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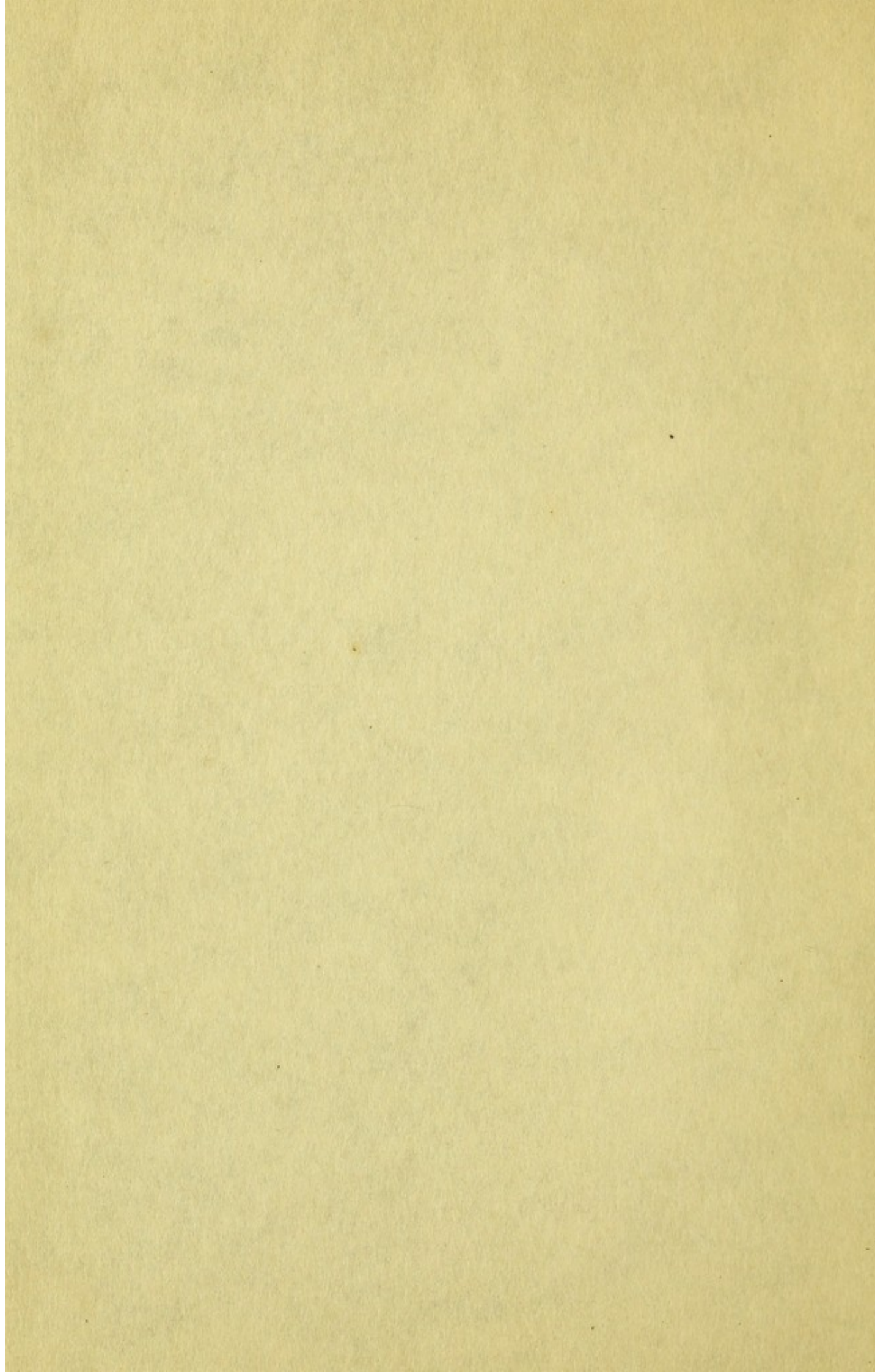
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E. E. MANN



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MANUAL
OF THE
PRINCIPLES OF PRACTICAL COOKERY

DOMESTIC SCIENCE MANUALS

MANUAL
OF THE
PRINCIPLES OF PRACTICAL
COOKERY

BY

E. E. MANN

HEAD TEACHER OF COOKERY IN THE LIVERPOOL TRAINING SCHOOL OF COOKERY
AND TECHNICAL COLLEGE OF DOMESTIC SCIENCE

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TO

H.R.H. PRINCESS LOUISE
MARCHIONESS OF LORNE

WHOSE PRACTICAL INTEREST

IN DOMESTIC SCIENCE EDUCATION

HAS GREATLY ENCOURAGED AND PROMOTED THAT SUBJECT



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PREFACE.

THE publication of this Manual on the Principles of Cookery is due in great part to the many requests we have received for a book about cookery apart from special recipes. We hope this will efficiently supply such a need, and give to young housekeepers especially clear and definite ideas as to the proper management of both the kitchen and the larder.

Particular attention is here drawn to the value and use of vegetables, both for the sake of health and economy. H.R.H. the Marchioness of Lorne has always taken a great interest in promoting the extended and increased employment of vegetables by our people as an economical article of daily consumption, and from time to time has procured recipes to be taught in our Schools of Cookery in order to vary the methods of cooking and so make vegetables palatable and acceptable in all households. In the country, of course, there are plenty of facilities for growing vegetables, and even in large towns they are generally cheap enough and quite within reach

of the working classes, as they are imported in such large quantities. As a nation we need very much, and very often repeated, advice and instruction on the subject; the fear of having to "take trouble" being a great hindrance to improved and varied diet.

FANNY L. CALDER.

LIVERPOOL, *October*, 1898.

INTRODUCTORY.

I WOULD have it clearly understood that this is not a cookery book or book of recipes, but a simple text-book dealing solely with principles and broad, general rules. A knowledge of these would, I am assured, be of help to many young housekeepers and cooks who find the daily struggle with individual recipes, and the too frequently ensuing failure and disappointment so disheartening as to place meal-time among the real troubles of life. We must "eat to live," and it is hard that that necessity should be the root of so much tribulation.

Women are, as a rule, too prone to deal with detail; a wider view, a larger grasp, would often save worry and work. As cookery comes to be regarded more and more on the same base as the other sciences and arts, much of this weary struggle with items and details will be given up, and a more thorough study of the composition of foods, of the effects of particular combinations, and of the various kinds and degrees of heat, etc., etc., will enable us to

arrive at a more satisfactory result with far less outlay of money, time and temper.

In the hope of helping some of my students and fellow-workers to achieve more easily and quickly this most desirable result, I have collected the points I have deemed most useful and important, and over which there is least controversy, and placed them in this condensed and portable form. Though not professing to have made any discoveries or to have anything new to say, I do hope that I may help to save some of the valuable time that often has to be spent in searching through a multitude of books for the somewhat varied information required by a student, professional or otherwise.

It has always been a problem in the quite elementary stages of work, how to give a pupil such rules and guides as may prevent a too disheartening application of the *experientia docet stultos* principle. Teachers are not always at hand, and if they were, *vivâ voce* instruction is only one help where many are needed. The difficulty is to give the preliminary theoretical help in a systematic and connected form under the special heading to which it belongs.

It is often necessary to do a large amount of more or less valuable reading before a practical point is reached, and then it is possibly one isolated fact, and the same process is needed to acquire each of the many helps required.

It has been my intention to remove in part this difficulty, and I sincerely trust that some at least may consider that my effort has not been in vain.

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CHOICE, CARE AND CLEANING OF COOKERY UTENSILS.

20 THE cleaning of cookery utensils is of such importance and constitutes such a large part of the work to be done in every well-ordered kitchen that it is advisable, when buying utensils, to consider the cleaning, to buy only what is needed, and to choose such as make no unreasonable demands on the labour at disposal. There is no economy in buying second-rate kitchen utensils. If properly taken care of, the best are the cheapest. Those of inferior material and workmanship are generally wasteful and extravagant.

Strainers. — These are of various sorts, and are among the more expensive utensils, including sieves, pointed and flat strainers, jelly bags, soup strainers and tammy cloths.

Pointed Strainers are for all purposes to be preferred to flat, or what are known as gravy strainers.

When buying the former, it is best to choose such as have a small piece of solid metal at the extreme point. To clean pointed strainers, the perforated metal of which they are made must be scrubbed with a brush, and if any particles of matter are lodged in the point they must be carefully removed with a *wooden* skewer. An iron skewer or a fork, or any hard, sharp-pointed instrument, will

weaken, if it does not at once puncture, the metal, and when a hole is thus made the strainer is absolutely useless. They must be thoroughly dried or they soon rust and spoil.

Sieves.—Wire sieves are most commonly made of brass wire. It is essential that all wire sieves should be kept in a dry place. Iron wire is sometimes used, but it is difficult to keep it quite free from trace of rust. Copper is occasionally used, but it so easily becomes dangerous by the formation of verdigris that it is best avoided for sieves. Hair sieves quickly wear out, and should be reserved for purposes that cannot as well be served by a fine wire one. In rubbing any material through a sieve a wooden spoon should be used, as a metal one wears out the sieve more quickly. Sieves must be washed with a good supply of water, scrub the wood-work with a brush, and carefully pick out with a skewer any bits of matter that may have lodged between the wood and wire.

Jelly and Soup Strainers.—These are of various materials. They can be bought ready-made of a kind of felt, or they may be very satisfactorily made at home of white flannel, or a close woven tea-cloth may also be used for the purpose. The home-made flannel ones are to be preferred. They should be made a pointed shape, but not with a sharp point—rather rounded instead. The flannel should not be extremely closely woven in the first instance, for it always shrinks considerably by the hot liquids poured through it.

To wash a jelly or soup strainer, first turn the bag inside out and scrape away as much refuse as possible with a metal spoon—avoid a knife, as it might cut the flannel—then wash in hot water, changing the water frequently. Never use soap; and as a bag properly

used for jelly or clear soup cannot be greasy, no soda is required. Wash the bag, still wrong side out, till the water remains quite clear, then wring tightly. If possible, wring through a wringing machine and dry in the open air.

Tammy Cloths.—These, being chiefly used for sauces, etc., containing some amount of butter, must be washed in soda and water; use no soap, wring tightly and shake well. Dry in the open air if possible.

Metal Jelly Moulds.—After use these should be washed in warm water, avoiding the use of soda. The outside should be brightly polished, but the inside simply washed; any polishing material could not be entirely removed from the crevices inside an elaborate mould, also the rubbing necessary for polishing would wear away the lining of tin, which in copper moulds it is of great importance to keep perfect. If, after long usage, a copper mould shows signs of the tin lining wearing, the mould should be re-tinned. Jelly moulds should be used for cold mixtures only.

