooked in the same way as turkey.

PEARS. The variety of this fruit is very great, but most of the eating pears are more or less agreeable. They are much less flatulent than apples, and may be eaten even in large quantities by those who could not without inconvenience eat a single apple. The finest pears known in England are the Bonne Chretienne, the Jargognel, and the Bewry; and the finest that are imported are from the island of Jersey. The common Bergamot pear is of delicious flavour. All kinds of pears are more or less astringent in their nature. The best mode of keeping pears for any length of time is to dip the stalk into wax, and hang up the pear by a string. It is also advisable, when it can be done, to gather a small portion of the branch itself with the pear, and to seal it with the stalk. Pears do not suffer from the action of the frost so readily as apples; but if they be frozen, care must be taken not to put them near the fire, for in that case they would lose their flavour, and become rotten. They should, on the contrary, be dipped in cold water and be left for some time. If the temperature be low, a little crust of ice will form round them, which, when the pears are taken out of the water, will gradually disappear, and leave the fruit almost as fresh and sweet as when it was first gathered. The winter pears form a very good dish cooked in various ways. They may be simply peeled, cut into slices, and stewed gently with a little sugar, water, cloves, and cinnamon, adding

a little lemon juice; or they may be stewed in French white wine with similar seasoning; or be baked in an oven in the same way, adding a little port wine to increase the flavour and improve the colour. The addition of a little fresh lemon-peel is also an improvement.

PEAR MARMALADE. Take ripe pears of good quality, and, having peeled them, boil them until they are quite soft; press them through a sieve, and put the marmalade over the fire; when it is become thick, moisten with syrup, and add powdered sugar in such proportion that the whole quantity of sugar employed may be equal to one pound for a pound of fruit. The sugar and fruit are to be made well hot, and stirred frequently, taking care, however, never to pass the state of simmering; when it is thoroughly heated, and of a proper thickness, put it into pots in the usual way.

PEAR JELLY. Peel and cut ripe pears into quarters, and boil them into a marmalade with water; then pass the marmalade through a sieve, so as to have only the juice, and boil it with sugar in equal portions; when it is become sufficiently thick by boiling, put it into glasses and cover over.

PRESERVED PEARS. Blanch ripe pears; then peel and cut them into quarters, taking out the cores; boil them in strong syrup for a short time, and leave them for twelve hours after boiling in the syrup; then take out the pears and drain them, and give the syrup another boil; put the fruit in again, and let it boil for a short time. The quantity of sugar used should be equal to the weight of the fruit.

PRESERVED PEARS IN BRANDY. Take some fine Bewry pears, not too ripe, and put them on the fire in a sufficient quantity of cold water, letting them simmer, but not boil; when they are sufficiently softened to yield readily to the pressure of the finger, take them out, peel them carefully, prick them with a pin, and put them on again in fresh water, with the juice of a lemon; let them boil rapidly, and when they are sufficiently done, so that a pin will pass readily through them without the least resistance, take them out, and put them into cold water. In the meantime have ready some hot thick syrup, and, having well drained the pears, pour it over them. Let them stand for twenty-four hours, and then give them a gentle boil. They are to be again taken out of the syrup and dipped in cold water; after which, hot syrup is to be poured upon them, and having stood three days, they are to have

another boil; when cold, take them out, drain them, and put them into bottles; then thicken the syrup by a few boilings, and add an equal quantity of brandy. Filter the liquor through a bag, pour it over the fruit, and tie over the bottles. Any other pear of good quality may be treated in the same way.

PEAS. This is a vegetable in almost universal estimation; but it is nevertheless one in which persons whose digestive powers are not strong must indulge but sparingly; for although very delicate, it comes under the denomination of a "windy" vegetable. Great encouragement is given to the market gardeners near London to produce them very early by forcing, as for peas thus produced and brought to market about Christmas, enormous prices are obtained. There are a great variety of peas; but they may, however, be classed under two general heads—viz., "field pea," and "garden pea." For the former sort, what are cultivated for the common supply of the market, the dwarf kind is generally sown; but many of the dwarf kind are also sown in gardens, as they are very productive, and do not require the troublesome operation of sticking. The favourite kinds of early pea are the Charleton and early Reading, which are sown about the middle of October in a sheltered situation; and, if well protected during the winter, will produce a crop in May. A succession of the early sorts should be sown in January. For the later peas, such as the blue Prussian, the marrowfat, both tall and dwarf, the Spanish dwarf, and the sugar pea. The rows of the larger kinds should be at least four feet asunder; and when the plants are about eight inches high, they should be sticked, varying the length of the sticks to the usual growth of the different kinds of pea. Ground designed for peas should be allowed to remain one year without manuring, and care should be taken in covering the rows that no peas be left on the surface, as the mice would be thereby attracted, and cause great havoc to the crop. The fine flavour of the pea depends essentially upon its being gathered a very short time before it is used. Persons living in large cities, and who therefore can seldom eat peas until they have been gathered fifteen or twenty hours, can never have them so good as those who live in the country. Even where persons have gardens of their own, it is advisable to delay the time of gathering until within an hour or so of

cooking. Of late years, and since the introduction of steamers between Lisbon and England, large quantities of peas have been imported from Portugal and sold in the London market at a very early period of the season, as young English peas. The flavour of these peas, after a voyage of three or four days, is very inferior. Peas are also imported from Russia, and are sold by weight. By a peculiar preparation they are dried in Russia without destroying their colour; and as they can be had at all times of the year, they form a dish for the table when no others can be had; but are rather curious than agreeable. Peas are also preserved in tin cases, (see PRESERVATION OF MEATS AND VEGETABLES;) but they fall infinitely short in flavour of the fresh vegetables. In England, peas in their green state are seldom cooked in more than two ways, either plainly boiled and forming a separate dish, or in soup and stews; but in France, independently of their use in soup and stews, they are cooked in three different ways as a dish for the table—viz., plainly boiled, partially stewed, and with milk and sugar.

TO BOIL PEAS. Shell and wash them, then drain them in a colander, and put them on in boiling water, with a table-spoonful of salt; boil till tender, and serve on a dish on which you have placed a slice of fresh butter. A bunch of parsley or mint is sometimes boiled with them. The saucepan should not be covered while peas are boiling, and they should not be allowed to remain at all in the water when done, as they lose their colour.

STEWED PEAS. Make a light roux and dress the peas in it for a few minutes, moistening from time to time with hot water; then add salt and pepper, two or three onions, a little parsley, and chibols, and chopped lettuce; let them reduce gently until the peas are thoroughly done; and before serving, thicken with the yolks of two or three eggs, taking care that the mixture does not boil after the eggs have been put in, lest it should turn.

PEAS WITH MILK AND SUGAR. Put a quart of very young peas in water, with a piece of butter; boil them; then crush them with the hand, and let them drain in a colander; now put them in a stewpan over a brisk fire, with a little salt, pepper, and sugar, and a small quantity of parsley and chibols; moisten from time to time with boiling water, taking care to

shake them frequently; and when they are nearly dry, beat up the yolks of three eggs with some cream, or good milk, and stir it well into the stewpan until it has become sufficiently thick.

TO PRESERVE PEAS. Gather them before sunrise, shell them immediately, and throw them into boiling water; when they have had one good boil, take them off; and when cold, spread them thin over a wire sieve. Place the sieve for six hours over hot wood ashes, or over a very slow charcoal fire, so as to dry them gradually, and then put them into bottles, corking them carefully. Peas in this way, if slowly dried, will keep till winter.

PEPPER. This, although now a very common spice, was at one time so scarce that it was sold at a high rate; and in war, tribute in pepper was frequently exacted instead of money. It came originally from Java, but it is now grown extensively in all the West India islands, and in most hot countries. Peppers are of various kinds, but appear to have nearly the same properties, in modified degrees. Those used chiefly in Europe are the black and white pepper, which grow in berries, like currants, and being dried, are exported to Europe; and the long pepper, which is a collection of small grains united, and forming a single body. The strongest cayenne pepper comes from the East and West Indies, but very strong is also made in Portugal and Spain. There are also various medicinal peppers, such as cubebs, &c., which are extensively used. Domestic pepper appears to be one of the most wholesome, as it is also one of the most useful, spices; but it should be abstained from in all cases where excitement of the system is to be avoided. In ordinary health, however, pepper seems to have the effect of stimulating the stomach gently to the performance of its functions; and in certain cases, it may be taken in very large quantities with great benefit. Cayenne pepper made into pills with bread has been used in indigestion with excellent results, but it is a remedy not to be trifled with. Generally speaking, however, the patient is the best judge as to whether it should be continued. If he does not find any immediate and unpleasant effects from its use, he may increase the dose to any extent, according to his sensations. Cayenne pepper is not one of those things which gives no direct evidence of its action; it either does good immediately, or harm, and must be abandoned, or persevered in according to the

indications which the patient receives. Pepper is used much more extensively in warm than cold countries, and seems there to be essential to keep up the equilibrium of heat between the surface and the interior of the body. The quantity of pepper used in some warm climates would be injurious in the colder parts of Europe. In Portugal, the peasantry sometimes pluck the capsicums from the plant, and eat them, with almost as much relish as an Englishman would have in eating a young cucumber. In Spain, also, the red pepper (powdered capsicum) enters largely into almost every dish. A liquid made from cayenne pepper, and of extraordinary strength, is imported from Jamaica. Pepper forms the basis of an electuary for hemorrhoids, called Ward's Paste.

PEPPERMINT. (See **MINT.**) This kind of mint is more carminative than common mint. It is used medicinally as tea, in cases of flatulency and indigestion; and as a distilled water. The essential oil is also taken medicinally; one drop on a bit of sugar, two or three times a day; or as a lozenge. Peppermint lozenges are sold by all druggists and confectioners.

PERMANENT INK. There are several modes of making this ink, amongst them are the following:—Dissolve in three ounces and a half of distilled water, or water that has been previously boiled, half an ounce of acetate, and the same quantity of carbonate of manganese. The water should be warm, to facilitate the dissolution. When the mixture is cold, colour it by adding a little gum arabic and indigo, rubbed up in a mortar. Before marking the linen, moisten the part with a mixture composed of fifty-six grains of prussiate of potash, finely powdered, thirty-eight grains of powdered gum arabic, and three drachms of distilled water. The linen is to be dried before it is marked, and, after marking, it is to be moistened with a solution of caustic potash. The liquid must be shaken each time the pen is used.

Another mode: Take chlorurate of platina, and mix with it in a bottle twice its weight of water. Having prepared the linen by a strong solution of gum arabic, subsequently dried, mark the linen with the above mixture; and when the ink is dry, go over the letters again with a weak solution of muriate of tin. This is one of the most indelible marking inks known.

A third mode: Take two ounces of

pure concentrated nitrate of manganese, and mix it with two ounces of a strong decoction of nut-gall; add an ounce of common writing ink. Before marking the linen, prepare it in the same way as ordered in the first receipt.

A fourth mode: Rub in a mortar five scruples of nitrate of silver, with one drachm of gum arabic, one scruple of sap green, and one ounce of distilled water, or rain water, or water that has been previously boiled. Distilled water in any case is the best, but water that has been boiled will answer the purpose.

PERRY. A liquor made from the juice of pears. The process is the same as for cider. (See **CIDER.**) The commonest description of pears is generally used; and in some countries the sorts which do not ripen until after the autumn are preferred; the necessary additional sweetness being given by mixing a sufficient quantity of sugar with the juice before fermentation. The mixed juices of ripe pears and ripe and sweet apples are brewed in some parts of Switzerland, and make an agreeable beverage.

PEWTER, TO CLEAN. Scour with fine sand, water, and melon leaves; rinse in cold water; and polish with fine whiting.

PICKLES. There is great variety in pickles, but the basis of pickles is almost always the same. In nine cases out of ten the first stage is salting, and after that, all the precaution necessary is to use good vinegar. Where the articles are of a white colour, white wine vinegar should be used; but the vinegar made by the London vinegar manufacturers will answer for all ordinary occasions.

ARTICHOKE BOTTOMS AND CHESNUTS. Boil them until quite tender; the skins of the chesnuts are to be first removed by partial boiling in a separate vessel; take them out and drain them, put them into a jar with a small quantity of salt, and pour over vinegar, (cold,) boiled in the same way as for red cabbage.

BARBERRIES may be pickled with vinegar, or be merely preserved in brine. If done with vinegar, lay the bunches in salt and water for twelve hours, then pour over vinegar prepared as for red cabbage. Put into the jar an ounce of salt, three or four pieces of ginger, and a quarter of a pound of loaf sugar, for each quart of vinegar; pour over the vinegar hot. If the barberries are to be kept in salt, bruise a few of them, and add the juice to water in the proportion of one-fourth; then put the

whole barberries into a jar, pour over the liquid, and add sufficient salt to make a very strong brine.

BEET ROOT. Boil the root until the skin can be removed easily; having removed the skin, cut the root into slices, and put them into salt and water for twelve hours; drain them, put them into a jar, and pour over (cold) white wine vinegar, previously boiled with whole pepper and ginger; for a quart of vinegar, use half an ounce of pepper, and a good-sized piece of white ginger: if the beet root be red, use black pepper; but if white, the contrary. Any other root, such as carrot, parsnip, turnip, &c., may be pickled in the same manner.

TO PICKLE CABBAGES. Shred the inner leaves of good firm red cabbage, sprinkle them plentifully with salt, and let them lie on a sieve for a day; put into the jar, and cover with vinegar which has been boiled with whole black pepper, ginger, and cloves. The proportions are, half an ounce of pepper, a drachm of ginger, and a drachm of cloves, to a quart of vinegar. The quantity of cloves may be increased for those who like the flavour. The vinegar should be poured over cold. Do not, either in this, or in any other receipt for pickling, strain off the spices; they are to be put into the jar with the vinegar.

CAPSICUMS. Pour over them hot white wine vinegar, boiled with mustard-seed and horseradish; or the capsicums may be opened, and filled with mustard-seed and scraped horseradish, and then be sewn up. In this case only pour over plain hot vinegar, which has been well boiled. Nasturtiums may be pickled by pouring over them vinegar boiled with mustard-seed and horseradish.

TO PICKLE CAULIFLOWER. Having trimmed the cauliflower, put it into salt and water for twelve hours; then put it either whole or in detached parts, according to the size, into a jar, and pour over (cold) white wine vinegar, previously boiled with whole white pepper. In this, as in all other cases, tie over with wet bladder and leather; and whenever the bladder is removed to take out any of the pickle, wet the bladder again, so that it may adhere firmly. The cauliflower is sometimes about half boiled in strong salt and water, before the vinegar is put upon it.

PICKLED EGGS. Eggs are sometimes pickled for garnishing dishes; all that is necessary is to boil them hard in water,

remove the shells, and then boil them for ten minutes in white wine vinegar and spices; put them into a jar with the vinegar and spices, and some slices of beet root previously boiled in water until the skin can be taken off easily.

TO PICKLE GHERKINS. Gather the cucumbers small and very dry, and lay them in salt and water for five or six days, changing the water once in the time; then drain them very dry, and pour over them hot some good white vinegar, boiled as for cabbage, but with the addition of a little nutmeg; cover the whole with fresh vine or cabbage leaves, and let the jar stand for a day near the fire; then throw away the leaves and strain off the vinegar, and boil it again; pour it over the gherkins and add fresh leaves; this may be repeated a third time, if the colour of the gherkins be not sufficiently green. For domestic uses, all this trouble, however, is useless; the colour of the gherkins may be more green, but their flavour is not at all improved; above all, avoid the plan resorted to by oilmen, who generally prepare this pickle in a brass pan, in order to have a fine colour.

HOT PICKLE. Boil a quart of vinegar with two ounces of salt, an ounce of ginger, half an ounce of white pepper, two or three cloves of garlic, three or four capsicums, an ounce of white mustard-seed, an ounce of allspice, and two teaspoonfuls of cayenne. This is not to boil for more than five minutes, and is then to be put into a jar. Cauliflowers, French beans, small gherkins, nasturtiums, asparagus, unripe apples, gooseberries, barberries, currants, and indeed any other fruit or vegetables, may be put into this pickle; but when vegetables are used, it is always advisable to steep them for a few hours in salt and water.

INDIAN PICKLE. Boil in salt and water for a quarter of an hour a cauliflower, two summer cabbages, six heads of celery, a quart of French beans, and two sticks of sliced horseradish; drain and dry in the sun, or by the fire, until very crisp, having first divided the vegetables into small neat pieces; half a pound of garlic is to be put into salt for three days, and dried in the same way; have ready in a jar half a pound of bruised and washed whole ginger, two ounces of bruised mustard-seed, two ounces of turmeric, two ounces of black pepper, a quarter of an ounce of Cayenne pepper, and an ounce of allspice; sprinkle these

with salt, and let them stand for a day before the vegetables are added; then put in the vegetables, and pour over them, boiling hot, two quarts of the strongest white wine vinegar.

LEMON PICKLE. This is made in various ways; the following is one of the best and most simple:—Slice twelve large lemons, and put them into a jar with a pound of salt; let them lie for twelve hours; then pour over (hot) a gallon of vinegar boiled for a quarter of an hour with an ounce of garlic, (or two ounces of sliced horse-radish,) three ounces of white mustard-seed, half an ounce of whole black pepper, a quarter of an ounce of bruised cloves and nutmeg, three drachms of mace, and two tea-spoonfuls of Cayenne; tie over the jar, and leave it near the fire for a few hours; then take out the whole contents of the jar, and boil for a quarter of an hour; fill the jar again, tie over, and keep in a dry and warm place for at least a fortnight; at the end of which time strain the whole through a fine sieve, and put into bottles for use. A very good lemon pickle for immediate use may be made by taking some liquid from hot pickle, if there be any in the house, and adding to each half-pint the juice of a lemon, and the grated peel; boil for five minutes, and strain.

LYONS PICKLE, generally called Yellow Pickle. Take a large cauliflower, two heads of cabbages, and five or six carrots cut into neat pieces, a quart of French beans sliced, a pint of green peas, (if in season,) and three or four ounces of garlic; cover a sieve with a layer of salt, and put them upon it, then sprinkle them with salt plentifully; after lying in this way for three days, divide them into two or three sieves, and place them in the sun to dry for ten or twelve days; put them into a jar with a quarter of a pound of white mustard-seed, or three ounces of the seed, and one ounce of ginger, two ounces of turmeric, and two tea-spoonfuls of Cayenne pepper; a quart of young onions prepared as for pickling may be added; pour over sufficient boiling vinegar to cover them completely, and leave about an inch or two of liquid above the vegetables.

MUSHROOMS. Take the small button mushrooms, called by many English cooks champignons; cut off the stalks, and wipe them very clean; put them on the fire in cold water, to boil for about four minutes; then throw them into cold water for an hour; boil them again for

seven or eight minutes in the same way as at first, and again put them into cold water for an hour; then drain them, and remove any moisture that may remain by wiping them with a soft cloth; put them into a jar with a table-spoonful of salt, and pour over them white wine vinegar (cold) which has been boiled with spices, in the same way as for red cabbage.

TO PICKLE YOUNG ONIONS. Peel them, and steep them in strong salt and water for four days, changing the water two or three times; wipe them perfectly dry, and put them into milk which is scalding hot, until the milk becomes cold; now drain them, and dry each separately in a cloth; after which put them into jars; pour over as much white wine vinegar which has been boiled with white pepper as will cover them completely; tie over first with wet bladder, and then with leather, and keep the jars in a dry place for use, a little ginger may be added. Some persons put the onions, without peeling, into cold water, and keep them on the fire until the water boils; then take off the outer skins, and steep them in salt and water before adding the vinegar.

PICKLED WALNUTS. Gather green walnuts before the inner shell is formed, which may be known by pricking them with a pin; if it goes through easily, they are young enough to pickle. Prick them in several places with a needle or pin, to allow them to imbibe the salt, and put them in strong brine for a fortnight, making fresh salt and water every three days; drain them, and put them in a jar, sprinkle them with salt, and pour over (hot) vinegar boiled as for cabbage; some shalots, garlic, or onion, may be boiled in the vinegar, if the flavour is not disliked. Some persons dry the walnuts in the sun for three or four days, after having left the brine, and before the vinegar is added.

WALNUT PICKLE. Pound the rinds of ripe walnuts in a mortar with a little salt; then add water by degrees, and continue to pound the whole together; pass the whole through a sieve, so as to get out a strong liquor; boil this with ginger, horse-radish, sweet herbs, white pepper, a few cloves, and salt, for half an hour very slowly; strain and put it into bottle, adding the spice; the trouble of pounding may be avoided by putting the rinds bruised into a tub with a little salt, and sufficient water to cover them, and straining off the liquor at the end of a few days.

PIGEONS. The flesh of young pigeons is very nutritious and easy of digestion; but as they become older, it becomes more heavy, but still forms a nutritive food. Pigeons are at all times suited to every constitution, particularly to those who easily digest what they eat, and who are taking constant exercise; but it is recommended that they should not be eaten too frequently, as they are supposed to have rather stimulating properties.

TO ROAST PIGEONS. Pluck, clean, singe, and truss your pigeons, and roast them for half an hour. If you have any vine leaves at hand, put one on the breast of each; baste them with butter; before taking them up, dredge them with flour, and froth them with butter; have ready some gravy made of a little rich stock, the livers bruised up, a clove, pepper, and salt; pour over them, and serve hot.

TO BROIL PIGEONS WHOLE. Cut off the wings and neck in such a way as to leave some of the skin to tie, and make a forcemeat of the livers, chopped parsley, butter, salt, pepper, and nutmeg, with the yolk of an egg; tie up the neck and rump, and then broil them gently until they are of a good colour; before serving, rub them over with a bit of butter. A gravy may be made of the giblets, or they may be eaten with butter and parsley.

BROILED PIGEONS IN THE FRENCH WAY, (à la crapaudine.) Split the pigeons at the back, and press them flat, but without breaking the bones too much; let them lie in olive oil, pepper, parsley, chibols, and mushrooms chopped fine, for about three hours; then take them out, cover them with crumbs of bread, and put them on the gridiron, moistening them from time to time with the liquor in which they were steeped; they must be cooked slowly, and be brought to a fine colour. The sauce with which they are to be served is to be made as follows:—Bruise an onion up in a mortar with a little vinegar, and when they are well pounded together, warm them up with a little gravy, salt, and pepper. For steeping the pigeons, butter or fine lard may be used instead of olive oil; but in that case they must be placed near the fire in order to keep the butter liquid.

LARDED PIGEONS. When they are trussed, cover the breasts with a fine stuffing; cover them over with thin slices of veal and bacon, securing the whole with white paper well buttered. When roasted, serve them with a rich gravy.

TO STEW PIGEONS. Cut four pigeons into quarters; put them into a stewpan with their giblets, a little butter, and water, lemon peel, chopped parsley, chives, salt, and pepper; stew them until very tender; then thicken the sauce with the yolk of an egg, a little flour, and cream, and butter; stew them for a quarter of an hour longer, and they are ready for use. The yolks of two or three eggs boiled hard, may be stewed with them. If they are to be stewed whole, they must be trussed, and first be fried in butter with a little pepper, salt, nutmeg, and cloves; then put them into a stewpan with a sufficient quantity of rich gravy, to which add a table-spoonful of vinegar, or two or three glasses of French white wine.

STEWED PIGEONS WITH PEAS. Take three or four pigeons, according to their size; and having drawn and cleaned them, put them into a stewpan with a good piece of fresh butter, a quart of peas, a little parsley and chibols, a table-spoonful of flour sprinkled over them, and half a pint of water; cook them over a slow fire, until the sauce is nearly all gone; then add a little salt and the yolks of two eggs, beaten up in a breakfast cupful of cream. Let them now remain till the cream has set without boiling, when they will be ready to serve.

The French way: Put the pigeons, opened, into a saucepan with salt, pepper, cloves, and a good sized piece of butter; cook them over a sharp fire for about three quarters of an hour, turning them from time to time. When they are done, take them out, thicken the butter in which they have been cooked with flour, adding a little stock and lemon juice; make the gravy boil, and pour it over the pigeons. Care must be taken to have a sufficient quantity of butter to cover them while cooking.

WOOD PIGEONS. The pigeon in its wild state. The flavour of the wood pigeon is by many persons considered finer than that of the domestic bird. It may be cooked according to any of the modes given under the head of Pigeons.

PINE APPLE. A fruit of exquisite flavour, which grows wild in tropical climates, and is forced in our hot houses at home. It is always eaten uncooked, except as marmalade, jam, &c., for which it may be prepared in the same way as other fruits: it is frequently cut into slices and infused in rum, shrub, and other liquids, to give them flavour. This fruit has no marked medicinal qualities.

PLUMS. All plums are more or less unwholesome; for they either bring on diarrhoea or create flatulency. The most wholesome of the plum tribe is the green gage, which is a fruit of delicious flavour. Plums of every kind may be made into marmalade, or be preserved in sugar or brandy in the same way as apricots, peaches, or apples, (see **APRICOTS**, **PEACHES**, and **APPLES**;) but it is advisable, before they are put into the syrup to boil, to remove their skins, which may be effected by boiling them first in plain water, until they rise to the top, when they are taken out and skinned. Plums also make an excellent ratafia, by crushing them, having first removed the stones, and putting the expressed juice into a stone bottle, with two-thirds of its bulk of brandy, and a pound of sugar to four quarts of liquid, adding a little cinnamon or cloves. When the bottle has stood for six weeks, the liquor is to be poured carefully off and put into glass bottles. In the south of France, particularly in the neighbourhood of Tours, plums are dried either in slow ovens, or in the sun, if the weather be very hot, and crushed flat, and are packed for exportation. When dried, they are called *pruneaux* instead of prunes, their name in the natural state. These dried plums, when dressed by stewing them very gently in a small quantity of water or wine, a little sugar, and some fresh lemon peel, are used by all classes, but particularly by the middle and lower orders, for they are too cheap a dish for the tables of the luxurious, who sometimes think they degrade themselves by offering what is cheap to their guests. When stewed in this way, for which no other attention is necessary than allowing them time to swell, they are called *compote de pruneaux*. They lose all their bad properties by drying and cooking; and if they be at all laxative in this way, they are not unpleasantly so, and the fixed air being expelled by drying, they are not flatulent; on account, however, of the quantity of saccharine matter that they contain, they must not be eaten to excess by persons who do not take a great deal of exercise, as they would cloy the stomach and impede digestion. The Tours plums are for the greater part sufficiently sweet to be dried without the addition of sugar, but sugar is added to those which are not sufficiently sweet of their own nature. Very good dried plums are sold in Paris at eight sous per pound, and half a pound, when made into com-

pote, is sufficient as a dessert for eight or ten persons.

POISONS. In a work of domestic economy, it is necessary to say something of the antidotes to be employed in cases of poison by accident, from any of those substances which are occasionally used in household purposes, and particularly from verdigris.

ARSENIC. The most effectual antidote for this poison has hitherto been the hydro-sulphuric acid, administered in the first instance, by which the arsenic is converted into sulphuret of yellow arsenic, which is less poisonous than the arsenic in its primitive state, and then using lime water, by which the poison is converted into an insoluble inert substance. Recently, however, Dr. Puchelt, of Berlin, has stated that he found the hydrated peroxide of iron an effectual remedy for poisoning by arsenic, and relates several cases, one of which is that of an entire family poisoned by mistaking for flour some arsenic which had been kept for destroying rats, in proof of his statement. He administers this remedy in the quantity of a table-spoonful for a grown person, and repeats the dose, if necessary, until the patient is cured. In some of the cases, the peroxide of iron was not administered until six hours after the accident, and notwithstanding this lapse of time, was found to be a complete antidote.

POTASS, OR OTHER ALKALINE POISONS. Administer immediately, water strongly acidulated with lemon juice, or vinegar. Each tumbler of water should contain two table-spoonfuls of vinegar, or the juice of a lemon. If neither of these can be had at the moment, endeavour to induce vomiting, by making the patient swallow a large quantity of warm water, containing a little salt; but be careful not to administer either tartar emetic, ipecacuanha, or any other irritating substance. Leave the further treatment to medical assistance.

SULPHURIC, NITRIC, OR MURIATIC ACIDS. The best antidote is calcined magnesia. Mix an ounce of magnesia with a quart of water, and administer every two minutes a tumblerful of this liquid, to bring on vomiting, and prevent the further action of the poison. Where magnesia is not at hand, dissolve half an ounce of soap in a quart of water, and use it in the same way. Neither potass nor soda must be employed, as they are of too irritating a nature.

VERDIGRIS. The best antidote is the white of egg, given immediately, in large

quantities; in the meantime, medical aid must be called in, and the usual remedies be adopted.

POMATUM. A greasy substance, made from suet, perfumed or medicated. The process of making pomatum is tedious, as the fat must be thoroughly cleansed, to prevent rancidity, which would soon overpower the perfume. The mode of proceeding is as follows:—Take any quantity of beef or mutton suet, separate the membranous parts, and cut the suet into small pieces, which are first to be washed in several waters; then pound the suet in a mortar, and drain off any moisture which may remain in it. When it has been reduced by long beating into a fine paste, melt it in a stewpan, and skim repeatedly, stirring well the whole time; when the scum has all risen, turn it out through a fine sieve, and let it get cold. Lay it by for use in a very cold situation.

POMATUM A LE ROSE. Take some of the fat prepared as above, and put it into the water bath, (see **WATER BATH**,) or if you have none, into a jar, which is to stand in a saucepan containing water, and melt it; then add an equal weight of freshly gathered rose leaves, (all flowers must be gathered very dry, and when the sun is not upon them,) and leave the whole to simmer for four hours; then strain through a sieve, and pass the leaves through a press, or wring them in a cloth, to get out all the grease. Put the pomatum into a cold place, and a few days afterwards melt it again at a very slow heat, and pour it into pots. The same process is to be observed with all other flowers. A much more rapid way of making perfumed pomatums, is to melt the prepared suet, and just before it begins to get so cold as to set, and not before, otherwise the perfumes would be injured by heat, stir in a few drops of the essential oil, or essence, of any flowers, as otto of roses, oil of lavender, bergamot, &c.; but prepared in this way, there is not quite so delicate a perfume. If the pomatum is to be medicated by the addition of any drug, it is to be done in melting the grease, allowing it to remain sufficiently long in the water bath to extract all the virtues, then straining through a fine sieve, and allowing the pomatum to stand a few days before it is melted a second time. The colouring matter is to be introduced in the same way as the drugs, if it be in a solid state; but if in powder, it may be stirred in a few minutes before taking the melted fat from the fire. The quantity of

essence or essential oil to be used, may be ascertained by the smell; stir it in a little at a time, and continue until all the odour required is given to the mass.

CLOVE POMATUM. Melt two pounds of prepared suet, half beef and half mutton, and when it is beginning to melt, stir in half an ounce of oil of cloves, proceed as above stated, taking care in this, as in all cases where the pomatum is perfumed by essential oils or essences, that the second melting is performed by a very gentle heat.

VANILLA POMATUM. In this case, take two pounds of prepared fat, half of pork, (the fat from pork may be made by washing very fresh lard in several waters, and purifying it afterwards by heat and skimming, as for beef and mutton suet,) and the remainder of equal parts of beef and mutton; whilst the fat is hot, stir in one ounce of vanilla, in powder, and just as the fat is getting cool, an ounce of the essence of vanilla, which is made by infusing vanilla in spirits of wine, in such quantity as to give a high perfume. To give additional colour to this pomatum, some very finely powdered chocolate may be stirred in just before the fat is taken off and strained.

POMMADE AU BOUQUET. Mix equal quantities of rose, jessamine, and orange pomatum, (all made as recommended in the first receipt,) mix them well, and melt them in the water bath, stirring well. This pomatum may be put into pots at once, without a second melting, as the pomatums had already been prepared, and it is to remain in the water bath only a sufficient time to melt.

POMMADE A LA MARECHALE. Take a pound and a half of prepared fat, of beef and mutton in equal quantities, and proceed as in the first receipt; whilst it is warm, stir in one ounce of powdered cloves (sifted), two grains of amber, two grains of musk, and a quarter of a drachm of neroli. Do not strain or melt a second time, but put into pots at once.

POMMADE AU POT POURRI. The same quantity of prepared fat, of which one-third pork; proceed as above, and stir in half an ounce of bergamot, a quarter of an ounce of balsam of Peru, a drachm of neroli, and four grains of amber; have ready two ounces of each of jessamine, jonquille, and tuberose pomatum, previously melted, and stir up the whole together. Put into pots at once.

The above general instructions for pomatum making will dispense with the

necessity of giving further receipts for perfumed pomatums for the hair. By changing the perfumes, and their quantities, any varieties may be made. Neither will it be necessary to say much about medicated pomatums, which, for the greater part, are sold by druggists, in the forms of salves and ointments. In Paris, where the finest pomatums are made, [the above receipts have all been supplied by one of the first pomatum makers of the French capital,] all salves are also called *Pom-mades*; but as salves do not fall within the scope of this dictionary, only two or three celebrated receipts of medicated pomatums connected with the toilet will be added.

POMATUM TO RESTORE THE GROWTH OF THE HAIR. Melt half a pound of prepared beef fat, and half a pound of genuine bears' grease, with one ounce of virgin wax, and two ounces of olive oil. Keep them in the water bath for two hours, with a muslin bag, containing one ounce of bruised cloves, half an ounce of cinnamon, two bruised tonquin beans, and four grains of musk; let the bag in which the spices &c. are contained be large enough to allow them to swell. Strain, and put into pots. Colour may be given by putting a little carmine into the bag. This pomatum is in high repute on the Continent, under the name of the Sultana Pomatum. Dr. Bonnetti recommends that before using it the bald or thinly covered parts of the head should be washed several times with the following preparation:—Boil an ounce of cloves in a quart of water for an hour; strain and filter; put into this, when cold, one ounce of quick lime, and having shaken it up, let it settle, then decant carefully. This stimulant, which is perfectly safe, is said to have an extraordinary effect in restoring vitality; and if the hair be washed with it, it is made strong, and does not fall off.

CUCUMBER POMATUM. For the skin, said to have been used by the celebrated Ninon de l'Enclos. Melt two pounds of prepared lard, with three large cucumbers, peeled, and cut into small pieces; let these remain in the water bath for three or four hours; then strain and press the cucumbers, adding what comes from them to the other fat; put by to cool, and three days afterwards reduce again to a liquid, by gradual heat; set by to cool, and repeat this once more; the third time, just before the fat cools, stir in some neroli, sufficient to give a fine perfume.

POMATUM FOR THE LIPS. Take of

sweet oil of almonds, eight ounces; virgin wax, three ounces; orcanette root, bruised, two ounces; put them in the water bath for one hour, then strain through a fine sieve, and beat it up in a mortar with six drops of essence of rose. Put into pots.

POMEGRANATE. A fruit common to most southern countries, about the size of an orange, but with a hard shell. The juice of the pomegranate has a very pleasant flavour, between acid and sweet, and is used, diluted with water, as a refreshing beverage. The grated rind of the pomegranate is said to have been found a sovereign remedy for diarrhoea and dysentery, when all other things have failed.

PORK. This is a very firm and close fibred meat, and is found to be highly nutritious with persons who digest it freely, but is only suited to those who take a great deal of exercise. Pork is a very useful meat in domestic economy, from the various ways in which it can be prepared for use by salting. For delicate roasting pork, the animal when killed should not weigh above five to six score. Dairy fed pork is considered the best; but all pork should be, for a certain time before killing, confined to the sty, and fed with barley meal and milk, in order to fatten and whiten the meat. Until within the last month of keeping, pork is not injured by the pigs being fed freely on vegetables. The parts mostly used for roasting are, the leg, the sparerib, and the loin. The usual time allowed for roasting meat must not be considered to apply to pork, as a leg of seven or eight pounds weight will require at least two hours and a half to roast. Pork is a meat that must be well dressed, as if underdone, it is neither agreeable nor wholesome. The consumption of pork, both in its fresh and its salted state, is much more considerable on the Continent than in England; partly from the quantity of the latter which is used for larding roast meats and poultry, and from the circumstance of the former being considered equally good in all seasons of the year, whereas in England it is seldom eaten in its fresh state during the summer months. There is no reason to believe that the flesh of the pig is of itself less wholesome in summer than in winter; but as it is a meat more difficult of digestion than any other, the English do well to eat but little of it at a time when the system is necessarily languid, and is more liable to become heated by the use of strong food.

TO ROAST A LEG OF PORK. Score the rind, and stuff the knuckle with a stuffing

composed of two onions, shred very fine, about one dozen sage leaves, chopped up, crumbs of bread, and pepper and salt; allow from twenty to twenty-five minutes to every pound of meat, before a good fire; baste with its own fat; serve apple sauce in a tureen. A loin of pork, or a sparerib, is dressed in the same way.

TO BOIL A LEG OF PORK. Having salted the leg previously, for about eight days, put it into warm, but not hot water, and let it boil; when the water boils, allow a quarter of an hour for each pound of meat. A shoulder of pork, or the hand, is boiled in the same way. Serve with pease pudding and young cabbages.

TO BAKE A HAM. Make a thick paste of coarse flour and water, and cover the ham with it, having previously soaked the meat for six or eight hours in cold water; bake in a slow oven; when cooked, remove the paste, and also the rind of the ham, after which cover the ham with raspings.

TO BOIL A HAM. Soak it as for baking, and put it into cold water; when the water begins to simmer, let it cook gently until it is done; allow about twenty minutes to each pound; when cooked, take off the skin, and cover with raspings. On the Continent, ham is considered to be unwholesome if not cooked for, at least, half an hour to each pound; the flavour, however, is injured by this mode of cooking.

TO ROAST SUCKING PIG. This is a very delicate and highly esteemed dish. The following mode of proceeding is extracted from Mrs. Dalgairn's *Practice of Cookery*:—"To kill the pig, stick it just above the breast bone, running the knife into the heart; plunge it for a minute or two into cold water; rub it over with finely powdered resin, then dip into a pail of scalding water, take it out, and rub off all the hair as quickly as possible; if it should not all come off, repeat the scalding and rubbing with resin; when quite clean, wash it in warm, and frequently in cold water; cut off the feet at the first joint, take out all the entrails, and put the pettitoes, heart, and lights together; wash the pig well in cold water, and dry it thoroughly; make a stuffing of grated bread, butter, a small onion, and three or four sage leaves minced; season it with pepper and salt, put it inside the pig, and sew it up. The pig being perfectly dry, rub it over with the white of an egg well beaten; put it down to roast before a very quick fire, and under it a small basin to catch

the gravy; do not flour it, and be sure to cover it well with the egg, which will crisp it nicely, and make it of a delicate light brown; it will take from one to two hours to roast. When done, cut off the head, part it and the body down the middle; mix with the chopped brains a little finely minced boiled sage, and some melted butter, add to it the gravy that has run from the pig; lay the pig on the dish, placing the shoulder of the one side to the hind quarter of the other. Observe, in roasting the pig, to skewer the legs back, so that the under part may be crisp. A pig prepared as above may be baked."

TO STEW HAM. Having soaked a small ham for about three hours in cold water, boil it slowly the usual length of time; now trim it, and put it into a stewpan, with some slices of veal at the bottom, and a fowl cut up, if desired, round the sides, with carrots, and parsley, and a few parsnips, some black pepper, salt, and two or three bay leaves; put in a pint of French wine, with a teacupful of some rich gravy, and a bottle of sherry, or Madeira; let the ham simmer very gently for about three hours, then take it up, and serve with its own sauce, the fat having been previously well skimmed off. This mode of cooking a ham, with veal, or fowl, or both, may be adopted for travelling, made into a pie; when the meat has been stewed in this manner, take out all the bones, and cut the meat; have ready a crust made round and thick, with not too much butter, and lay the meat in it in alternate layers of ham, veal, and fowl; then put on the top, and bake; in order to have greater regularity of shape, the pie may be put in a well buttered mould for baking.

HAM AND EGGS. Cut the ham into thin slices, and broil them; then having fried some eggs in butter, lay an egg on each slice of ham, and serve.

HAM TOAST. Mix with some lean ham grated, the yolk of an egg beaten up, and some pepper; put some clarified butter into a frying-pan, and fry some slices of bread, which are to be placed before the fire afterwards to drain; now fry the ham mixture, cover the slices of bread with it, and serve.

PORK PIES. Having prepared a raised crust, cut into short steaks a loin or a neck of pork, removing the rind and part of the fat, beat them well with a rolling-pin, and season highly with pepper and salt; if to be eaten hot, take off the little ball from the middle of the crust, and pour in before serving some hot white

gravy, with a little white wine and a dash of vinegar.

TO DRESS PETTITOEES. Parboil them with the liver, heart, and lights; mince the liver, heart, and lights; simmer in some gravy, or a little of the water in which they were parboiled, with a bit of butter mixed with flour, seasoning with pepper and salt, and two minced sage leaves; having split the feet in two, add them, and when tender, mix in a tea-spoonful of vinegar, or a little lemon juice; serve the mince with the pettitoes on it, and garnish with sippets of bread.

PIG'S KIDNEYS AND SKIRTS. Having cleaned them very carefully, cut the kidneys across, and the skirt into square pieces; fry in butter or dripping; brown a small piece of butter with a little flour, and a minced onion, and some boiling water, some pepper, salt, and catsup; put in the meat, and stew until tender.

TO STEW PIG'S FEET. Clean the feet well, and boil them until tender; then brown some butter in a stewpan with flour, and add water enough to cover the feet when cut in two; season with minced onion, salt, pepper, and sage leaves; put in the feet, and stew very quietly for half an hour; just before serving, add half a table-spoonful of vinegar, and take out the sage leaves; pig's feet, and also the head, are sometimes served and eaten cold; to do this, follow the same instructions as for sousing fish, taking care that the feet or head be first boiled very tender.

PIG'S CHEEK COLLARED. Lay two pigs' cheeks, with the tongue, in a dish, and strew it well over with salt and salt-petre; let them stand for six days, and then boil them until the bones can be readily separated from the meat. Have ready a long strip of strong linen cloth, on which place the cheek, with the skin outwards, and on it the tongue, seasoning the whole highly with Cayenne pepper, cloves, a very little mace, and salt; roll it up firmly, and boil it for two hours; when done, set it under a heavy weight until cold, when the cloth must be removed. A cow-heel may be boiled, boned, and rolled up with it.

TO MAKE BRAUN. Having divided the head down the middle, remove the brains, and cut off the ears, then let the head lie in cold water for twelve hours; boil it until the bones can be readily taken out, and when done, take off the skin as entire as possible; while the meat and the tongue are hot, chop them rather fine, and season with pepper, salt, a little nut-

meg, two or three cloves, and some Cayenne; then place part of the skin at the bottom of a pan, lay on it the chopped meat, and put the rest of the skin over the top, place it under a heavy weight, and let it remain until quite cold; part of the liquor in which the head has been dressed must be boiled up with vinegar and salt, and thrown over the head. It is eaten with vinegar and mustard.

TO MAKE SAUSAGES. Take three pounds of lean pork, and two of the inward fat of the pig, and a slice of crumb of bread; chop the whole together very fine, and season with Cayenne and whole pepper, salt, grated nutmeg, lemon-thyme, and some fine herbs dried and rubbed to powder; mix the whole well together, and fill the skins half full; boil then half an hour. The larger skins are improved by putting in the chimney and smoking.

TO SALT PORK. Generally speaking, there is little difference between the mode of salting pork and other butcher's meat, but it may be remarked that the shorter the time of salting, so that the salt penetrates sufficiently to keep pork from turning, the better will be the meat. A fore or hind leg, or any other part of the pig, will be sufficiently salted for boiling in eight or ten days, and it will not be necessary for this purpose that it should lie in brine; it must be rubbed with salt on both sides once a day; if the time of salting exceeds ten days, it may be necessary to soak the joint in cold water before it is used. Pork that is intended to be kept in store, must lie in strong brine the same as beef.

TO CURE HAMS. There are at least twenty modes of curing hams, but they differ merely as to the flavour which is to be communicated by the ingredients employed, and the length of time for salting. One of the simplest and best modes is to rub the ham twice a day for three days, with a mixture (supposing the ham to weigh eight pounds), of half a pound of bay salt, half a pound of common salt, two ounces of saltpetre, and two ounces of coarse brown sugar; let the ham lie in this mixture for three weeks, and after the first three days turn and rub it daily. Marle is sometimes substituted for sugar, and an ounce of black pepper is added, as also the juice of two or three heads of garlic, mixed with the salt; but, generally speaking, the more plainly a ham is cured, the more delicate will be its flavour. The Bayonne hams, which have so high a repute throughout Europe, are for the most

part cured in this plain way; many persons put their legs of pork into a brine made by boiling a quart of strong stale beer with a pound of bay salt, an ounce and a half of black pepper, two ounces of saltpetre, and three ounces of sugar; this is poured boiling hot over the ham, and it is rubbed twice or three times a day with the brine for a fortnight; the usual period for smoking a ham, where wood is used, is a fortnight, but if dried in the kitchen they require a longer time, and should be wiped daily with a coarse cloth. Hams in imitation of the Westphalia are cured as follows: rub with an ounce of saltpetre, and two ounces of coarse sugar, twice a day for two days, then boil in a quart of strong beer (stale), a pound of bay salt, a pound of common salt, two or three bay-leaves, a quarter of an ounce of juniper berries, half a pound of coarse sugar, an ounce of black pepper, and half an ounce of cloves; this mixture is to be poured boiling hot over the ham, which is to be rubbed and turned twice a day for a fortnight or three weeks: if it is to be kept a very long time before using, it should be smoked for a fortnight, and a little green wood should be occasionally used for the smoking. The ingredients above mentioned are sufficient for a ham of from twelve to eighteen pounds. The saltpetre in every case should be pounded. If a ham, no matter what the process of curing may be, has remained more than a fortnight in salt, and is to be eaten soon, it should be soaked in cold water for about twenty-four hours before smoking or drying; the best way of packing hams for storing is to put them in layers of very sweet dry hay, or in malt dust. Pigs' cheeks and tongues may be salted and cured in the same manner as hams.

TO CURE BACON. Bacon may be cured with or without the addition of sugar, but it is generally preferred if cured with sugar. For the side of a good-sized pig use a pound and a quarter of common salt, two ounces of rock salt pounded, two ounces of saltpetre, and a pound of brown sugar; rub the mixture well in on both sides, and let the pork lie in salt for rather more than a fortnight, turning and rubbing twice a day; about thirty-six hours' smoking will generally be sufficient, if the bacon is not to be kept a very long time; but if intended for long store, it should be smoked for four or five days. In packing bacon, use fresh and good hay between each side.

BACON FOR LARDING. Take the thick

fat from a side of pork, and rub it well with salt on both sides, allowing about three-quarters of an ounce of salt to each pound; pile the different pieces on a board, in a cellar or other cool place, and put a board over the top, which is to be covered with a heavy weight. In about a fortnight hang it up to become dry.

VARIOUS PREPARATIONS OF PORK PECULIAR TO A FRENCH CHARCUTIER. The following receipts are selected from the Cuisinier Royal, the Encyclopédie Domestique, M. Carêmes Work, M. Donnet's Dictionary de la Cuisine, &c. The French have long had a high reputation for their mode of preparing these articles:

PRESSED BACON. Rub a side of fat pork with salt, in the proportion of a pound of salt to ten pounds of meat; cut the side into pieces of about eight inches square, and pile them on each other, placing a layer of salt between each; these pieces are to be placed thus piled between two boards, and a heavy weight is to be put on the upper board; when the pork has been in this state for twenty-five days in a cold situation, hang the pieces in a dry and airy situation; they may be smoked, if they are intended for store, and in salting, half an ounce of saltpetre may be added to each pound of salt.

BRAWN. Having cleaned a large pig's head thoroughly, and rubbed it with salt, boil it until the bones can be removed with ease; season with salt and pepper, and lay the meat in a mould whilst it is hot, press this down with a board and heavy weight, and let it remain in a cool place for six hours; then boil for about an hour, covering the mould with the liquor in which the head was first boiled; press again after this boiling; the flavour is very much improved by adding in layers, when the mould is filled, some salted and boiled tongue in thin slices. A sucking pig may be collared in the same way.

WILD BOAR'S OR PIG'S HEAD COLLARED. Remove the bones carefully, without injuring the skin, and put into the space fat bacon and chopped truffles, mixed with salt, whole pepper, allspice, and chopped parsley, chibols, and sage; cut up its tongue, a calf's tongue, some fleed, or inner fat of the pig, fat bacon, and the brains in slips, all well seasoned. Arrange this in the head with the seasoning in layers, so that when cut it may be well marbled; after having given to the head as much as possible of its primitive form, sew it up, and wrap it in a clean cloth; then put it in a brasing pan with

the bruised bones, sweet herbs, sage, thyme, bay leaf, parsley, chibols, salt, pepper, and a few cloves; cover the head with water mixed with a bottle of wine, and let it cook gently for eight or nine hours; when sufficiently cool to bear the hand, press the head so as to get out the superfluous liquid, and when cold, garnish it in the usual way, and cover it with fine raspings.

PETIT SALÉ. This is pork a little streaked with fat, intended to be eaten after a few days' salting; the pieces are put into the brine pan with a cloth, and a board and a heavy weight upon them, and are allowed to remain in this state only five or six days; cabbage or sour kroust is frequently served with the *petit salé*.

FROMAGE DE COCHON, (Pork cheese.) Take out the bones from a pig's head without cutting the skin, remove the flesh, separate the fat from the lean, and cut the whole in slips; do the same with the ears, and season the whole with salt, pepper, powdered nutmeg, and other spices, thyme, bay leaves, sage, and parsley, all chopped fine, the grated rind of a lemon, and its juice. Put the skin of the head in a salad bowl, and arrange in it the lean and fat of the meat in alternate layers, as also two or three pigs' tongues cut up in the same way, with a little of the inner fat of the pig and some sliced truffles, if you have any; when all the meat is used, fold over the skin and sew it up, removing any superfluous part. Put this preparation into a stewpan of little more than its own size, with carrots, sweet herbs, salt, and pepper, and moisten with a little white (French) wine; simmer very gently for six or seven hours; take it off the fire, and when merely warm put the head into a mould of the shape of a cheese, and so that a part of the head may be above the mould, and put a board over it covered with weights. This cheese is always eaten cold, with mustard and vinegar. Pork cheese is also made with the ears and tongues alone; one layer of the ears cut into strips, and one layer of the tongues, seasoned as above, and piled together in a mould, to be pressed down in the same way as the head. The mode of proceeding is altogether the same as for the head, with the exception of enclosing in a skin.

ITALIAN PORK CHEESE. Mince and pound a pig's liver; do the same, but separately, with a quantity of the inner fat of pork, equal in weight to that of the liver; mix them together and season with

salt, pepper, nutmeg, coriander, chopped parsley, thyme, and sage; cover the bottom and line the sides of a tin saucepan or shape with thin slices of larding, fill the mould and cover with larding; bake in an oven; when quite cold, dip the mould in boiling water and shake out the cheese.

DRIED TONGUES, (*Langues Fourrées.*) Clean and trim either ox, calves, pigs', or sheep's tongues; blanch them for a quarter of an hour in boiling water, take off the outer skin, and put them into a pickling pan packed as closely as possible; strew over them a quantity of salt, and one-sixth of its weight of saltpetre, and some sweet herbs coarsely chopped; put in another layer of tongues, and salt, and herbs, in the same way, and so on according to the quantity of tongues to be prepared; put on the top layer a board, and on that some heavy stones or other weights. At the end of ten days, take them out of the brine, put them to dry, and enclose each tongue in calf or pig gut, carefully cleaned and tied at each end. If intended for smoking, hang them in a chimney in wood smoke.

PIG'S FEET A LA SAINTE MENEHOULD. Clean the feet well, split them, and then tie the two halves together with string; stew them gently with carrots, onions, parsley, chibols, salt, pepper, and equal quantities of white French wine and water; when very tender, take them out and let them get cold; then rub them with yolk of egg, and sprinkle them with fine raspings, having first removed the string by which the halves are bound together; they are to be boiled over a clear fire. They form in this way a very delicate and nutritious dish, and rarely disagree, if they have been carefully cleaned, with any stomach. The wine, in stewing, may be omitted.

PIG'S FEET STUFFED WITH TRUFFLES. The feet are first stewed as above; the bones are then carefully removed, and the spaces filled up with a stuffing prepared as follows:—Mince some cold fowl and put it on the fire with crumbs of bread and good stock, some minced truffles, pepper and salt; when the crumbs of bread have nearly drank up all the gravy, add the yolks of three or four eggs and a little cream, and stir well until the whole is nearly dry. Having filled the feet with this stuffing, tie over some thin skin to keep it in, cover the feet with yolks of egg and bread crumbs, and broil.

BLACK PUDDINGS. Cut into small squares a sufficient quantity of onions and

fry them in lard, but without letting them become brown; now cut up into small squares, the size of a small nutmeg, as many pounds of the inner fat of the pig as there are quarts of blood, and mix the whole together with chopped parsley, chibols, marjoram, and other herbs, according to taste, and a little rich cream; fill the guts, tied at one end, previously carefully cleaned and laid in salt and water for several hours, taking care that every part be well filled so as to exclude all air. When full, tie them up and put them into hot, but not boiling water, to prevent their breaking; when they begin to be firm, and in pricking them no more blood comes out, let them drain and get cool. This pudding is generally eaten broiled.

WHITE PUDDINGS. Boil some milk and crumbs of bread to a thick pap, cut up some cold roast fowl and the inner fat of the pig, and pound them together in a mortar with the boiled milk and bread. The quantity of bread, fowl, and fat should be equal. Cut some onions into small squares, and boil them in lard until they get tender, but without browning them; add these to the mince, and bind the whole with yolks of eggs beaten up, seasoning with salt, pepper, and nutmeg; fill the guts with this mixture and dress as before. If they be cooked sufficiently in the first instance, they may be eaten cold; but they are generally broiled like the black pudding. If in dressing there appears to be any danger of the skins bursting, prick them with a pin.

ANDOCILLES. A preparation from the entrails of the pig; a very favourite dish in the south of France, but not much eaten in Paris. Having washed the most fleshy part of the entrails, and soaked them for twelve hours in summer, and twenty-four hours in winter, put them to drain, and wipe them; cut them into slips; cut some lean pork in the same way, and some of the inner fat into small square pieces; season well with herbs and spices, all pounded together; then fill skins with the mixture, as for black puddings, and put the andocilles to salt in the brine pan; when sufficiently salted, say four or five days, they are hung up to dry, and broiled. If intended to be kept long, they should lie in salt for a fortnight.

SAUSAGES. Chop up together two pounds of lean pork and two pounds of the inner fat; season with chibols, parsley, lemon thyme, salt, and pepper; fill the skins, and tie; the guts of poultry well cleaned

should be used in preference; sage is hardly ever used in the seasoning of French sausages, but it may be added to suit the English taste; this sausage meat may be kept carefully covered in a jar, instead of being put into skins, and fried in flat or round pieces, covered with the yolk of egg and flour, or crumbs of bread. Sausages in England are seldom cooked in any other way than by frying, in which case it is necessary to prick the skin with a pin, to prevent bursting; but they are sometimes boiled in France, or put into stews to give flavour. A favourite way of eating sausages in France is with sour krout; for this purpose they are generally fried.

SAUCISSON DE LYON. Take six pounds of lean pork, three pounds of fat pork, and three pounds of lean beef; pound the lean pork and beef in a mortar, and cut the fat into small square pieces, about half the size of playing dice; mix well together with ten ounces of salt, six drachms of saltpetre, half an ounce of ground pepper, a quarter of an ounce of whole black pepper, and some chopped garlic and shalots, according to taste, (these are frequently omitted); work these altogether well, and let the mixture stand for twenty-four hours; then take some large-sized guts, tie one end, fill them as tightly as possible without bursting the gut, and having tied the top, put the saucissons in the brine-tub for a week, after which smoke them until thoroughly dry, in a chimney where wood is burnt. The celebrated Bologna sausages are made nearly in the same way; the general belief that they are made with asses' flesh is unfounded.

CERVELAS. Chop up some pork well streaked with fat, with parsley, chibols, and a little garlic, according to taste; season well with pepper and salt, and allspice; fill guts rather shorter and wider than those used for sausages, and boil slowly for two or three hours. Onions previously cut into small pieces, and fried in lard, may be chopped up with the meat.

ITALIAN CERVELAS. Chop up four pounds of lean, and one pound of fat pork, with salt, pepper, allspice, coriander powder, and a little aniseed powder; pour over all this as much white French wine and fresh pig's blood as will make it moist without being liquid; now cut out little slips from the most fleshy part of a pig's head, and mix with the other, but without chopping these slips; fill the guts; cook as above, and smoke the cervelas until they are perfectly firm.

TO MAKE LARD. Take the inner fat of the pork, divest it of all the membrane, beat it well, and cut it into small pieces; melt it gently in a pan, with a little water, a few bruised cloves, and two or three bay leaves; it must be thoroughly melted, and kept in that state for some time, taking care, however, that it does not become discoloured; take it from the fire, and before it has set pass it through a sieve; it may then be run into bladders for keeping.

PORTABLE MEATS, FRUITS, OR VEGETABLES. By a proper preparation, meats and vegetables may be preserved for several years in bottles or tin cases, carefully corked or soldered. The whole process consists in exposing the meat or vegetable to the action of boiling water in the sand bath, and driving off the vapour. The time requisite varies according to the article, from rather less than an hour to two hours. Pease require two hours, French beans, an hour and a half, fruits about three-quarters of an hour, and meat about an hour; but in some cases the article is to be put into cold water, and taken out when the water boils. Where a sand bath is not practicable, all that is necessary is to put a saucepan, filled with water, into a larger saucepan, also containing water, and to place the bottle or case in the smaller saucepan.

TO PRESERVE BUTTER. Having washed the butter well, put it into a wide mouthed bottle, to within four inches of the mouth; put the bottle into the water cold, and let it remain until the water boils; when this is done, take the bottle out, pour the butter into a vessel, and when it is cold, take away the deposit and the whey; then put the butter again into the bottle, and let it remain in the bath until it is thoroughly melted; it is then to be corked. In corking, care must be taken to moisten the corks, and to squeeze them with the apparatus used by wine-merchants; tie over the cork with wire, and dip the mouth of the bottle in melted resin or wax. If the butter is to be preserved in a tin case, let the top be soldered on with great care.

PRESERVED MILK. Evaporate the milk in the bath, until a third of its volume has passed off in vapour; let it stand for two hours, and then reduce the remaining volume one-half, having previously mixed up with it the yolk of egg, in the proportion of one yolk to a quart: it is then bottled in the same way as butter. It is said that milk treated in this way will remain good for more than a year. Cream

may also be preserved, and does not require so much evaporation; it should remain for an hour in boiling water. Fruits generally may be preserved in a similar manner, taking care that they be not too ripe when they are gathered, and that they be fresh when used. Vegetables must be gathered when they are in their greatest perfection, and should be carefully cleaned before they are put into the bottles. Sauces of every kind are kept good for a long time by treating them in the same way. In preserving meat, poultry, and game, they should be about a quarter cooked before they are put into the cases; when cold put them into the cases, with a little good stock, and let them remain in the boiling water for an hour. The best way, however, is to roast the meat until it is about three-quarters done, and then to keep it only half an hour in the water.

PORTER. The only difference between genuine porter and ale is that the former is made from malt dried of a much higher colour, and with a much larger quantity of hops; but there is reason to believe that drugs of various kinds have been used extensively in the manufacture of porter for sale; and that, notwithstanding the severity of the law against such adulteration, it is still occasionally resorted to. It is asserted by many writers on brewing, that not only are foreign ingredients used to increase the stimulating and intoxicating effects of porter, but that the quantity of malt is diminished in exactly the proportion of the other ingredients employed. Opium, henbane, and the cocculus indicus, are said to supply the place of alcohol; and aloes, quashia, gentian, and other bitters, that of hops. As far as the substitute of quashia or gentian for hops is concerned, the consumer can only complain of a deterioration of flavour; for as to health, gentian or quashia, if the quantity of bitter in either case be large, is more wholesome than hops; for there is a narcotic property in the hops which is wanting in gentian or quashia. It is doubtful, however, whether the quantity of hops actually essential for porter brewing is sufficiently large for the hops to act otherwise than as a tonic; and wherever we find the moderate use of porter attended with those symptoms which are frequently observed in persons who drink great quantities of it, and which not unfrequently end in apoplexy, we may fairly suspect that some narcotic drug has been used in the manufacture of the article.

The infusion of hops is a very favourite remedy with many physicians where tonics are necessary; consequently, the moderate use of genuine porter, where the quantity of malt is not very large, so as to make the alcoholic property an objection, cannot be injurious; but as even the infusion of hops would, in some cases, be highly improper, where tonics are not adapted to the system, so will porter, which is a similar production, with the addition of alcohol, be attended with inconvenience, if taken in excess, and in some cases, if taken at all. There is no doubt that the high colour of most of the porter sold by public brewers is not entirely the result of high-dried malt; and that colouring matter is used to give the porter the peculiar appearances that it possesses. This colouring matter, however, is not supposed to be unwholesome, being merely a preparation of burnt sugar; and many persons in brewing their own porter heighten the colour by the addition of burnt sugar. For further directions see Article BREWING.

POTATO. This root, which was formerly considered poisonous, is now become an essential article of food in nearly all the countries of Europe; and although it is still said that the water in which potatoes are boiled, with the skins on, is of a poisonous character, it is universally admitted that the potato itself has no such quality, and that even the skins, when cooked, are equally free from it. The varieties of the potato are very numerous; but only eleven kinds are distinctly characterized by gardeners. For the summer crop, the early dwarf, champion, and ash-leaved, are the favourites; and for the winter crop, the large and small American, and the kidney. Potatoes thrive more or less in almost all light soils, and the richer it is, the more abundant is the crop; but the quality of the potato is not increased by the richness of the soil. To propagate them, they are cut into pieces, leaving two eyes or buds to each piece. They are planted in drills for the early crop in the beginning of March, leaving a space of about fifteen or sixteen inches between each plant, and covering with about four inches of earth; the rows should be separated by a distance of a little more than a foot. The early, or new potato, will be ready about July, or earlier, if forced. They should only be dug up as they are wanted, as in this state they will not keep long. The potato for store should not be planted

until nearly the end of April, and should not be dug up until the tops are become of a yellow colour, indicating that the potatoes are ripe. In storing the winter potato, care must be taken to prevent the action of frost. This is best done, where circumstances will admit of it, by digging pits in the ground, and lining them well with straw, then covering over the mouth of the pit with straw, upon which earth is placed. Where this cannot be done, they must be kept in dry cellars, or outhouses, covered with straw and earth. In some parts of England it is a popular notion, that potatoes kept in a coal-cellar, without any other precaution than keeping the door closed, never become frozen. To prevent the germination of potatoes when stored, Mr. Webster recommends that they should be watered for four or five days together with a mixture of ammoniacal liquor and water, in the proportion of one ounce of the former to a quart of the latter. Strong brine, however, he says, will answer the same purpose. A great part of the fine flavour of potatoes is extracted by the common mode of boiling them in water; a far preferable mode is to cook them by steam, covering them well over, that none of the steam may escape.

POTATOES, TO BOIL. Wash, and put them in sufficient cold water to cover them; let them boil very gently, and when it is found, by the application of a fork, that they are beginning to get soft, throw off the water, strew a little salt over them, and let them stand on the fire uncovered for about two minutes; then cover them, and set them by the side of the fire to keep hot. It is very desirable to choose the potatoes nearly of a size, as otherwise the small ones will be broken before the larger ones are thoroughly dressed.

MASHED POTATOES. Boil the potatoes in the ordinary way; when done, peel and mash them, with a good slice of butter, and a little cream; set them over the fire again, for a few minutes; put them in a dish, or in shells, and brown with a salamander.

POTATOES A LA PARISIENNE. Peel the potatoes, and boil them in water in which has been thrown a small handful of salt; when done, dry and mash them, and put them into a stewpan, with a small piece of butter, and about half a pint of water, or a little milk; boil the whole, and keep stirring till it becomes quite thick; then throw it into another vessel,

and beat it up with some yolks of eggs, till it becomes of the consistence of a soft paste; then make it up into small balls, and fry in boiling lard, until they are of a fine brown colour. They must be served hot, with some white sugar powdered over them.

POTATOES WITH WHITE SAUCE. Put into a saucepan a small slice of butter, with a little flour, diluted with a little stock; to which add some salt and pepper, and thicken it over the fire; having boiled the potatoes, peeled them, and cut them into slices, pour this sauce over them, and serve hot. To vary the flavour, some minced capers or a little chopped parsley may be added to the sauce.