Pudding Moulds.—If these cannot be washed immediately the pudding is turned out, let them soak in hot water without soda. Every crevice of the moulding must be cleaned, if necessary, with a wooden skewer. An iron one should not be used, as it might scratch and cause roughness, or possibly even pierce a thin part of the metal and render the tin useless. After washing, dry near a fire before putting away.

Cake Tins.—Plain cake tins and patty pans do not need constant washing. Clean them while still hot, first with paper, to remove all grease, then finish with a dish-cloth, dry or tightly-wrung out of hot water. If a damp dish-cloth is used, dry the tins also by the fire.

Elaborate fancy tins are cleaned in the same way, but a wooden skewer also is necessary to clean the mouldings.

Occasionally all such tins should be washed, great care being taken to dry them perfectly.

Dripping and Baking Tins.—Fill quite full with water and a little soda and put to boil either over a gas jet or in the oven.

If containing fat, pour it off, and wipe the hot tin with paper to absorb the greasiness before using water and soda.

Wire Whisks.—Give special attention to the point where the handle joins the wires; mixtures containing gelatine, eggs, etc., are not always easily removed from crevices. Rinse the whisk in boiling water, dry each wire with a cloth, then dry near a fire. Without this care the inner side of the wires will become rusty.

Wire Frying Basket.—Wash with soda and hot water, then rinse in hot water without soda. Wipe well; but, as it is impossible to wipe between the wires, the drying must be completed in a cool oven or near a fire.

Wire Broiler.—Do not wash a broiler. Clean well while hot with plenty of paper, then with a clean, dry dish-cloth. Keep a broiler where no dust can get to it, or washing, which is undesirable, will be necessary.

PANS.—When choosing iron pans, it should be remembered they are sold both with and without a lining of tin. A good tin lining does not rust quite so soon as iron, and is less likely to discolour foods, such as milk, etc. The tin wash is of varying qualities. The cheaper kinds soon wear off, and if exposed to great heat melt and run down the sides of the pan, forming roughnesses that are difficult, if not impossible, to clean perfectly. However good the quality of the tin lining, a

new pan needs care in this respect. If allowed to become very hot by a flame up the side while the pan is only partly filled with liquid, the tin is likely to melt; a poor quality is certain to do so. Iron pans should be unlined if to be used for frying or any purpose requiring great heat; and, as frying is often a preliminary process of a stew, it is a mistake to buy a tin-lined stew-pan.

Enamel-lined iron pans are very cleanly while new, but will not stand much hard usage; and, owing to the different degrees of expansion of the two materials when heated, the lining soon becomes covered with little cracks, and eventually chips off. A good quality of thin enamel ware makes a fairly useful pan if carefully treated, but the cheaper makes are rarely worth their cost. Brass, copper, steel and tin are all used for pans, and where well kept—clean and dry—are all good; but otherwise the two first become dangerously unwholesome, and the two last are soon worn through by the action of rust. A cheap tin pan is not worth buying, for the poorer the tin the more quickly it will rust.

A pan is most easily cleaned immediately after use. If the cleaning cannot be done at once, and anything adheres to the inside of the pan, fill it with water and leave it to soak. Pans should be washed both inside and out. When an open fire is used for cooking, the outside will need scraping with an old knife and brushing with a hard brush kept for the purpose. If a pan is burnt, scrape off as much as possible of the burnt substance, fill with water and soda and boil. If necessary, repeat the scraping and boiling. The pan brushes now commonly sold for a few pence are a great convenience in this part of kitchen work. Iron pans are scoured with bathbrick, fine sand, or preparations such as Brooks' soap, sapolio, etc. Care

must be taken to avoid materials that would roughen the surface.

Enamel pans, if discoloured or burnt, are scoured with salt and an old lemon skin, or with crushed egg shell. For bright metal, brass, tin, etc., many cleaning and polishing materials are sold; but whatever is used, one point is of great importance—the insides of bright pans should be well washed in hot water and dried with a clean cloth *after polishing*.

Pan lids need as much, if not more, attention than pans themselves; and when buying pans it is well to avoid those lids that cannot easily be kept clean. The common shape, with a straight piece of metal for rim, is to be preferred to the more expensive and elaborate lid where the bottom edge of the rim is wired and the metal turned back over it.

CLEANING AGENTS.

FOR polishing kitchen utensils, various agents are advertised from time to time, many of which do all that is claimed for them. They are frequently labour-savers, and thus time-savers—matters of great importance—but the final result is not always satisfactory. Some compositions contain substances which do cleanse and brighten perfectly, but these are frequently of a nature to require partial neutralising, and if used in excess will be found to cause more speedy tarnishing, and sometimes permanent roughness or wear. New inventions should be tested on inferior articles before being applied to anything of importance, and the result and wear noted, otherwise it is better to abide by the older and tested materials. One of these will be **Soda**, one of the most valuable cleansing agents, but its indiscriminate use is to be avoided. If used in the washing water, it clouds and gives a streaky appearance to glass; it softens and removes gilt from china, and fades some of the colours. Its great use is to remove grease. It has a strong action on metal, and if a trace of soda is left on tins it results in a kind of rust and causes permanent roughness. It should, therefore, not be used for metal unless *absolutely* required, and after its use the metal should be well washed in hot water and carefully dried.

Brooks' Soap, Sapolio and kindred substances are invaluable for cleaning pans, kettles, etc., removing

grease and roughness, and polishing at the same time.

Soap should only be used for materials of a non-absorbent nature and smooth surface. It leaves an unpleasant trace on wood or wire, and is apt to cloud and smear glass or earthenware, while it is not strong enough in its action on rougher substances. In all cases it necessitates most careful and thorough rinsing. Hard soap may be employed for tables and soft soap for floors, but cooking-boards and wooden utensils should not be touched with soap, unless ample time and care be given to its perfect removal.

Sand, fine and white, will keep wood beautifully white and clean, but is in itself rather troublesome, as it scatters and flies about the room. In cases of thorough occasional cleaning it will be found excellent, either alone or with soap, for tables and floors.

Whiting, *i.e.*, pulverised chalk freed from impurities and finely ground, is used, moistened to the consistency of cream with water or methylated spirit, to clean white metal. **Goddard's** powder, mixed in the same way, for plated and silver articles. Both these substances should be applied to the metal with soft rag, only a small surface being covered at one time, then rubbed off briskly with a soft cloth or brush, and lastly the article must be rubbed with a dry soft leather. Chasing or fancy mouldings require a brush to remove the powder from the cuttings, but it must be very soft, and should be used before the powder dries and hardens or it will be difficult to remove.

Needham's or **Pickering's Paste**, the principal ingredient in which is rottenstone (tripoli), is good for cleaning brass and copper. If it is used for the inside of pans they should be well washed and dried afterwards,

as, though invisible, there is a slight dark residue noticed if a white cloth is rubbed over the polished surface. Washing will not make a perceptible difference in the brightness if the pan is thoroughly and quickly dried.

Bathbrick moistened with oil will clean steel, and if afterwards used dry imparts a good polish; if the steel is greasy, and yet not to be brought into contact with food, turpentine may be substituted for oil with good effect. Either of these liquids will leave a certain oiliness on the surface, which resists the action of moisture, whether from the atmosphere or from accident, but turpentine or methylated spirit must both be avoided on utensils brought into contact with food. Water would be used in preference, and for all such things as are in daily use, and therefore being constantly cleaned, water would be sufficient. Steels that have been allowed to become rusty may be treated with **Emery**, either powder or paper, but this should only be employed in extreme cases, as it dulls the surface of the metal if used often.

Blacklead moistened with turpentine for the parts of a stove or grate liable to be greasy will be found better than blacklead and water. Turpentine removes the grease entirely, and, being a spirit, evaporates, leaving the blacklead evenly distributed and ready to impart a polish under friction. Water has no action on grease, which would have to be removed by the brush. The iron is therefore difficult to polish, and the brush soon becomes hopelessly spoiled. For grates where there is no probability of grease being present, water is frequently used to moisten the blacklead, but never gives quite the same brilliancy, owing to the brushes becoming damp.

GAS STOVES AND OVENS.

By stoves, as distinguished from ovens, is meant the various arrangements for boiling, grilling, toasting, etc., by gas. Although such different names are attached to these, and so many different ways of managing them are employed, the principle is the same in all. In modern stoves the burners are of the class known as Bunsen or atmospheric burners. These do not burn undiluted gas, as those used for lighting, but a mixture of gas and air, which gives very little light, and an intense heat, while the actual amount of gas burnt is much reduced.

The mixture of air and gas takes place in the pipe, which is cut between the tap and the burner, the cut end next the tap being run for a short distance—perhaps one inch—inside a much larger pipe or cup, which immediately contracts to the ordinary sized pipe and ends in the burner. This short pipe from the cup to the burner being open is therefore always full of air. When the tap is turned, the pressure from the meter carries the gas into the cup, where it mixes with the air, and in this mixed condition is still forced forward to the burner, where it ignites.

When lighting a Bunsen stove, it is essential that the tap be turned and the current of gas be forced through the pipe before the match is applied. If this rule is not observed, the light is often drawn backwards and the gas

lights and burns in the cup and pipe. When this happens, pure gas is burnt, showing a yellow flame and making a loud, roaring sound, while if properly lighted it has a blue flame and is silent.

Pure gas yields a deposit of carbon which coats burner, stove and any utensil brought in contact with it, rendering them sooty and greasy, but the mixture of gas and air is so intensely hot as to burn up any impurities in the gas itself, so that the surroundings are not soiled in the least.

Gas ovens are fitted with the same kind of burner, and the same rules apply to the lighting of them. The ovens are lined with various materials, but they are generally of a non-porous character. Consequently, when the enclosed air in the oven is first heated, the moisture generated by the hot air in contact with the cold sides cannot escape readily, and it is advisable to open the door once or twice at short intervals until it dries off. Then the oven may be closed and allowed to heat until the metal case is hot. Sufficient time must be allowed for this before food is placed inside to cook, for as long as the oven is absorbing, instead of reflecting heat, no regular temperature can be maintained.

The roof of the oven is generally of fire-clay, which is not a good reflector; but, if better browning is required, a bright oven shelf placed close over the article to be browned keeps the heat from rising and throws it back. Except for such a purpose, solid sheets of metal should never be used in a gas oven. As the heat is all generated at the bottom, the oven cannot be hot throughout if a hindrance is offered to the rising of the hot air; therefore all shelves should be formed of bars or gratings, or if of

sheets, these should be closely perforated, especially round the sides over the lights. Where cakes, etc., must be placed on solid iron tins, these should be considerably smaller than the oven and never touch the sides.

MARKETING.

MARKETING and economy are two words frequently found side by side, and rightly; but it is necessary that the real meaning of the word economy should be understood. Economy in marketing may be defined as receiving full value for the money spent. To exercise this true economy, we must purchase at the time things are in their best condition and season, and in exactly the quantities suitable.

Perishable foods should be bought in the quantity required for each day's consumption, dry or tinned foods according to opportunities of storage. Flour, grains, sugar, dried fruits, etc., do not spoil if kept in a cool, dry place, and both these and tinned foods are generally cheaper when bought in quantities.

All marketing is best done where there is a quick sale and constant renewing of the stock. In small or country shops things frequently remain long on hand and deteriorate.

Fish and vegetables can scarcely be bought too fresh, though there are a few of both classes which take no harm if kept a little while. Poultry is best when quite fresh; game must be kept some time to develop the flavour and make the flesh more tender. Mature meat, as beef and mutton, requires keeping in a cool, dry place for some days before cooking; but immature meat, as veal and lamb, should be cooked when freshly killed.

Store-rooms.—Whether for storing fresh or dry goods, store-rooms should be cool, dry, well-lighted and ventilated, and not near any drain or open pipe. They should be large enough to hold the necessary stores without crowding or packing which would prevent free access of cool air. A good supply of shelves and cupboards is a necessity; also covered jars and boxes for holding stores. Accurate scales, weights and measures must be at hand, and a strict list of all stores dispensed should be kept and at regular intervals compared with the invoices of goods purchased, in order to check waste and to renew the stock before it is quite exhausted.

In purchasing fresh foods, it is an invariable rule that they are *best*, in every sense of the word, when they are in season. They are then the best flavoured, most wholesome and nutritious, most plentiful and also cheapest. Some foods are never really out of season—beef and mutton, for instance, are always to be had of good quality; but other foods have times at which they are definitely “in season,” and these times are clearly defined. Even though we may find these latter good and useful, for occasional variety, both just before and after their season, it is unreasonable to expect the same perfection of quality, and they are generally much dearer.

Rules for Choosing Meat.—Good meat is firm, not flabby, and when pressed quickly recovers its form, the mark of the pressure disappearing. It has no disagreeable smell; if any doubt exists on this point, thrust a knife or thick skewer in close to the bone and notice the smell when the metal is withdrawn. Any fluid ~~oozing from~~ good meat is watery, never mucilaginous.

Beef.—Flesh smooth-grained, the colour a deep red;

lean and fat intermixed; very lean meat is generally of inferior quality. The fat should be a pale straw colour; bright yellow fat often indicates that the beast has been fed on oil-cake, and though quite wholesome, the meat wastes in cooking, and is somewhat greasy and rich.

If the whole beast is inspected, the condition of the tongue is a test. It should be plump, clean-skinned, and the fat at the root of a pinky-white tint. If it is dark, rough-skinned, with dead white fat, the meat is probably hard and tasteless. A line of gristle under the outer skin indicates an old beast, and the meat is generally tough.

Mutton.—Flesh fine-grained and firm, rather paler than beef, and the fat whiter. Mutton with yellow fat, or from which much moisture exudes, is not good. The finest mutton is four or five years old, but such is rarely met with. A general idea of the age of the animal may be gathered by inspecting the colour of the breast-bones, young sheep having pinky breast-bones, while after about four years they become white.

Lamb is judged as mutton, but the lean is paler in colour.

Veal.—Flesh fine in grain and dry; if moist and clammy, it is not fit for food. Fat white and firm; the lean a pale pink. Choose veal from small animals; if large, they are apt to be coarse and tough. If any greenish or yellowish spots are to be seen, the meat is unfit for food. The fat round the kidneys should be firm and dry; the kidneys large and well covered with fat; the liver clear—free from gristle or spots; the sweetbread firm, plump, of a delicate colour and free from stringiness.

Pork.—The lean should be pale pink, the fat white and clear, the skin thin, smooth and cool to the touch.

Knots or kernels in either lean or fat are indications of disease. Pork, more than any other kind of butcher's meat, must be carefully chosen. It is only wholesome in winter, and should never be used in warm weather.

Poultry.—Choose white-legged fowls for boiling, as they have generally the whitest flesh. Black- or yellow-legged fowls have generally darker flesh but richer flavour, and are often preferred for roasting. In every case choose fowls with the claws uncut, as it is then much easier to remove the sinews. The breast-bone should not be broken; for though this practice of poulterers makes the bird look more plump, it interferes with the proper carving of the breast. Unless for stock or soups, poultry should always be young. Young birds may be known by:—

1. The softness of the breast-bone and tip of the pinions, which are practically gristle when young.
2. Brittleness of the beak.
3. Length of spurs—in old birds these are worn down.
4. Downy feathers, and the absence of long or coarse hairs.

The flesh should be firm and thick, with some fat; but excessively fat birds are not desirable, being rank in flavour, and greasy. All poultry should be cooked while fresh, the slightest staleness being most objectionable. Fortunately, staleness is quickly detected by a faint, unpleasant odour. A freshly killed bird is almost odourless; has limp, pliable feet, full eyes and no discoloration of skin.

Reject poultry that has been torn or cut in plucking or trussing—it is the result of carelessness and quite unnecessary, and such rough handling spoils the quality of

the flesh and often renders it unsightly when served. Never accept the trussing of the poulterer as final. Fowls should be picked over, carefully wiped, and dusted with flour if for roasting. The liver must be wiped, the gizzard washed and skinned, and the bird retrussed with steel instead of wooden skewers. Wooden skewers communicate flavour to the flesh, and are also difficult to remove after the bird is cooked.

Game.—What has been said of poultry may, with a few points of exception, be applied to game. The first exception is the length of time the birds are kept after killing. The tenderness and flavour of game is increased by keeping, provided the weather and larder are suitable, and in any case very little game is considered worth eating when quite fresh. Two or three days hanging will always improve it, and if the weather is dry and cold or windy, it may be kept from one to three weeks, according to the taste of the consumer. A moist atmosphere, however, will not allow of this keeping, for the flesh quickly begins to decompose. The age and condition of game may be judged by the rules for poultry. English game is in season from 12th August till 15th March. Between 1st March and 12th August all the game that comes into the market is foreign, and though answering as a substitute, it cannot be compared in quality to English game.

The barbaric fashion of serving certain birds with their tail feathers on is rapidly dying out. The head is still frequently left on the pheasant, though it is better removed. Snipe, woodcock and plovers' are not drawn, they are trussed on their own long beaks, the greatest care being first taken to scald and clean the beak perfectly. Being naturally dry and scantily supplied with

fat, especial care is taken to keep game well basted and protected from the dry heat of the fire by barding with bacon.

Fish.—Almost more than any other kind of food it is essential that fish should be used when fresh and in full season. It putrifies more quickly than other food, and in many cases becomes dangerously unwholesome. Like other things it is always most plentiful and cheapest when in season. Its condition is easily judged by smell and appearance.

The odour of stale fish is quite indescribable, but would be detected at once by the merest novice. When fresh the flesh is firm, quickly recovering from pressure, and of a good even colour, not mottled in appearance, the eyes are bright and prominent, and the gills red. The red spots on plaice fade from the time it is taken out of the water, till, in a stale fish, they are scarcely discernible. There are a few kinds of fish which may safely be kept for a short time, and cod and turbot are by many considered to improve when kept a day or two ; but nearly all are finer flavoured and of better quality when used quite fresh. Some of the coarser kinds, as mackerel, are unfit for food a few hours after being caught.

When fish has to be kept, let it remain in a cool place, if possible in a current of air, never in water. It may need steeping a short time before cooking, but should never lie long in water, as this impoverishes the flesh and makes it flabby. Thorough and careful washing is essential, especially for fish from small streams and ponds, as such fish are often slimy both to touch and taste ; in such cases the fish must be rubbed with dry salt in addition to being thoroughly washed.

Vegetables.—Green vegetables are always at their best when cheapest and most plentiful. Out of season they have never the same flavour however well they may be grown. The absolute freshness of vegetables cannot be too strongly insisted upon, for when stale they are unwholesome. When fresh vegetables are in good condition they are crisp and of a bright colour, any softness or faded yellow appearance shows they are stale. A leaf, pod or stalk should break with a sharp crack when bent. Certain vegetables with stalks may be kept for a short time if the stalk *only* is placed in water, but such though usable are not equal to freshly gathered ones. Cucumber, vegetable marrow and asparagus last best, but leaf, stalk or pod vegetables do not keep at all well. Parsley may be kept several days if the stalks only are placed in water, but as soon as it begins to fade and become limp it should be destroyed. It is only wholesome while crisp.

What are known as root vegetables are, of course, stored for use all the year, and do not perceptibly deteriorate, though the flavour is finer when fresh. To keep well they should not be stored till fully ripened, and then must be carefully arranged in cool, but not too cold, dry chambers. Moisture or warmth will cause growth and sprouting, which always lessens their value. A brick floor with sand or sacking to protect from frost is considered the best means of preserving root vegetables. Onions should be hung up in a cool dry place. If allowed to sprout the flavour becomes rank and coarse.

COOKS' STORES.

BEYOND the numberless "preserved" requisites for cookery, which are being daily introduced to us as savers of time or labour, there are some which have not yet been preserved to the point of being unspoilable, and others which are in any case better when home-made and fresh.

One of the most important of these latter is the **bath of fat**. **Oil** is an excellent medium for frying if pure and free from taint or rancidness ; but, as a rule, English people object to the use of oil in connection with food, and only barely tolerate it in salad dressing. Where this objection does not exist, however, oil will be found a very satisfactory bath for frying, as it does not so readily burn, and being liquid and transparent is more easily kept in proper condition. The drawbacks to the use of oil are, first its cost, and second the extreme care needed when heating it, for if heated too quickly it is apt to overflow.

Butter is not a good frying medium, on account of its tendency to discolour quickly, salt butter especially being very unmanageable. **Lard** is specially suitable for frying potato chips, as it is found to puff out the potatoes most successfully, but for general use it is greasy, leaving slightly more greasiness on the surface of the food than **clarified fat**, which is the medium most commonly used and generally liked for ordinary frying.

Any scraps of fat, trimmings from joints or cutlets,

and pieces too often wasted may be utilised if carefully melted and added to the bath. These small quantities should be cut in pieces, melted down in a cool oven, and the fat strained. Larger quantities should, after being cut up, be placed in a pan, then covered with cold water and boiled till the water has evaporated, during which boiling constant and thorough skimming is necessary. When the water has all evaporated, the "clarifying" is finished, but there still remains the process of melting or "rendering" the fat. This must be done very slowly and with exposure to only slight heat, otherwise the sudden rupture of the fat cells will cause the liquid fat to splash out from the pan, the result being wasteful, unpleasant and dangerous. During the process of melting, the fat should be frequently stirred, as if pieces are allowed to stick to the bottom of the pan they will burn and spoil the rest. As the process of melting nears its completion, this stirring is more and more necessary. When all the pieces have parted with their liquid fat and the tissues sink to the bottom of the pan, having become shrunken and of a golden-brown colour, the fat must be cooled, then strained. As fat will without burning reach a very high temperature—400° Fah. or more—it must be considerably cooled before being strained through a strainer having solder about it, or the solder may be melted. If poured into earthenware vessels while extremely hot, they will probably break. When cold, properly clarified fat will be found white, hard and without flavour. Its chief use is for frying. It is sometimes recommended for pastry and cakes, but it is too hard to be quite satisfactory for either purpose, requiring pounding or rolling into fine paper-like flakes before it can be manipulated, and even then not blending

so evenly as other fats, such as lard, dripping, or butter. With careful straining and avoiding overheating, the same bath of fat may be in constant use for a long time, and additions may be made as it gets reduced, but these additions must be of similarly clarified fat.