FRIED POTATOES. Take a little flour, two eggs beat up with a little water, a spoonful of oil, a little salt and pepper, and make into a thin paste, taking care that it be not lumpy; wash and peel some raw potatoes, and after cutting them into thin slices, dip them into this paste, and fry them in some boiling lard, until they are of a good brown. Before serving, which should be done as hot as possible, sprinkle a little salt over them.

POTATO BALLS. Boil some potatoes in water, or steam them, as most convenient; when done, peel, and mash them; then take some cold meat of any sort, and having minced it, and added a little salt, pepper, a small bit of butter, some parsley, and shalots, all chopped fine, mix it with the potatoes in equal quantities; form it into moderate sized balls, dipping them into some white of egg; flour them, and fry to a good colour; serve hot.

RAGOUT OF POTATOES. Boil some good potatoes in water, but take them off before they are quite ready; then peel, and cut them into slices, and put them into a stewpan, with a piece of butter, a little French white wine, a little velonté, or Espagnolle sauce, or some white roux; set them over a slow fire until they are thoroughly cooked. Be careful to skim off the grease well from the sauce; when done, add a little bit more butter, and serve hot.

POTATOES A LA PROVENÇALE. Cut some potatoes, after being boiled, into tolerably thick slices, put them into a stewpan, with a little good oil, some parsley, chibols, a little garlic (if approved), and let the whole stew together; then add a little salt, whole pepper, lemon juice, or a little white wine vinegar; serve hot.

POTATOES WITH MUSHROOMS. Boil

some potatoes in salt and water; when done, cut them into slices, and put them into a stewpan, with some mushrooms and shalots shred fine, and a large slice of butter; let them stand a few minutes on the fire; add a little flour, moistened with a little good stock, or velonté, and a little pepper and salt; let the whole stew together for about a quarter of an hour; then add the yolks of two eggs, and a little white wine vinegar.

POTATOES WITH CREAM. Flour well a piece of butter, and put it into a stewpan, with a little salt and pepper; mix them well together, and add a glass of cream; stir the sauce till it boils; then cut into slices some potatoes, previously boiled; put them into the sauce; and when warmed up, serve hot. A little grated nutmeg may be added to vary the flavour.

POTATO CAKE. Boil, peel, and mash some potatoes, and to a pound of this add the yolks of eight eggs, and a quarter of a pound of powdered sugar; when this is well mixed, add the peel of a lemon, grated, and its juice, and the whites of half the eggs; put the whole into a pan that will stand fire, having first buttered it, and bake in the oven.

POT POURRI. The name given to a mixture of flowers &c. salted, and kept in a china jar. Put a gallon of rose-leaves, gathered dry, four ounces each of bay salt, finely pounded, allspice, cloves, brown sugar, two ounces of gum benzoin, one ounce of orris root, an ounce of spirits of wine, and any fragrant flowers, particularly lavender. When these are mixed, strew over them six ounces of common salt.

POULTICES. The following are some of the best preparations known:—

COMMON BREAD POULTICE. Put four ounces of crumb of bread into a pint of milk, and boil together over a slow fire; when nearly ready, add half a drachm of powdered saffron. It is to be thoroughly mixed in a pulp, and laid on warm on a cloth. It is good in all cases of ordinary inflammation and for common sores.

EMOLLIENT POULTICE. Boil for an hour two ounces of elder flowers, and four ounces of marshmallow root, previously cut fine; strain, and mix with the water two ounces of linseed into a poultice.

RUSSIAN POULTICE, FOR GANGRENOUS WOUNDS AND ULCERS. Eight ounces of the lees of beer, eight ounces of honey, and a sufficient quantity of linseed to form

a mass; laid on cold. Another anti-septic poultice is made by mixing up six ounces of barley meal with boiling water, and adding an ounce of bark, and a drachm of powdered camphor. (See CAMPHOR.)

ANODYNE POULTICE. Boil poppy heads and the leaves of the nightshade; and when boiling hot make up a poultice with linseed.

MUSTARD POULTICE. Mix an ounce or more of fresh flour of mustard, according to size, with warm water, rather thick; lay this on a cloth; and before applying it, lay between the mustard and the skin a covering of very thin tissue paper; this prevents the mustard from adhering, and enables the patient to remove the poultice, from time to time, if the pain should be too great.

POULTRY YARD. We find under this head some judicious remarks in Mrs. Rundell's "Domestic Cookery." Mrs. Rundell states that the best age for setting a hen is from two to five years, and that those hens which have tufts of feathers on their heads are usually preferred. She proceeds as follows:—

"Some fine young fowls should be reared every year, to keep up a stock of good breeders.

"Let the hens lay some time before you set them, which should be done from the end of February to the beginning of May. While hens are laying, feed them well, and sometimes with oats.

"Broods of chickens are hatched all through the summer, but those that come out very late, require much care till they have gained some strength.

"If the eggs of any other sort are put under a hen with some of her own, observe to add her own as many days after the others as there is a difference in the length of their sitting. A turkey and duck sit thirty days. Choose large clear eggs to put her upon, and such a number as she can properly cover. If very large eggs, there are sometimes two yolks, and of course neither will be productive. Ten or twelve are quite enough.

"A hen-house should be large and high; and should be frequently cleaned out, or the vermin of fowls will increase greatly. But hens must not be disturbed while sitting, for if frightened they sometimes forsake their nests. Wormwood and rue should be planted plentifully about their houses; boil some of the former, and sprinkle it about the floor, which should be of smooth earth, not paved. The

windows of the house should be open to the rising sun; and a hole must be left at the door, to let the smaller fowls go in: the larger may be let in and out by opening the door. There should be a small sliding board to shut down when the fowls are gone to roost, which would prevent the small beasts of prey from committing ravages.

"When some of the chickens are hatched long before the others, it may be necessary to keep them in a basket of wool till the others come forth. The day after they are hatched, give them some crumbs of white bread, and small, or rather cracked, grits, soaked in milk. As soon as they have gained a little strength, feed them with curd, cheese-parings, cut small, or any soft food, but nothing sour; and give them clean water twice a-day. Keep the hen under a pen, till the young have strength to follow her about, which will be in two or three weeks; and be sure to feed her well.

"If a sitting hen is troubled with vermin, let her be well washed with a decoction of white lupines. The pip in fowls is occasioned by drinking dirty water, or taking filthy food. A white thin scale on the tongue is the symptom. Pull the scale off with your nail, and rub the tongue with some salt, and the complaint will be removed."

If it be required to fatten fowls or chickens rapidly, Mrs. Rundell tells us to, "Set rice over the fire with skimmed milk, only as much as will serve one day; let it boil till the rice is quite swelled out; you may add a teaspoonful or two of sugar, but it will do well without. Feed them three times a-day in common pans; give them only as much as will quite fill them at once. When you put fresh, let the pans be set in water, that no sourness may be conveyed to the fowls, as that prevents them from fattening. Give them clean water, or the milk of the rice, to drink; but the less wet the latter is when perfectly soaked, the better. By this method, the flesh will have a clear whiteness, which no other food gives; and when it is considered how far a pound of rice will go, and how much time is saved by this mode, it will be found to be as cheap as barley-meal, or more so. The pen should be daily cleaned, and no food given for sixteen hours before poultry be killed."

Of DUCKS and GEESE, she says,—

"Ducks generally begin to lay in the month of February. Their eggs should

be daily taken away, except one, till they seem inclined to sit; then leave them, and see that there are enough. They require no attention while sitting, except to give them food at the time they come out to seek it; and there should be water placed at a moderate distance from them, that their eggs may not be spoiled by their long absence in seeking it. Twelve or thirteen eggs are enough. In an early season, it is best to set them under a hen; and then they can be kept from water till they have a little strength to bear it, which, in very cold weather, they cannot do so well. They should be put under cover, especially in a wet season; for though water is the natural element of ducks, yet they are apt to be killed by the cramp, before they are covered with feathers to defend them.

“Ducks should be accustomed to feed and rest at one place, which would prevent their straggling too far to lay. Places near the water to lay in are advantageous; and these might be small wooden houses, with a partition in the middle, and a door at each end. They eat anything; and when to be fattened, must have plenty, however coarse, and in three weeks they will be fat.

“Geese require little expense, as they chiefly support themselves on commons or in lanes, where they can get water. The largest are esteemed best, as also are the white and grey. The pied and dark-coloured are not so good. Thirty days are generally the time the goose sits, but in warm weather she will sometimes hatch sooner. Give them plenty of food, such as scalded bran, and light oats; and, as soon as the goslings are hatched, keep them housed for eight or ten days, and feed them with barley-meal, bran, curds, &c. For green geese, begin to fatten them at six or seven weeks old, and feed them as above. Stubble geese require no fattening, if they have the run of good fields.”

We have the following as to **TURKEYS**:—
“They are very tender when young; as soon as hatched, put three peppercorns down their throats; great care is necessary to their well-being, because the hen is so careless that she will walk about with one chick, and leave the remainder, or even tread upon and kill them. Turkeys are violent eaters, and must therefore be left to take charge of themselves in general, except one good feed a-day. The hen sits twenty-five or thirty days; and the young ones must be kept warm,

as the least cold or damp kills them; they must be fed often, and at a distance from the hen, who will eat everything from them; they should have curds, green cheese parings cut small, and bread and milk with chopped wormwood in it; and their drink milk and water, but not left to be sour; all young fowls are a prey for vermin, therefore they should be kept in a safe place, where none can come; weasels, stoats, ferrets, &c., creep in at very small crevices.

“Let the hen be under a coop, in a warm place exposed to the sun, for the first three or four weeks; and the young should not be suffered to go out in the dew at morning or evening. Twelve eggs are enough to put under a turkey; and when she is about to lay, lock her up till she has laid every morning; they usually begin to lay in March, and sit in April. Feed them near the hen-house, and give them a little meat in the evening, to accustom them to roosting there. Fatten them with sodden oats or barley for the first fortnight; and the last fortnight give them as above, and rice swelled with warm milk over the fire twice a-day; the flesh will be beautifully white and fine-flavoured. The common way is to cram them, but they are so ravenous that it seems unnecessary, if they are not suffered to go far from home, which makes them poor.”

“**PEA-FOWL**,” says Mrs. Rundell, “must be fed in the same way as turkeys.” She adds, “they are so shy that they are seldom found for some days after hatching; and it is very wrong to pursue them, as many ignorant people do, in the idea of bringing them home; for it only causes the hen to carry the young ones through dangerous places, and by hurrying she treads upon them. The cock kills all the young chickens he can get at, by one blow on the centre of the head with his bill; and he does the same by his own brood before the feathers of the crown come out; nature therefore impels the hen to keep them out of his way till the feathers rise.”

“**GUINEA HENS**,” she says, “lay a great number of eggs, but their young require great warmth, quiet, and careful feeding, with rice swelled with milk, or bread soaked in it.” She tells us to put two peppercorns down their throat when first hatched.

We have the following on **PIGEONS**:—
“Bring two young ones at a time, and breed every month, if well looked after and

plentifully fed. They should be kept very clean, and the bottom of the dove-cote be strewed with sand once a-month at least; tares and white peas are their proper food; they should have plenty of fresh water in their house; starlings and other birds are apt to come among them, and suck the eggs; vermin are likewise their great enemies, and destroy them. If the breed should be too small, put a few tame pigeons of the common kind, and of their own colour, among them. Observe not to have too large a proportion of cock-birds, for they are quarrelsome, and will soon thin the dove-cote.

“Pigeons are fond of salt, and it keeps them in health; lay a large heap of clay near the house, and let the salt-brine that may be done with in the family be poured upon it.”

Her directions conclude with **RABBITS**. “The tame one brings forth every month, and must be allowed to go with the buck as soon as she has kindled; the sweetest hay, oats, beans, sow-thistles, parsley, carrot-tops, cabbage-leaves, and bran, fresh and fresh, should be given to them; if not very well attended, their stench will destroy them, and be very unwholesome to all who live near them; but attention will prevent this inconvenience.”

PUNCH. A name given to a mixture composed of water, spirit, sugar, and acid. The punch most generally made is composed of equal parts of rum and brandy, but any mixture of spirits, or one spirit alone, if there be acid with it, is called punch. Punch is very much improved by the addition of a small portion of the peel, or by rubbing the sugar which is to be used over the lemon before it is cut. The precise portions of spirit and water, or even of the acidity and sweetness, can have no general rule, as scarcely two persons make punch alike. Medical men almost all agree that this is one of the most unwholesome ways of taking diluted spirits, as the acid seems to acquire some new property when mixed in this manner.

A punch called the **DUKE OF NORFOLK'S PUNCH**, which is used cold, is in high esteem. To make it, the thin parings of six lemons and six oranges are to be steeped in a gallon bottle of brandy for two days; a syrup is then to be made with three pounds of white sugar, and when it is quite cold, it is to be added to the strained brandy, a gallon of water, and the juice (strained) of eighteen lemons

and eighteen oranges; this is to stand for six weeks in a closely-corked jar, and then to be bottled.

MILK PUNCH is also a preparation frequently used, when cold, in parties; there are several ways of making it, but one of the best is the following:—Steep the rinds of a dozen common-sized lemons for two days in two quarts of brandy, make a syrup of a pound and a half of sugar, and when nearly ready, add to it the juice of the lemons, and a grated nutmeg; add these to the brandy, and then a quart of new milk, boiling hot; this being done, strain through a jelly bag and bottle. If a large quantity be made, using the same proportions, the brandy and syrup may be put into a cask with a nutmeg, not grated, but merely broken; the boiling milk is then poured into the cask, but not in so large a quantity; a quart will suffice for ten quarts of brandy; the cask is to be carefully bunged up, and the liquor not to be bottled off until it is perfectly fine; a third of the number of lemons may be replaced by Seville oranges.

TEA PUNCH. Make an infusion of the best green tea, an ounce to a quart of boiling water; put before the fire a silver, or other metal bowl, to become quite hot, and then put into it half a pint of good brandy, half a pint of rum, quarter of a pound of lump sugar, and the juice of a large lemon; set these a-light, and pour in the tea gradually, mixing it from time to time with a ladle; it will remain burning for some time, and is to be poured in that state into the glasses; in order to increase the flavour, a few lumps of the sugar should be rubbed over the lemon-peel. This punch may be made in a China bowl, but in that case the flame goes off more rapidly.

PUTREFACTION. Under this head we have to consider the relative time required for the decomposition of meat, poultry, and game, and the means of retarding it when necessary; meat is decomposed sooner or later, according to the quantity of natural juice that it contains; and hence it happens that the flesh of young animals decays more speedily than that of old animals. Experiments have been made to ascertain the length of time during which butcher's meat, poultry, and game of different kinds, will keep fresh under precisely similar circumstances. The following were suspended separately, and at considerable distance from each other, by hooks, exposed to a free current

of air during the warm weather, and for a second experiment, in winter; each being removed as it became tainted. It was found that moor-game, and the flesh of wild boar, remained sweet for six days, in summer; whilst the former, in winter, was good for fourteen days, and the latter for ten; venison remained sweet four days in summer, and eight in winter; pheasants, four in summer, and ten in winter; turkeys, geese, beef, and pork, remained untainted for four days in summer, and eight in winter; hares, capons, and old fowls, were good for three days in summer, and six in winter; partridges, two days in summer, and eight in winter; mutton, two days in summer, and six in winter; veal, lamb, chickens, and pigeons, two days in summer, and four in winter. These experiments are given on the authority of a celebrated writer on gastronomic matters, M. Burnet; but it is quite evident, that the circumstances under which they were made, although conclusive, perhaps, as to the relative periods of decomposition, are by no means so as regards the time during which these articles may be kept fresh during the winter. That must depend necessarily upon the temperature, and upon the locality in which they are placed. Everybody knows that cold is very favourable to the preservation of meat; in the north of Europe it is kept fresh for a very long time by being buried under snow; and in warm countries, decomposition may be retarded considerably, by placing the meat in ice-houses, or in very cold cellars. If packed in bran immediately after the animal is cut up, and put into a cold cellar, the period of decomposition is still more protracted. In attempting to keep meats fresh, care should be taken to preserve them from the contact of metals, and to hang them at a distance from each other, so that the decomposition may not be accelerated by the development of the galvanic fluid which they contain. Experience has also taught us that the decay of meat is much retarded by depriving it of the bones. The desiccation of meat by expelling its juices, is the most certain way of preventing decomposition; thus it is that smoked meats, and those from which the watery parts have been evaporated by artificial means, are little subject to decay; but in this case the flavour and a great part of the nutrition are carried off. Vinegar, spices, and volatile oils, are frequently used for preserving meat, but we do not find that the decomposition is retarded for

any great length of time. It is said, however, by a French writer, that if coriander seed be pounded with the vinegar, meat covered with this acid will remain good during the whole of the summer. In salting meat, when intended to be kept for a great length of time, it should be beaten and chopped up, and a composition of fine salt, nitre, and a little alum, be rubbed in; after a few days the meat is to be put into a press, and all the juice squeezed out. If this meat be then made up into cakes with very dry flour, and baked, the composition will remain sweet for months; this, however, is a preparation which has little value in domestic economy, although it might be very important for the supply of an army on a long march, or at sea. Meat may also be kept for a considerable time by covering it well with salt and spices, and packing it very closely in cases, to the entire exclusion of the air. If meat be covered with cold water, and sweet oil poured upon it, decomposition will be retarded; and if several pieces of live charcoal be thrown into the water, the meat will remain good still longer. Sulphur will have the same effect, but it imparts an unpleasant flavour. Veal boiled in cold water, with an addition of iron filings and oil, will putrefy in twenty days; but if boiled with iron filings and sulphur, it will remain good for two months. Mr. M'Sweny poured boiling water upon some iron filings, and having placed a piece of meat in it, covered the top with sweet oil; at the expiration of seven weeks this meat was perfectly fresh. If water that has been boiled in order to expel the oxygen, which hastens decomposition, be poured upon meat, and sulphur and iron filings be added, the whole being covered to a thickness of two inches of oil, and placed in a cold cellar, it will remain good for a very great length of time, particularly if the top of the vessel be hermetically closed, so as to exclude the external air. In order to prevent the flavour of the iron and sulphur from reaching the meat the latter may be previously covered with rather a thick coating of melted fat, allowed to get cold before it is put into the water. The Dutch export a great deal of poultry to their colonies by roasting it about two-thirds, and pouring upon it in pots a large quantity of melted lard; when this poultry arrives, it is taken out, and the roasting being completed, it is said to be almost as good as if eaten within a few days after it was killed. This plan of partial roasting has some-

times been adopted in England for game and other meats intended for a long journey. If meat, or game of any kind, be put into a large quantity of good sweet oil, and closed up, it will remain fresh for an extraordinary period, and with still greater certainty if several pieces of live charcoal be thrown into the oil before the vessel is closed. When the meat is to be consumed, it must be put into a press that the oil may be squeezed out; the flavour, however, is by no means the same as that of fresh meat, and the only object gained is the entire absence of the putrefactive process.

PYROLIGNEOUS ACID. The condensed vapour of green wood. It is a very powerful anti-putrescent, more so, indeed, than camphor. Meat put into this acid will resist decomposition for an extraordinary length of time, but it is rendered unfit for use by the action of the acid.

QUINCE. A fruit of peculiar flavour, seldom eaten in its natural state, and not much used in the kitchen, except for jellies and marmalade; some cooks, however, add a few slices of quince to apple, plum, and other fruit pies. The jelly is made of the juice, after boiling the fruit cut into slices with water, say five quarts of water to six pounds of fruit, until the fruit is thoroughly cooked; it is then strained, and the liquid is made into jelly in the ordinary way, with half of its weight of sugar. The fruit for this purpose should not be quite ripe, and the jelly should be made over a slow fire. The marmalade may be made like that of any other fruit. A pleasant ratafia is also made from the raw juice of ripe quinces, in the proportion of half brandy and half juice, with sugar and spices, as for any other ratafia. The dried seeds of the quince, slightly boiled, make a fine mucilaginous drink, and are also used as an emollient gargle for sore throats.

RABBIT. The flesh of the wild rabbit is of more delicate flavour, and lighter of digestion, than that of the domestic rabbit, but neither is very nutritious. It is hardly necessary to observe that wild rabbits vary in flavour according to the herbs and plants on which they feed. The inferiority of the domestic animal may be attributed chiefly to the difficulty of feeding it abundantly on green food, for if much be given to it in its confined state, it is liable to disease; whereas, in its wild state, exercise and open air prevent acci-

dents of this kind. In England, rabbits are roasted, boiled, or stewed, and there is not much more variety in the modes of cooking it on the Continent. It may be also made into pudding, or pie, or curried, in the same way as a fowl.

BOILED RABBITS. This is usually served smothered in onions, and is an agreeable dish; but it may be boiled plain, and served as boiled fowl. If it is to be smothered with onions, the best way of cooking is to thicken the water in which it is to boil with a bit of butter covered with flour, and just as it boils, to add a pint of milk, with salt and whole pepper; then put in the rabbit, with a good quantity of onions cut into quarters, and let it stew gently until it is tender; when it is ready, take out the onions, put them into a separate saucepan with a little milk, butter, flour, and salt; when the sauce is well mixed, put the rabbit upon a dish, and pour the sauce over it.

FRICASEED RABBIT. Proceed as for fricaseed fowl.

GIBELOTTE. This is the favourite way of dressing a rabbit in France, and as a rich dish it is decidedly the best. Cut up a rabbit, put it into a saucepan with butter, and small slices of bacon, and brown it; then take it out of the saucepan for a few minutes, and put in a tablespoonful of flour, which is to be lightly browned; put back the rabbit and bacon, and add a little stock, and French wine, either white or red, some chopped mushrooms, and sweet herbs; stew, and about a quarter of an hour before it is done, add small-sized onions, previously browned in butter.

RABBIT EN POULETTE. Cut up the rabbit, and blanch it in boiling water; then drain, and put the pieces into a saucepan with some butter; let them fry for a short time, but not long enough to become brown; now put in half stock and half French white wine, with a little flour to thicken, a bunch of sweet herbs, salt, pepper, chopped mushrooms, or champignons, and an onion; just before the rabbit has stewed quite tender, take out the herbs, and thicken with yolks of eggs; add the juice of a lemon a few minutes before serving.

TO ROAST RABBIT. Having trussed the rabbit, stuff it with a stuffing made of the minced raw liver, with grated bread, a little grated ham, butter, chopped parsley, a little lemon-thyme, salt, and pepper, the whole bound with an egg; sew it up, and roast before a sharp fire, basting with butter. On the Continent they are gene-

rally larded for roasting. They may be served with gravy or melted butter, sharpened with a little lemon pickle.

STEWED RABBIT. Cut it up, and stew with butter, in the proportion of three ounces for one rabbit, an onion cut up, whole pepper and salt, some sweet herbs, chopped mushrooms, and a slice of ham, putting only just enough water to cover the rabbit; a few minutes before the rabbit is thoroughly done, take out the herbs, and thicken the gravy with yolk of egg, beaten up with a little cream, and a teaspoonful of flour. If a brown stew is required, fry the rabbit, before putting to stew, in butter, till it is well browned; then proceed as above, and add a little walnut catsup to the gravy before serving.

FECUNDITY OF THE RABBIT. The author of a recent work on Australia, in advising colonists to turn their attention to the breeding of rabbits, says, "The rabbit is invaluable in a new colony, for this animal in a state of nature increases in number with prodigious rapidity, and is excellent food two months after birth. The squatter, who, on leaving Sydney to locate himself in the interior, should have with him one male rabbit and twenty females, would, in a short time, find the family increased by at least a hundred young, which in two months would be fit to eat, besides keeping the females for breeding, with only two or three males. The doe produces young, sometimes ten in number, every two months; but we will suppose a production of five at each litter, which, for twenty does, would give 600.

The first year, say	600
The 50 females born in January, would litter four times in the first year, viz.—in June, August, October, and December, which would give for the year	1000
Those born in March would produce in August, October, and December	750
Those of May, in October and December	500
Those of July, in December	250
The 125 females of the 250 born in June, would produce in November	625
To these add the original male, and the 20 female rabbits	21
<hr/> Making a family of	<hr/> 3746

Buffon observes that these animals increase so prodigiously in localities which are favourable to them, that the earth

becomes unequal to their subsistence; and if ferrets and dogs were not in existence to keep down the increase, they would render the country a desert. Fortunately, however, there is a way of preventing this mischief, without keeping the rabbits in hutches. They may be confined in warrens; and when they become too numerous, the excess may be killed for the skins, which meet with a ready and advantageous market. The Bishop of Derry obtains from a single warren not less than 12,000 skins annually, which may be valued at 24*l.* per 1000, without allowing anything for the flesh. Buffon quotes an author who had accustomed an entire family of rabbits to return to their hutches at night from the fields, on his whistling to them. "However distant they might be," says he, "I saw the patriarch of the family, the moment the whistling was heard, place himself at their head; and although he was the first to arrive at home, he would stand aside and see every rabbit enter before he did so himself." By feeding his rabbits occasionally with the leaves and bark of the juniper tree, and with bay leaves, this gentleman imparted to the flesh of his tame rabbits the flavour peculiar to the flesh of this animal in its wild state.

If the statement made by Buffon is correct,—and we see no reason for disputing it, first, because, although he was occasionally erroneous in his opinion of the character of animals, he would not lightly quote the above fact from any author, without being well convinced of the practicability of such an education; and, secondly, because we have daily instances of instinct bordering very closely upon intelligence, where pains are taken to develop it,—it suggests the practicability of doing much more with the rabbit than has hitherto been done. The most extraordinary instance, and that too within our own knowledge, is that of a pig, which, when very young, was made a pet of by a lady, and which, when grown up, would stretch himself on the rug before the fire in the drawing-room, and there sleep soundly, as a dog would do, answering when awake to the voice of his mistress, and being quite as cleanly in his habits as a well-bred dog would be.

HOW TO CLEAR ONE HUNDRED AND TWENTY POUNDS A YEAR BY BREEDING RABBITS. Under this title a little pamphlet has been published in Paris, and appears to have excited considerable interest, having run to not less than eighteen

editions. Without pledging ourselves for the statement of the author, we think we shall render a service to the public by giving it. After describing the sort of hutches in which the rabbits are to be kept,—and which may be of any shape, so that there be grooves to allow all the urine of the animals to run off into reservoirs lined with lead, that it may not mix with the food, and engender disease, the food itself being separated in each hutch as much as possible, by a kind of rack and manger,—the author, M. Mallan, says,—

“In order to begin in a small way, purchase a male and four female rabbits, of the ordinary species, which is much preferable to the fancy rabbit, being more productive, some of the females producing as many as fourteen young at a litter, whereas fancy rabbits are much less prolific. In order that there may be no waste of food, the rabbits should have three meals daily, taking great care also to keep up an equal temperature, excess of heat and cold being alike injurious to the animal. The hutches should be very spacious, and the full complement may be 400 females and 50 males, in 90 hutches, the expense of which may be estimated—with the double and shifting bottom to each, so that the urine may be removed daily, and the bottoms well cleaned—at from 25 francs (1*l.* sterling) to 30 francs each, making a total of 3750 francs (150*l.* sterling); but of course it is not necessary to arrive at this full complement all at once; the breeder will increase his hutches with the success of the speculation. The young are to be divided from month to month; that is to say, there must be six hutches; the first for the young of one to two months, the second for two to three months, the third for three to four months, for the males only; the fourth for three to four months, for females only; the fifth for four to five months, for males only; the sixth for four to five months, for females only.

“At the fifth month, the rabbits for the market are to be sold, keeping back for breeding the strongest females, and those which have the least of the appearance of fancy rabbits; and taking care to select those which are not pot-bellied, and whose dung is hard, as that is an indication of good health. The food in summer should be green, such as lucerne, trefoil, parsley, and cabbages, and also carrots, parsnips, and potatoes. The rabbits should be accustomed to potatoes as much as possible, as they are to be had at all seasons.

Bran should be given to the young only—that is to say to breeding does, and males from two to four months old; oats should be given to those of four or five months; and to the does whose young are not yet able to find themselves, and on no account to the others, as this description of food is apt to affect the liver. The bed of the rabbit should be broken straw, to be turned every four days, and renewed every eight days, in order that the urine may not soil them. When the females have young, the straw is not to be changed until they can see well; for if the straw were to be changed at an earlier period, the down of the mother, which keeps the young warm, would also be removed, and then the cold might injure them.

“The young are not to be disturbed, unless it is perceived that any of them have died; and if any doe should eat or destroy her young, her hutch must be marked, so that at her second litter, if she should again destroy her young, she may be set aside for the market.

“The breeding does should be from five months to two years old, so that they may produce a litter every forty-five days. The number of a litter varies from five to fourteen; but an average of seven may be fairly reckoned upon, and we may calculate the annual living produce at forty-two, which may be sold, when five months old, at one franc and a half (fifteen pence English) each—making a total of sixty-three francs; and thus for four hundred breeding does would give an annual return of 25,200 francs, (rather more than a thousand pounds sterling.)” [Fifteen pence is not, perhaps, too much for a good-sized rabbit in large towns, where the markets are not plentifully supplied with wild rabbits; but in country places it would, we think, be difficult to command a regular sale at this price.—TRANSLATOR.]

The author estimates the outlay for the first year at 24,200 francs, for food, attendance, expense of carrying to market, casualties, &c., consequently the profits would be only 1000 francs, or forty pounds sterling; but as the outfit is reckoned in this estimate at 3500 francs, and as this expense being once incurred would cover many years, the profits of a second year with the same amount of live stock would, according to his estimate, be more than 4000 francs, (instead of 3000 francs,) and that, too, after allowing a good sum for wear and tear. He calculates the cost of food daily at forty-two francs, or about 1*l.* 13*s.* 6*d.* English, daily.

In this estimate, it is supposed, of course, that the whole 400 does are in breeding activity from the commencement of the year; but M. Mallan gives a table, shewing the expenditure and receipts for a year, beginning only with four females. It is as follows:—

No. of Does.	Litters.	No. of Young.	Expense for a period of 50 days.	Receipts.
			f. c.	f.
4 ..	1 ..	24 ..	14 50 ..	0
4 ..	2 ..	24 ..	25 44 ..	0
16 ..	3 ..	96 ..	63 2 ..	18
28 ..	4 ..	168 ..	130 92 ..	18
76 ..	5 ..	456 ..	259 20 ..	72
124 ..	6 ..	744 ..	424 98 ..	126
208 ..	7 ..	1,248 ..	635 4 ..	342
240 ..	8 ..	2,400 ..	1,113 84 ..	558
400 ..	9 ..	2,400 ..	1,113 84 ..	936
400 ..	10 ..	2,400 ..	1,113 84 ..	3,600
400 ..	11 ..	2,400 ..	1,113 84 ..	3,600
Total Expense ..			6,008f. 46c.	
Ditto Receipt ..			9,270 —	
Profit ..			3,261 54,	

Or nearly one hundred and forty-three pounds sterling.

It does not appear that in the above M. Mallan has allowed anything as interest of money in the outfit, nor does he shew us the items of expenditure. Assuming the totals, however, to be correct, the only diminution to be made from the profit would be about 10 or 12 pounds a year, as the interest on the outlay.

RADISHES. This root, although refreshing, is very indigestible, and should be eaten only in small quantities, and never without salt. Large radishes are very good boiled tender, and eaten with melted butter, in the same manner as asparagus. The room of the kitchen garden may be economized by sowing radish seed with the onions and carrots; for as the former are of quicker growth than those vegetables, the crop will be all cleared off before they can be in the way. Radishes are of two kinds, the long, and the turnip-rooted. When required for very early use, the former kind should be sown the beginning of November, and the bed kept sheltered, continuing the sowings every fortnight to ensure a succession: they should not be allowed to remain too thick in the bed. The turnip-rooted are not, however, sown for an early crop; March is the best time of sowing for that kind.

RASPBERRY. A delicious fruit, of fragrant smell, and full of sweet vinous juice. Raspberries eaten fasting, correct bile powerfully in young persons. In their natural state they are taken for dessert, in the same way as strawberries, and are dressed in a variety of ways. Raspberry wine amongst the ancients was a

very favourite beverage, but it is seldom made now. The earth round the roots of the plant should be laid open at least three or four times in the year, to refresh it; and the branches should be well cut down in March, and all the dead wood be carefully removed. In order to prevent the ravages of insects, the branches should be well coated in the spring with a solution of lime.