Dripping, *i.e.*, the fat that drips from baking or roasting meat, has many uses, but it is not to be recommended for a bath of fat. Dripping, especially if from a baked joint, is apt to be somewhat discoloured and strongly flavoured with juices from the meat. It should be clarified by melting in boiling water, keeping it well stirred, then allowing it to become cold, when the cake of fat may be removed from the top. Adhering to the under side of the fat will be found a deposit of brown sediment. This must be scraped away till the white fat appears, then the block should be melted and carefully heated to evaporate the moisture contained in it, and after this strained through a hair sieve or muslin.

Caramel is used for colouring gravies, soups, sweets, wines, spirits, etc. It is made by melting sugar to liquid and then allowing it to heat until it becomes a dark brown, by which time it has lost its sweetness and developed a flavour of quite another character. If diluted with water in proportion of 1 pint water to 1 lb. sugar, it may be bottled and kept for use in a sufficiently liquid state to mix readily with other ingredients. It does not ferment, and will keep any length of time, therefore may be made in large quantities, and will be found one of the most useful adjuncts to cookery.

Crumbs.—Many of the crumbs required in an ordinary kitchen can be obtained from pieces of bread left in the preparation of various dishes. Crusts and any scraps of clean fresh bread may always be utilised either for crumbs

or other purposes. The "crumb" of bread, if very fresh, may be roughly broken up, thoroughly dried on the top of the stove or in an almost cold oven, then pounded and sieved. By putting through a sieve, the crumbs are of uniform size, and this uniformity cannot be obtained by grating. Such dried white crumbs may be used for crumbing fish or meat for frying. Hard morsels of bread and soft white crusts are quite suitable for steeping in water or milk for farces or forcemeats where steeped bread is needed. Crusts should be broken quite small, dried perfectly in a cool oven, then browned to pale golden brown, when they may be crushed and sifted and kept in air-tight bottles or tins. These crumbs should not be allowed to become dark coloured; all dark or burnt morsels of crust should be removed before crushing. The crushing of the dry crusts should be done on a slate or chopping board; on no account should a pastry rolling-pin and board be used for this purpose, as they would be roughened and utterly spoiled for pastry making.

Brown crumbs have many uses, such as raspings for ham, dishes *au gratin*, re-garnishing any dish which is not perfectly coated or requires dressing, and for lining baking moulds for either sweets or savouries.

For many purposes fresh white crumbs must be prepared, and frequently more than are actually used. Such crumbs, if not touched by fish or other strong flavoured food, should be dried and re-sieved; they may be kept some time.

Browned Flour.—The term "browned flour" frequently gives cause for misunderstanding. Strictly speaking this flour is not brown, but a dark cream colour, and can only be called brown by comparison with white flour. It may be prepared in quantities, and is

useful for brown sauces and gravies, and for thickening brown soups when any flour thickening is needed. To prepare it, ordinary flour must be spread very thinly on a surface, such as a baking tin or plate, and put in a cool oven. It must be carefully watched, as any scorch or overbrowning will give a bitter flavour to the flour, and spoil any dish for which it may be used.

Dried Herbs.—These should not be used when fresh herbs can be procured, but as there are many times when certain herbs cannot be had in a fresh state, a store of dried herbs should be kept in every kitchen. They may be bought in bottles, but are not generally of such good flavour as home-dried ones. Herbs for drying should be gathered when dry and fully grown, just before they begin to flower, tied in bunches, keeping the different kinds apart, and hung in a rather warm room till crisp and dry. Each bunch should be protected from dust by being placed in a loose paper bag. When dry the stalks are stripped off, and the leaves crushed or pounded to a fine powder, then bottled. Let all stores of dried herbs be renewed every season, as the flavour is never so good as when freshly dried. When used in liquids, to avoid sediment, flavouring herbs should be tied loosely in a scrap of muslin, they are thus easily removed when their flavour is extracted.

Parsley may be dried as other herbs, but generally it can be procured in a fresh state. Still in case of failure through severity of winter weather, a little may be dried in summer while it is plentiful and of a good colour. When used mainly for its colour dried parsley may be placed in water a short time before it is needed, this will to a certain extent restore the green.

Besides herbs many preparations of standard sauces



and pickles will be found infinitely better when home-made and in small quantities, the flavour in general being much purer and stronger than that of those made for sale.

Roux.—This is the foundation of thick sauces, and is the thickening ingredient of gravies. It may be used whenever a combination of butter and flour, either white or brown, is required, and if properly made in quantities, will effect an immense saving of time and trouble. Equal weights of butter and flour must be fried together. If for white roux, the heat must be low enough to avoid risk of colouring, but if brown roux is required the mixture should fry till it becomes a pale creamy shade. Either kind of roux will keep well for a considerable time if placed in wide-necked bottles or jars, tightly packed, or “run” into them to prevent air being enclosed, and then kept corked when not in use. One tablespoonful of this roux is equivalent to 1 oz. butter and 1 oz. flour.

Glaze.—Although rather costly, glaze keeps well, and is a most useful material. It is simply strong meat and bone stock, reduced by excessive cooking to the consistency of glue, which becomes dry and hard when cold, and in that state may be kept for months. It may be made at home, but the process is long and troublesome, and the glaze frequently becomes burnt and useless when made in small quantities. Considering the time, cost of materials and trouble involved, home-made glaze cannot be considered economical.

It is used for two purposes—for enriching and colouring sauces, gravies, etc., and for glazing dishes such as galantines, tongues, etc. The bought glaze is run into skins which adhere closely, and must be carefully removed either by peeling before or straining after

dissolving. When used for glazing it must be dissolved with a little stock or aspic jelly, and laid on with a brush in straight broad strokes ; avoid working the glaze, as this destroys its brightness and evenness of surface. For cold dishes one coat must be allowed to harden before another is laid on, and in order to secure a smooth and glossy surface the last coat of glaze should be poured instead of brushed over.

Cheese.—The cheese most generally used in cookery is Parmesan. It is very hard and grates more finely and readily than any other, besides being less oily when heated. It is sold ready grated, but is much more expensive in this form, and frequently not so well flavoured as that bought in bulk and grated at leisure. It keeps good for a long time if closely corked and in a dry place, but damp always spoils cheese. The dry portions of almost any cheese may be grated and kept in the same way as Parmesan, even Gruyère, a very soft cheese, will, if dry, grate and keep for some time.

In addition to stores prepared at home, a good cook or economical housekeeper will have the store-room stocked with such articles as are in constant request, remembering that a dish is easily spoilt by lack of one ingredient, and substitutes are rarely satisfactory. There is no economy in substituting the wrong thing for the right one.

A good well-stocked store-cupboard, or room is economical also when considered from another point, as it is always cheaper to buy in large quantities, and goods bought from small shops, a little at a time, are often of inferior quality.

Paper is required for many purposes connected with cookery, and should be included in kitchen stores. What

is known as "kitchen" or "cap" paper may be bought in small quantities at about 2d. a quire, grease-proof paper at about 5d. Icing or piping paper, and rice or wafer paper, may also be bought in small quantities and kept at hand. All clean and unprinted paper—such as parcel wrappings, confectioners' bags, etc., should be saved for kitchen uses. Newspaper must never be brought into contact with food, as any moist substance will dissolve and probably absorb some of the ink, which not only prevents cleanliness, but is frequently dangerous to health owing to the chemicals contained in it.

PRESERVED FOODS.

PERISHABLE foods are kept for long periods after being "preserved" by various processes, the principal being drying, salting, or excluding air. Used at first for certain simple foods to give fresh and varied diet to travellers and sailors, the idea has been carried out to such an extent that there is now hardly any kind of food which cannot be preserved by some method. Some of these when preserved are not in any way inferior than when in a fresh state, and may be prepared by several methods, but the majority do not improve by the process, and although invaluable at times, would never be preferred to fresh foods. Some are comparatively useless to people on shore, or within reach of shops, and are also more costly than the fresh article, but as a substitute when this is out of season or reach, they are most valuable, while the fact that they may be kept in perfect condition for an indefinite time makes them a boon to housekeepers.

There is an almost endless variety of preserved foods, by far the larger number being "canned" or "tinned," and in dealing with these there are certain important points to remember.

1st. **Meats** are already overcooked—unavoidably so owing to the temperature required to drive out the air which contains the putrefying agent, they therefore require nothing more than heating and seasoning.

2nd. **Vegetables** are preserved in a liquor which should be drained away, and they are then well washed before using.

3rd. **Fruits** and most **Fish** should be served or cooked in the juice or liquor which is about them.

Those foods preserved by drying, whether meat, fish or vegetables, require steeping in cold water to soften and moisten the fibres, and this whether dried merely, or salted in addition.

In choosing canned foods it is important to notice :—

The **Brand**, choosing cans with the name of a reliable canner and importer.

The **Condition of the Tin**, rejecting any with bulged out ends, that being a sure sign of putrefaction.

Tins should be stored in a cool even temperature.

Vegetables are as a rule better bottled, though some kinds are only to be had in cans. Peas, small and light green, are to be preferred to the larger darker kind. Tomatoes preserved whole are better than those in pulp for general purposes, though the pulped ones are excellent for soups and sauces. Oysters canned are only fit for sauces and flavouring, should always be of the best quality, and used as soon as opened.

The contents of tins will sometimes remain good for days if properly attended to. They must be removed from the tins at once, and kept in a cool dry atmosphere.

Truffles will keep if drained from their liquor and covered with sherry. Button mushrooms also drained and covered with white vinegar, and rinsed before using will be wholesome though lacking flavour.

Extreme care must be taken in using all preserved foods, and if there is the slightest suspicion of their freshness, they should be rejected at once.

VEGETABLES.

THE ordinary English method of using vegetables is to prepare them by boiling, and, with the addition of some sauce or clarified butter, to serve them with the joints. It is beginning to be understood, however, that vegetables are worth more consideration and care, and it is not unusual now to find a vegetable entremet served, in the choice and preparation of which considerable skill is exercised. It is very certain that where the plan of serving vegetables as a special course is once tried it will not be discontinued ; and it is to be hoped that it will gradually become, not merely an addition to the menu, but may supersede some of the heavier parts of the dinner.

Both the vegetables and the methods of preparing them known to an ordinary English cook are so limited that it becomes difficult to furnish the variety demanded by the palate, but a little courage in trying some of the less known kinds and methods would result in an alteration in the ordinary diet that could not but have a great and beneficial effect on the general health.

Although not easier of digestion than animal food, they may be rendered equally so by care in the preparation, while many compare favourably in point of food value with the more solid substances.

When prepared as soups, for which almost any vegetable is suitable, the digestibility is greatly increased,

while the food value is not lessened, and in this category—vegetable soups—we must include several of the dried leguminous vegetables known under the general term pulse, which includes peas, beans, lentils, etc., all of which are very highly nutritious. This class of vegetable requires fat only to make a complete meal, and is eminently suitable to use as a vegetable with pork and other fat meat.

The ordinary vegetables are not difficult or costly to grow, and as many are capable of being stored, it is a great pity they are not more grown in the plots of ground so often attached to or allotted with suburban cottages, while in the country cost of living could be reduced very considerably if more attention were given to growing vegetables. It is to be hoped that the universal English taste may improve in this respect, and that we may in time copy our neighbours both on the continent and across our own borders, where vegetables and soups hold so successfully the places here generally occupied by the much more costly beef and mutton.

If some of the other simple methods of cookery besides boiling were applied to the usual vegetables seen in the English markets, a very appetising change of diet would be the result. Many which have a very short season, and are soon past the prime condition in which only they are fit for plain boiling, may be rendered palatable and, indeed, delicious, by stewing, while some of the firmer and tougher kinds will braise to perfection. Very watery vegetables, such as marrows, cucumbers, etc., are excellent baked, while purées of vegetable, either as soups or entremets, may be of much greater variety than the average cook seems to imagine.

Most vegetables contain a considerable quantity of

saline, and are, therefore, not only a valuable, but an essential part of our diet, modifying a superfluity of animal food. Some contain starch, others albumen, a very few fat. Insufficient care in the preparation and cooking of vegetables has caused them to be regarded as unpalatable and unnecessary, while cost in some districts makes them somewhat a luxury.

Vegetables are of such variety as to be difficult to classify. Those which we consider actual foods may be broadly divided into Root and Green, but these must be again divided, the Roots into roots proper, tubers, and bulbs; the Green into stems, leaves, leaf stalks, flowers, seeds and seed vessels.

All these should be used as fresh as possible. Roots, tubers and bulbs will keep during the winter if carefully protected from frost and damp, and when spring comes from so much warmth as will cause sprouting, as this makes the flavour coarse and strong, and in some cases renders the vegetable worthless. To keep well, they must be gathered when fully but not over-ripe, and should be quite sound and good. One decayed root will cause others to perish; they should therefore be overlooked from time to time and the worthless ones removed. Bulbs keep best if hung by their stalks or in net bags exposed to dry, cool air, while tubers or roots are better stored on a brick floor covered with sand or sacking.

These stored vegetables are good for flavouring, but are hardly fine enough to be presented as a vegetable course; still when others are scarce they may be used for this purpose, extreme care being taken with their preparation. They should be carefully selected of uniform size or they do not cook equally; the skin, which is liable to become hard and thick with keeping, perfectly

removed; and if the weather or store place be excessively cold they should be brought to the ordinary temperature by lying in the kitchen for a while before being used. If actually touched with frost, they are spoiled, but may be used for stock and flavouring purposes if laid for a few hours in cold water. The cold water is several degrees above frost, and will thaw them gradually, while the sudden application of heat would make them stringy and tough.

When being cooked, the temperature of the liquid used should vary with the age of the vegetable. While fresh and comparatively young they cook best if placed in boiling liquid, but as they become older the temperature of the liquid should be reduced, till in the late season, before the new young vegetables are quite ready, the old ones should be placed in cold liquid, cooked slowly and for a long time. At the latter stage, however, it is waste of time attempting to prepare them for a vegetable course.

Green vegetables should always be perfectly fresh. One sign of this is their crispness. Any which have become soft or limp are not in prime condition. Leaves, stalks or pods should crack sharply when bent, flowers should have crisp leaves; in cauliflower or broccoli the flower should be white and close. All should be bright in colour with no withered or yellow leaves or shells, and should be selected of equal size if for cooking together. They all require careful washing in salt and water, and the leafy kinds may be steeped in salted water for a short time, in case of flies or slugs being hidden, as it will cause them to separate, but much steeping toughens and impoverishes the vegetable.

As a general rule, if plainly boiled, green vegetables

are placed in boiling water. If they are so old as to require slower cooking, they are not fit for simple methods, and should be dressed by some more elaborate process, or used for soups.

In boiling, salt will be needed with all, and sugar with those having a natural sweetness, such as peas. A small piece of common or carbonate of soda is often recommended as helping to keep the colour bright, but it is not required. Quick boiling with the lid off and careful skimming will keep the colour quite as it should be if the vegetables are in perfect condition and quite fresh to begin with. Some consider the soda renders the green vegetables more digestible and wholesome, but it is a debated point, and certainly soda does not improve the flavour. The first idea of using soda arose from the fact that it softens the water and all vegetables cook better in soft than in hard water, but the little it would be safe to use without fear of injuring the flavour would not be sufficient materially to affect the hardness of the water. It is wiser, where the water is very hard, to depend on boiling as a means of softening, and the water which is to be used may easily be boiled for some time without a cover before the vegetables are placed in it.

Salt, which is essential with all vegetables, tends to harden water, though the quantity used with vegetables will not affect it perceptibly. It is safer, however, knowing this, to add the salt after the vegetables have begun to soften; it will do its work of seasoning equally well as at the beginning, and the vegetables are then past being affected by the condition of the water.

Many greens are improved by being cooked with a very little fat in the water, butter or bacon being the most suitable, of course avoiding smoked bacon.



EGGS.

OF the three kinds of eggs used in cookery, hens', ducks', and plovers', hen eggs are the most useful, most plentiful, and the cheapest. Most of those used in England are imported from Ireland and France, and they are now received so frequently and the methods of preserving are so well understood, that one does not often have to guard against staleness. Where, however, there is any doubt of them, they may be tested in various ways. Quite fresh eggs will sink in a strong brine, and as they become stale they remain suspended at different depths in the brine, until an absolutely stale egg will float.

Successful preservation depends in a great measure upon the condition of the eggs at the time of preserving—when they should be quite fresh. Different methods of preserving all aim at the same thing, namely, at coating the porous shell with some substance which will prevent the air entering and setting up decomposition.

Ducks' eggs are larger and richer than hens' eggs, and in using them in place of the latter fewer will be required. The whites of duck eggs will not froth well.

Plovers' eggs are generally used directly for the table, and not for ordinary cooking purposes. Although smaller than either of the others they require much longer cooking, generally not less than 7 minutes.

When used as food, eggs should be cooked at a low temperature—about 160° Fah., or if in the shell at about

180° Fah. The time varies with the size of the egg, from 2½ minutes for poaching a medium-sized egg to 4½ minutes for boiling a large one. If too much cooked, or at too high a temperature, the white becomes tough, hard, and to many people indigestible.

When required for salads, garnishing, etc., the eggs must be boiled from 10 to 20 minutes, and if the yolk is to be powdered for sprinkling, it must be cooked for the longer time, or the centre will be somewhat tough and elastic, and useless for the purpose.

When whites and yolks are separated for cookery purposes, the whites are usually beaten to a froth, and in this form are used to lighten and raise such mixtures as soufflés and cakes. Whipped whites are also frequently used for decorations. In all cases they should be whipped just before using, if allowed to stand the froth begins to fall. A little salt added to the whites helps to bring them to a froth more quickly. When frothed whites are to be mixed with a heavier or more solid substance, great care must be taken not to break down the froth. The object of whisking being to mix in air, rough handling afterwards would render the whisking useless; the mixing must therefore be done very carefully. They should be folded or wrapped up in the other substance, but the mixing must also be thorough, for any pieces of white separated from the rest will toughen and taste leathery, besides failing in the special purpose of giving lightness to the mixture. After mixing lightly and perfectly all such preparations should be cooked at once.

The white "speck" should always be removed from a broken egg, as it is easily distinguished after cooking, and in anything of a liquid nature, such as custards, sauces, etc., it would be hard and unpleasant.

METHODS OF COOKING.

THERE are six chief methods of cooking meat—Roasting, Boiling, Baking, Stewing, Frying, and Broiling or Grilling. The first three of these are most suitable for joints weighing 4 lbs. or more, and are not satisfactory for smaller pieces which, cooked by these methods, are liable to be hard and flavourless by the drying up or loss of their juices.

Of the other three methods, stewing may be applied to fairly large and solid pieces, but it is better for small and thin ones, while frying and broiling can only be used for steaks, chops, and similar cuts. Braising and Steaming are combinations and modifications of these methods.

Roasting is cooking by the direct action of radiant heat, and roasted meat is, strictly speaking, meat which has been placed in such a position that the radiation of a fire affects the whole surface equally, while at the same time a current of fresh air passes round it. This combination of heat and air has the effect of drawing out and improving the flavour of the meat in a manner and degree quite unattainable by any other method of cooking. The proper appliance for roasting is called a "hastener," and consists of two parts, one from its shape called a bottle-jack, contains machinery, which when wound up causes the weight, *i.e.*, the joint, to revolve, and exposes its whole surface to the fire; the other a

screen of bright metal which surrounds the hanging joint, and by reflection of heat cooks the sides turned from the fire, while at the same time the screen protects from draughts of cold air which would check the cooking. These two portions are not always joined, as the jack may be attached to the wall over the fire-place, and the screen arranged in any desirable position; they are, however, generally combined. Small joints and poultry, game, etc., are as a rule roasted in what is known as a game or Dutch oven. The principle of construction of a Dutch oven is the same as that of the "hastener," but as it has no jack connected with it the meat must be turned by hand.

The great advantage of roasting as a method of cooking is that the juice of the meat can be retained more perfectly than by any other method except grilling, which for small and comparatively thin cuts, may be considered the counterpart of roasting, and in the same way heightens and improves the flavour of the food. To secure the retention of the juices, the surface albumen of the meat should at first be exposed to intense heat, and in this way a coat or rind is formed through which no liquids can pass. As the juices are naturally drawn outwards, moderate heat would soon drain the joint and leave it dry and stringy if this first exposure to intense heat were neglected. No after attention will rectify a first error in this matter. It follows, then, that a fire bright and clear, and large enough to cover the surface of the joint, is essential; and the fire must be so arranged that there shall be no considerable alteration in the heat during the time of roasting. Unless a fairly high temperature is maintained, the hardened surface will gradually become softened by the juices, and then these

will escape. The gravy will be greatly enriched in such a case, but the meat will suffer in proportion. Only the best quality of meat, and the tenderest joints, are suitable for roasting. Inferior meat or even the coarser joints of the best quality will not be satisfactory. A very important point in connection with roasting meat is the basting, the constant pouring of hot fat, *i.e.*, dripping from the joint, over the surface, not only assists in preventing the outward flow of juices, but also prevents the dry heat of the fire making the surface over-brown or cindery. A joint should be basted about every five minutes, but towards the end of the process rather less frequent basting is required.