TO PRESERVE RASPBERRIES WHOLE. Make some very strong syrup, and when it is quite thick, put the raspberries into it, and boil them for five minutes, taking off any scum that may arise; take them off the fire, and add a little sifted sugar; then boil again, skimming as before; this process, and the powdering with sugar, is to be repeated three or four times.

RASPBERRY CREAM. Pass the juice of some ripe and dry raspberries through a jelly bag; then add to every pint of juice a pound of sugar, and when dissolved, bottle, filling only to the neck. When used, it is mixed with rich cream, and more sugar, and whisked till it is thick. It should not be made more than a day or two before it is required. When the juice cannot be had, raspberry jelly may be mixed with cream, a little lemon juice, and grated lemon peel, beaten well together, and then milled with a syllabub mill until sufficiently thick to put into the jelly glasses.

RASPBERRY FLUMMERY. Boil a pound of raspberries for three or four minutes, stirring constantly, with half a pint of white wine vinegar; having strained this through a hair sieve, dissolve an ounce of isinglass in half a pint of water, and boil it with a pound of powdered white sugar, and the raspberry liquid; when thoroughly boiled, pour into a shape, and turn out when cold.

RASPBERRY JAM. Put into a preserving pan two pounds of raspberries, and boil for about five or six minutes, bruising it well; then add two pounds of powdered loaf sugar, and boil and skim, mixing carefully.

RASPBERRY JELLY. Put into a jar two pounds of raspberries, and two pounds of white currants; set the jar in a saucepan containing some water, and in this way heat the fruit thoroughly; then press the fruit, and pass the juice through a jelly bag; now boil the juice with a pound of powdered white sugar to every pint; when it has boiled once, take it off, and skim it, and repeat the same operation three or four times, until it is quite clear.

RASPBERRY MARMALADE. See **STRAWBERRY MARMALADE.**

RASPBERRY RATAFIA. Mix a pound of raspberry juice with some strong syrup made with two pounds of sugar, add a quart of brandy, a few cloves, and a little cinnamon; let these stand in a stone bottle, well corked, for a fortnight, then strain through a jelly bag, and put into another bottle.

RASPBERRY SPONGE. Dissolve an ounce of isinglass in a sufficient quantity of water, and add it to a quart of cream, a pint of new milk, a quarter of a pint of raspberry juice, and half a pound of powdered sugar, or half a pint of raspberry jelly without sugar, and the juice of a lemon; whisk this well until it becomes thick and sponge-like, then put into an earthenware mould, and when it is thoroughly set, turn it out.

RASPBERRIES IN TARTS, &c. See **PASTRY.**

RASPBERRY VINEGAR. Bruise two quarts of fresh raspberries, and pour over them a quart of good white wine vinegar, cover closely, and let it stand for four days, stirring it occasionally; strain through a flannel bag without pressing, and boil the liquor for a quarter of an hour, with powdered sugar in the proportion of a pound to a pint, skimming carefully; when cold, bottle and cork. If it is intended that the vinegar shall be very acid, less sugar must be used. Some persons add a little brandy when it is bottled; this is good for keeping, but it injures the flavour.

RASPBERRY WATER. See **STRAWBERRY WATER.**

RATAFIA. This name is given to a liqueur made by the distillers, but it is also used to describe infusions of the juice of fruits with brandy, although these are more commonly known by the compound name of the fruit and the brandy, as cherry-brandy, &c. The mode of making ratafia is exceedingly simple; two quarts of the juice of the fruit, which is previously allowed to stand in a cold place for twenty-four hours, and then skimmed, are added to two quarts of good brandy, two pounds of sugar, and a little cinnamon and cloves. The mixture must stand in a stone bottle well corked for a month, when it must be poured off clean, and bottled in the regular way. The best fruits for making ratafia are the red and black currant, raspberry, mulberry, and cherry.

RATS. The kitchens, sculleries, and out-offices of many houses are infested

with these animals in such numbers, as not only to make it difficult to preserve food from their ravages, but also to occasion considerable damage to the wood-work and walls, for they are rapid in their mode of operation. Traps are frequently of no avail; for their sagacity is great, and they are not easily induced to enter them; besides, where they are in large numbers, the taking of one or two occasionally is of little importance. Poisoning appears to be the best mode of destroying them; but even here they are sometimes too cunning for their persecutors. Arsenic is the poison most used for their destruction; but if the quantity mixed with the food which is placed to attract them be too large, they will not touch it. The common practice is to mix two or three grains of arsenic in a ball of dripping and flour, and to strew several of these balls in the places most infested by the rats. Another mode is to mix about a drachm of the poison in a dish with boiled potatoes, slices of bacon, &c.; or to melt some cheese, and mix the arsenic with it. All these, however, have frequently been known to fail, when arsenic, mixed with plain boiled potatoes, without any highly-flavoured food, has been effectual. When it is found that the rats, for a considerable length of time, avoid one kind of bait, another should be tried; and persons should not despair of their taking the poison eventually, because they avoid it for several days together, as they will sometimes do this and then in a single night devour all the bait. Some attempt to poison rats by boiling barley, or wheat, in a saucepan, with nux vomica, and a sufficient quantity of water to swell the grain, which is then strewed in their haunts, and water placed near for them to drink, as it is supposed that when they have eaten the poison great thirst ensues, and they drink to such excess that their recovery is rendered impossible. This plan, however, is but rarely successful. A much better mode is to mix a few grains of strychnine, which is a very powerful preparation of nux vomica, with food: the presence of the strychnine is not easily detected by the rats, and its effects, when taken, are instantaneously fatal. This poison being of extraordinary strength, it must be carefully used; for if a very small portion were to find its way into the food of the inhabitants of a house, medical aid would hardly be of avail. Although poisoning is the most effectual mode of destroying rats, it should never be resorted to until cats have been tried; for rats,

when poisoned, die frequently so near the outlet of their holes, as to occasion a highly disagreeable smell in a house whilst they are in a state of decomposition; and the situation of the holes may be such, under floors or otherwise, as to make it impossible to remove the nuisance. It has been recently stated that rats have such an aversion to the smell of garlic, that if a few cloves of this vegetable be placed at the mouths of their holes, they will abandon the spot, and seek some other haunt. The thing is worth trying, although the statement does not appear to rest upon any good authority.

RENNET. A liquor prepared from the stomach of the calf. The stomach in its solid state is also called rennet. To prepare the liquid, the stomach is rolled up with the chyle and a handful of salt inside, and put into a jar for a week or longer, with salt strewed over it; it is then taken out and dried by the fire like bacon; when wanted for use, the bag is cut into pieces, and put into a jar with a handful or two of salt, and new whey, or water which has been boiled and cooled to about 65°, is poured upon it. The stomach of a calf of four or five weeks old will bear a gallon of liquid, but if younger, a much smaller quantity must be applied, as the quantity of rennet is smaller. The stomach is to be infused in the liquid for three days, when the liquid is to be drawn off, strained, and bottled for use: in this state it is called rennet. If it be intended to keep this liquid long before it is used, half an ounce of spirits of wine may be added to each quart: the rennet is stronger if the curdled milk found in the stomach of the calf be rolled up with it. The rennet is applied to the milk when it is at about 85 or 90°, if the temperature of the air be about 70°; but the heat of the milk is increased as the season grows colder: the rennet, however, is applied cold. A table-spoonful of good rennet will turn, in about a quarter of an hour, about thirty gallons of milk.

RESTAURANT. The name given to eating-houses in France. It is derived from *restaurer*, to recruit or fortify. The French restaurant is very different from the English eating-house, both as to the establishment itself, and the mode of dressing and serving the food. Whatever a Frenchman pays for his dinner, there must be variety, although the quality of each dish be very inferior to what would suit an Englishman. He must have his soup, two or three dishes of meat

and vegetables, his wine and his dessert; and all these may be had in Paris for much less than the price of a single plate of meat in a London eating-house, with the accessories of bread, vegetables, and a pint of porter. At some of the small eating-houses in Paris, the dishes are priced as low as four sous (twopence) each; thus a dinner composed of soup and two dishes will be twelve sous; half a pint of common wine, three sous; bread, two sous; and dessert, two sous—making nineteen sous; which, with one sou for the waiter, amounts altogether to tenpence English. As provisions are very dear in Paris, the portions of such a dinner as this are not of course very abundant, nor are they of the first quality; but they are wholesome, and more so, perhaps, than those of the expensive restaurants, where everything is disguised with rich sauces. Very respectable society is sometimes to be met with even at these small restaurants; but if the stranger wishes to meet with the *élite* of the people who dine in public, he will go to the expensive restaurants—there he will see officers of rank, judges, the head employés in the government offices, and a brilliant display of ladies; for in France it is the fashion for females to dine at a restaurant with their friends and acquaintances; nor would a female, if alone, be exposed to any annoyance. Some of the restaurateurs (the person who keeps a restaurant is thus called) in Paris have expended enormous sums in fitting up their establishments. That of *Very*, in the *Palais Royal*, is splendid; but the rooms of the *Trois Freres Provençaux*, which is within two doors of *Very's*, are magnificent beyond description. Many persons even of the highest rank invite friends to dine with them at a restaurant, in preference to having them at home, as it is almost impossible to serve a dinner at home in an equally good style. On such occasions, the charge is rarely less than thirty francs a head; for it is the custom, in eating and drinking in France, to do things liberally.

We find the following useful and very correct information on the restaurants of Paris, in a very useful little work, called "The Companion to the Hand-book to Paris:—"

"There are restaurants at Paris, at which the visiter may dine, from eighteen sous per head up to as many francs. Up to fifty sous per head, there are several houses, at which the prices are fixed; beyond that price, dinner is only served by

the *carte*. The best houses for dining, at a fixed price, are those of Follet, Richard, and Luzine in the Palais Royal—the latter is, perhaps, the best of the three. At either of these houses the charge per head is two francs, or two francs and a half, according to the quality of the wine. For two francs the visiter has soup, four dishes, to be selected from a well-varied *carte*, dessert, bread, and half a bottle of ordinary wine. For two francs and a half, he has a bottle of wine of a rather better quality. A very fair dinner is given at these houses; but the Englishman who prefers really good living will dine at a table d'hôte. It is customary to give two or three sous to the waiter. Of the cheaper houses little can be said by way of recommendation. Some of them, indeed, at thirty-two sous, for which three dishes instead of four are served, may be tried; but restaurants by the *carte*—that is to say, where the prices are fixed by the dish—are Vefour's, Very's, Freres Provençaux, in the Palais Royal, the Pois-

sonnerie Anglaise, in the Rue de Rivoli, the Rocher de Cancale, near the Rue Montmartre, &c. &c. At these houses the prices of the dishes are from fifteen sous upwards; and, as the portions are large, it is impossible for a person to dine there alone, if he has any variety of dishes, and wine of a good quality, under twelve or fifteen francs; but if three persons dine together, and order for one of each dish, they may have variety, and a bottle of ordinary wine, and one of superior quality, for six or seven francs each. We subjoin the copy of a *carte*, such as is usually laid upon the table of the first-rate houses, observing that the greater part of the dishes therein named are also on the *carte* of the restaurants, at fixed prices. Persons who wish to dine well, at so much per head, should go between the hours of four and five; earlier than that the best dishes are scarcely ready, and, at a later hour, they are frequently told, in answer to their demands, 'Il n'y en a plus'—It is all gone.

POTTAGES.

(One hundred centimes make a franc.)

	fr.	c.	
A la Julienne	40		A favourite soup with chopped herbs.
Aux choux	40		Cabbage soup.
Riz à la purée	40		Rice and pea soup.
Au vermicelle	40		Vermicelli soup.
Purée aux croûtons	50		Pea soup with toasted bread.
Purée de Crécy	60		Another description of pea soup.
Riz à la Turque	60		Rice soup, in the Turkish manner
Consommé	50		Gravy soup.
Consommé aux œufs pochés	90		Ditto, with poached eggs.
Potage au macaroni	60		Macaroni soup.
au lait	50		Milk pottage.
au lait d'amandes	60		Ditto, with almonds.
a l'oseille	50		Sorrel soup.
en tortue	1	25	A sort of mock turtle.
a la Reine	1	0	Made of fowl and rice.
a la jardiniere	90		A vegetable soup, with meat.
au maigre	60		A soup, made in various ways, eaten by Catholics on the maigre days, when meat is forbidden.

HORS-D'ŒUVRES FROIDS.

Petit pain	25	Roll.
Huitres, la douzaine	30	Oysters, per dozen.
Huitres d'Ostende, la douzaine	1	0
Citron	30	Lemon.
Beurre	20	Butter.
Radis	30	Radishes.
Thon mariné	90	Thunny.
Salade d'anchois	90	Anchovy salad.
Trois sardines	60	Sardinias.

RESTAURANT.

	fr. c.	
Pâté de foie gras aux truffes	1 0	A pie of goose liver, with truffes.
Tranche de melon cantaloux	40	Slice of melon.
Trois figues	40	Three figs.
Artichauts à la poivrade	40	Cold artichokes, to be eaten with vinegar and pepper.
Olives	60	
Cornichons	30	Cucumbers.
Jambon de Bayonne à la gelée	75	Ham.
Saucisson de Lyon ou d'Arles	75	
Langue à l'écarlate	75	Tongue.

HORS D'ŒUVRES CHAUDS.

Deux œufs frais	50	Two fresh eggs.
Huitres frites, la douzaine	1 0	Fried oysters in batter.
Coquille aux huitres	1 25	Scolloped oysters.
Deux saucisses au naturel	40	Two sausages, broiled.
Deux saucisses au chou	90	Ditto, with cabbage.
Deux saucisses à la choucroûte	90	Ditto, with sourcrout.
Une saucisse truffée	75	Sausage, with truffes.
Pied de cochon à la Sainte-Menehould	60	Pig's foot broiled. A favourite dish.
Pied de cochon farci aux truffés	60	Ditto, dressed with truffes.
Boudin noir	60	Black pudding.
Jambon aux épinards	1 25	Ham and spinach.
Côtelette de porc frais au naturel	90	Pork chop.
Côtelette sauce Robert	1 25	Ditto, with a peculiar sauce.
Côtelette sauce tomate	1 25	Ditto, with tomata sauce.
Côtelette sauce piquante	1 0	Ditto, with an acid sauce.
Andouillette de Troyes	60	A preparation of the intestines of the pig.
Deux petits pâtés au naturel	40	Two little patties.

BŒUF.

Bœuf au naturel	50	Plain boiled beef out of the soup.
Bœuf à l'étouffade	90	} Ditto, with peculiar sauce.
Bœuf à la flamande	75	
Bœuf sauce tomate	75	Ditto, with tomata.
Bœuf aux choux	75	Ditto, with cabbage.
Bœuf sauce piquante	60	Ditto, with an acid sauce.
Beefsteak au naturel	90	Broiled beefsteak from the under part of the fillet.
Beefsteak au beurre d'anchois	1 0	Ditto, with anchovies.
Beefsteak à l'Anglaise	90	In the English style.
Beefsteak aux pommes de terre	90	With fried potatoes (the favourite dish).
Beefsteak au cresson	90	With water cresses.
Filet sauté dans sa glace	1 0	Fillet, fried.
Filet aux champignons	1 25	Ditto, with mushrooms.
Filet aux olives	1 25	Ditto, with olives.
Filet au Madère	1 25	Ditto, with Madeira sauce.
Filet aux truffes	2 0	Ditto, with truffes.
Filet piqué sauce cornichons	1 25	Ditto, larded, and with cucumbers.
Rosbif aux pommes de terre	1 25	Roast beef and potatoes.
Palais de bœuf à la poulette	90	Ox palate, with white sauce.
Palais au gratin	1 0	Ditto, another mode.
Entrecôte à la maître-d'hôtel	90	A lean part of the beef, broiled, with sauce.
Entrecôte sauce piquante	90	Ditto, with acid sauce.
Choucroûte	60	Sourcrout.

RESTAURANT.

MOUTON.

	fr. c.	
Deux Côtelettes au naturel	80	Two plain mutton chops.
Deux Côtelettes panées	90	With crumbs of bread.
Deux Côtelettes sautées aux champignons	1 25	Fried with mushrooms.
Deux Côtelettes santees dans leur glace	1 0	Fried in their gravy.
Deux Côtelettes a la jardiniere	1 25	With vegetables, a favourite dish.
Deux Côtelettes à la Soubise	1 50	
Deux Côtelettes à la financière	1 75	
Deux Côtelettes a la purée de pommes de terre	1 25	With a kind of mashed potatoes.
Deux Côtelettes a la chicorée ou aux épinards	1 25	With chicory or spinach.
Deux Côtelettes aux laitues	1 25	With lettuce.
Deux Côtelettes aux pois	1 25	With pease.
Deux Côtelettes aux navets	1 25	With turnips.
<i>Id.</i> a la sauce tomate	1 25	With tomato sauce.
Deux Côtelettes sauce poivrade	1 20	With hot sauce.
Deux Côtelettes a la provençale	1 20	In the provençale manner.
Deux Côtelettes d'agneau au naturel	1 20	Lamb chops plain.
Deux Côtelettes d'agneau aux pointes d'asperges	1 20	With the tops of asparagus.
Deux Côtelettes d'agneau aux pois	1 20	With pease.
Deux Côtelettes d'agneau aux laitues	1 20	With lettuce.
Epigramme d'agneau	1 20	
Poitrine d'agneau aux haricots	1 20	Breast of lamb with haricot beans.
Blanquette d'agneau aux champignons	1 20	
Blanquette d'agneau aux truffes	1 20	With truffles.
Filet de mouton mariné en chevreuil	1 25	Salted, and with vinegar.
Deux Rognons a la brochette	75	Broiled kidneys.
Deux Rognons au vin de Champagne	90	Stewed with wine.
Deux Rognons au vin de Champagne et aux truffes	90	Ditto, and truffles.
Poitrine aux haricots ou à la chicorée	97	With haricot beans or chicory.
Poitrine panée grillée	75	
Poitrine sauce piquante	90	
Pieds de mouton à la poulette	90	Sheep's trotters with white sauce.

VEAU.

Riz de veau au jus ou sauce tomate	2 50	Veal sweetbread with gravy or tomata sauce.
Riz de veau à la chicorée ou aux épinards	2 50	Ditto, with chicory or spinach.
Riz de veau aux haricots ou à l'oseille	2 50	Ditto, with chicory or sorrel.
Riz de veau à la financière	3 0	A peculiar rich dish of veal, with champignons, &c.
Riz de veau à la financière aux truffes	3 0	Ditto, with truffles.
Blanquette de veau aux champignons	1 0	A sort of white fricasee.
Fricandeau à la chicorée ou à l'oseille	90	This is veal partly roasted, and then served with a peculiar gravy.—A favourite dish with the English. Chicory or sor- rel is added.
Fricandeau au jus ou sauce tomate	90	The same with tomata sauce.
Fricandeau aux haricots ou aux épinards	90	Ditto, with haricots or spinach.
Fricandeau aux pois	90	Ditto, with pease.
Côtelette au naturel	90	A plain veal chop.
Côtelette en papillotte	1 25	Ditto, cooked in paper.
Côtelette aux légumes ou sauce tomate	1 25	Ditto, with vegetables or tomata sauce.
Côtelette aux pois	1 25	Ditto, with pease.

RESTAURANT.

	fr. c.	
Côtelette aux laitues	1 25	Ditto, with lettuce.
Côtelette à la provençale	1 20	Ditto, in the provençale fashion.
Côtelette à la financière	2 0	A peculiar rich mode of cooking.
Côtelette à la financière aux truffes.	2 50	Ditto, with truffles.
Tête de veau en tortue	2 0	Calf's head richly cooked with mushrooms, &c.
Tête de veau en tortue aux truffes	2 50	Ditto, with truffles.
Tête de veau au naturel	90	Ditto, plain, and eaten with oil, vinegar, and small herbs.
Tête de veau à la poulette et aux champignons	1 25	Ditto, with white sauce.
Oreille de veau au naturel	90	The ear plain boiled.
Oreille de veau farcie frite sauce tomate	1 50	Ditto, fried.
Oreille de veau à la poulette	1 25	Ditto, with white sauce.
Oreille de veau à l'Italienne	1 0	Ditto, in the Italian style.
Langue de veau à l'Italienne	1 20	Calf's tongue in the Italian style.
Langue de veau en papillotte.	1 25	Ditto, cooked in paper.
Cervelle frite	1 25	Fried calf's brains.
Cervelle à la poulette	1 25	Ditto, with white sauce.
Cervelle au beurre noir	1 25	Ditto, with burnt butter.

ENTREES DE VOLAILLE.

	fr. c.	fr. c.		
Chapon au gros sel	9 0	le quart.	2 25	Boiled capons with gravy.
Chapon au riz ou aux huîtres	10 0	a qtr.	2 50	Ditto, with rice or oysters.
Chapon aux olives	10 0	ditto	2 50	Ditto, with olives.
Poulet au gros sel	5 0	ditto	1 25	Fowl, boiled, and covered with gravy.
Poulet au riz ou aux huîtres	8 0	ditto	2 0	
Poulet aux olives	8 0	ditto	2 0	
Poulet à la marengo	6 0	ditto	1 50	
<i>Id.</i> aux truffes	7 0	ditto	2 0	Another mode of cooking.
Poulet en carrick à l'indienne	8 0	ditto	2 0	Curried fowl.
Poulet en fricassée	6 0	ditto	1 50	Fricaseed fowl.
<i>Id.</i> aux truffes	7 0	ditto	2 0	Ditto, with truffles.
Poulet en friteau garni	6 0	ditto	1 50	Ditto, fried and garnished.
Poulet en marinade	6 0	ditto	1 50	
Poulet en capilotade	6 0	ditto	1 50	
Poulet en salade garnie	7 0	ditto	1 75	
Poulet en mayonnaise	8 0	ditto	2 0	With salad and egg sauce.
Poulet à la tartare	6 0	ditto	1 50	
Cuisse de poulet en papillotte			1 50	
Suprême de volaille	2 50	aux truf.		
Filet de vol. à la meréchale	2 50	ditto		
Croquettes de volaille	1 50	ditto		A sort of fowl fritter.
Coquille de volaille	1 50	ditto		
Ragoût mêlé à la financière	3 0	ditto		A very rich dish.
Coquille à la financière	2 0	ditto		
Caneton aux olives	5 0			A duckling with olives.
Caneton aux navets				Ditto, with turnips.
Pigeon de volière à la crapaudine	2 0			Broiled pigeon.
Pigeon en compote	2 0			A sort of potted pigeon.
Pigeon aux pois	2 0			A stewed pigeon with peas.
Ailerons aux navets				The wing of fowl with turnips.
<i>Id.</i> aux olives				Ditto, with olives.
<i>Id.</i> à la financière (aux truffes)				With truffles.

RESTAURANT.

Grenouilles (à la Poulette) Frogs.—This is a very rich dish; only the hind legs and loins are used: the taste is like that of very delicate fricasseed chicken. It is always necessary to order them the day before. A dish for two persons will cost 8, and 10, to 15 francs.

ENTREES DE GIBIER.

(The prices vary according to the season.)

Perdrix aux choux	A Partridge stewed with cabbage.
Perdr. sauce périgueux	With a sauce.
Perdr. en salmi	A peculiar mode of cooking.
Perdr. aux truffes	
Perdr. rouge en salmi	Red legged partridge.
Perdr. en salmi aux trf.	
Bécasse en salmi.	Woodcock.
Mauviettes en salmi.	A sort of lark.
Mauviettes au gratin	Ditto, with crumbs of bread.
Mauviettes à la financière.	
Caille à la financière	Quail à la financière.
Caille aux laitues	Quail with lettuce.
Caille aux pois	Quail with pease.
Caille au gratin aux truffes	Quail with crumbs of bread and truffles.
Canard sauvage en salmi	Wild duck.
Filets de chevreuil sauce poivrade	A portion of the fillet of venison with truffles.
Filets de chevreuil aux champignons	Ditto, with champignons.

ENTREES DE PATISSERIE.

	fr. c.	
Dex petits pâtés au jus	80	Two little pasties with gravy.
Deux petits pâtés à la béchamelle	1 25	Another mode.
Vol-au-vent à la financière	1 75	This is poultry with a light crust; a sort of fowl pie.
Id. aux truffes.		
Vol-au-vent de saumon	1 76	Salmon pie with very light crust.
Id. aux truffes.		
Vol-au-vent de turbot	1 75	
Vol-au-vent d'anguille.	2 0	Eel pie.
Id. aux truffes.		
Vol-au-vent de morue	1 50	Cod pie in the same way.
Vol-au-vent de cervelle	1 25	Brains in a light crust.
Vol-au-vent de ris de veau	1 50	Sweetbread in the same way.
Vol-au-vent de légumes	1 25	Vegetables in the above manner.
Pâté de foie gras aux truffes		Goose liver pie with truffles—a very rich dish, but considered highly indigestible.

ENTREES DE POISSON.

(No prices are affixed, as they vary according to the season—they are always marked, however, upon the carte of the day.)

Turbott sauce aux câpres	Boiled turbot with caper sauce.
Turbott à la Hollandaise	Turbot in the Dutch style.
Turbott sauce homard ou aux huitres	Ditto, with lobster or oyster sauce.
Saumon sauce aux câpres	Salmon boiled or fried, with caper sauce.
Saumon à la provençale ou sauce genevoise	
Saumon sauce homard ou aux huitres	
Petite truite sauce aux câpres ou genevoise	A small trout.

RESTAURANT.

Mayonnaise de saumon	A peculiar and good dish.
Mayonnaise de turbot	
Sole au naturel	Fried sole served without any sauce.
Sole en matelotte normande	A sort of stewed sole broiled, and with a peculiar sauce.
Sole au gratin	
Sole aux fines herbes	
Sole à la hollandaise	
Merlan frit	Fried whiting.
Merlan aux fines herbes	Ditto, with herbs.
Merlan au gratin	With crusts of bread.
Maquereau à la maître-d'hôtel la moitié	Broiled mackerel (the half,) and fresh butter.
Goujons frits	Fried gudgeons.
Brochet	Pike.
Eperlans	Broiled or fried smelts.
Un hareng sauce moutarde	Broiled herrings with mustard sauce.
Carrelet au gratin	Flounder.
Morue à la maître-d'hôtel ou béchamelle,	Salt cod.
Morue fraîche	Fresh boiled cod.
Raie sauce aux câpres ou au beurre noir	Skate boiled and served with caper sauce, or cooked in burnt butter.
Ecrevisses	River crayfish.
Crevettes	Prawns or shrimps.
Un homard	A lobster.
Salade de homarde	A lobster salad.
Anguille à la tartare	Eel fried, and served with mustard sauce.
Matelotte de carpe et anguille	A rich dish of stewed carp and eel.
Moules à la poulette	Muscles with white sauce, a very good dish.

ROTS DE VOLAILLE ET GIBIER.

	fr. c.	
Poulet gras, 6 fr. le quart	1 50	Roast fowl.
Poulet truffé 8	2 0	Ditto with truffles.
Caneton du Rouen	4 0	Roast duckling.
Pigeon de volière	2 0	Roast pigeon.
Veau rôti	1 25	Roast veal.
Agneau rôti	1 25	Roast lamb.
Filet de bœuf piqué	1 0	Fillet of beef roasted and larded.

GIBIER.

(The prices vary.)

Faisan	Roast pheasant, generally very dear in Paris.
Perdreau gris, la moitié	(The half,) ditto, grey partridge.
Perdreau truffé	Ditto, stuffed with truffles.
Perdreau rouge	Red partridge.
Id. truffé	Ditto, with truffles.
Caille grasse	A fat roast quail.
Canard sauvage	Roast wild duck.
Bécasse	Roasted woodcock.
Décassine	Snipe.
Deux grives	Two thrushes.
Trois mauviettes	Three larks.
Pluvier doré	Golden plover.
Vanneau	Lapwing.
Salade de saison	The salads in season.
Salade aux œufs	Ditto, with eggs.

RESTAURANT.

ENTREMETS.

	fr.	c.	
Asperges à la sauce ou à l'huile			Asparagus with melted butter, or cold with oil and vinegar.
Asperges aux petits pois			The points of asparagus.
Petits pois au sucre ou à l'Anglaise			Peas stewed with sugar, or plain boiled.
Petits pois au beurre			Ditto, with butter.
Fèves de marais à la crème			Beans with cream.
Artichaut à la sauce ou à l'huile			Artichoke with melted butter, or cold with oil and vinegar.
Artichaut frit			Ditto, fried.
Artichaut à l'Italienne ou à la Lyonnaise.			
Laitues au jus			Lettuce in gravy.
Choux-fleurs à la sauce ou à l'huile			Cauliflower.
Choux-fleurs au gratin ou au Parmesan			
Concombres à la béchamelle			Cucumbers.
Macédoine de légumes	90		A mixed dish of vegetables.
Haricots verts à l'Anglaise			Green French beans plain boiled.
Haricots blancs à la maître d'hôtel	75		The white haricot bean, a good dish.
Pommes de terre à la maître-d'hôtel	75		
Pommes de terre à la Lyonnaise	90		
Pommes de terre frites	75		Fried potatoes.
Pommes de terre au naturel			Plain boiled.
Purée de pommes de terre aux croûtons	90		A sort of mashed potatoes.
Epinards au jus ou au sucre	75		Spinach with gravy or sugar.
Chicorée au jus ou à la crème	75		Chicoree, ditto.
Coquille aux champignons	1 25		Mushrooms scolloped.
Champignons à la provençale	1 25		
Macaroni au gratin	1 50		Macaroni with cheese, and with the top baked.
Macaroni à l'Italienne	1 25		Ditto with gravy.
Trois œufs aux truffes			Eggs with truffles.
Id. aux pointes d'asperges			Ditto, with the tops of asparagus.
Id. au jus	90		Ditto, with gravy.
Deux œufs pochés au jus	75		Poached eggs.
Id. à la chicorée	90		Ditto, with chicory.
Deux œufs sur le plat ou au beurre noir	75		Fried eggs.
Deux œufs frits sauce tomate	1 0		Ditto, with tomato sauce.
Omelette aux fines herbes	75		Omelette with herbs.
Omelette au jambon ou aux rognons	1 0		Ditto, with ham or kidneys.
Truffes au vin de Champagne			Truffles in champagne wine.
Truffes à l'Italienne			
Salsifis frits			Fried salsifis.
Céleri au jus ou frit			Celery with gravy, or fried.
Choux de Bruxelles	75		Brussels sprouts.
Carottes au jus			Carrots in gravy.
Navets au jus ou à la crème	75		Turnips in gravy or cream.

ENTREMETS AU SUCRÉ.

	fr.	c.	
Gelée au rhum	75		Jelly with rum.
Gelée d'orange	75		Orange jelly.
Un pot de crème	50		A pot of baked custard.
Omelette aux confitures	1 25		Omelette with preserved fruit.
Omelette au sucre	1 0		Sweet omelette.
Omelette aux pommes	1 25		Apple omelette.
Omelette soufflée à la vanille	1 75		A light puffed omelette, very good.

RESTAURANT.

	fr.	c.	
Riz soufflée à la vanillée	1	75	A light dish of caked rice.
Beignets de pêches, ditto	1	0	Peach fritters.
Beignets d'abricots	1	0	Apricot fritter.
Beignets de pommes	1	0	Apple fritters.
Charlotte de pommes	1	0	A sort of apple marmalade.
Charlotte russe	1	50	Another, and favourite marmalade.
Croquettes de riz	1	0	Fried rice with sugar.
Gâteau au riz	1	25	A kind of baked rice pudding.
Tourte aux cerises			Cherry tart.
Tourte aux pommes			Apple tart.
Plum-pudding au Madère ou au rhum	1	75	
Plum-pudding à la Chipolata	2	50	

DESSERT.