The joint should be placed quite close to the bars of the fire for the first ten or fifteen minutes ; after that first hardening it may be drawn slightly back and a steady temperature maintained till the end.

The time allowed varies with the kind of meat and also with the different joints. Beef needs least time, then mutton, veal, and, lastly, pork. Thick pieces, such as rounds, legs, fillets, etc., must have a few minutes longer per lb. allowed than ribs, shoulders, loins, etc. Remembering these general rules, fifteen minutes per lb. will be the shortest and thirty minutes the longest time required ; but in the case of beef individual taste must be consulted, so many people preferring beef under-done, while the other three kinds are generally well cooked, pork, especially, being most unwholesome if not thoroughly cooked.

For boiling and baking meat the same rules apply as for roasting, the time depending on joint and weight, the same time being allowed for similar joints.

TIME-TABLE FOR ROASTING, BOILING, AND BAKING.

Beef.	Mutton.	Veal.	Pork.
15-20 min. per lb.	15-20 min. per lb.	20-25 min. per lb.	20-25 or 30 min. per lb.

Boiling (of fresh meat).—This is cookery by immersion in boiling liquid, which after a few minutes is reduced to simmering. The object of the high temperature at first is to harden the surface albumen and so seal the pores and prevent the escape of the juices. If continued too long, this degree of heat would tend to toughen the joint throughout; after the first few minutes, therefore, the heat must be reduced to about 180° Fah. The pan used for boiling meat should be only just large enough to hold the joint, and the quantity of liquid no more than is required to cover it.

For the boiling of salt meat the general rule of first hardening the surface is *not* to be followed. The salting of meat withdraws a large proportion of its juices, while at the same time the salt hardens the fibres, and this hardness would be intensified by extreme heat. Very salt meat is sometimes steeped in cold water to extract some of the salt, but whether this is done or not, the rule for boiling salt meat is to immerse it in cold or tepid water and bring slowly to boiling-point; boil for about 5 mins. to seal the pores and prevent any further loss of juice, then reduce to 180° Fah., and maintain a uniform temperature till the meat is cooked. Salt meat takes longer to cook than fresh meat, and the saltiness may be much qualified by boiling vegetables with the meat, turnips being especially useful for this purpose.

Baking is cooking in close, dry heat, the air being rarely changed. It is the term generally applied to meat

cooked in an oven, where the principal inlet of air is by the door when opened for basting. The actual differences between roasting and baking are not great, the terms being frequently interchanged. Meat loses rather less weight when baked than when roasted, but the flavour of baked meat is inferior and less developed. The heat of an oven being steadier, baking takes somewhat less time than roasting. In a gas oven having an open floor the current of air is not impeded, and such baking very nearly approaches roasting, and the flavour is generally acknowledged to be the same.

Stewing is cooking slowly with a small quantity of liquid in a covered vessel. The method is specially suitable for the coarser and cheaper parts of meat, which are thus rendered tender without loss of their juices. The usual plan is to make a gravy flavoured and coloured to suit the stew, and after the ingredients are well blended and cooked to lay the meat in the boiling liquid. After about two minutes' boiling, the temperature is reduced to simmering (about 160° F.), a lower temperature than that required for a large joint of "boiled" meat. The time depends greatly on the quality of the meat, but none will stew satisfactorily in less than from 1½ to 2 hrs., and the longer allowance is to be preferred.

Frying is cooking by contact with fat at a very high temperature. It may be considered under two heads, generally known as the wet and dry methods, or by the terms "friter" and "sauter". Wet frying is the better and more successful as well as by far the cheaper and easier method, but there are a few things for which it is not suited. The number is, however, very limited, the majority of fried dishes being distinctly better cooked in a bath of fat than in a shallow frying pan. In wet

frying a large supply of fat is required, sufficient to completely cover the article of food to be fried, but the fat should not much more than half fill the stew-pan in which it is placed. It should be slowly heated till of the right temperature. The heat of the fat before using is a most important point. Unless the heat be sufficient before the first plunge, the outside will not become crisp, and the food will be greasy. As a general rule, the correct heat for frying is known by a pale blue vapour rising from the surface of the fat, or it may be tested with a small piece of white bread, which should quickly acquire a golden colour if the fat is hot enough to use. The average temperature of fat for frying is about 380° Fah. For fish, 360° to 370° Fah. Meat, 380° Fah. Parsley, 400° Fah. Before frying in a bath of fat, food should be covered with some material that will harden instantly when heated, and so prevent the flavour or juice passing into the fat and the entrance of the fat into the food. The substances generally used for coating are either egg or batter, and instructions for the proper use of each will be found in another place.

A great help, though not an essential for wet frying, is a frying basket to fit the pan, as by this the food can be removed quickly and without danger of breaking. A frying basket should always be made hot in the fat before any food is placed in it, as the cold basket would lower the temperature of the fat too much.

The dry method of frying (*sauter*) is less satisfactory, in that it is difficult, even after much practice, to produce a uniformly coloured surface. A small quantity only of fat is needed, and where the fat, *i.e.*, the heat, ends, a crack is formed in the outer coat, through which flavour escapes and fat enters; the appearance is also rendered

unsightly. Flat fish can be fairly well fried by this method, or, indeed, almost any thin substance, as thin edges are not affected in this way; and for pancakes and other articles of similar nature it is the best method. It is rarely possible to use the fat from the dry method a second time except for dishes of the same kind, as the fat is always more or less flavoured by the food cooked in it. In wet frying, however, though the first outlay is greater, if properly used and kept the fat remains good as long as it remains at all, and much less is absorbed by or removed with the food. It must be carefully strained and removed from the pan after each time of using.

Broiling, sometimes called grilling, is cooking by the direct action of fire brought almost into contact with the meat. The outer surface is burned or seared, the albumen hardened and the juices, which have a tendency to escape on the side turned from the heat, are retained in the meat by frequent turning. The fire for broiling must be very clear, intensely hot, and high in the grate. The utensil required for broiling is a gridiron, the bars of which are greased and heated to prevent sticking and subsequent tearing of the meat. The gridiron is laid quite close over the glowing coal, so that the lower surface is dried and hardened at once. The meat must be turned at very short intervals, before the juices have been driven from the fire to the opposite surface. If once allowed to reach the surface, they will be thrown off in turning and lost, the meat being correspondingly impoverished. By constant turning the juices are kept moving backwards and forwards, and the meat remains moist and full of flavour. Each side should be exposed to the fire about three times, and it is not desirable to use meat less than 1 inch or more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 inches thick

for the purpose. The thinner pieces should have even greater heat applied than the thick ones, as the longer thin pieces are exposed to the fire the more dry and tasteless they will become, while the thicker pieces may be slightly withdrawn after thoroughly hardening the surface and cooked rather more slowly that the heat may penetrate to the centre. The frequent turning must, however, be continued, or the juices will reach the hardened outer fibres, soften them, and escape. If a double broiler is used the turning is easily managed, but with a single gridiron care must be taken not to puncture the meat by using a fork. Steak tongs are made for the purpose of lifting and turning broiled meat, but a spoon or spoon and knife will answer. A small rim of fat on the chop or steak will tend to keep the edge moist and baste the meat, but too much will cause flame to rise in continuous jets, making the surface smoky. If there is absolutely no fat on the piece to be broiled, morsels of finely chopped suet may occasionally be thrown into the fire, as the sudden spurt of flame from this source leaves a deposit of fat on the meat which improves the flavour, and, without softening the albumen, prevents its becoming uneatably hard and dry.

When chops and steaks are almost cooked a puffiness which appears as they heat through begins to subside, and this is a sign that the juices are beginning to dry and the meat is cooked. When cut, broiled meat should look red and moist, and gravy should run from it. If there be the slightest blue tint the meat is raw, more than underdone, but if the redness is gone and it looks brown it is overcooked and flavourless. A great deal of practice and experience and careful watching for signs is needed to ensure success in broiling, which is generally regarded as

the most wholesome and digestible method of cooking meat. But this method is only suitable for thin pieces, as chops and steaks, and is never satisfactory for any but the tenderest parts and the very best quality of meat.

Though steaks and chops alone have been previously spoken of in connection with the subject of broiling, other foods, especially poultry, small birds, and some kinds of fish may be very satisfactorily broiled. Foods that have little natural fat, as poultry, etc., are generally folded in stiff well-greased paper before grilling, to prevent their becoming dry and discoloured. The juices are not so perfectly retained in this way, for if the paper were exposed to such intense heat it would immediately burst into flame. The moisture, however, that is drawn from the food is unable to escape from the greased paper, and helps to keep up a certain amount of steam, which prevents the meat becoming dry, and forms a gravy which should be carefully kept and served.

Meat of all kinds is frequently prepared for broiling by being dipped in or brushed over with oil or melted butter ; this also helps to prevent unnecessary drying of the surface.

Braizing is less one method of cooking than a combination of two, stewing or steaming, with baking or roasting. A proper braizing pan consists of a deep stew-pan to contain the joint, and a shallower one, forming the lid, which contains hot charcoal. A bed of vegetables is laid in the lower pan with an allowance of stock or water. The joint to be braized is placed on the top of the vegetables, and if the amount of stock in the pan is sufficient to surround but not cover the meat it will be stewed, and the process of cooking must be slow as in that method. If, however, only sufficient stock is used to cover the

vegetables, the meat will be cooked in the steam ("steamed"), and the fire must be sufficient to keep up the supply of steam. The pan is to be tightly covered, then the steam rising from the liquor, which is charged with the flavours of the vegetables, will cook the meat and transfer these flavours to it. While the stewing or steaming is proceeding, the bed of hot charcoal in the deep lid roasts and browns the surface, the steam basting the joint and preventing it drying. Occasionally the lid must be removed and the joint well basted with the liquor and sometimes turned.

As neither these pans nor charcoal are common in English kitchens, the two processes are sometimes carried out separately. The stewing is first accomplished, then the joint is placed for a short time in a hot oven and browned and glazed.

The method is most suitable for solid, somewhat close pieces of meat; and if they are of indifferent quality, flavour and moisture are imparted by this process. White meats are generally, and red meats sometimes, larded, which also tends to improve the flavour.

INVALID COOKERY.

IN preparing food for an invalid, it must be borne in mind that the range of foods is very limited, and that certain methods of cooking are quite inadmissible. Pork, and often veal, the richer kinds of fish and all pastry, must be put entirely aside, while frying is quite out of the question, and, speaking generally, baking also. The greatest care therefore must be taken in using the methods and materials at our command, that no carelessness or failure shall cause a distaste which it may be difficult or impossible to remove, and which would tend to cause still greater monotony where we are already liable to have too much.

In an acute stage of illness, food is hardly needed at all, and often milk forms the only real food given for many days. It is during recovery and convalescence that "kitchen physic" takes the place of all, or nearly all, other kinds, and it is then that the difficulty arises of giving sufficient variety to stimulate appetite without using those substances which may generally be classed as "indigestible" in connection with invalid food.

The first essential in preparing food is the absolute cleanliness of all utensils. If possible, it is advisable to use special saucepans, etc., for this cookery, keeping them carefully from contact with anything by which they could be stained or flavoured. Milk, and milk foods particularly, should be prepared in vessels used for no

other purpose, and capable of being scalded or scoured. Much invalids' food is cooked by the process of steaming, and this being frequently done in jars, these vessels must be very thoroughly cleansed and examined, as the common glaze is liable to crack on the surface, and thus to first absorb and then communicate flavour. White lined iron saucepans are the best to use, but the lining must be perfect and uncracked, or they are open to the same objection as the earthenware jars.

The materials used must be of the best quality and absolutely fresh, and as great a variety as possible should be provided. The manner of preparing should be the simplest, and seasoning and flavouring very carefully regulated by the patient's taste, remembering that in illness the palate is very sensitive and would find ordinary seasonings too strong, and that certain seasonings and flavourings are not very wholesome and sometimes forbidden. Fat or grease of any description must be carefully avoided and removed. If it is impossible to leave it entirely out of the cooking, it must be taken away before serving, which can generally be done by skimming or laying pieces of clean absorbent paper on the surface. There are a few cases in which a very moderate amount of fat is not objectionable, but the fact must be ascertained, for a patient will often reject food altogether because a cup of soup or beef tea has been brought with specks of grease floating on the surface, though the quantity may be ever so small.

A patient's food must be given as punctually as his medicine, and it must not be forgotten that it is as unpunctual to have food ready too soon, and spoiled by over-cooking or waiting, as to be too late and find the appetite gone.

The food must be freshly cooked at the time it is required, not re-heated ; therefore it should be prepared in quantities just sufficient for one meal. The greatest care should be taken not to serve more than is allowed or needed at once, more harm being done by over than by under feeding.

The greatest nicety and daintiness must be observed in dishing and serving. However disinclined a patient may be, appetite will come more readily at sight of a pretty, bright dish than when it is carelessly or roughly served.

Cleanliness, simplicity, punctuality and neatness in the preparation and serving of invalid's food must be considered as important as the proper administration of medicine.

STOCK.

STOCK is of various kinds, but we may now consider it as first and second. First stock is made of entirely fresh materials; second stock, of the same materials after the first stock has been strained. Stock materials are: meat or bones, according to the quality desired; carrot, turnip, onion, celery, parsley, herbs, salt and pepper. If the stock is required to have flavour of any special vegetable, increase the proportion of that one, but otherwise let them be fairly equal in quantity, remembering, however, that overmuch carrot tends to sweetness, while excess of turnip is liable to cause the stock to become sour. This last vegetable may be omitted altogether in very hot weather.

The meat and bones should be cut or broken small to present as large a surface as possible to the action of the water which is to withdraw nutriment and flavour from them. All fat should be removed from bones and meat so as to avoid greasiness. The vegetables may be left in rather large pieces, as they are in the stock much longer than is needed for actual cooking, and if cut too small become powdered and may be too fine to remove by straining. The herbs, if dried ones, must be tied in a bit of muslin, as, being fine and powdery, they could not otherwise be perfectly strained out. To avoid a sediment forming, stock for high-class or clear soups is seasoned with pepper corns instead of ground pepper.

When the stock is required definitely for brown or dark soups, the meat may be first seared on a hot pan, without fat, till a good brown, and the onion may be baked or burned brown; but if required for general purposes, this is better not done, as it would render the stock unfit for some dishes.

The meat and bones should be put in the proper proportion of cold water, and, if possible, allowed to steep for an hour or more, stirring occasionally, so that the cold water may act upon all the particles and draw out the juices. The application of heat coagulates the albumen in meat, and the juices are then less easily extracted. Salt added to the cold liquid helps to draw out the juices. Stock should be slowly heated, and as it nears boiling-point careful skimming is required to remove any impurities which may arise, but discretion must be used so as to remove only scum and not the coagulated juices which rise also in the form of a thick brown substance. When well skimmed, put in the vegetables. If added sooner, they render perfect skimming impossible, as they also float, and the scum adheres to them. After all materials are in the stock-pot, long, slow cooking is required—at least four hours of slow simmering—and, provided the temperature is kept sufficiently low, a longer time may be given with advantage. If it is desired to make second stock from these materials, the time of the first cooking should not be excessive, or there will be no flavour left to extract. The chief food value of second stock is its gelatine, which is very insipid, the chief value of first stock is the juice of meat contained in it.

Second stock is made from the materials strained out of the first stock when finished, with a little fresh vegetable added and the full quantity of seasonings

repeated, the original seasonings being quite exhausted. The amount of water need not be so carefully calculated, sufficient to cover the stock materials being enough, for it must be remembered that there is not so much nutriment or flavour to extract, although the longer cooking and the higher temperature that may safely be applied to *second* stock draws out the gelatine more freely. This accounts for the fact that second stock, which, we know, cannot be so good as the first, is, however, a much stiffer jelly when cold. To this stock may be added any bones or trimmings from cooked joints, remains of cooked vegetables, gravies or sauces, except those containing milk. Second stock can never be cleared perfectly; therefore, almost any food that is fresh and wholesome may be used for it without fear of spoiling.

Stock made from beef, or chiefly from beef, is always more or less brown. If white is required, veal is the principal ingredient, and the flavour is improved by the addition of a ham bone and the carcasses of poultry, game or rabbits. For certain high-class soups the stock is made entirely from poultry. Whatever the materials used, the method never varies. The object being to extract the juices and nutriment, cold water must be applied and long cooking at a low temperature. Beef stock is usually made from shin of beef, the thicker and more fleshy part being used for the best, while the more bony and cheaper parts make good ordinary stock. Knuckle of veal is the part used for white stock.

Fish stock is made from the bones, skin and trimmings of white fish. These are broken small and generally flavoured with onion, parsley, herbs and seasonings. The proportion of water used is rather larger, as the

flavour is much stronger and also more easily extracted than from meat. For meat stock the proportions are one pint of water to each lb. of meat and bone, and an additional pint for evaporation during the long cooking.

SOUP.

SOUP may be classed under four heads—broth, thick soup, purées and clear soups. The base of nearly all is stock, but the materials of which the solid and thick parts are composed decide the quality of the stock to be used.

Broth or **Bouillon** is simply unclarified stock, to which are added various grains such as barley, rice, sago, etc., and vegetables cooked either in the broth or separately, and served in small pieces. This depends for its food value principally on the stock, which must, therefore, be strong and well flavoured. Frequently there is served as another course the meat from which the broth has been prepared.

Thick Soup, by which is meant something about the consistency of cream, is stock which is thickened by some foreign substance such as starch, cornflour, bread, grains, eggs, etc. This stock must be of good quality, for the thickening substance cannot be used in sufficient quantity to increase perceptibly the food value.

Purées are thick soups, but the thickening is due to the substance of which the purée is composed, which is pulped by being passed through a sieve in fine atoms, becoming again part of the soup. A certain amount of starch or other binding material is needed, not to thicken, but to bind the solid and liquid parts of the soup together and prevent the heavy substance from settling at the

bottom. Frequently the material of which the purée is formed is of such a nature as not to require the addition of meat, such as beans, peas, lentils, etc.; others are improved by being made of second stock, while others require as good stock as can be obtained, there being little or no nutriment in the substance itself. At the same time, it must be observed that, except in the sick-room and in the very plainest housekeeping, soup is not regarded as a course to satisfy hunger, but rather as a preliminary or appetiser, and it is a great mistake so to increase the strength of soup as to present it in the form of highly concentrated nourishment. By so doing it may be made indigestible in a high degree, while in its original form it is one of the most easily digested forms of food.

Clear Soup is stock freed from all the constituents which tend to make it cloudy, and the first essential point is the quality of the stock. The inferior kinds made largely from bone will not clear satisfactorily, nor would it be of any value if it did, for the process of clearing removes so much of the valuable properties contained in the stock that, unless it is good and strong before, the soup is not worth the labour expended on clearing it. Stock for clear soup, therefore, should be made of good stock meat and well flavoured with vegetables, herbs and seasonings. When cold, it must be perfectly freed from fat and sediment, both of which tend to prevent perfect clearing. This clear soup (*consommé*) has added to it certain garnishes and flavourings from which, or from the manner of preparing them, the special name is derived.

In making all soups except clear soup, great attention should be paid to skimming during cooking, as this has

much to do with the flavour of the soup. In most cases a great deal of scum rises just before boiling-point is reached, and if allowed to boil down it will render the flavour coarse. Long, slow cooking is also a most important point both in the making of stock and soup. Without this the soup lacks the smoothness and mellowness of flavour which comes from the blending of the different vegetables and seasonings—a point not reached if any single flavour predominates.

GRAVY AND SAUCE.

GRAVY is the juice of the meat which escapes during cooking and partially solidifies in the receiver. Being heavier than the fat which escapes at the same time, it settles at the bottom, allowing the fat to be poured off. This residue when mixed with stock, and seasoned, forms a clear brown fluid of agreeable taste. When the joint is pork or the richer kinds of poultry, *i.e.*, geese, ducks, the gravy is usually thickened, as thick gravy modifies the extreme richness of the meat.

If the meat yields very little gravy, a substitute can be found in good stock or some of the many preparations to be purchased now, such as Bovril, Liebig, Vimbos, etc.

Gravy should be perfectly free from fat, dark in colour and clear. The colour may sometimes be rather pale, especially from roast joints; that from baked is better, as the dripping tin in the oven, being hotter than the receiver of a hastener, helps to colour the juices as they drip. When deficient in colour a few drops of caramel may be used with advantage.

The fat must be perfectly drained away, the slightest grease remaining being a sign of carelessness and most objectionable. If necessary, transfer the gravy sediment to a clean pan; this sometimes will help to prevent greasiness.

The stock used may be second, that being good enough for all ordinary gravies; but if no stock is forthcoming,

and water has to be used, a small quantity of some meat essence should be employed, as the sediment from a joint hardly ever contains sufficient flavouring or nutriment to bear being diluted with water.

When gravy is to be thickened the fat is drained off, a little flour is sprinkled on the sediment, the two are fried together and seasoned, and the stock is added gradually in the usual way. It must be understood that thickened gravy for a joint is only thick by comparison with thin, it must not be confounded with sauce or the much thicker gravy served with stews.