Fraises au sucre			Strawberries with sugar.
Groseilles au sucre			Currants, ditto.
Framboises			Raspberries, ditto.
Cerises			Cherries.
Abricot			Apricot.
Pêche au sucre			Peach with sugar.
Prunes			Plums.
Amandes vertes			Green almonds.
Noisettes			Nuts.
Noix			Walnuts.
Cerneaux			Very young walnuts.
Raisin			Grapes.
Poire			Pear.
Pomme			Apple.
Orange			Orange.
Salade d'oranges à l'eau-de-vie			Oranges with sugar and brandy.
Mendians			Chesnuts.
Marrons			Small cakes.
Compote d'abricot			Apricot jam.
Compote de pruneau			Stewed prunes.
Compote de pomme			Apple jam.
Meringue à la crème	50		A rich, light cake.
Pêche à l'eau-de-vie	90		Preserved peach and brandy.
Abricot à l'eau-de-vie	60		
Deux prunes à l'eau-de-vie	30		
Cerises à l'eau-de-vie	50		
Biscuit de Reims	30		Sponge cakes.
Quatre macarons	50		
Marmelade d'abricots	90		
Confitures de cerises	90		
Gelée de groseilles	60		
Gelée de pommes de Rouen	1	0	
Gelée de coing	1	0	Quince jelly.
Fromage à la creme	1	0	Cream cheese.
Fromage de Neufchâtel la moitié (the half)	20		
Fromage de Gruyere	25		
Fromage de Chester	40		
Fromage de Roquefort	40		
Fromage de Parmesan	40		
Fromage de Brie	25		

VINS ROUGES. (RED WINES.)

	la bout.	la $\frac{1}{2}$ bout.
	fr. c.	fr. c.
Bourgogne (Burgundy) ordinaire	1	0
Macon	1	50

RESTAURANT.

	la bout.	la ½ bout
	fr. c.	fr. c.
Beaune	2 0	...
Beaune Ire	3 0	1 50
Thorins	2 0	...
Moulin à vent	2 50	...
Côte Saint-Jacques	2 50	...
Pomard	3 50	1 75
Volnay	3 50	1 75
Vosne	4 0	2 0
Nuits.	4 0	2 0
Richebourg	6 0	3 0
Chambertin	6 0	3 0
Romanée-Conti	7 0	3 0
Clos-Vougeot	8 0	4 50
Bordeaux ordinaire	2 0	2 0
Bordeaux St.-Julien	4 0	2 0
Bordeaux Médoc	4 0	2 0
Bordeaux St.-Emelion	3 0	1 50
Bordeaux Château Mar- got	5 0	2 50
Bordeaux-Latour	5 0	2 50
Bordeaux-Lafitte	6 0	3 0
Bordeaux-Lafitte Ire	8 0	4 0
Bordeaux Château-Laf- fite	10 0	5 0
Porto Vieux	7 0	3 50
Hermitage	6 0	3 0
Côte-Rôtie	6 0	3 0
Tavel	2 50	...
Saint-Georges	3 0	1 50
Les vins frappés de glace (iced) augmentent de	0 50	...

VINS BLANCS. (WHITE WINES.)

Ordinaire	1 0	...
Chablis	1 50	...
Chablis Ire	2 0	...
Pouilly	2 50	...
Alsace Ribauvillé	2 50	...
Mursault	4 0	2 0
Mont-Rachet	6 0	3 0
Clos-Vougeot	8 0	4 0
Bordeaux Blanc	2 50	...
Grave	5 0	2 50
Saterne	6 0	3 0
Tisane Champagne	4 0	2 25
Champagne mousseux	6 0	3 25
Champagne rosé	6 0	3 25
Champagne d'Al	7 0	...
Champagne Sillery	7 50	...
Hermitage mousseux	6 50	...
Saint-Peray	6 0	...
Saint-Peray mousseux	6 50	...
Vin du Rhin	8 0	4 0
Eau de Seltz	0 75	...
Soda water	0 75	...
Porter	2 0	...
Bière	0 50	...

VINS DE LIQUEURS.

	la bout.	la ½ bout.	le verre.
	fr. c.	fr. c.	fr. c.
Madère sec	6 0	3 0	75
Malaga	6 0	3 0	75
Frontignan	6 0	3 0	60
Muscat de Lunel	6 0	3 0	60
Alicante	6 0	3 0	75
Xères	8 0	4 0	75
Grenache	5 0	2 54	60

CAFE ET LIQUEURS.

Café, la tasse	60
Café, la demi-tasse	40
Chocolat, la tasse	75
Orgeat	75
Limonade	75
Groseille	75
Glace (an ice)	1 0
Un thé complet (tea)	1 50

PUNCH.

A la romaine (le bol)	6 0
Au rhum	5 0
Au vin de Champagne	6 0
A l'eau-de-vie	5 0

LIQUEURS FINES.

Eau-de-vie de Cognac the glass	25
Eau-de-vie d'Andaye	50
Eau de-vie de Dantzick	75
Genievre de Hollande	50
Extrait d'absinthe	50
Kirschenwasser	50
Rhum vieux de la Jamaïque	50
Fleur d'orange	50
Anisette de Bordeaux	50
Anisette de Hollande	60
Huile de kirschenwasser	60
Crème de vanille	50
Scubac	50
Huile de rose	50
Marasquin de Zara	75
Elixir de Garus	60
Crème de Malte	60
Curaçoa de Hollande	60
Curaçoa	50
Crème de menthe	60
Crème de thé	60
Crème de moka	60
Noyau de Phalsbourg	50

The prices given in the above *carte* are about an average of the charges of the best restaurants in Paris. As to the dishes, the mode of preparing such as are not peculiar to restaurant customers will be found in the **DICTIONARY** under their proper heads. Many of them would not

be suitable for domestic cookery ; others bear names which change according to the restaurant.

RHUBARB. In England the stalks of this plant are used as a very agreeable substitute in pies and puddings for the green gooseberry ; and recently a wine has been made from them by boiling them with sufficient sugar to give a sweetness, and fermenting in the usual way for other home-made wines. This wine is said to resemble champagne in flavour. In order, however, that it may effervesce, it should be bottled before the fermentation has completely subsided. This alone would not be sufficient to give all the character of champagne, even if it be true that it resembles it in flavour ; for champagne wine undergoes many processes after it is in bottle, (see WINES.) Rhubarb does not appear to have any particular medicinal effect ; but if it have, it cannot be other than beneficial. The root of a particular kind of the English rhubarb is medicinal, like that of the Turkey rhubarb, although, as regards its purgative property, in a much smaller degree ; it is said, however, that the English rhubarb, as a drug, is much more tonic than the Turkey rhubarb, in proportion with the purgative quality, and it has even been strongly recommended, when the tonic rather than the purgative principle is required, that the root of the English rhubarb should be used. It is stated as a curious fact, the rationale of which, however, is not given, that an equal quantity of rhubarb in powder and the infused root sliced do not produce the same effect on the system : the power of the drug is said to be at least ten per cent. greater by infusion than in powder. The rhubarb cultivated for the table in England is called Monk's rhubarb, and is propagated by offsets, which are to be planted in a good soil, between the months of November and February, at a distance of two or three feet from each other. It is a good plan, at the beginning of winter, to cover the plants with litter, as the stalks improve by this mode of blanching. The leaves will appear early in spring. For the mode of cooking, see PASTRY.

RICE. A farinaceous production, common to most hot countries ; some of the best comes from Carolina. It grows abundantly in the East Indies and in Egypt, and there forms the chief food of the poor. Rice is cooked in a variety of ways for the table, (see PASTRY,) both in the grain cleared from the husks, and in the ground

state, and is not unfrequently mixed with wheat in the manufacture of bread. It is very mucilaginous, but contains much less gluten than wheat, and is therefore, bulk for bulk, less nutritious ; but in those countries where it forms the staple article of food, the inhabitants are a hardy and healthy race. There is a deep-rooted belief in England that the frequent and abundant use of rice will bring on blindness ; but this opinion is not borne out by experience. The use of water in which rice has been boiled, being then strained and cleaned, is found very beneficial in diarrhoea and dysentery, particularly in chronic diarrhoea, when the administration of powerful astringents would be injurious : to make this water, the rice should boil slowly, until the water has become well thickened ; after straining, it may be sweetened, and a flavour be given to it with a small quantity of sherry or brandy, if there be no fever to render either of them improper. Rice water, when taken medicinally, should, during the process of treatment, be taken to the exclusion of all other liquids ; and two or three tumblers of it should be taken on going to bed. The best rice is of a fine pearl white colour, and swells readily in water. It is now so cheap an article compared with what it was formerly, that it forms a considerable article of diet in many of the establishments for the support of the poor. When made into bread, it should be previously boiled quite tender, in a bag, so as to come out nearly dry, and then, being thoroughly dried and rubbed into flour, should be made up with a portion of wheaten flour. This bread, and indeed any other, may be kept moist for a long time by the following simple process :—Put about two inches in depth of cold water in a bread pan which has a cover, and fit into the pan, just above the water, a board pierced with holes, on which the bread is to be placed so as to prevent its touching the water ; then put on the lid of the pan.

RIZ AU LAIT. A favourite French dish, taken at night by persons who do not usually eat suppers. It consists merely of boiled rice and milk with sugar, and flavoured with orange flower water. The rice should be first boiled in a bag in water, until it becomes quite tender ; it is then taken out, care being used that there be no more water in it than was necessary to swell it, and afterwards it is boiled slowly in milk.

RIZ AU GROS. Rice boiled in the

same way as for *Riz au Lait*, but subsequently allowed to simmer in consommé, (see CONSOMME.) It is usually eaten in the middle of the day, but is sometimes taken for supper.

ROOK. This bird is never used for the table but when very young, and just able to hop from the nest. Young rooks may be cooked in any of the ways given for pigeons, which they much resemble in flavour; but the most usual way of cooking them is in a pie.

ROOK PIE. Draw and skin as many young rooks as will fill the dish; when they have lain in cold water for two hours, remove the back bones, season with pepper, salt, two or three cloves pounded fine, and a little Cayenne, and lay them closely in a pie dish, adding a little good gravy, and laying on the top some slices of butter; cover the dish with a coarse flour and water paste, and bake for an hour and a half. Next day, remove the coarse crust, and cover the dish with puff paste, and bake it again until it is thoroughly dressed; before serving, pour into the dish a little good gravy highly seasoned.

ROSEMARY. This plant is beautifully aromatic, and pleasantly pungent. It is used as a tea, and very much in compound perfumes in the form of the essential oil. Distilled rosemary water (see DISTILLATION) is also agreeable; and is said to be a good cosmetic wash, particularly if mixed with elder flower water. Rosemary is also occasionally used in the kitchen. Rosemary is propagated by slips and cuttings.

ROSES. The rose is one of the most common, and yet most agreeable flowers of the garden. The perfume of the eastern rose is exceedingly rich; and it is from that that we derive the beautiful scent called attar of roses. The perfume of the rose of colder climates, although less powerful, is highly agreeable. The flowers of the red rose are astringent, and, made into powder, are sold for a variety of purposes, where a mild astringent for external use is required; they are also used in the preparation of medicine as an infusion; but this is rather for the colour than for any medicinal quality that they possess. The chief value of the rose is as a perfume.

ESSENCE OF ROSES. The true essence, or essential oil of rose, is that product which is sold under the name of Attar, or Otto of Roses. This is made in eastern countries, and is generally imported into Europe in small bottles. All attempts

to obtain this product from the roses of colder climates have failed; the quantity produced being so limited as not to cover the expense of preparation, and the quality also being very inferior. What is usually called essence of rose in England is merely a small quantity of attar, or otto, dissolved in spirits of wine; and in this form it is generally used either as a perfume by itself, or for perfuming any composition. A drachm of the attar, dissolved in a half pint of spirits, will, if good, make a very strong essence; but most of the attar sold in England, particularly by perfumers, is much adulterated with spermaceti or some common oil. Persons who use much of this article should, therefore, be careful to purchase it of some highly respectable druggist, whose experience prevents his being imposed upon, and whose probity prevents his imposing upon others.

OIL OF ROSES. This is a very agreeable liqueur. To three quarts of white brandy add three pounds of rose leaves, taking care to choose the simple rose, which has the most perfume; let them infuse for a week in a jar, adding a pint of water, and then distil; adding, after the distillation, two pounds of sugar dissolved in three pints of water; colour the whole with a little filtered cochineal. This liqueur, however, is seldom made by distillation. What is usually sold is prepared in a much more rapid manner. A few drops of the attar of rose are put into a quart of good spirits of wine, which is added to the same quantity of strong syrup, the whole being coloured by a little tincture of cochineal. The quantity of attar of rose to be used depends entirely upon taste.

RATAFIA OF ROSES. Infuse a quarter of a pound of rose leaves in a pint of lukewarm water; let them lie for two days, and then press them through a cloth; add as much brandy as there may be infusion, and a thick syrup, made in the proportion of half a pound of sugar to a quart of the above liquid, and a little coriander seed, mace, and cinnamon; let them infuse for a fortnight, and then filter.

TO MAKE ROSE WATER. Gather the roses very dry; and having stripped off the leaves, put to every four pounds of flowers a quart of water, and place them in some vessel which can be closely stopped, with a handful of salt; let them lie in this way for three days, stirring them well at least once a day; at the end of that time put the mixture into the

still, taking care to line the bottom of it with a sufficient quantity of clean straw, to prevent the flowers from burning, and leaving a space of at least one-third in the still; for every twelve pounds of flowers put into the still, six quarts of water are to be added, and when three quarts for every twelve pounds have been drawn off, the distillation must be stopped. If the perfume of this water be not sufficiently strong, it may be strengthened by adding a little essence of roses. A very strong rose water is made in the following way: Take thirty pounds of rose leaves, gathered before sun-rise; crush them in a large mortar, and put them into a jar, with four pounds of common salt, arranging the roses in layers, and sprinkling the salt between each. Press them down well, and then cover the jar in such a way that none of the perfume can escape; let them macerate for twelve days; at the end of which time, distil them with a sharp fire, protecting them carefully in the way previously stated. The result of this distillation will be small in quantity, but rich in quality. A dozen drops will give as much perfume to half a pint of water, as half a pint of rose water distilled in the ordinary way would contain.

ROUX. Although the elements of this are merely butter and flour, it is a very important article in culinary matters, and requires skill and care in the preparation.

WHITE ROUX. Melt a quarter of a pound of butter over a slow fire; when melted, dredge into it sufficient flour to make it of the consistence of a thin paste; keep it on the fire after this till it is lightly fried, when it may be set by in a jar till required for thickening white sauces.

BROWN ROUX is made in the same way as the above, but is kept over the fire, and fried until it becomes of a dark brown colour. You must be careful not to attempt to obtain this colour at once, by putting it on too quick a fire, or it will be bitter. This is used for thickening brown sauces.

RUM. A liquor distilled from sugar. The best comes from Jamaica. Rum, to be less unwholesome than it usually is, should have great age, and should be racked off three or four times into barrels, the insides of which have been burnt. A small quantity of rum thus prepared finds its way to England as presents. Persons who are choice of their rum may adopt a good substitute. Put into each

cask, fresh burnt and powdered charcoal, in the proportion of an ounce to a gallon of rum; stir up well, and let this remain for six months, then repeat it. The colour will be rendered pale, but the rum will improve wonderfully in flavour and quality.

RUST. The preservation of iron and steel from rust is a very important consideration in domestic economy. The following plan of doing this is very little known, and is far superior to any other:—add to a quart of cold water half a pound of quick lime; let this stand until the top is perfectly clear; pour off the clear liquid, and stir up with it a quantity of olive oil, until the mixture becomes a thick cream, or rather assumes the consistence of butter which has been melted for the table, and has become cold. Rub the iron or steel which is to be put by with this mixture, and then wrap it up in paper. Knives and other steel articles treated in this way will not acquire the slightest rust. If the nature of the articles will not admit of their being wrapped up in paper, they will remain free from rust by covering them more thickly with the mixture.

SAFFRON. A bulbous plant, cultivated in England as an ornament, the flower forming an agreeable variety for a border. In the East, the flower is gathered for medicinal purposes, and is highly esteemed. It used to be at one time largely imported into England, as it was said to have many fine sedative properties, but it is little used now. A few years ago it was pretended that by placing a quantity of saffron next to the skin, previously to embarking on a sea voyage, sea-sickness might be avoided; large quantities of saffron were sold for this purpose, but it was soon found that it had none of the virtue which had been ascribed to it. In the South of France, saffron is not merely used to give a rich colour to many dishes, but it is also made into preserves, and is taken medicinally in colds and nervous attacks. The dye given out by saffron is a very fine one. Saffron is frequently added to liqueurs in France, in the belief that it has a tranquillizing effect on the nerves of the stomach.

SAGE. This herb is used in the kitchen for seasoning, and is very wholesome. Culpepper is very diffuse in his eulogy of it as a medicine, and ascribes to it sovereign powers. It has certainly been used with advantage in cases of pulmonary disease, when not too far advanced, and is refresh-

ing when made into tea mixed with balm, when the stomach will not bear the infusion of Chinese tea. The mode of using it for pulmonary complaints is to express the juice of the young green leaves, and to take two or three table-spoonfuls morning and evening, mixed with honey. An extract may also be made from it in the same way as from the lettuce. (See LETTUCE.) The sage preferred for the kitchen is the red kind, and it should be grown in a light poor soil. The propagation is very easy, by slips or cuttings in the spring; all that is necessary is to put them deeply in the ground, and to water frequently.

SAGO. A farinaceous and gummy production from a species of palm tree. It is similar as an article of diet to tapioca, and is used in the same way for invalids and children. It is made into a pudding, (see PASTRY,) or is boiled in milk or wine, in which case, being first washed, it is dissolved by boiling in water, the milk or white wine being then added, and the whole boiled for a short time. Wine sago is found to be a very strengthening and wholesome article for old and feeble persons. If French white wine be used, it will not be necessary to add water; but if sherry or Madeira be used, the quantity of water should be at least equal to that of the wine. It may be sweetened according to taste, and either cinnamon, lemon peel, orange water, or nutmeg may be added.

SALAD. Raw vegetables, dressed with oil, vinegar, and other seasoning. It is a general opinion with medical men in England that salads of every kind, from the circumstance of the vegetables being uncooked, are unwholesome; but the medical men on the Continent do not appear to be of the same opinion, and salads there are not merely eaten as in England, as an agreeable variety, but form an essential article of diet. In fact, there is not one table in a hundred at which salad is not served, the only difference being that, in some parts of the south of France, salad is the first dish, whilst in other parts it is the last. With many of the lower, and even middle orders in France, a salad and an omelet frequently compose the whole of the dinner. The mode of dressing salad on the Continent differs essentially from that adopted in England; a larger quantity of salt and oil is used, and very little vinegar. Whether it is owing to the excess of oil that salad is considered more wholesome in France than in England may be a question. The English dressing

for salad, composed of egg, mustard, &c., mixed with the oil and vinegar, is never adopted in France, except for a dish called Mayonnaise, which is cold fowl cut into pieces, and served with lettuce, and a dressing which is entirely similar to the English salad sauce, even to its acidity. In France, a great number of vegetables are used for salad which are little known in England. The common dandelion is very much used by the lower orders, and is perhaps one of the most wholesome vegetables so used. Boiled beet root, cut in slices, is served with almost every salad, and is a great improvement. The best dressing for salad, according to the English taste, is the yolk of hard eggs rubbed up with oil, vinegar, mustard, pepper, and salt; some add a little sugar. As few persons agree as to which of these ingredients should predominate, it would be useless to give instructions for the mixing. Watercresses are, perhaps, after the dandelion, the most wholesome vegetable for salads; and next to watercresses, the lettuce, from its sedative properties. Celery is generally mixed with salad in England, but seldom forms a salad of itself; whereas in France it is a distinct dish; but, unlike all other salad, it is prepared with a large quantity of mustard, probably as a stimulating condiment, to counteract its natural indigestible character. Where onions do not disagree with the stomach, and the flavour is not disliked, they should always be mixed with salad, as they give a warmth which is wanting in the other vegetables. To those who like the flavour of garlic, it is recommended to rub the bottom of the salad bowl with a clove of this vegetable, without putting any portion of the garlic itself into the salad.

SALSIFY—Is a root, the leaves of which bear a strong resemblance to the leek. It contains a large portion of saccharine matter, and is nutritious. This root is not much used in England; but on the Continent it is cooked in different ways, and by many is much liked. It is sown in March; and when the plants are at a proper growth, they are thinned to about six inches apart. The salsify requires a mellow deep soil; the roots may remain in the ground, and be taken up as wanted through the winter.

TO BOIL SALSIFY. Wash it well in vinegar and water, and scrape off all the skin, removing every black spot; then boil it as asparagus, and serve with melted butter.

Another way: Scrape and clean as above; then put them in a stewpan with a little water, salt, lemon juice, and a small quantity of flour; serve with hot cream, or Espagnole sauce.

TO FRY SALSIFY. Prepare them as above, cut them into pieces of three inches in length, dip them in batter, and fry to a good colour. A little brandy may be added to the batter.

SALT. This is the most useful of all the condiments, and otherwise the most valuable of all natural productions; without the use of salt, our food would be insipid, and health would be impossible; for the culinary preparations of civilized life would be little less than poisonous without it. Salt is also a valuable addition to the food of the lower animals, by which it is usually much relished. The quality and quantity of milk from the cow is improved by giving to it in some malt, grains, or other food, about an ounce and a half of salt, an hour before milking. Horses are kept in health by giving about half an ounce of salt twice a-day; it should also be given to sheep to the extent of from a quarter of an ounce to half an ounce in the course of twenty-four hours; and poultry is much improved when fattening, if a quarter of an ounce of salt be added to every pound weight of their food. Salt is invaluable for the preservation of meat and other articles of food, for although it is by no means one of the strongest anti-putrescents, it is almost the only one fit for domestic use, as it communicates no unpleasant flavour to the articles for which it is employed. Salted articles, however, are not generally wholesome, not on account of the quantity of salt which they contain, but on account of the change which they undergo, and which renders them indigestible; thus it happens that the long and exclusive use of salted food, where fresh vegetables cannot be obtained at the same time, brings on scurvy. Salt is used extensively in the arts and in chemistry; soda is made from it, by its decomposition with sulphuric acid; it is also a valuable article for manuring land. There are, in many countries, natural salt springs, which yield abundantly by evaporation of the water, after which the salt undergoes a preparation to render it white for the table. What is called sea-salt, which is also very good, is obtained by evaporation of the sea water by heat. The water flies off in vapour, and leaves the salt at the bottom of the evaporating pans. Some

time ago considerable sensation was produced by a pretended discovery of the importance of salt mixed with brandy as a remedy for both internal and external diseases. We have no faith in the remedy internally, and as an external remedy for rheumatism, sprains, &c., it is no novelty; it was used nearly a century ago in many parts of England. The old mode was to put a handful of coarse salt into a large cup, to fill up the cup with brandy, to make it hot before the fire, and rub sharply with the salt and brandy together. It is a very useful external remedy, but spirits of wine to the salt would be much better than brandy.

SALTING AND CURING ANIMAL SUBSTANCES. A patent has been taken out in England for a new process of salting and curing. The meat to be cured is placed in an iron vessel of considerable strength, connected by a pipe and stop-cock with the brine tube, also with an exhausting pump; the cover having been screwed down on the vessel, the air is extracted and a vacuum established; whereupon, the stop-cock being properly turned, the brine rushes in and takes the place of the air, filling the pores of the meat, and penetrating thoroughly the animal substance; lest, however, some parts of the meat might not have been impregnated with the pickle by this re-action and the common atmospheric pressure, more of the liquid from the tub, prepared to taste with salt alone, or with saltpetre, or sugar, or spice, or alum, in the case of hides, is pumped in by a small condensing engine, (connected, of course, with the iron vessel,) until a pressure of from 150 lbs. to 200 lbs. on the square inch is attained. The animal substance is allowed to remain under pressure for about ten minutes, and the process is complete. The meat when taken out is thoroughly saturated with the brine, the full flavour of which is imparted to it, and it is well cured.

SAMPHIRE. This is a difficult herb to cultivate; it requires a rich light soil mixed with sand, and the plants from the seed must be well watered and sheltered until they take deep root. Samphire should be sown, if possible, in the interstices of old walls, and having once taken root there, it is likely to stand. It is chiefly used for pickling.

SAUCES. Although the use of exciting sauces may, in some cases, be injurious to the stomach, it is a fact, that, when carefully made, and taken with moderation, the excitement which they

produce is of a healthy character; without them many persons would be unable to derive that gratification from their food which is essential to the digestive process; and many meats which, without sauces, would fatigue the stomach, are rendered by the use of them much more agreeable and nutritious. As, notwithstanding the vast variety of sauces which are made, the bases of them are comparatively few in number, the ingenuity of the cook finds an abundant field for exercise, as they can be modified and varied to an almost interminable extent. One thing in the manufacture of sauces is essentially requisite: the butter should in all cases be of the best quality; and when unsalted butter is not perfectly sweet, it will be always better to employ salted butter of good quality.

APPLE SAUCE. Having pared, cored, and sliced some apples, boil them in water with a slice of lemon peel, until tender, when they must be strained and mashed; add to them a small piece of butter and a little sugar; good moist sugar is preferable; heat and serve.

BECHAMEL SAUCE. Chop some shalots, parsley, and chives, very fine; put them into a saucepan with a bit of butter, a little flour, cream, salt, and pepper; let the whole boil till it becomes thick; a little nutmeg may sometimes be added, to vary the flavour.

SAUCE FOR BOILED BEEF. Take the water in which a large onion has been boiled, and mix with it a little chopped parsley and chives, some rich gravy, and a piece of butter covered with flour; boil them for a few minutes, and then add some capers, chopped fine.

BLACK BUTTER. Put any quantity of butter required into a saucepan, and heat it over the fire until the colour has turned; just before it is taken off, add a little vinegar, salt, and pepper. This is the common mode of making black butter. But where a fine flavour is required, a table-spoonful or more, according to the quantity of butter, of the following vinegar must be used:—Take a pint of white wine vinegar; put into it a small quantity of the usual sweet herbs, a few cloves, salt, pepper, and a sliced shalot; let these stand in the sun for a fortnight, or infuse near the fire; then strain, clear off, and put into another bottle. This vinegar may be used with a variety of sauces.

SAUCE BOURGEOISE. To a pint of good velonté, or other good stock, add a glass of French white wine, a little pepper and

salt, a few shreds of lemon peel, a bay leaf, and a little white wine vinegar; let the whole stand over hot ashes for six or eight hours; then strain it for use; in a cool place it will keep some days, and is excellent with any meat, fish, or game.

BREAD SAUCE. Boil the crumb of bread with a minced onion and some whole white pepper; when the onion is cooked, take it out, as also the peppercorns, and put the bread, carefully crushed through a sieve, into a saucepan with cream, a little butter and salt, stirring it carefully till it boils.

BROWN SAUCE. Put into a saucepan two pounds of beef, the same quantity of veal, an old fowl, some onions and carrots, and throw over the whole a pint of water; place this on a strong fire until it begins to glaze; then put the vessel on a slower fire; and when your glaze begins to brown, put to it a little stock, adding to it some mushrooms, chiboles, a bunch of parsley, a few cloves and bay leaves; skim it, put a little salt, and let it simmer for three hours; then strain the liquor off, and add to it a roux which you have made in a separate vessel, and let it boil again another hour; you have only then to take the fat off and pass it through a sieve, when it is ready for use.

CAPER SAUCE. Have ready some melted butter, and when you have chopped your capers, put them in it with a little lemon pickle; the butter should be again heated, after the capers are added; but great care must be taken not to let it boil.

SHARP SAUCE FOR COLD MEATS. Into a quart of white wine vinegar, put eight cloves of garlic, twelve shalots, a small clove of ginger, a little salt, and the peel of a lemon; boil them together for a short time; then strain and bottle for use.

CULLIS. Brown some sliced onions, carrots, celery, and parsley, in a saucepan, with a sufficient quantity of butter; add a pint, or a pint and a half of consommé; boil together and strain, then set by for use.

SAUCE A LA DIABLE. Chop six shalots very fine, put them into a saucepan with a large glass of vinegar, a clove of garlic, a bay leaf, and some veal jelly; reduce the whole together to the consistence of thin jelly by adding a little good stock and a table-spoonful of olive oil.

DUTCH SAUCE. Mix well together half a pound of butter, two table-spoonfuls of flour, and the yolks of five or six eggs; then put this paste into a saucepan with some salt, whole pepper, the juice of three

lemons, and half a tumbler of water; put it on a charcoal fire, and keep stirring until it has become sufficiently thick to lay on the vegetables or fish, over which you may throw it.

EGG SAUCE. Boil the eggs very hard; when taken up, throw them into cold water; take off the shells, and chop the eggs rather fine; have ready your melted butter, into which throw them; heat it well and serve.

SAUCE ESPAGNOLE. Take half a pint of cullis, the same quantity of beef stock, some parsley, shalots, a little garlic, a sliced parsnip, a sliced carrot, a head of celery, a bay leaf, a sliced onion, and a little coriander seed; boil for two hours over a slow fire, skimming occasionally; season with salt and pepper; strain and set by for use.

FISH SAUCE. To about four ounces of melted butter, add three table-spoonfuls of mushroom catsup, a table-spoonful of essence of anchovies, a table-spoonful of white wine vinegar, some Cayenne, and a tea-spoonful of soy.

LOBSTER SAUCE. Take the body of a boiled lobster cut or torn into small pieces, and mix it with melted butter and a little rich beef gravy, seasoning according to taste; boil them up, turning one way; the spawn of the lobster pounded may be added to the sauce.

OYSTER SAUCE. The oysters are to be bearded and scalded; then strain the liquor, and thicken it with a little flour and butter, adding lemon juice in small quantity, and a few table-spoonfuls of cream; heat the oysters well in this mixture, but do not let them boil; some persons add spices in making oyster sauce, in which case it must be left longer on the fire, simmering gently, but never being allowed to boil. An imitation oyster sauce may be made by boiling two or three chopped anchovies with spices, in about a tumbler of water until the anchovies are dissolved; this is then strained and thickened with flour and butter, the whole being simmered together afterwards for a few minutes. Another substitute for oyster sauce may be made with flour, butter, new milk, rich gravy, essence of anchovy, nutmeg, and pepper.

SHRIMP SAUCE. Take some shrimps, and when you have picked them from the shell as much as you can without breaking them, put them into some good melted butter which you have previously prepared; add a table-spoonful of lemon pickle; heat well and serve.

SAUCE FOR GAME OR POULTRY. Put into a stewpan, and set over a very slow fire, a quarter of a pint of French white wine, a table-spoonful of vinegar, three of oil, a bunch of sweet herbs, and some spice; moisten the whole with some good gravy.

GERMAN SAUCE. Put some cullis or velonté into a stewpan with an equal quantity of good stock; add a little parsley chopped fine, the livers of two fowls braided, an anchovy washed and chopped, a piece of butter, some salt and whole pepper; thicken the whole over a slow fire, and use it as required; it is good with any dish.

GHERKIN SAUCE. Chop some gherkins, and put them into a stewpan with a little butter and spices to your taste; dust in a little flour, and moisten with a little gravy or stock.

ITALIAN SAUCE. Cut up some mushrooms very small, and put them into a stewpan with a little parsley, a bay leaf, and a few shalots; turn the whole a few times over the fire, and dredge in a little flour; add a little good stock, and a wine glass of French white wine; let it boil half an hour; then skim, strain, and serve.

LIVER SAUCE. Boil the liver of a fowl for a few minutes in water, and rub it through a sieve with a part of the water in which it has been boiled; then make some melted butter, adding a little cream; and when it is hot, put the grated liver into it, seasoning with pepper, salt, grated lemon peel, and nutmeg; this sauce is used for roasted fowl, and is usually poured over it.

MELTED BUTTER. Flour the butter, and put it into a saucepan with a little milk, stirring carefully one way till it boils.

SAUCE A LA MENAGERE. Boil very gently for about twenty minutes a quarter of a pint of French white wine, some good gravy, a little melted butter, a handful of crumbs of bread, some shalots, chibols, parsley, and spices; when about to serve, add a little dash of vinegar.

MINT SAUCE. This sauce is seldom used but with roast lamb; to prepare it, pick, wash, and chop fine some green spearmint; to two table-spoonfuls of the minced leaves, put eight of vinegar, adding a little brown sugar; serve cold in a sauce tureen.

MUSHROOM AND WALNUT SAUCE. Take a pint of mushrooms, and the same quantity of walnut pickle; add five or six cloves of garlic, and a table-spoonful of

essence of anchovies; put them into a bottle, and set it without the cork in boiling water for about half an hour; then cork up, and put by for use.

ONION SAUCE. Take as many onions as you may consider necessary; boil them until tender, taking care to change the water two or three times to render them more mild; then strain, and mash them in a bowl, adding a piece of butter, and a little salt; place it on the fire again before serving.

PARSLEY AND BUTTER. When you have melted your butter, have ready some parsley chopped very fine, which has been previously scalded, and put into it, giving it a boil up before serving. Fennel sauce is made in the same way.

PEPPER SAUCE. Put into a saucepan a small handful of parsley, some chiboles, two or three bay leaves, a little thyme, some fine pepper, a wine-glassful of vinegar, and a little butter; let this stand over a charcoal fire until it has very considerably wasted; then add a little roux or espagnole, and a small quantity of good stock; after it has been over the fire sufficiently long, pass it through a sieve without stirring it up; this sauce should be rather pungent, and is good with all dishes that require to be highly-flavoured.

SAUCE PIQUANT, OR SHARP SAUCE. After having made a roux, (see article ROUX,) and moistened it with some good stock, add half a tumbler of vinegar, a little allspice, a small bunch of thyme, and a bay leaf; place the whole over a slow fire to thicken, when it must be passed through a sieve; season to your taste; the flavour may be occasionally varied, by adding sliced carrots, shalots, and a little parsley, and seasoning with Cayenne.

SAUCE RAVIGOTTE. Put into a saucepan some good gravy, a little vinegar, some spices, watercress, cerfeuil, and stragon, chopped fine; boil them altogether for a quarter of an hour; then take it off the fire, melt into it a little butter into which some flour has been rubbed, and set it over the fire again for a few minutes, shaking it well.

SAUCE ROBERT. Slice eight or ten large onions, and put them into a saucepan with a quarter of a pound of butter; put them on a strong fire, and when your onions are of a light brown colour, add three large table-spoonfuls of roux, two of stock; and, when it begins to thicken a little, withdraw it from the fire, skim off the fat, and when about to serve it, add a spoonful of mustard. Do not let it boil.

TOMATA SAUCE. Put ten or a dozen of these vegetables in a stewpan, with an onion, and a little minced ham, a clove or two, or a little thyme; when the love apples are melted, rub them through a sieve, adding a little flour, and season to your taste. Before served, it must be boiled for some minutes.

Another way: Cut some tomatas into small pieces, put them into a stewpan with a little butter, two or three onions sliced, a little parsley, thyme, pepper, salt, and a clove or two; when done, strain through a hair sieve.

SAUCE TOURNEE. Dilute some white roux with a little good veal stock, adding chopped mushrooms, parsley, and chives, or green onions. Boil them gently, skimming carefully; then strain and set by for use. This sauce, mixed with an equal part of consommé, and thickened over a brisk fire, adding some boiling cream, and boiling together with seasoning, according to taste, makes another velonté sauce. (See VELONTE SAUCE.)

TRUFFLE SAUCE. Take some truffles, mushrooms, half a clove of garlic, some parsley and young onions; chop the whole together very fine; then put them on the fire with a little stock, a glass of French white wine, a little salad oil, pepper and salt; let the whole stew together; skim off the grease before serving.

SAUCE VELONTE. Put half a pound of knuckle of veal, two fowls, four carrots, four onions, two cloves, some parsley and chibols, into a saucepan; cover them with consommé, and put them over a sharp fire; skim carefully; and when the liquid has diminished, fill up the saucepan with consommé, skimming from time to time; when it boils, stand it by the side of the fire, and make a white roux, with which put twenty champignons, and the juice of a lemon; pour upon this some of the liquor of your velonté, and let them boil; when this has been done, pour the whole into the saucepan with the meat, and let them boil together; then strain, taking care that the velonté be as white as possible. Set it by for use.

WHITE SAUCE. Put into a saucepan a quarter of a pound of butter, half a table-spoonful of flour, some salt, and whole pepper; add a little water; mix the whole well together with a wooden spoon; set it on the fire, stirring it until it is well mixed. Do not let it boil, as it makes it strong.

WHITE SAUCE WITHOUT BUTTER. Take the yolk of an egg, adding to it a

little salt; beat it up with a wooden spoon, and pour into it, while beating, four or five ounces of salad oil. This sauce must not be put over the fire, the heat of the dish on which it is put being sufficient. It may be put over fish or vegetables, adding at the time a little vinegar, nutmeg, or pepper, according to your taste.

SAVORY. A herb formerly much used in cookery, but less so at present. It was also once a favourite in herbal medicine; but has lost its reputation. Summer savory is sown in the spring, in shallow drills, rather less than a foot apart; winter savory may be propagated from cuttings and slips.

SCOURING. This term is applied indiscriminately to all operations of cleansing in which a brush is used, and also as regards culinary and other utensils which are cleaned without its aid. By scouring, however, we shall here refer only to the operation of cleaning woollens, cottons, silks, and other fabrics of a similar nature. (See **SILKS**.) In scouring of this description the article to be cleaned is stretched upon a board, and the stains having been removed (see **STAINS**) it is well brushed with soap and water, or ox-gall, (see **OX GALL**), and then the soap or gall is subsequently washed out with clean water. As many articles become unfit for use less by the wear which they have undergone, than by the stains of grease, &c., and the dirt which they have received, the operation of scouring, when carefully performed, is a very useful one, and frequently renders unnecessary the purchase of a new article. Unfortunately, however, most of the professional scourers, in order to get rapidly through their work, use brushes of such hardness that the texture of the article under their hands is partially destroyed, and the owner, far from finding economy in having had it cleaned, is a serious loser. It is always desirable therefore to perform the operation at home. Hot water should never be used in scouring of this nature; the brushes should be only moderately hard, and sufficient time should be employed to effect the thorough cleansing, without injury to the texture of the object to be cleaned.

SHALOTS. This root is used in most seasoned dishes; its flavour is milder than the garlic, and more pungent than the onion, and it must therefore be used in moderate quantities. The soil for shalots should be light and well broken, and

be well manured with old, rotten dung. The sets are planted about the beginning of October, at about four inches apart, and three inches deep. The crop is taken up in the early part of the autumn, when the leaves begin to change colour, and is hung in a cool, dry place for use.

SHRUB. A compound liquor of rum and sugar. It is generally considered to be unwholesome. Mixed with cold water, however, it forms an agreeable beverage in warm weather.

SIEVE. An utensil perforated with holes, or made partly with wire, muslin, or other substance, to allow the finer parts of any article to pass through, and the grosser parts to remain. In perfumery sieves are made of gauze, muslin, silk, &c., according to the powders to be sifted; they should always have covers over them, to enable the operator to agitate the sieve powerfully, without losing any portion of the contents.

SILKS, TO WASH OR CLEAN. (See **WASHING**.) Silks are never washed so well as in a running stream, using the clay called puddle, instead of soap, during the greater part of the operation, and only employing soap once or twice. Indeed, if the application of the clay be found sufficient, soap should be entirely dispensed with. Fuller's earth reduced to powder, and made with water into a kind of cake, will answer the purpose of the particular clay alluded to. When the silk has been thoroughly cleaned, and the stains, if there were any, removed (see **STAINS**), it must be drawn backwards and forwards in the stream, until all the earth or soap disappears; and then be put to dry without being wrung. If a running stream be not at hand, rinse in frequent waters, and press with the hand. Silks thus cleaned have a beautiful brightness, when dry. The following receipt for cleaning silks has been communicated by a celebrated *dégraisseur* (scourer) of Paris.

SIMPLE METHOD FOR CLEANING SILK, COTTON, AND WOOLLEN STUFFS, WITHOUT INJURING THE COLOURS. Take half a pound of black soap, half a pound of honey, and the same quantity of brandy, (quarter of a litre,) and mix them well together over a slow fire; then take the silk, cotton, or woollen stuff which is to be cleaned, spread it on a table, and with a soft brush rub the stuff with the soapy composition all over, on both sides; have ready at hand three pails of water, two of soft, (rain or river water,) and one of

hard, (pump water;) plunge the stuff, well soaped and scrubbed, first in the soft water, until the soap is discharged; next rinse it well in the hard water, and afterwards hang it up to dry; when dry, (if the stuff is of silk or cotton,) pass it through a little gum water, and, finally, iron it all over with a hot iron. The same method will answer equally well for cotton and woollen stuffs.

SNAILS. These animals were much used for the kitchen by many of the ancients, and they still form a dish in Italy and the South of France; but notwithstanding all the care that can be taken in cleaning them, they can scarcely ever be made agreeable eating. They have, however, still a high medicinal reputation, and are used not unfrequently on the Continent boiled in milk, as a remedy for affections of the lungs. They do not appear to have any other quality to recommend them than their highly viscous character, and some snails are even decidedly unwholesome; particularly those which are found in vineyards, and on hedges. Various preparations are sold in Paris as remedies for consumption, which are said to be made from snails, but there is probably no truth in the statement. They are occasionally brought into the French markets in cages like bird cages, for sale.

SOAP. The soap of commerce is made by a combination of oil and alkali, which is soluble in water, and dissolves stains of oil and grease, without injury to the object which has been stained. The best soap is made of pure olive oil and soda; for the ordinary soap a more common oil and potass are used. For general domestic use in cleaning, the common soap is preferable to the finer sort. Soap may be hardened in the making by the admixture of iron; it is in this way that the Marseilles marbled soap is made. Great varieties of fancy soaps are sold by the perfumers; the *Manuel de Parfumeurs* gives no less than fifty modes of preparation, but it would be a waste of space to repeat them, for no private person could prepare them in small quantities at so cheap a rate as they can be sold at by perfumers, and the making of them is attended with considerable trouble. It will be sufficient therefore to give the preparation of only two or three domestic soaps, which do not fall exactly in the class of perfumery.

ESSENCE OF SOAP. This is very much used on the Continent for shaving. It is made by dissolving as much fine dry white soap in spirits of wine as the spirit will

dissolve, and perfuming it with any essence. The mixture should be placed near the fire, or in a sand bath; and if the whole does not dissolve, pour off the clear liquid and keep it for use. In using it for shaving, the brush should be dipped in, and then a few drops of water be thrown upon the brush: it makes a fine lather. This is also a good article to have in the house, as it may be used as a soap liniment, by adding to it a little camphor, or camphorated spirits of wine.

SOAP POWDER—Is made by taking white soap which has been made very dry, by evaporation of the unctuous parts in the sun or in a drying stove, and pounding it in a mortar, and passing it through a sieve. The chief use of this article is assisting in putting on tight or damp boots; a little of the powder strewed over the inside of the boot will obviate any difficulty in drawing it on.

SOAP FOR STAINS. Cut up into very fine shreds a pound of white soap, and dissolve it near the fire in strong spirits of wine; work it well in a mortar with eight yolks of eggs, adding by degrees two ounces of essence of turpentine, and as much finely powdered Fuller's earth as will make it solid; then divide it into cakes, and lay it by for use. When it is used, wet, if possible, with hot water, the object which is stained, then rub it with the soap; having done this, take a sponge, or a fine brush, with some warm water, and rub until the stain has completely disappeared. This soap will take out all stains of a greasy nature.

SOAP WORT, (*Saponaria*.) The root of this plant is aperient and sudorific, and is said by some to be preferable, as a detergent of the juices, to sassafras. The leaves agitated in water raise a saponaceous froth, which is nearly as powerful as soap itself in washing, and is frequently used for that purpose.

SODA WATER. On the first invention of soda water, it was chiefly used by invalids, under the belief that its alkaline properties facilitated digestion, whilst the effervescence created a wholesome excitement. It soon, however, became a very favourite beverage for persons in health; and is now used to an enormous extent, not only in England, but also on the Continent. It is quite a mistake, however, to suppose that the soda water usually sold can have any great effect as an alkaline draught. In many cases not a grain of soda in its pure form enters into the composition of even a thousand bottles; the carbonic

gas which it contains being artificially prepared, and forced in by powerful machinery. We must not conclude, however, from this circumstance, that the soda water of commerce is a decidedly unwholesome beverage; it is only so when too highly charged with carbonic gas; for then a weak stomach finds difficulty in getting rid of the burden, and the peculiar sensation experienced shews that the first impulse of that organ is a desire to reject what it receives. Some medical writers, indeed, are of opinion that the soda water of commerce can never do any good, but frequently produces harm. Under this impression, an attempt has been made to introduce a new aerated mixture, in which the water, instead of being saturated with carbonic gas, is charged with the oxygen gas, commonly called laughing gas, which is made from manganese. It is asserted by the partisans of this new doctrine, that the oxygen thus taken into the stomach is immediately absorbed and carried into the blood; and many cases have been brought forward of extraordinary cures effected by this water, in cases of asthma, and other diseases. It is even pretended that it would be a remedy for cholera, some cases of that frightful malady having been cured by the administration of the laughing gas. Without pronouncing on the degree of credit due to this statement, it may be certainly laid down as a principle, that as this gas possesses exhilarating properties, whilst those of carbonic gas are, on the contrary, depressing, the use of the new aerated water would seem to be more reasonable than that of the soda water of commerce. Persons, however, who are fond of soda water, may make it themselves at a very slight expense: all that is necessary is to fill a pint bottle to the extent of three-fourths with water, then to put in half a drachm of finely powdered tartaric acid, and, next, a drachm of carbonate of soda, bottling with an excellent cork, and tying over immediately; in order, however, to prevent the escape of gas, the neck of the bottle, when tied, should be dipped in melted resin. Of course, the bottling is altogether unnecessary if the water is to be taken immediately; for if a rummer be filled half full with water, and half the quantity of tartaric acid above prescribed be put into it, the soda being placed in the same proportion in another glass with a similar quantity of water, the two being then mixed suddenly together, the whole will

effervesce, and form a very agreeable beverage. Invalids and persons liable to indigestion should, however, reduce the quantity of acid to such an extent that the soda may be in excess. The draught may be made more stomachic by mixing a little powdered ginger and sugar with it.

SOUPS. If in England the use of soups is not so general as it might be, so far at least as regards those which are in their nature wholesome and economical, it must be admitted that our continental neighbours, the French, have carried this department of cookery to an absurd extent. M. Carême, in his large work called *l'Art de la Cuisine Française*, gives us nearly three hundred and fifty different soups, many of them exceedingly complicated in the mode of preparation, and many merely fanciful; for the imagination of a French cook has no limits, and he is as proud of a slight change in the manner of preparing a soup which enables him to coin a new name, as a general is of a victory. The selection given in the *Kitchen Dictionary*, from all that is known to be good of the soups used in different countries, whether as connected with health, economy, or pure gourmandize, will be sufficient for all practical purposes in the cottages of the poor, or in the palaces of the rich. Where modifications or changes are desired, the inventive faculties of the cook may be called into action; but the necessity for them is not very apparent. It is, perhaps, as well to remark that the richer soups should be taken sparingly; for it is a very bad custom to give to the stomach, at the commencement of a repast, the fatigue of digesting rich soup, and enfeebling its tone, so as to disable it from performing its work with what is to succeed. It may also be observed, that with the plainer soups it is equally imprudent to take a large quantity; for the juices of the stomach should not be too much diluted at the commencement of a repast.

PLAIN BEEF SOUP—Called in French, *Pot au Feu*. This is by far the most wholesome of all soups, and is regularly used by the middle classes on the Continent, and also by many of the most wealthy. Take three pounds of good rump of beef, or any other part not too fat, and free from bone; put it into an earthen fire-proof pot, with three quarts of water, one large carrot, two or three turnips, two leeks, a head of celery, and one burnt onion, add a proper quantity of pepper and salt, and let the soup boil

slowly, skimming it from time to time, for at least five hours; when the soup is ready, strain it through a fine sieve, then pour it over thin slices of bread, and serve it up. The meat and vegetables make a dish, which is served up after the soup. Thus cooked, the meat becomes tender and juicy, and eaten with French or English mustard has a fine flavour; it is also excellent eaten cold at breakfast or at luncheon. In Paris there are large establishments which supply this soup to families by the quart; so that the cook has nothing to do but to warm it for use. The soup thus made on a large scale is strengthened and rendered economical by the addition of gelatine made from bones, which is sold by the grocers in cakes. By way of economy, beef, which has been roasted on the preceding day, may form part of the meat employed.

BEEF TEA. Put a pound of lean beef into a stewpan, with about a pint and a half of water; be careful to skim it well, and let it simmer very gently for two hours; a clove or two may be put in, but no vegetables; strain before used.

COTTAGE SOUP—the *Pot au Feu* of the poor. An earthen pot is filled with carrots, turnips, cabbages, leeks and onions, and water, to which is added a quantity of bacon, in the proportion of one pound to six quarts of water; pepper and salt are used in the usual way; and the soup is allowed to boil very gently for five or six hours; the addition of a pint of the white haricot beans improves the flavour and nutritive properties. Where vegetables are cheap, soup for ten persons may be obtained for about twopence per head; and the vegetables thus cooked are wholesome and nourishing. When poor persons can afford to purchase butcher's meat, they make a *pot au feu* with it, and thus obtain all its virtues at the same time that they have the solid food, instead of sending it to the bakehouse, as is done in England, and losing half the bulk, and half the juices, by evaporation.

CURRIE SOUP. Put three or four onions, cut fine, into a saucepan with a little butter, and some flour, and let them fry of a light brown colour, but without burning; then rub in by degrees about two small table-spoonfuls of currie powder, till it becomes of the consistence of paste; mix this well in about four quarts of good gravy soup, and boil it gently until it has become sufficiently flavoured with the currie; strain it off, and put into it a fowl cut into pieces, and let it

stew slowly for about an hour. A large table-spoonful of tamarinds is sometimes added, previously stewed in a little of the soup, and strained. It should be boiled about ten minutes before serving.

GIBLET SOUP. Scald the giblets of as many geese as may be necessary; divide the neck into small pieces, and cut the gizzard and liver into several pieces; wash them well afterwards in cold water; then put them into a saucepan with about two quarts of good stock, and boil gently until quite tender, then strain them off; put a quarter of a pound of butter into a stewpan with a bunch of parsley, some young onions, and half a pint of stock; put these over a slow fire for an hour, then add as much flour as will absorb all the butter, afterwards throwing in all the liquor in which the giblets were boiled, and half a pint of wine, (sherry preferred;) when this has boiled for a few minutes, strain it over the giblets, squeezing in a lemon, and seasoning to your taste.

HARE SOUP. After having cut the hare into joints, put it into a stewpan, with some allspice, a little salt, whole pepper, a bunch of parsley, a little lemon thyme, four quarts of water, about three pounds of lean beef, a small slice of ham, and three or four onions; let it boil till it is reduced one-fourth; then separate the hare, strain the soup over it, and add a pint of red French or port wine; boil it up before serving, that it may be thoroughly hot.

JULIENNE SOUP. This is one of the best soups made in France and is generally preferred by the English to all the other soups of the restaurateur's carte. The *Manuel de la Cuisiniere*, a little work written for the use of the middle classes, recommends it to be made in the following way:—Slice very fine, in any quantity, according to the number of persons who are to dine, equal parts of leeks, carrots, parsnips, onions, turnips, celery, and potatoes; add an equal proportion of finely chopped lettuce, and a little sorrel and cerfeuil, (parsley, if cerfeuil cannot be had;) let these be about half cooked in a saucepan with fresh butter, and then add sufficient beef stock (*Bouillon gras*) to make the quantity of soup required; boil gently for an hour, then season with pepper and salt, as may be necessary, and serve up without straining. If there be no beef stock on hand, make some for the purpose in a separate saucepan. The vegetables cannot be sliced too fine; they should not be more bulky when

cooked than a large straw, and about an inch long.

Another Julienne soup, called *Fau-bonne*, is made by allowing the vegetables, when first cooked in the butter, to remain long enough to acquire a deep colour. In the preparation above mentioned, there should be sufficient butter to prevent their burning brown, and having a burnt taste.

MULLAGATAWNY SOUP. Stew half a pound of butter, about twenty sliced turnips, nearly the same quantity of carrots, and six or eight onions, in some strong stock; when they are quite tender, strain off the vegetables, and add about two or three quarts of stock, about a handful of the crumb of bread, and two table-spoonfuls of currie powder; then take a fowl which has been cut into pieces, and fried in a pan with butter, and put it into the saucepan, which should now be put to simmer for some time, the fat being taken off from time to time; just before it is taken from the fire, mix two table-spoonfuls of arrow-root, or potato fecula, in a little water, and put it into the saucepan, stirring it well, until the soup becomes nicely thickened. A mullagatawny soup may be made in the same way, with breast of veal cut into slices, and previously fried in butter. When there is no stock ready prepared, it may be made by boiling the bruised bones of beef and poultry for a long time with the vegetables, then, straining off the liquor, add the fowl or veal; the vegetables may be served or not with the soup, according to taste: salt must be added in sufficient quantity.

Another mullagatawny soup is made in the following way:—Stew over a slow fire, until lightly brown, half a pound of fresh butter, four or five large onions sliced, some chopped sweet herbs, and a little shallot; then put in four pounds of lean beef and two pounds of veal, cut into slices, and stew gently for half an hour, after which add half a pound of pearl barley, and two ounces of rice, and three or four table-spoonfuls of currie powder; these must simmer for three or four hours; cut up a fowl previously skinned, and stew it gently until perfectly done; add this to the soup about half an hour before it is taken up, and a quarter of an hour before taking up, add a pint of boiling milk, thickened with arrow-root, and the juice of a large lemon, or two table-spoonfuls of good vinegar. The quantity of currie powder may be increased for persons who are partial to that flavour. Rice carefully boiled, and

served up very dry, always accompanies this soup. A rabbit may be substituted for a fowl, and is preferred by many persons.

OX CHEEK SOUP. Cut the meat off the bones in small oblong pieces, and break the bones well; put the whole into a vessel with water in the proportion of a quart to a pound of meat; set it on a gentle fire; when it has stewed gently for two hours, add vegetables to your taste, a little vermicelli, pepper and salt, and let it stew for about two hours longer; then take out the bones; take care that while boiling it is well skimmed.

OX TAIL SOUP. Cut two ox tails into pieces of about an inch and a half long, and after steeping them for two hours in cold water, put them into a stewpan, with a bunch of sweet herbs, a little whole pepper, two onions, a carrot, and a turnip; pour over these ingredients four quarts of cold water, and cover closely; when it boils, skim it carefully, and let it boil for three hours; then take off all the fat, add a small quantity of vinegar, half a pint of red French or port wine; before serving, the vegetables and herbs should be taken out.

OYSTER SOUP. Put the liquor of ten dozens of large oysters into a stewpan with a quart of new milk, and the same quantity of water; season with pepper and salt, and thicken with half a pound of fresh butter and flour; let this boil for a few minutes, after which set it to cool; then beard the oysters, add them to the liquid, and let them boil for two minutes at the utmost; a little nutmeg may be added to those who like the flavour of that spice. This is a rich, strengthening, and agreeable soup. In some parts of Normandy, soup is made from muscles in a similar way.

PECTORAL CHICKEN SOUP FOR COLDS. Take a chicken and prepare it in the same way as for fowl broth, (see at the end of soups,) but adding two ounces of pearl barley, two ounces of rice, and two ounces of honey, leaving out pepper and salt.

RABBIT SOUP. Cut a rabbit that is too old to dress in any other way into joints, and lay in water for an hour; then dry, and fry brown in butter, with three or four onions cut in slices; when done, put into a stewpan, with three quarts of cold water, a pint of split peas, some pepper and salt, and let it stew very gently for five hours; then strain and serve hot.

STOCK, OR BOUILLON GRAS, AS IT IS MADE IN FRANCE. Take any quantity of the choice and most juicy parts of beef,

and put it into an earthen pot, or saucepan, with as many quarts of water as there are pounds of meat; boil gently, and take off the scum that rises, until none is left; then add sufficient salt to give a flavour; when the quantity of water has been considerably reduced, add carrots, turnips, parsnips, leeks, celery, and burnt onions, in the same proportion as that mentioned under the head **PLAIN BEEF SOUP**, according to the quantity of meat that is employed; the stock should boil gently until the quantity of clear soup strained from the vegetables has been reduced to less than one-half of the quantity of water first employed; when strained, put the stock by for use. In cold weather this stock will remain good for three or four days, and form the basis of several soups; in hot weather it will sometimes turn in a day; when, therefore, it is intended to keep the stock beyond this time, no vegetables are to be used, except the burnt onion, without which it would be merely beef tea. The *Almanach de France* states that the decomposition of soup may be checked for some time by adding to a tureen full, three or four table-spoonfuls of vinegar.

TURTLE SOUP. The following excellent method of making this article is from Mrs. Dalgairn's "Practice of Cookery," and is meant for a turtle of one hundred and twenty pounds weight:—

"Having cut off the head close to the shell, hang up the turtle till next day; then open it, bearing the knife heavily on the back of the animal in cutting it off all round; turn it on its end, that all the water and blood may run out; then cut the flesh off along the spine, sloping the knife towards the bones so as to avoid touching the gall; and having also cut the flesh from the legs and other members, wash the whole well, and drain it; a large vessel of boiling water being ready on the fire, put in the breast shell; and when the plates will separate easily, take them out of the water; boil the back and belly in water till the softer parts can be taken off easily; but before they are sufficiently done, as they are to be again boiled in the sauce, lay them to cool singly, in earthen vessels, that they may not stick together; let the bones continue to stew for some time, as the liquor must be used for moistening the sauces. All the flesh being cut from the body, the four legs and head must be stewed in the following manner:—Lay a few slices of ham on the bottom of a large stewpan, and over

the ham two or three knuckles of veal; then above the veal, the inside flesh of the turtle, and that of the members of the whole, adding a large bunch of sweet herbs, such as sweet basil, sweet marjoram, lemon thyme, a handful of parsley, and green onions, and a large onion stuck with cloves. Then partly moisten it with the water in which the shell is boiling, and when it has stood some time, moisten it again with the liquor in which the back and belly have been boiled; when the legs are tender, take them out, drain, and put them aside, to be afterwards added to the sauce; and when the flesh is completely done, drain it through a silk sieve, and mix with the sauce some very fine white roux; then cut all the softer parts, now sufficiently cold, into pieces about an inch square; add them to the sauce, and let them simmer gently till they can be easily pierced; skim it well.

"Next chop a small quantity of herbs, and boil them with a little sugar, in four bottles of Madeira, till reduced to two; then rub it through a tammy; mix it with the turtle sauce, and let it boil for a short time. Make some forcemeat balls as follows:—Cut off about a pound of meat from the fleshy part of a leg of veal, free from sinews or fat; soak in milk about the same quantity of crumbs of bread; when quite soft, squeeze, and put it into a mortar, together with the veal, a small quantity of calf's udder, a little butter, the yolks of four hard-boiled eggs, a little cayenne, salt, and spices; pound the whole very finely; then thicken the mixture with two whole eggs, and the yolk of a third; throw a bit into boiling water, and if not sufficiently firm, add the yolk of another egg; and for variety, some chopped parsley may be mixed with half of the forcemeat; let the whole cool, so that it may be formed into balls, about the size of the yolk of an egg; poach them in boiling water, and add them to the turtle. Before serving, mix a little cayenne with the juice of two or three lemons, and add it to the soup. It is generally preferable to prepare the soup the day before it is required for use; and it will be best heated in a water bath, or flat vessel containing water, which is always kept very hot, but not allowed to boil. By the same method, sauces, stews, and other made dishes, may be kept hot.

"When the fins of the turtle are to be served as a side dish, they must be first parboiled, then skinned, and stewed in a little turtle sauce, with some port

wine, and seasoned with cayenne, salt, and a little lemon juice, and thickened with butter and flour. Fricandeaux and blanquettes may also be made of the flesh of the turtle, in the same way as those of veal."

Mrs. Rundell, in her "Domestic Cookery," gives the following:—

"The night before dressing a turtle hang it up by the hinder legs, and, without giving time for it to draw in its neck, cut off its head; early next morning have ready a boiler of hot water; with a sharp knife take off the fins next the head at the joint, which if properly hit, will allow them to separate from the body without cutting; the hinder fins, when cut at the joint, will, by a little twist, come off immediately.

"Next divide the callapash, or back shell, from the callapee, the belly shell, at about two inches round the latter, which is some of the prime of the turtle; take out the entrails with particular care, lest the gall should be broken, and throw them into a tub of cold water; when well washed, open the guts from end to end with a small penknife, and draw them through a woollen cloth often, to cleanse them; then put them into fresh cold water. The belly shell must be cut in pieces, the size of the palm of the hand, and the lungs, kidneys, &c., be cleared from the back shell; put the shells and fins into scalding water, until the scales can be scraped off with a knife, and all the meat can be taken clear off. Be sure to keep the different parts of the turtle separate, that they may be proportioned out afterwards.

"The green fat cut in pieces the size of an inch and a half square; simmer the fins only, in as much water as will cover them, till tender; then add the water, strained, to a quantity of very rich broth of veal, to which put a pound of butter rubbed down with as much fine flour as shall give due thickness; stir it over the fire ten minutes; having put in the entrails, cut in small pieces, six hours to stew before dinner; add to the soup green onions, and all sorts of seasoning herbs, chopped small, pepper, salt, and cayenne, to your taste, not extremely hot, and the juice of one or two lemons, according to the size of the turtle, which, if fifty pounds weight, will require two bottles of Madeira; let all the seasoning be simmered six hours, some of the coarse and white parts two hours, and a proportion of the green fat one hour.

"Put round the back shell a paste of

flour and water about two inches high, to keep in the meat; then fill it three parts with the remainder of the coarse, the part that resembles veal, the green fat, &c., and some of the thin soup, and additional seasoning. Bake it." (For FORCEMEAT, see STUFFING.)

MOCK TURTLE SOUP. After having parboiled a calf's head, take off the skin, and cut it into small square bits; cut the meat also into small pieces, and skin and cut up the tongue into slices; put this into a large stewpan with about three quarts of water, and a pint of Madeira wine, and let it boil gently over a slow fire for two hours; season with cayenne, two blades of mace, salt, and a little lemon peel; put in also a dozen of forcemeat balls; mix two table-spoonfuls of flour in a little of the soup, and stir it into the stewpan, adding at the same time a little lemon juice, and the yolks of six hard eggs; let the whole simmer for about a quarter of an hour, and serve in a tureen; the forcemeat balls should be made by mixing the brains with a little grated bread, a small quantity of finely minced suet, salt, pepper, nutmeg, and parsley, scalded and chopped; make into balls with the yolks and whites of two eggs beaten, and fry to a good colour in boiling dripping.

MOCK TURTLE. (French method.) The following method, amongst several others, is given by M. A. Carême:—"Choose a calf's head which is fat, and has a thick skin, let all the blood be well drained from it, in order that it may be perfectly white; take out the bones, cut it into four parts, taking off the ears and the kernelly parts; boil it until tender, and then take it off, and place it under a heavy weight to press; when cold, cut it into pieces of an inch square, removing from each piece any fat or hair that may be attached to it; put all these pieces into a stewpan with a dozen fine cocks' combs, twenty-four cocks' kidneys, and the same number of small white mushrooms; let it stew over a very slow fire for about ten minutes, adding a glass of dry Madeira wine; then turn out the head thus stewed into some espagnole well clarified, in which you have previously mixed a sauce made as follows: Put into a stewpan two carrots and two onions cut fine, a few sprigs of parsley, half a bay leaf, a little thyme, basil, sweet marjoram, a slice or two of lean ham cut into small pieces, three anchovies washed and bruised, a little cayenne, two cloves, and a very small bit of mace; add a wine glass of

Madeira wine, and about twice the quantity of good *consommé*; let these ingredients stew on a slow fire for an hour, and then pass it through a fine sieve; when you have added this sauce to the soup, boil the whole again together for a quarter of an hour, and skim off the light froth which the wine has caused to rise. Care should be taken not to let the flavour of any one spice predominate."

VEGETABLE SOUP. Cut up into small pieces, some celery, onions, carrots, or turnips, according as you wish the flavour to predominate; when you have blanched them in boiling water for a short time, put them into a vessel to stew, with a small piece of butter, and some salt; in the meantime put into another stewpan a piece of butter, some onions, carrots, parsnips, and a head of celery, all cut up very small; two or three cloves, a little parsley, or a clove of garlic, may be added, according to your taste.

VEGETABLE STOCK, OR BOUILLON MAIGRE. Put into a saucepan ten carrots cut in slices, the same number of turnips and onions, two heads of celery, two lettuces, a little cerfeuil, if it can be procured, half a cabbage sliced, two parsnips, also sliced, and half a pound of butter; pour over them a pint of water, and boil until all the water has evaporated, and the vegetables begin to fry a little in the butter; now fill the saucepan with water to the height at which the vegetables stood before it was first put upon the fire, and about two quarts more, adding a quart of peas, green or dried, according to the season, two or three cloves, and pepper and salt for seasoning; boil gently for three or four hours, then strain off. This is an agreeable soup in this state, and, as stock, is the basis of most of the soups *maigres* which are made.

CARROT SOUP. Wash, scrape, and cut into slices twenty-four carrots, and put them into a stewpan with about a quarter of a pound of butter; let them stew till sufficiently soft to press through a hair sieve; then add the pulp to as much good well seasoned stock as will make it of the consistence of rich cream, and boil it for about three-quarters of an hour.

GREEN PEA-SOUP. Put into a saucepan with six quarts of water, a quart of old green peas, two onions, a little mint, some salt and pepper, and boil till the peas are perfectly tender, when they must be pressed through a sieve; stew four young lettuces in butter until they are tender, and three pints of young green

peas; put these into the soup, and boil until the peas just added are tender.

GREEN PEA-SOUP MAIGRE. In Catholic countries excellent pea-soup for the *maigre* days is made as follows:—Take a quart of green peas, large, but not too old; boil them in water with salt until they are thoroughly tender, then pass the pulp through a sieve; now take a quart of milk, and beat up in it the yolks of two eggs and the white of one; put the pulp to this, and boil for a quarter of an hour: just before serving, sweeten with white sugar, and add a little grated nutmeg and lemon peel. This is a very agreeable and nourishing preparation for young persons.

ONION SOUP. Peel and slice eighteen onions, three or four turnips, a parsnip, two carrots, and put, with the heart of a head of celery, a bunch of sweet herbs, and a little pepper and salt, into a stewpan, with four quarts of beef or veal stock; boil till the vegetables are tender, then press all through a sieve, and let stand till cold; then bruise up the yolks of three hard-boiled eggs with a pint of cream, and stir it into the soup, and heat it, but be careful that it does not boil; put a piece of toasted bread into the soup before serving.

ONION AND MILK SOUP. Brown some slices of onion in a frying-pan, with a piece of fresh butter, and a few pinches of flour; when the onion is well coloured, put into the pan a quart of boiling milk; season to your taste; let the milk boil up once or twice; strain and serve.

PEA-SOUP IN THE ENGLISH WAY. Put a pint of split peas into four quarts of water, with two ounces of butter, three pounds of beef, one pound of crushed bones, and a knuckle of ham, or half a pound of good bacon; add two or three carrots, as many turnips, a head of celery, four onions, and the proper quantity of salt and pepper; boil for about three hours; then crush the pulp from the peas through a sieve, and add it again to the soup; boil for another hour; then pass the soup through a sieve, and serve it up, making of the meat, where economy is looked to, a separate dish. Some persons who do not like the flavour of bacon or ham, leave it out. Many good housewives, when they boil salt beef, or a leg of mutton, keep the liquor for the following day for pea-soup, adding a much smaller quantity of meat than they would otherwise use. When green peas are in season, a pint may be added at the second boiling; these are to be served up with

the soup; serve with the soup a plate of dry toast, cut in small squares, and a little powdered mint, that each person may flavour the soup according to taste.

The French way of making pea-soup is as follows:—Take the required quantity of bouillon gras (beef stock), and put into it as much purée (see **PURÉE**) as will make a thick soup; boil for an hour; cut bread into small squares, which are to be fried in butter, and served up with the soup. The purée is sometimes made simply, without any other process than boiling the peas, and converting them into a pulp. In this case it is put into the beef stock, and gently boiled for a longer time, with the addition of a bit of bacon or ham. M. Carème makes a very rich pea-soup in the following manner:—Take three pints of crushed peas, of the green kind, put them into a saucepan, with a little salt, a piece of fresh butter, and a sufficient quantity of water to boil the peas, adding a little lean ham; let them simmer for two hours; then take away the ham, and press the peas in pulp through a sieve or cullender, assisting the process by a little hot consommé, (see **CONSUMMÉ**;) now mix consommé in the proper quantity to make thick soup, and simmer for an hour; just before the soup is taken from the fire, add a little sugar sufficient to give the soup a slight flavour of sweetness, and a little butter; serve with it small squares of bread fried in butter, but on a plate separate from the soup. To improve the colour of the soup, add a little boiled and mashed spinach, rubbed through a sieve with consommé.

POTATO SOUP. Peel some potatoes, and boil them in water until they become a purée; then press them through a sieve, and fricasee them with some butter, chopped parsley, and a little pepper and salt; moisten these ingredients with the water in which the potatoes were boiled. Steep some slices of bread in the soup.

PUMPKIN SOUP. Pare the rind from a large piece of pumpkin, taking out all the pulp; then cut it into small pieces, and boil it in water until all the water is consumed, and it becomes of the consistence of marmalade; then add a small piece of butter, and a very little salt, and afterwards about a pint and a half of milk which has been boiled and sweetened; cut slices of bread in the dish before serving.

RICE SOUP. Let the rice be well washed in three or four waters, a little lukewarm, rubbing it at the same time between your hands; then drain it dry; it must then

be put over a slow fire, with some good stock and veal gravy, and allowed to boil for from two to three hours; when done, skim, season it to your taste, and serve thick; the rice should not be allowed to boil so long as to break, as it spoils the appearance of the soup, although the flavour is not injured.

VERMICELLI SOUP. Put whatever quantity of stock you may think necessary into a saucepan, and let it boil quickly; when it boils, put in your vermicelli, taking care that you do not allow it to settle in lumps; boil it a quarter of an hour; if it is allowed to boil too long, the vermicelli bursts, and the soup becomes too thick; the vermicelli should be blanched in boiling water, and be well drained on a sieve, before it is put into the soup.

VENISON SOUP. Put into a stewpan two ounces of butter, and about four pounds of the breast of venison, cut into small pieces, and let it stew, closely covered, for half an hour; put two quarts of cold water, with about three quarters of a pint of the blood, into another saucepan, and boil it, stirring it constantly; then add the meat to it, with an onion sliced, a carrot, some salt, and pepper; let it boil about two hours; thicken, if necessary, with a little flour and butter; before serving, take out the carrot and the bones.

WHITING SOUP. Take two whittings, two soles, and a mullet, cut them, when carefully cleaned, into pieces, and put them into a saucepan, with a clove of garlic and some parsley; having put the saucepan on the fire, add a quart of boiling water, salt, and pepper, and let the whole boil over a slow fire for an hour and a half; fry some slices of bread in butter, and place them in a deep dish, on which the fish and soup, when done, are to be poured.

CALF'S LIGHTS BROTH. A favourite French preparation. Take half a lobe of a calf's lights, cut it into small pieces, and place it in an earthen pot with three quarts of water, six or eight turnips, cut up, a little parsley, or cerfeuil, and half an ounce of jujubes, or a quarter of an ounce of isinglass; skim the broth carefully as it boils, and when reduced to two quarts, strain through a fine gauze sieve.

FOWL BROTH (for four persons). Take a good-sized fowl, cut it into pieces, and put it, with the bones, into a saucepan, with two quarts of water, add one onion, and season with pepper and salt; when the quantity is reduced to a third, strain through a fine sieve, and serve it up

with a little chopped parsley. If rice be used, let it be boiled separately, and mix it with the broth when cooked.

MUTTON BROTH. To four pounds of the middle part of neck of mutton, put two quarts of water, boil and skim it well; then add some turnips, and two or three onions, and about half a pint of pearl barley; let it simmer very gently for an hour and a half; serve the meat separately, with some melted butter, in a tureen. If the turnips are preferred to be eaten mashed with the mutton, take them out when tender, and mash with a little piece of butter, salt, and pepper.

SHEEP'S HEAD BROTH. Mrs. Dalgairn's *Practice of Cookery* gives the following method for making this preparation:—"After having the sheep's head and trotters singed, which is done with a red-hot iron, (they are usually sent for this purpose to a blacksmith's forge,) split the head and take out the brain, which is not used, cut out the white of the eye, and rub the head and feet well over with it; let them lie for two hours, then wash them very well in lukewarm water, and rinse them thoroughly; cut out the tough membrane from between the toes, and lay them in cold water for two hours; put on two gallons of water, and three quarters of a pound of Scotch barley; when it boils, put in the head, trotters, and neck of the sheep, and a quart of carrots and turnips cut into dice; add a little salt, cover the pot closely, and let it boil four hours; take off the scum as it rises; put in some chopped onions about an hour before serving; boil some whole carrots and turnips, or cut them in half, to put round the head, trotters, and neck, in the dish. In summer, green peas are a great improvement to this broth."

VEAL BROTH. This is to be made in the same way as chicken broth, in the proportion of one quart of water to one pound of knuckle of veal without the bone; an onion may be added. The French make what they call cooling veal broth, which is taken by invalids, in the proportion of only half a pound of veal to two quarts of water, and add two lettuces.

SOURKROUT. Cabbage which has undergone fermentation. It is a favourite dish in Germany; but very few English persons are fond of it. The mode of preparing it in Germany is either peculiar, or the cabbage which is used for the purpose is of a different kind from that which is used in England and in France; for the Germans pretend that no sourkrouit is

good but that which is made in their own country. It is made in France as follows:—Some vinegar and flour are laid in the bottom of an upright cask, from which the head has been removed; on the vinegar and flour is placed a layer of the drum cabbage, cut into shreds; salt is plentifully sprinkled over the layer of cabbage, which is rammed down tight, and successive layers, salted, are placed in the same way until the cask is full, each layer being well pressed; the head is now put on in such a way as to clear the sides and press upon the cabbage, and a light weight is placed upon it; when the cabbage has fermented for nearly a month, the scum and a great part of the water at the top are removed, and a heavier weight is laid on. The cask should be placed in a dry and rather warm cellar. Sourkrouit is usually stewed with gravy, and should be brought to the table rather crisp. It is sometimes cooked in plain water, and requires a long time, as it should merely simmer. The Germans eat sourkrouit with almost every dish. In France, it is generally served with sausages, which are broiled and laid upon it. Partridges, either roasted or stewed, are also frequently served upon sourkrouit. There are different opinions as to the wholesomeness of this preparation. Some Germans say it is very wholesome and light of digestion; others merely assert that it is not unwholesome. There is really, however, no reason for supposing it to be, when eaten in moderation, either wholesome or unwholesome.

SOY. A very rich sauce, exported from India, and used in small quantities with melted butter for fish. It has a very peculiar flavour, and is by no means generally liked. It is unwholesome if more than a few drops be used. Soy is imitated in various ways; but it is not sufficiently expensive to render it necessary to attempt any substitute.

SPINACH. This is considered a cooling vegetable; but it does not appear to have any particular medicinal qualities, at least not in the quantity in which it is used for food. The kinds of spinach most generally cultivated are, the smooth-seeded for summer, and the prickly-seeded for winter use. For the former, the sowing for the first crop is made in a sheltered situation in the beginning of February, or in January, if the weather be open. It may be sown either thinly in a row, or broad cast: if the latter, the plants should be twice thinned—first, to about

three inches, and afterwards to about eight inches, asunder. Other sowings should take place at intervals of about three weeks. The winter crop is sown about the middle of August, choosing the time before rain is expected. The soil for this vegetable should be light, dry, and rich, and the situation sheltered. When the plants are a little advanced, the ground around them should be carefully hoed clear from weeds, the plants at the same time being thinned to moderate distances. With care and attention, the winter crop will afford successive gatherings, until about April; but this must in a great measure depend on the mildness or severity of the weather. In England, spinach is seldom cooked but in one way—plainly boiled; but on the Continent it is an article of more considerable consumption. There is, therefore, a slight variety in the mode of cooking.

TO BOIL SPINACH. When it has been carefully picked and well washed, put it on the fire in boiling water with a little salt; let the saucepan be uncovered, and allow it to boil for about twenty minutes, then strain it well in a cullender, and put it again in a saucepan, and beat it well with a wooden spoon until it is perfectly smooth; add a small piece of butter, and a little cream; mix well together, and serve hot; when placed on the dish, score it in squares with the back of a knife; poached eggs or fried sausages are very frequently served on spinach, or it is served with roast meat.

Another way: When the spinach has been well picked and boiled as above, put it into cold water for a minute or two; then drain and squeeze it well; chop or rub it very fine and smooth, and put it into a stewpan with a small piece of butter, and let it cook for ten minutes; then add a little salt, sugar, and some grated nutmeg; moisten with good gravy, and garnish with sippets of toasted bread.

SPIRITS OF WINE. (See **ALCOHOL**.) Dr. Guérin, in his *Chymiste Populaire*, gives the following directions for the preparation of spirits of wine, which is to be used for dissolving essential oils: to a quart of spirits of wine of forty degrees, add ten drachms of potass and one drachm of alum, reduced to a fine powder; cork the bottle carefully, and shake it twice a day for two or three days, then filter, and use the spirit as it may be wanted; the use of the potass is to absorb the aqueous parts of the spirit, and consequently give it additional strength; the alum corrects

the empyreumatic smell of some essential oils, and, combined with the spirits of wine and the potass, assists dissolution considerably.

SPRUCE BEER. Formerly a very favourite beverage, but little used since the introduction of ginger beer. A very good spruce beer may be made as follows: Twelve gallons of water, four quarts of treacle, a quarter of a pound of bruised ginger, two ounces of allspice, three ounces of hops, four ounces of the essence of spruce, and half a pint of good yeast; boil the hops, ginger, and allspice together for about half an hour, then take the mixture off the fire, and stir in the treacle and spruce; strain into a cask, and stir in the yeast; when the fermentation has ceased, the cask must be bunged up; it will be fit for bottling in three or four days, putting it in stone bottles, and tying down. It may be made without the hops, ginger, or allspice, and by merely mixing the other ingredients first in a small quantity of lukewarm water, and then adding as much cold water as is necessary to fill the cask.

STAINS. The art of removing stains is one of great utility in domestic economy. The following modes of operating on different substances are chosen as the most certain and practical, from the mass of receipts published on this subject.

ACID STAINS. The stains of lemon, orange, vinegar, mineral acids, &c., may be removed from silks, cottons, or other articles of dress, by the application of volatile alkali. If round the stain the volatile alkali should for a moment affect the colour, it will re-appear as soon as the evaporation is gone off; silk and woollen substances, stained by the juice of fruits or red wine, may be restored by holding them over the vapour of burning sulphur, washing them carefully immediately afterwards.

STAINS BY ALKALIS. Stains caused by quick lime, potass, soda, &c., may be removed by moistening them with vinegar, or where they are very obstinate, by well diluted sulphuric or muriatic acid, but nitric acid is never to be used, as it destroys the primitive colour, and leaves of itself a yellow stain.

TO REMOVE STAINS FROM BRONZE. Make the article very hot by dipping it in boiling water, then rub it with a piece of flannel dipped in suds made from yellow soap, rubbing clean with soft linen cloths. If the article to be cleaned be a tea urn, it should be filled with boiling water before the outside is touched.

STAINS OF GREASE. To remove these, a mixture of fuller's earth, soda, and soap, will be found effectual; turpentine is also sometimes added. (See SOAPS.)

STAINS OF INK AND IRONMOULD. These are most effectually moved by placing a little salt of lemon upon the stain, and pouring on a small quantity of boiling water, and then washing in cold water, without which precaution the stain would shew itself again after the first washing.

TO REMOVE STAINS BY MANGANESE. Put an ounce of manganese into a stone jar, and pour upon it some sulphuric acid; expose the stain to the vapour which arises, for a few minutes, and then rinse the article in cold water. Ink, fruit, or other stains not from grease, are readily removed in this manner.

STAINS OF METALS. When metals are rusty, or covered with verdigris, which has entered the substance, they are to be rubbed with sand or emery, or even filed, if the oxydation be deep; the polish is then to be restored by an impalpable powder of emery, moistened with oil, and cleaned off with a leather covered with whiting. Silver, gold, or tin, which is stained by any sulphurous emanation, should first be washed with water slightly acidulated with vinegar, and then rubbed with fine tripoli or whiting. Almost all the powder which is sold for cleaning plate is mixed with mercury, and is therefore in some degree objectionable. The fine colcothar of vitriol used by painters, is, however, a good plate powder. Another and very excellent mode of cleaning plate, is to rub it, after having washed it clean, with a piece of cloth prepared in the following manner:—Cut a yard of coarse calico into four, and boil it in a quart of water with two ounces of calcined powdered, and sifted hartshorn, till all the liquid is absorbed.

FOR CLEANING WAINSCOTS, AND OTHER PAINTED WOODS. Four ounces of potass and four ounces of powdered quick lime are to be mixed together, and boiled for half an hour in three quarts of water; this mixture is to stand until it is cold and quite clear; the clear liquid is then poured off, and a painter's brush dipped into it is to be passed over the surface of the wood in the same way as for painting, immediately afterwards washing with cold water. This mode of cleaning will frequently render a new coat of paint unnecessary, and it has the advantage of being destructive to the eggs of insects which may be deposited in the interstices

of the wood; where there is reason to suspect that bugs are in the wood, it may be well, as an additional precaution, to add to the mixture two drachms of corrosive sublimate.

STAINS OF WOOD. The most effectual way of removing stains of most descriptions from wood, is to mix a quarter of an ounce of oil of vitriol with two ounces of water and rub the stained surface with a cork dipped in this liquid, until the stains disappear; then wash with cold water. The colour of the wood is rendered pale for a time by this method, but it is brought up again by rubbing with furniture paste. (See FURNITURE PASTE.)

STARCH. The starch usually sold is the fecula or sediment of good wheat, steeped in water; after separating the bran from it, it is passed through sieves, and being dried in the sun, or in an oven, is afterwards cut into pieces. A substitute for wheat starch, for domestic purposes, may be made as follows:—Wash and peel a gallon of good potatoes; grate them into a pail of water, and stir frequently; then let them settle. On the following day the starch will be found adhering to the bottom of the vessel; the water must be poured off, and fresh water added, stirring again as before, and let it subside a second time; then pour off the water, and dry the sediment, either in the sun, or in a very slack oven. It may then be cut into any form for use; but as the gluten is much less than that from wheat, the same appearance cannot be given to it as to wheat starch. This sediment, when crushed into powder, is called potato fecula, and is used for cooking; on the Continent, several articles of pastry are made from it. It is also a substitute for arrow-root, as a food for children and invalids, and is prepared in the same manner. All the fibrous parts of the potato being removed, and the nutritive portion only retained, the fecula is a light digestible food.

An excellent starch may also be made by setting by, in a cool place, the water in which rice has been boiled in the ordinary way (not in a cloth), which will, in twenty-four hours, become a very strong starch.

STERNUTATORY POWDER.—The use of sternutatory powder in some affections of the head and eyes is found to be of great benefit; but many of the preparations sold under this name are dangerously exciting. The following preparation is one of the most harmless, and at

the same time, one of the most efficacious. Take of the dried flowers of roses and marjoram, each two drachms, flowers of lavender one drachm, and iris powder one drachm; rub the flowers in the hand, and then pound them in a mortar; mix the powder with the iris powder, and sift through a fine sieve; then rub up with the whole seven drops of oil of cloves.

STRAWBERRY. A very agreeable and wholesome fruit. It is said to contain a considerable portion of iron, and therefore to be tonic; when eaten to excess, it brings on flatulency, but it is of short duration. The leaf is diuretic. The variety of strawberries is very great, and some, by a peculiar mode of cultivation, are brought to an enormous size, but without being improved in flavour. Strawberries may be obtained at an early period by forcing them in hothouses, but they have not the fine aroma of those which grow in the open air; they may also be cultivated in pots in rooms, and be thus obtained earlier than in the natural state. The most aromatic strawberries are those called the wood strawberry. In France these are transplanted into gardens, and a succession is kept up in ordinary seasons until near Christmas. The best time for planting strawberries is in May, or in the beginning of June, before the great heats come on, and transplanting them in September. They must be watered in dry weather; and at their first bearing, only a few of the buds should be allowed to remain. Particular care must be taken from time to time to examine the plants, and remove from them the large white worm, which is their chief enemy. This worm generally attacks them in May and June. Strawberries are chiefly eaten in an uncooked state, with wine and sugar, or cream and sugar; but they also make a good syrup, marmalade, &c., and a beverage is obtained from them, called strawberry water, which is very agreeable in warm weather.

ITALIAN MODE OF EATING STRAWBERRIES AT DESSERT. Take off the stalks from as many berries as will form one layer at the bottom of a dish, sift some fine loaf sugar over them; then place another layer, and sift again; each layer will be found smaller than the preceding. When there are five or six layers, cut a fresh lemon and squeeze the juice all over them. Before they are helped, let them be gently disturbed, that they may have the benefit of the lemon-juice and sugar. They may be eaten of heartily without

danger, which is more than can be said of strawberries and cream; and, generally speaking, those who have eaten them with the Italian dressing will never eat them any other way if they can help it.

STRAWBERRY CREAM. Boil some good cream with sufficient quantity of sugar to sweeten it, and reduce it to one half its bulk; then add a little rennet, and the juice of strawberries, sufficient to give a good flavour; and bake in a slow oven.

STRAWBERRY MARMALADE. Crush two pounds of fine strawberries, and pass them through a sieve; then mix them with a strong syrup of two pounds of sugar, and cook till the marmalade is done.

SYRUP OF STRAWBERRIES. Proceed in the same way as with mulberries.

STRAWBERRY WATER. Put some very ripe strawberries into a linen cloth, and press out the juice. Put this into a wide-mouthed bottle, leaving the mouth open, and hang it up in the sun until the juice has become clear; then pour it off gently into another vessel, taking care not to disturb the sediment, and beat it up in the proportion of half a pint of juice with a quart of water, and a quarter of a pound of sugar. Then strain through a jelly bag.

[It is necessary to observe that from the flat taste of strawberries when dressed, it is usual to add a few raspberries to heighten the flavour.]

STUFFING. Stuffing or forcemeat, called in French *Farce*. Other recipes will be found under different heads.

A FRENCH STUFFING. Cut in small pieces some undressed fowl, put them into a stewpan, with a piece of butter, a little salt, pepper, and nutmeg; shake them over the fire for ten minutes, drain, and let them cool; put an equal portion of crumbs of bread in the same stewpan, with some broth, and a little parsley, chopped fine; stir it with a wooden spoon till it becomes quite soft; let it get cold, then pound the fowl until it will pass through a tammy; pound the bread also, and put it through the sieve; then put equal parts of the meat, butter, and bread together, and pound them with yolks of eggs sufficient to make into a proper consistence, and keep in a jar for use.

STUFFING OF HAM AND VEAL. Mince equal quantities of ham and veal, a bunch of parsley, and some pepper; put it on the fire with a little broth; let it stew very gently, then pound it in a mortar; add to it an equal portion of bread, soaked

in milk and pounded; pound the whole together with some butter, and mix it with the yolks of eggs. Bacon and veal which have been used in braising, or anything being highly impregnated with the flavour of herbs and onions, and very rich, may be employed afterwards as a stuffing, pounded and mixed with panada.

COMMON VEAL STUFFING. Take equal quantities of beef suet and crumbs of bread, chop the suet very finely; chop together a bundle of sweet herbs; add to them a tea or salt spoonful of grated lemon-peel, and pepper and salt. Ude, who is good authority, observes, that "it would not be amiss to add a piece of butter, and pound the whole in a mortar;" mix it up with eggs. Grated ham or tongue may be added to this stuffing.

By mixing with any potted meat or game an equal proportion of soaked bread, which will always be lighter than bread-crumbs, the cook will have at once a very fine species of stuffing, to be employed in stuffing olives, fillets of fowl, &c. Bacon or butter must always be substituted for suet, when the forcemeat is to be eaten cold.

A STUFFING FOR FOWLS OR MEAT. Shred a little ham or gammon, some cold veal or fowl, some beef suet, a small quantity of onion, some parsley, very little lemon-peel, salt, nutmeg, or pounded mace, and either white pepper or cayenne, and bread crumbs; pound it in a mortar, and bind it with one or two eggs, beaten or strained. For forcemeat patties, the mixture as above.

FOR A HARE. The scalded liver, an anchovy, some fat bacon, a little suet, some parsley, thyme, knotted marjoram, a little shalot, and either onion or chives, all chopped fine; crumbs of bread, pepper, and nutmeg, beat in a mortar with an egg.

PASSOVER BALLS FOR SOUP. Chop an onion and half a pound of suet very finely, stew them together until the suet is melted, then pour it hot upon eight spoonfuls of biscuit flour; mix it well together; add a little salt, a little grated nutmeg, lemon-peel, and ginger; add six eggs; put the balls into the soup when it boils, and boil them for a quarter of an hour. The quantity of eggs and flour may appear disproportioned, but the flour employed is of a peculiar kind, used for the purpose in Jewish families. Nothing can exceed the excellence of the balls made after this receipt: they are applicable to any kind of soups.

FORCEMEAT FOR FISH SOUPS, OR STEWED FISH. Beat the flesh and soft parts of a lobster, half an anchovy, a large piece of boiled celery, the yolk of a hard egg, a little cayenne, mace, salt, and white pepper, with two table-spoonfuls of bread crumbs, one ditto of oyster liquor, two ounces of butter warmed, and two eggs long beaten; make into balls, and fry of a fine brown in butter.

ANOTHER, FOR FISH. Chop, and afterwards pound in a mortar, any kind of fish, adding an anchovy or two, or a tea-spoonful of the essence of anchovies, but do not allow the taste to prevail, and the yolk of a hard-boiled egg. If for maigre, pound butter with it; but otherwise, the fat of bacon pounded separately, and then mixed; add a third portion of bread, prepared by soaking and pounding previously, and mix the whole up with raw eggs.

FOR CUTLETS. Get some stale bread, add to it an equal portion of chopped sweet herbs, parsley being the principal ingredient; season it, and mix it on a plate with clarified butter; have another plate of dry bread crumbs. Brush the cutlets with yolk of egg, and put the mixture on thickly with a knife, then roll them in the bread crumbs. Upon some occasions this process should be twice performed, in order that the coating may be sufficiently thick.

FORCEMEAT FOR TURTLE. A pound of fine fresh suet, one ounce of ready dressed veal or chicken, chopped fine, crumbs of bread, a little shalot or onion, salt, white pepper, nutmeg, mace, pennyroyal, parsley, and lemon-thyme, finely shred; beat as many fresh eggs, yolks and whites separately, as will make the above ingredients into a moist paste; roll into small balls, and boil them in a fresh lard, putting them in just as it boils up; when of a light brown, take them out, and drain them before the fire. If the suet be moist or stale, a great many more eggs will be necessary.

Mrs. Rundell, in her *Domestic Cookery*, gives the following list of forcemeat ingredients, which may be used according to the taste and discretion of the cook:—

- Cold fowl, veal, or mutton.
- Scraped ham or gammon.
- Fat bacon, or the fat of ham.
- Beef suet.
- Veal suet.
- Butter.
- Marrow.
- Crumbs of bread.
- Parsley.

Yolk and white of eggs well beaten,
to bind the mixture.

Cold sole.

Oysters.

Anchovy.

Lobsters.

Tarragon.

Savory.

Pennyroyal.

Knotted marjoram.

Thyme and lemon-thyme.

Basil.

Sage.

Lemon peel.

Yolks of hard eggs.

Mace and cloves.

Cayenne.

Garlic.

Shalot.

Onion.

Chives.

Chervil.

Pepper.

Salt.

Nutmeg.

Jamaica pepper in fine powder, or
two or three cloves.

SUGAR. The nutritive properties of sugar are very great; and this article appears to form the basis, more or less, of all those vegetable and farinaceous substances which give the greatest support to human life. As it is almost a general rule, however, that the most nutritious substances, in an unmodified form, are the most difficult of digestion, persons whose digestive powers are feeble should not indulge extensively in the use of sugar. The practice of giving sweet things to children is highly injurious; for even those of the strongest digestive powers may have them enfeebled by this habit. Taken in moderation, with those articles which do not of themselves abound in saccharine matter, sugar, however, rarely produces any serious inconvenience. In France, grown persons as well as children take much more sugar than is conducive to health. In their coffee they use four times as much as an Englishman would take; and they also consume a great deal mixed with cold water as a beverage. Against the latter practice, however, much cannot be said; for it is in most cases a substitute for the stronger and exciting drinks preferred by the English. Indeed, a glass of sugar and water, taken occasionally, is a very refreshing beverage; and, with the addition of a few drops of orange flower water, it is very wisely taken in French evening

parties, instead of punch, grog, or negus. The sugar in general use is of two kinds: that which is made from the boiled and crystallized juice of the sugar cane, and that which is produced from the sweet juice of the beet root. In England, however, there is very little of the latter, the moderate price of colonial sugar rendering unnecessary and unprofitable a manufacture of this description. The adulteration of sugar, which was said to be carried on to a great extent in England, when the article was dearer than it is now, is little practised; and it requires but very slight experience to detect it, either in the state of moist or refined sugar. It is a mistake to purchase the coarser kinds of white sugar as an economy; for just in proportion with the fineness of the lump, is its saccharine quality. In brown sugars, however, the same rule does not hold good, the coarser containing frequently more saccharine strength than those which are fine; consequently, where the high flavour of strong moist sugar is not an objection, it may be used in preference to the finer sorts.

TO MAKE SYRUP. The solution of sugar and water by means of boiling is very necessary for many preserves and other articles. It is made, if required to be strong, by merely adding as much water as will cover the sugar, and boiling it for a long time gently, removing the scum as long as any continues to rise. The stronger the syrup is required, the longer it must simmer. When done, put it by in bottles for use.

BARLEY SUGAR. Melt some sugar over the fire with a decoction of barley, mixed with whites of eggs, well beaten into a light froth; this is then passed through a jelly bag, and again boiled until it forms large bubbles; then throw it out on a marble slab or table, which has been lightly rubbed over with oil of sweet almonds; when the bubbles disappear, it is rolled into round sticks, and left to cool and harden.

SUGAR CANDY. Clarify four pounds of lump sugar, which must be allowed to simmer with a little water, over the fire, until by taking up a little on a spoon, and blowing to it, you find it fly off in small flakes; then having scummed it well, take it off the fire, throw into it a quarter of a glass of good spirits of wine, and pour the whole out into an earthen dish; cover it over, and put it into an oven for eight days, taking care to keep it of an equal temperature; at the end of that time,

drain off the syrup, and the candy will remain attached to the dish, which must be warmed, in order more readily to allow the candy to be detached.

SUGAR PLUMS. Under this general head are included the whole variety of articles of this kind sold by the confectioners, from the common sugar-plum to the almond, and other kernels, &c., covered with sugar, and also the compound paste of fruit and sugar. They are made in the following way:—Take a copper pan or basin, in the form of a stewpan, having two holes by which it may be suspended by cords from a ceiling, and a kind of handle from the middle, to facilitate the frequent agitation by the hand; let this pan be suspended at about four inches from a brasier of charcoal, and having put the articles which are to be covered with sugar into the pan with some strong syrup, shake the pan, so that every part of the articles may be covered, and keep agitating them until the sugar is dry; then add more syrup, and agitate till dry; and continue to do the same until the desired thickness is obtained. If blanched almonds or nuts, for instance, be put into the pan in this way, they will acquire any thickness of sugar required, and their original shape will be preserved. It will be the same with any paste of fruit and sugar, but this must be dry before it is put into the pan.

SWEETBREADS, (VEAL.) A delicate portion of the calf, light of digestion, but not very nutritive. It is much recommended to invalids when the stomach is unable to digest more solid food. Sweetbreads are cooked in various ways, (see **VEAL**.) and are also made into a pie, either with or without the addition of other meat, but alone they are rather tasteless. The following sweetbread pie is very palatable:—Stew the sweetbreads, sliced thickly, for about a quarter of an hour in white stock, with a few fine herbs and chopped shalot, and mushrooms, salt, pepper, and a good-sized piece of butter; then put them into a pie dish with some ox palates, previously boiled very tender, or the remains of a roasted fowl, and a little ham, some peas, or asparagus tops, and the yolks of some hard-boiled eggs, and forcemeat balls; over the whole put thin slices of fat bacon; put on a crust, and bake as a pie, or bake without a crust, and when done put it into a vol au vent. (See **VOL AU VENT**.) Water may be used instead of stock, if a little rich gravy be added.

SWEET HERBS. A bunch of sweet herbs is composed of parsley, sweet marjoram, winter savory, and orange and lemon thyme. The parsley should predominate.

SYLLABUB, mixed with sugar, juice of fruits, &c. They are either solid or whipped.

SYLLABUB WITH CAKES. Steep sponge biscuits, or any other cakes, in equal quantities of port, claret, and brandy; mash them up with a spoon, and add grated nutmeg, and lemon peel, lemon juice, sweet almonds, blanched and pounded to paste, and sufficient sugar to make the whole sweet; the quantity of the above will depend upon the size of the syllabub required; put all these ingredients into a bowl, and let the milk of a cow be milked upon them, adding a little good cream and sifted loaf sugar. A very good syllabub may be made by mixing half a pint of sherry, half a pint of mountain, a wine-glass of any ratafia, (see **RATAFIAS**.) half a pound of pounded white sugar, some grated nutmeg, the grated peel of a lemon, and the juice of a lemon; when these have been well stirred together, and the sugar is dissolved, add a quart of rich cream, and whisk it up until it froths well; put some macaroons, or sponge biscuit, into a dish, and pile the froth upon them; or the syllabub may be served in glasses. If the whites of six eggs be whipped up with the syllabub, it may be served up differently, but the whipping must be continued for a long time; as the froth rises, put it upon a sieve to dry, and having half filled wine-glasses with wine, fill them up with the froth. The common syllabub is generally served without cream or whipping; wine, nutmeg, sugar, grated lemon-peel, with or without a little brandy or liqueur, are mixed in a basin, and the milk of the cow is milked upon them; the quantity of milk is generally in the proportion of three pints to one pint of wine, but this may be reduced or increased, according to taste.

SYRUP. A preparation of sugar and water. (See **LIQUEURS**.) Dr. Guerin, in his *Chymiste Populaire*, recommends the following method of making syrup as attended with less trouble than the ordinary mode of boiling:—For ten bottles of any syrup dissolve seven pounds of sugar, broken into small bits, in six pints of cold water; then filter carefully. On the other hand, mix in five pints of spirits of wine, the essences and colours, and add the water by small quantities at a time,

stirring constantly; then filter the whole. This method of Dr. Guerin is not so good as boiling the syrup, and scumming it repeatedly, for it has not the fine oily appearance, which is so important to syrups and liqueurs. When very great clearness is required, it is customary to add the whites of eggs, beaten up, to the syrup whilst it is hot; and after beating it well in, to strain through a jelly bag. This, however, is seldom necessary, and even the straining, if the sugar be very clear, and the syrup be well skimmed when boiling, may be dispensed with. On the Continent the juices of various fruits are mixed with sugar, and sold under the name of sirop: such as Sirop de Groseilles, Sirop de Framboises, &c., which, mixed with water, form a very refreshing beverage in hot weather. One general direction will do for compound syrups of this kind: let the fruit be put into a stewpan, and boiled for five minutes; then squeeze out the juice; and having strained it through a jelly bag, add it to the syrup of sugar, in the proportion of half a pound of juice to a pound of sugar. The syrup must be good for this purpose, the water being evaporated by boiling, until the syrup is very thick; when the juice and the syrup are mixed, pass again through a jelly bag.

TAMARIND. The fruit of a tree which grows abundantly in the West Indies, and is imported from thence in a preserved state, with sugar. Tamarinds mixed with water make a refreshing drink in fevers; and they are slightly laxative.

TANSY. Some of the old herbalists assign sovereign virtues to this herb. They do not appear to have been merited, and it is now rarely used in medicine. Tansy tea, however, is occasionally used for what is called sweetening the blood. It is of little value in cookery. Tansy will grow in any soil, and may be propagated by separating the roots.

TAPIOCA. A preparation from the flower of the maniocks, or cassada tree; it is nourishing, and light of digestion. It is used as a diet for invalids, and for soups and puddings. (See PASTRY.) When used in soups it should not be cooked too long, as it would, after absorbing the liquid in which it is boiled, become thick and glutinous.

TARRAGON. This is a highly aromatic plant, and is frequently used to flavour salad; but it should be in small

quantity, as the flavour is strong. A small quantity of tarragon infused in water in the same way as tea, gives tone to the stomach in cases of indigestion. A dry, loamy soil is best suited for this plant, but that which grows in a moist soil is considered the most wholesome. It is propagated by parting the roots in the spring, and planting the young shoots.

TEA. Although the black and the green tea are from the same plants, the action upon the nervous system is by no means the same. Many persons who drink black tea regularly, without inconvenience, would be very much affected by even a small quantity of green tea. It is a popular notion that the ill effects of the latter arise from its being prepared by the Chinese with the aid of copperas, but this appears to be an error, as the leaves of the tea plant, previous to being dried and rolled up for the market, are dipped in boiling water; and as the tea which is intended to be black is exposed to its action for a much longer period than that which is to be green, it is probable that some of its exciting properties are thus removed. Whatever may be the causes of the difference, however, it is beyond dispute that the difference does exist. Hence it is that in many families only black tea is used, in others the proportion of tea is as one-third or one-fourth green; the latter may be considered to be the most usual practice in England, although it is by no means uncommon to mix the black and green in equal quantities. The quality of the tea depends much, of course, upon the price at which it is sold; but some of the higher priced, as well as the low priced teas are frequently adulterated by the Chinese, by mixing with them the leaves of other plants. Teas are very much improved by the length of time required for transporting them to Europe, and it is generally allowed that the teas which come overland, when carefully packed, are superior to those which are brought by sea. In Russia fine teas are sold for as much as three and four guineas a pound; and even in China the superior qualities, which are reserved exclusively for the use of the rich, are sold for as much as two and three guineas per pound; of these teas very few find their way to England. Those chiefly used by persons who do not look at price, vary from eight to fifteen shillings per pound, but very fair tea may be had at a much lower rate. In making

tea it is important that the water should have boiled, but it is the opinion of some chemists that the water should not be poured on whilst boiling, but allowed to stand for two or three moments, in order that the ebullition may pass off. It is supposed that if the water be poured on at the boiling point, the tannin of the tea is extracted, which is not the case when the contrary practice is observed. Some prudent housewives, who look to economy, put into the tea-pot a piece of carbonate of soda, which, by softening the water, assists in extracting the virtue of the tea. This, if not a successful mode, is at least a very harmless one. The tea-pot should always be of metal, because metals are in general bad conductors of caloric. The saving by this alone is equal at least to fifteen per cent. For persons whose incomes are so limited that the expense of tea becomes a consideration, it may be recommended to preserve the leaves after the first infusion, and boil them up: the tea has not, indeed, the same fine flavour, but it is quite as strong on the second occasion as the first; and by the addition of a small portion of fresh tea, it may be used a third time by boiling again. This fact is not to be neglected by persons who cannot afford the expense of drinking strong tea by having a fresh infusion every time. The action of tea on the human frame is a question of dispute with many learned physicians; by some it is called a slow poison, whilst others, who speak of it as "the cup that cheers, but not inebriates," can find no language sufficiently eulogistic for their favourite beverage. The general opinion is, that moderately used it is a gentle tonic, and produces its salutary effects by being naturally combined with a peculiar aroma, which is exclusively contained in the plant. When the stomach is much enfeebled, experience shews that it is necessary to abstain occasionally from the use of this beverage, and there are many instances where the use of an infusion of half a drachm of the common hop, which is also a bitter combined with aroma, in a pint of water, has given all the good effects of the infusion of tea, where tea has disagreed. Whenever, after drinking tea, an unpleasant or metallic sensation is felt in the mouth, it is a decided proof that the exciting properties of the plant have been more than the stomach could bear. In this case it is recommended to take in each cup of tea either a small portion of powdered ginger, or a teaspoonful

of brandy, which is commonly called the Doctor. If after this the sensation should still remain, tea should be cautiously abstained from, until, by some other beverage, such, for instance, as good wholesome beer, the tone of the stomach has been restored. Where Chinese tea is found to disagree with the stomach, an infusion of English herbs is sometimes used with good effect. Some infuse an ounce of the common green broom of the fields in a pint of water over night, and drink it in the morning, quite cold, but this is rather as medicine where there is a dropsical tendency, than as tea. As substitutes for tea, taken in the usual way, with milk and sugar, there are, sage, peppermint, horehound, the black currant leaves, in the proportion of a drachm by weight to the pint of water, more or less, as it agrees. In France, for the purpose of either health or economy, some of the inhabitants of the provinces infuse the leaves of a little plant, called the *Gaultiera procumbens*, which is of the family of the heaths, and is a native of Canada, but grows freely in all moderately cold climates, in a sandy soil. Sels, one of the most distinguished botanists of the last century, informs us that the leaf of this plant has a closer resemblance in flavour to that of the tea plant than any other that is known. Hallè, another botanist, who repeated the experiment of Sels, assures us also that it not only resembles Chinese tea in flavour, but that it has all its agreeable qualities, without any of the injuriously stimulating properties which are attributed to the Chinese beverage. He recommends, however, that even where Chinese tea does not agree with the stomach, a quantity of it should be mixed with the other, by way of economy. In Switzerland, the leaves of several plants are used as substitutes for tea, and the manufacturers of the herbs have so closely imitated the appearance of the exotic plant, that it would be difficult to detect the appearance, except by the taste: this, however, is very different. In England, a composition, called Dr. Solander's herb tea, enjoyed for many years a high degree of celebrity. Whatever its medicinal properties may be, it certainly bears no resemblance whatever in taste to the article for which it is recommended as a substitute. The Swiss *vulneraire*, which is a collection of various herbs sold in packets, is also used as a substitute for tea. The flavour of this composition is more agreeable than that of Solander's

herb tea, but it is still by no means pleasant, nor so grateful to the stomach, although, medicinally, it is said to produce very good effects. Extensive adulterations of Chinese tea by the common sloe leaf, so prepared as to resemble the genuine article, have been from time to time detected. At one time it was said that at least 100 families were engaged in this illicit process in the metropolis alone; but the heavy penalties inflicted upon those who were detected, have, it is presumed, materially, if not entirely, checked this atrocious fraud.

“Seven or eight kinds of green tea are brought to Europe; the two kinds most used are pearl and hyson. The name of pearl tea is given on account of the nearly round form of the prepared leaf; the colour of this tea when in its prime state is of a fine silvery green; the colour of hyson is of a deep green, approaching to black; the smell is agreeable, and improves with age, if the tea be kept thoroughly free from contact with the air. This, and all other teas, should be kept in leaden or china canisters, and not in bottles, for it is almost as important to exclude light as air. Green tea, when taken to excess, has a severe and injurious action upon the nerves. There are several kinds of black tea, of which that most used is bohea, but it is by no means the best, unless it be choice—viz., the finer leaves of this kind separated and sold by themselves. Black tea acquires that colour, from being, in its first preparation, left for a longer time in boiling water; it is consequently less acrid, and, at the same time, less aromatic, than green tea. The use of tea began to spread in Europe in 1666. At present it is become so general, that there are consumed annually in Europe more than twenty millions of pounds. The use of tea is most general in low and damp climates, such as Holland and England; in France it is taken rather from fashion than necessity.” [The editor of the *Dictionnaire des Menages*, should have corrected this statement, which was made in the first edition of the work. A few years ago, tea was only used as a real or supposed remedy, taken very weak, for indigestion, and here and there it was served as a beverage in fashionable society. So little was known of tea and tea-making in France twenty years ago, that at the *Café Anglais* in Paris, the fashionable café of the French, as it is of English visitors, the mode of making tea for a customer was the following:—about

a quart of boiling water was poured upon a single tea-spoonful of green tea, and when it had stood for about ten minutes, to extract the strength and flavour of the tea, the water was thrown away, under the belief that the first infusion was unwholesome; another quart of boiling water was then poured upon it, and this was the liquid called tea, which was served to customers. A few years have effected a great change. Tea, which was formerly sold by apothecaries only, is now kept by every grocer, and although the consumption is very small indeed, as compared with England, it has increased at least tenfold in the same number of years. Tea is served at every respectable party, and it is by no means an uncommon breakfast. The French, however, still drink weak tea, and it is generally green. It is one of the favourite tisanes, or drinks, for persons who have disordered their stomachs by eating too copiously. Tea punch is a favourite beverage at the better kind of coffee houses.] — TRANSLATOR. “If the tea which has been used be dried and put away, it may be used with great advantage for the washing of nankeens, if boiled in the water in which the nankeens are to be washed, as it preserves the colour. Tea leaves, whilst moist, should also be thrown over carpets before sweeping them.”

THYME. A fine aromatic herb, used green for seasonings. When distilled it yields a very strong essential oil, little used in medicine, except as a remedy for tooth-ache, in which case, however, its chief property appears to be the promotion of the secretion of saliva by its pungency; this oil is also used, but in very small quantities, as a component part of some perfumes. It grows well in a light, dry, and not very rich soil, and is propagated in the same way as mint, or is obtained from seed sown in the spring.

TOBACCO. The abuse of this narcotic plant is productive of the most serious consequences to health, as it impairs materially the digestive functions. Persons who wish to enjoy their food will do well to refrain from smoking, or taking snuff, except with great moderation. If the habit be not in all cases alike injurious to the stomach, or rather, if in some there is no immediate indication of derangement from this cause, let it not be imagined that there is no baneful action going on in the system. Excessive indulgence in smoking, or snuff-taking, must be more

or less injurious in every case, and in too many it lays the foundation of incurable malady. The effects, however, are very different, according to the temperament of the individual. Some excessive smokers bring on obesity and general fulness of habit, which not unfrequently ends in apoplexy; others become excessively lean, and, as the French say, *desseche*, and with them pulmonary consumption is to be dreaded. When the functions of the stomach are impaired by smoking, high stimulating food is craved for, yet, the digestion being weak, such food should be carefully avoided. Generally speaking, the smoker who indulges in the habit to excess requires no other monitor to remind him of his folly than his own sensations; his nights are restless and feverish, he rises with a parched mouth and a foul taste, and during the day has not that relish for plain wholesome food which he would have if his stomach were not disordered. The snuff-taker does not experience the same degree of injury as the smoker, and there are thousands of snuff-takers who, having at all times been free from absolute indications of injury to which no other cause could be assigned than snuff-taking, are not to be convinced that even excess of snuff-taking is baneful; yet these persons, if told that the habitual and very frequent use of opium, or any other narcotic taken into the stomach, is dangerous, would not hesitate to admit the truth of the assertion; they do not even deny that tobacco taken internally would be poisonous, and they can understand that the smoke of tobacco inhaled by the lungs may lead to serious injury. "Snuffing, however," say they, "is not smoking; snuff stimulates the brain, but does not enter the stomach." This is a great error; snuff does at times enter the stomach in large quantities, as must be evident from the expectoration, and the sensation occasionally experienced in the throat. An authentic case is on record of the autopsy of a gentleman who was a great snuff-taker, and in whose stomach was found an accumulated mass of snuff, equal in size to that of a small pear; no doubt was entertained that the reception of snuff from time to time into the stomach had produced the illness which put an end to his existence.

If a man must either be a smoker or a snuff-taker, we would recommend the latter, as far as health is concerned, although it is the more filthy habit of the two, for the injurious effects of it are cer-

tainly less positive than those which arise from smoking, and its offensiveness is confined to the offender; and as we do not entertain the hope that anything here said will induce smokers to lay aside the habit altogether, a few remarks by way of caution in the indulgence of it may be useful. When the stomach is evidently, from the sensations of the individual, out of order, it is advisable to lay aside the pipe or cigar if the slightest inconvenience is found to arise from it, and to refrain from smoking until the tone of the stomach has been restored by diet, or by the use of a tonic medicine. As a proof of what injury may be done by smoking, where the stomach is debilitated, we give the following statement from a gentleman, whose veracity may be relied upon:—"Being at Lisbon," says our informant, "and suffering at the time from chronic gastritis, my spirits were low, and as I lay in bed, I thought I would smoke a cigar to cheer me. I smoked one cigar without any serious inconvenience, but before I had got half through the other, I felt a chilliness gradually creeping over me, and was, in a few minutes, cold as marble. I was unable to move my hand to reach the bell, in order to ring for assistance, and when I attempted to call out, my tongue refused the office; in this state I lay four hours, dead in every respect, except as to the slight pulsation of the heart, and the mental consciousness of my wretched position. Nature at length resumed her power, and I gradually acquired speech and motion, but for two days afterwards I felt as on the brink of the grave."

The mildest tobacco, whether for the pipe or cigar, should be used, and the mouth should be occasionally rinsed with rose water; but nothing will remove the offensiveness of the breath of the confirmed smoker, except the entire, or nearly entire, abandonment of the habit of smoking. In snuff-taking, the best snuff is probably what is called the high-dried Irish or Welsh, for in the roasting of it some of the narcotic principle is destroyed, and a few pinches of this snuff daily cannot do much harm. The confirmed snuff-taker should never attempt to abandon the habit all at once, particularly if he be a person at all advanced in life; the system, after being so long accustomed to this stimulant, might flag under the abandonment of it. There are many cases on record of serious illness resulting from the sudden abandonment of the practice. The best plan is to limit the quantity, until, from

taking half an ounce or more daily, the allowance is reduced to a few pinches. It is a pretty general opinion, that perfumed snuff is more injurious than that in which there is no perfume; but there is no reason why this should be the case, if the perfume itself be a wholesome one, and be not carried to excess; indeed, there are hopes of curing a man of excessive snuff-taking, if he uses perfumed snuff, for he seeks to gratify the olfactory nerves, as much as he does to stimulate the brain, and he might by degrees be weaned from the habit, by the exchange of the snuff-box for the smelling bottle; but there is not much hope of this kind where the snuff-taker prefers the strongest and most unmixed tobacco.

Having spoken of the abuse of tobacco, both in the cut or rolled leaf, and in the powder, it may be as well to say something of its usefulness. It cannot be doubted that the smoke of tobacco has a powerful influence in preventing the influence of miasma, and the propagation of certain infectious diseases. Persons who live in low marshy lands find the use of the pipe beneficial, and as the evil to be guarded against by smoking, is greater than that of smoking itself, in such cases the habit should not be discouraged. In travelling, the pipe is an agreeable companion, and such society is not to be despised; but, as with living companions, the intimacy, to be useful and pleasant, must not become too familiar. When a single cigar, or a pipe, in the evening, does not disagree with the stomach, it may be indulged in, and asthmatic persons frequently find great benefit from smoking a pipe before breakfast; this is the natural result of the narcotic principle of the tobacco, and when a narcotic is required, one of the best, perhaps, in certain cases, is the slight inhalation of the fumes of tobacco which arise from smoking. As a medicine, there is scarcely any more potent than tobacco. A tobacco poultice, laid over the stomach and bowels, destroys worms in the intestines; the smoke of tobacco injected by the rectum, produces motion in the bowels when everything else has failed, and a tobacco lavement is frequently effectual in procuring the retrocession of strangulated hernia. In the earache, a little moistened tobacco, laid in the cavity of the ear, sometimes allays the pain instantaneously; and long-standing cases of deafness, unattended with organic change of structure, have been permanently cured by injecting into the

ear two or three times daily, by means of a small syringe, a strong infusion of tobacco.

In England, the growth of tobacco is prohibited, except as to a few plants for the purpose of fumigating other plants attacked by insects; but the tobacco trade is open to all persons on payment of the high duty laid upon it. In France, and most other countries of the continent of Europe, the tobacco trade is a monopoly in the hands of the Government. Smoking has been general in Europe since the days of Sir Walter Raleigh, but cigars are of comparatively modern introduction; thirty years ago they were almost unknown both in France and in England.

TOMATA, or LOVE APPLE. A vegetable used for sauces, and some other culinary preparation. To preserve tomatas, they are to be gathered ripe, washed, and dried, and then cut into pieces; they are next put upon the fire, without water, in a well-tinned saucepan, and when reduced to two-thirds of their bulk, are to be crushed through a sieve, to get rid of the seeds. The decoction is now to be put upon the fire again, and boiled until reduced to one-third of its quantity; after this it is to be cooled in an earthen vessel, and put into bottles, which are to be boiled in a water bath, (see **WATER BATH**;) when thoroughly boiled, to drive out all the air, cork tightly; with these precautions, it will be unnecessary to add any spices to keep the tomata. By boiling up this decoction with spices, as for mushroom catsup, we have tomata catsup.

TONIC LOTION, FOR INDIGESTION. An excellent substitute for the shower bath, which cannot always be had conveniently, and the shock of which is sometimes too severe for debilitated persons, has been used lately in Paris, where it was prescribed by Dr. Loudon, one of the most eminent physicians of that capital. It is prepared as follows:—Take half an ounce of sulphuric acid, half an ounce of muriatic acid, and one drachm of the sulphate of quinine; mix them with about three pints of water, and bottle the mixture for use. Every morning on rising, and every evening before going to bed, the whole person, except the face and hands, is to be sponged over with a sponge dipped in this mixture, and the moisture should be left to dry on the skin, or, rather, to be absorbed by the pores—not wiped off with a cloth, as in the case of a shower bath. Very great benefit has

been derived from the use of this wash, which is to be persevered in so long as the patient requires it. One of the greatest benefits arising from its use is the removal, by degrees, of the susceptibility of cold, which is one of the characteristics of dyspepsia, and which greatly aggravates the disease. It is common for dyspeptic persons to say, "I should be very well, indeed, if I were not constantly taking cold." The removal of this susceptibility is the first principle of the curative means employed; and it does not appear that any more successful method for attaining that end has been adopted than this. In travelling, the use of this wash should never be omitted. All that is necessary is to have two small phials, with the acids, and a small quantity of the quinine; put as many drops of the two acids into a glass of water as will make it as sour as strong vinegar, and as much of the quinine as will make it very bitter, and then use it with the sponge. A French physician also recommends the use of this wash, but adds to it camphorated spirits of wine, in the proportion of one-tenth to the whole bulk. This, however, is not at all essential, although it can do no harm.

TOOTH POWDER. Although there are fifty ways of making powder for cleaning the teeth, the safest and best preparation is charcoal powdered very fine; and animal charcoal—that made from bones, is much better than the charcoal made from wood. (See **CHARCOAL**.) This production, which should not only be rubbed in a mortar to as fine a state as possible, but afterwards be pressed through a fine sieve, is antiseptic, and will not only prevent decay of the teeth, but also check it when it has commenced. Acids and strong alkalis, which form the basis of most of the tooth powders sold by druggists and perfumers, should never be used; for although they clean the teeth very effectually, they frequently injure the enamel. When wood charcoal is used, it should be very fresh; and as this is seldom the case with what is bought for the use of the kitchen, the charcoal should be again burnt in a close vessel, in the way recommended for animal charcoal, but should be left only a few minutes exposed to a red heat. Whether wood or bone charcoal be used, it is advisable to mix about a fourth in quantity of powdered myrrh with the powder. Some of the old herbalists have asserted that the charcoal made from the roots or branches of the vine is

superior to any other; but this does not appear to be the case. If the colour of the preparation be objected to, the live-gated chalk sold by the druggists, with the addition of myrrh as above stated, and perfumed by the addition of a little essence of cloves, is a safe and agreeable tooth powder.

The following recipes for tooth powder are given in a French work:—

POUDRE DENTIFRICE. Three ounces of coral, two ounces of hard biscuit pulverized, an ounce and a half of finely powdered pumice stone, two drachms of cinnamon powder, an ounce and a half of dragons' blood, half an ounce of myrrh, two ounces of rose lac, seven grains of amber, seven grains of musk. This may be either used as a powder, or be made into an opiate, with four ounces of the syrup of mulberries, and three ounces of clarified honey.

OPIAT POUR LES DENTS. One ounce of finely-powdered chalk, two ounces of cream of tartar, two ounces of pumice stone, half an ounce of burnt alum, half an ounce of cochineal, all well powdered, and half a drachm of essence of bergamot; to be made into an opiate with honey. A little of the opiate is to be put upon a brush, and used in the same way as tooth powder.

TEINTURE DE GRENOUGH, (Greenough's Tincture.) Two drachms of benzoin, two drachms of myrrh, nine ounces of cochlearia, one drachm of cinnamon, one drachm of cloves, a quart of spirits of wine, a quart of white wine; infuse for a week in the spirits of wine, then strain, and add the white wine. This mixture has had great vogue in France, but we see nothing in it superior to the ordinary tooth tinctures. It is hardly necessary to observe that water will do just as well as wine to dilute the spirit.

PREPARATION DU DOCTEUR CHAUSSIER. Infuse half a drachm of sal ammoniac in a pint of water, and half a pint of spirits of wine; rinse the mouth with this mixture after having cleaned the teeth, with a few drops of a mixture made by dissolving a drachm of sal ammoniac in half a pint of spirits of wine.

EAU DE BOTOT. Bruise two drachms of cinnamon, two drachms of cochineal, fifteen grains of aniseed, and two drachms of cloves; infuse for a week, in the sun, in two quarts of good brandy, then filter, and add half a drachm of the essential oil of peppermint; the bottles in which this is put must be well corked.

EAU DE VIE DE GAYAE. Infuse for a week in a quart of brandy, two ounces of gum guaiacum, two drachms of coriander seed, two drachms of cloves, two drachms of cinnamon, all bruised, and the rind of a lemon; filter through blotting paper, and bottle.

The following mixtures for the toothache, are given by the same authority:—

ESSENCE POUR LES MAUX DE DENTS. One drachm of camphorated spirits of wine, fifteen drops of laudanum, five drops of oil of mint, or five grains of acetate of lead, five grains of sulphur of zinc reduced to paste in a mortar, with nine grains of laudanum; this paste is to be put upon cotton, and placed in the hollow of the affected tooth.

The above paste has been sold in Paris as a specific, as have indeed half a hundred other pretended remedies for the toothache. The best, but most unpleasant remedy is, perhaps, the creozote; but it is not hazarding too much to say that where teeth are decayed, there is really no cure but extraction.

TRIPE—Is a part of the inside of the bullock, and when properly cleaned and prepared makes a very agreeable dish; but cannot be recommended to persons whose digestive organs are not strong, as it is not nutritious, and is sometimes very indigestible, especially the brown parts. It is generally purchased cleaned and ready for cooking.

To BOIL TRIPE. Boil it gently in milk and water in equal quantities, with some small onions; serve in a tureen with the liquor, and melted butter in a sauce boat.

To FRY TRIPE. Having cut the tripe into pieces of about four inches square, dip them in batter made with milk, flour, two or three eggs, a little salt, pepper, and grated nutmeg, all beaten well together; fry in good dripping to a good colour, and serve with melted butter, the dish garnished with crisped parsley and slices of lemon.

To ROAST TRIPE. Cut the tripe into oblong pieces, and having made a forcemeat of bread crumbs, chopped parsley, pepper, and salt, with the yolk of two eggs to bind it; lay it on the tripe, put two pieces together, roll tightly, and tie up; roast it for an hour and a half, basting well with butter; serve it with melted butter, or a little sharp sauce.

TRUFFLES. A tubercle, very much used in foreign cookery, to give a high flavour to dishes, and sometimes, but not frequently, used as a dish of itself.

Truffles are found in the ground in many parts of France, and in a few parts of England, generally in moist land, and in the middle of woods. As there is no external indication of their locality, there would be no means of discovering them without other aid. A peculiar species of dog is used in France; and as the animal scents them rapidly, the persons who hunt for them dig on the spot, and sometimes succeed in obtaining a large quantity. Pigs are also used for the same purpose. Truffles are of an oval form, much resembling that of a kidney. When young they are nearly white; but when they have reached maturity their colour is of a deep brown, nearly approaching to black. The price of this tubercle varies according to seasons, as they are sometimes in abundance, and at other times excessively scarce. The average price in France is about eight or nine sous per pound; but they have even sometimes sold as high as fifty sous per pound. When eaten as a separate dish, they are at all times highly indigestible; and when they are used to flavour ragouts, or any other preparation, the truffles themselves should not be eaten. On the Continent, the breast of the turkey, pheasant, partridge, capon, &c., is frequently stuffed with truffles for roasting or stewing. They give a very rich and peculiar flavour. All that is necessary in preparing them is to brush off the dirt with which they are always brought to market, for the sake of increasing the weight, and washing them repeatedly. When used as a separate dish, they are either stewed in champagne wine or rich gravy; they are, indeed, sometimes fried in batter, or served with salad; but this is rather as a display of luxury, on account of their high cost, than for their excellence.

The *Dictionnaire des Menages* says, "In purchasing truffles, it is very important to see that they are all sound, for a single bad one would spoil all the others. Truffles should be kept in a cellar, or other cool place, in a basket suspended from the roof. In their natural state, they will not keep good more than fifteen or twenty days, and great care should be taken not to expose them to the action of frost. As they spoil, they become soft and rotten, and lose their natural colour and smell, giving out a foetid smell, like decaying animal matter; as soon as they begin to feel soft under pressure of the finger, they should be used. Truffles are preserved in France in various ways;

they may have a single boil in lard, and then be put into well-covered jars with the lard, or they may be dipped thrice in hot bees-wax. Appert's mode of preserving them is to wash and peel them lightly, then put them into jars, expose them to the action of the water bath for an hour or so, and pack them in light tin cases. In some countries truffles are kept in brine, and steeped, when wanted for use, in tepid water, to remove the salt; but preserved in this way they lose their fine flavour."

TURKEY. This is perhaps the most difficult of all domestic poultry to rear. The chief thing is to keep them, when young, very warm, and on no account to allow them to be in the open air when it rains. As soon as they leave the shell, they should be fed with the white of egg boiled hard, and chopped very small, without any of the yolk; this food should be continued for three days, without any other; at the end of that time, the white of egg must be continued for about a fortnight, with groats, and now and then small pieces of new cheese; now very ripe fruit which has fallen from the trees may be given to them. When a hen turkey is rearing a brood, the young ones should be confined under a basket, unless they can all be enclosed within a small yard, for if allowed full liberty, the mother will lead her brood so far from home, as to kill them with fatigue.

The flesh of the turkey, if young, is not more indigestible than that of the fowl; but the flesh of full-grown turkeys disagrees with many stomachs; that of the hen turkey is considered more delicate than the flesh of the cock. All turkeys, before killing, will require to be shut up for at least ten days or a fortnight, and crammed three or four times a-day with balls made of barley-meal mixed with milk.

There are at least fifty different ways of dressing turkeys in French cookery books, but they are mere varieties of the receipts given for fowl and chicken. In ordinary domestic cookery there are but four ways of cooking a turkey—viz., roasted, boiled, hashed, and minced. In England, turkeys are roasted with veal stuffing and sausage meat; but in France, when any stuffing is used, the breast is filled with boiled chesnuts, or truffles sliced, which have either been fried in butter, or stewed in wine.

TO ROAST TURKEY. The turkey should be kept as long as possible before it is dressed, in order to become tender and light of digestion. It is then to be roasted

in the same way as any other poultry, allowing a longer time, according to its size. Oyster or chesnut sauce, or a mock oyster sauce, made by adding some anchovy essence to melted butter, may be served with it, and if the turkey has not been stuffed with sausage meat, sausages should be fried, and laid round the dish. The chesnut sauce is made as follows:—Boil some chesnuts in hot water for a few minutes, then skin them, and stew them slowly for two hours in white stock, seasoned, and thickened with flour and butter. If sausages are used with this sauce, they are to be cut each into three pieces, and fried, and placed in the dish, the chesnuts and the sauce being poured over them.

TO BOIL TURKEY. Follow the directions given for boiling a fowl; oyster sauce, and plain melted butter to be served with it. On the Continent, fried sausages are always served in a separate dish; but in England, a boiled ham or a tongue generally accompanies it.

TO HASH TURKEY. (See **HASHED FOWL.**)

TO MINCE TURKEY. (See **MINCED VEAL.**)

The leg of a turkey, which is considered rather coarse eating in any other way, makes a nice relish for breakfast or luncheon, scored with a knife, and well rubbed with pepper, salt, and a little cayenne, and broiled, putting a bit of fresh butter on it, when taken off the fire; squeeze a dash of lemon juice when served.

TURNIPS. This vegetable is very useful in cookery, and is, equally with the carrot, a component part in most soups, broths, and stews. It possesses a large portion of saccharine matter, and is considered, when cooked, a very wholesome and nutritious vegetable. When dressed plain, to be served with meat, it is generally, after boiling, mashed with a bit of butter, and a little pepper and salt. There is a great variety of turnips, but the sorts most cultivated for the table are, for the spring crop, the early Dutch, which are sown in April, and for winter, the yellow Dutch, which is sown in July. The Swedish and yellow are also in estimation as winter turnips. In sowing turnip seed, the same plan should be adopted as that recommended for carrots—viz., that of mixing the seed before sowing with some earth or sand, as from the lightness of the seed, they cannot otherwise be sown evenly over the bed. After sowing, if the weather be dry, the beds should have frequent