Gravy for stews and ragouts may be made either before or after the meat is cooked—generally the former—and is prepared by blending flour and fat over the fire and adding stock or water by degrees till the desired consistency is reached. About one pint of liquid to one ounce of flour is a fair average allowance, less liquid or more flour giving a consistency more nearly approaching a sauce.

When the stew is formed entirely of fresh meat, water may be used for the gravy. The process of stewing withdrawing more juice from the meat than either roasting or baking, it follows that the gravy is stronger and richer and the addition of meat stock is unnecessary. If, however, the meat has been previously cooked, a great deal of the flavour and juice has escaped or dried away, and without stock the gravy is poor and tasteless.

Plain sauces may be variously classified as sweet and savoury, brown and white, thick and thin, hot and cold, etc. A large number start from the same base, *i.e.*, roux, either white or brown; others have a special liquor prepared by cooking in the stock certain seasonings or flavourings; others, again, have essences extracted from

food substances by frying or sautéing, and are thickened afterwards by the addition of some form of starch. Whatever the foundation or method of preparation, sauce is intended finally for one of two purposes—either for coating or serving as an accompaniment to a dish. For coating, it should be thin enough to pour freely and smoothly, but thick enough to cling to the surface and not run off, leaving it bare or only smeared. A good deal of care must be exercised in making and using sauce for coating hot substances. Although it must not be so thin as to run off the food, it must be thin enough to cover the dish evenly and form a neat and orderly garnish to the whole. It is, therefore, often better to coat the meat with a portion of the sauce and then add more liquid to the remainder till thin enough to run easily over the dish.

In coating cold meats, the consistency of the sauce is of less consequence, provided it is not too thin, as it is only applied to the meat, and is not served on the dish itself. Cold coatings often have jelly or gelatine added, rendering them stiffer and brighter when cold.

Those sauces served as an accessory, but apart from the dish, are considerably thinner than the coating sauces, and recipes are often very misleading. For this purpose it should never be so thick that it will not pour from a spoon or ladle, and it must not be forgotten that all containing starch are liable to thicken after cooking if allowed to stand any time. They should, therefore, be thinner in the pan than it is desirable they should be when served. To prevent a skin forming on the surface, either keep it stirred till required or finish the actual cooking or boiling before adding all the liquid; the remainder may then be gently poured over the surface of

the sauce, and, by protecting it from the air, will prevent the skin forming, and the liquid may be beaten into the thick sauce just before it is dished. If this precaution is not taken, either the skin must be taken off, which involves waste of material, or it must be broken down into the sauce, making it lumpy and rough, and necessitating passing through a sieve or tammy.

If we consider sauces separately and by name, there is literally "no end" to them. But they may all be classified under a few heads, plain and high-class together. Between these two classes the principal difference is in the materials used; the methods followed and care required are the same. The final purpose must be borne in mind, and common sense and intelligence brought to bear on the proportion of materials used. The most reliable and trustworthy cookery book will not supply an infallible recipe where success depends on so many trivial points. The condition of the materials used is so liable to alteration—the dryness of starch, the amount of liquid yielded by vegetables, the size of eggs, the quantity of juice contained in a lemon, and many other circumstances may cause disaster if not considered and allowed for beforehand.

COLD MEAT COOKERY.

COLD meat is by most people objected to as unappetising and not easily digested. The re-heating, however, requires much more care than is generally given to it, and the want of this care frequently results in unpalatable hashes and stews to which cold meat would be infinitely preferable.

The method of successfully re-heating depends greatly on the condition of the meat; stewing, which requires long, slow cooking, being quite unsuitable for meat already overcooked, while frying, a quick method, would be equally unsuited to the more underdone parts. All gristle, skin and fat that will not be eaten should be removed when preparing the meat for re-heating, as there is no economy in serving these things, and the dish will be spoiled by their presence.

When beef, veal, chicken, etc., are no longer to be served in their original form, the usable parts should be cut into pieces and trimmed carefully, the bones, gristle and any overcooked edges being placed with a little vegetable, herbs and seasoning in a pan with cold water and simmered gently to extract all flavour and furnish a supply of stock for gravy, etc. Scraps of mutton or pork yield more disagreeable odour than anything else; therefore for these meats the above method is not to be recommended, either gravy or good ordinary stock should be used instead.

It is a common mistake to imagine that meat once cooked needs only to be heated. Having lost a great deal of its juices in the first cooking, when re-heated in good well-flavoured stock or gravy considerable time is required to blend the flavour. If plenty of time is not given to the process, the flavour of the meat will be quite distinct from that of the gravy, and in all probability the former will be hard and tough. Long, gentle simmering is as necessary for cold meat as for fresh. Hash (by which we understand meat in slices or small pieces, say half-inch cubes, cooked in a good gravy, with garnish of vegetables, rice or sippets, etc.) should be prepared from the best remaining parts of a joint; while mince, being cut much finer, may be prepared from the smaller and less sightly parts, these also being quite suitable for mincing with a machine for rissoles, pâtés, etc., where the meat is required to be almost a paste. Mince, of whatever kind of meat, should always be chopped with knife or chopper, a machine generally makes it too nearly into a paste, which, when heated, presents a greasy appearance that is most uninviting. In all cases special care must be taken to use seasonings and flavourings suitable to the flavour of the particular meat used. Having lost much of the colouring substance during the first cooking, this must be supplied in the "made dishes," and for this we have frequently recourse to caramel. If, however, a thick sauce or gravy is required, the flour for the thickening may be coloured by browning or frying. Where onion is admitted as a flavourer, browning it first will greatly help to give colour to the dish, caramel supplementing when necessary; while the best of all colourings is the dark, rich jelly frequently found under the cake of dripping poured from a joint.


Nearly all dishes made from cold meat will be greatly improved if served with such accompaniments as vegetables, rice, tomatoes, bacon, macaroni, vermicelli, etc.

In all cases except when fried, the main point to consider is the long cooking at a low temperature and the consequent amalgamation of flavours.

PASTRY.

PASTRY is a combination of flour and fat, and may be suet, short, flaky or puff pastry, according to the materials used and the method by which they are combined. All kinds may be baked, but only suet crust is suitable for boiling, while short and puff pastry may also be fried. The fat used is known by the general name of shortening.

In using suet as shortening, it must be perfectly freed from skin and chopped or scraped to fine powder that it may amalgamate perfectly with the flour. Other shortenings are oil (not much used in England, except by vegetarians), lard, dripping and butter. Butter and lard are sometimes used in combination to reduce expense. All shortenings should be as free as possible from salt and from water, and very fresh and sweet. Nothing could be much more nauseous than any trace of rancidness. The proportion of fat to flour varies according to the richness required, from less than half to nearly, and in the case of rich puff paste to quite, equal weights. Where the shortening is less than half the weight of flour, a small quantity of baking powder is used to give crispness and shortness to the crust, but pastry in which it is used does not keep well, and should be eaten while quite fresh.



BREAD MAKING.

THOUGH bread may be made in various ways, by aeration, with baking powder, or, as in many country farmhouses, with carbonate of soda and buttermilk, bread raised by yeast is by far the most common, and generally considered superior to other kinds both in flavour and digestibility.

There are many right ways of making bread, and plans found successful and convenient in large bakeries are not altogether adapted to private houses, and *vice versa*, but the same general principles apply in all cases. Yeast is a vegetable organism which lives and grows in the presence of suitable nourishment, moisture and moderate heat; extreme heat kills it. There are various kinds of yeast; what are known as home-made yeasts and leaven are seldom used where any other is easily procurable, as they are troublesome to keep in good condition and their results are uncertain. Brewers' yeast, too, varies much in strength, but the best brands of dried and compressed German and French yeasts may be relied upon as having uniform results, and are therefore fast taking the place of other kinds for bread making. This yeast when good has a greyish colour and a fresh smell; if spots of brown are seen in it, or if the smell is unpleasant, it is not worth buying.

What is called household or seconds' flour is best for bread making, especially in houses where bread forms a

great part of the daily food ; very fine white flour is less nourishing, and brown flour is to many people less digestible. Potatoes and rice are occasionally added to the wheat flour, and sometimes a little shortening, butter or lard, is rubbed in. Salt acts as a check to fermentation, and must therefore never be added to the yeast in the early stages of bread making ; it should be thoroughly mixed with the flour, and never dissolved in the yeast liquid. Water, milk, or a mixture of the two, is the liquid used for bread. The quantity required depends upon the nature and dryness of the flour, as a rule about $\frac{1}{2}$ pt. of liquid to each pound. The temperature of the liquid is important—it must be luke-warm, never exceeding 98° Fah. as the utmost limit ; a safe rule is to take 1 part boiling water mixed with 2 parts cold. When yeast bread has to be made in two or three hours, 1 oz. of good German yeast must be used to about 3 lbs. of flour, but where longer time can be given to the rising, a much smaller proportion is sufficient.

Tests for Yeast.—In addition to the test of colour and smell previously mentioned, the following tests may be used at the time of baking. First, crumble the yeast and work into it some moist sugar, if good the two will form a liquid in a few moments. A second test is to add a little flour to this liquid, and after mixing it in well, pour in a little luke-warm water, set in a warm place, and a froth will be seen on the surface in a short time. These tests are not indispensable, and may be omitted altogether when it is known the yeast is good.

There are two chief methods of mixing dough. When small quantities of bread are made, the yeast and luke-warm liquid may be mixed and the whole of the flour moistened and kneaded at once. When very large

quantities are being used, it is found better to adopt the method known as "setting a sponge". The yeast and part of the liquid are poured into a hole in the centre, a little flour stirred in till a thin batter-like mixture is formed; this, covered with flour, is left to work, till a froth breaks through the surface, then the remainder of the liquid is added and the whole kneaded together.

Good kneading is necessary, that every grain of flour may be moistened and the yeast evenly distributed in the dough; the right method of kneading also encloses air, which helps forward the process of fermentation.

The next step is the rising; the dough is put in a warm place, free from draughts, till it has swollen to about twice its original size. The rising cannot be regulated by time, as temperature, condition of flour, and, above all, the quantity and quality of yeast used, are variable and important factors. Nothing, however, can make up for insufficient rising before the bread goes into the oven; not only lightness, but also flavour and appearance, depend largely upon this point. The brown colour of crust most admired can never be obtained from insufficiently raised dough. If allowed to rise too long, or kept in too warm a place, the result will probably be sour bread, as lactic and other fermentations are likely to be set up. If the dough becomes really hot, the yeast will be killed and the bread be heavy. When moulding, it is well to use as little dry flour as possible; it is a mistake to work fresh flour into the dough shortly before baking, as both appearance and flavour are deteriorated. Ordinary loaf tins should be filled rather more than half full, and then set to rise till the dough is almost level with the top. Cottage loaves, etc., after moulding, must be allowed to rise a little, but not so much as tin

bread, or they will fall flat in the oven. Brown bread, owing to the nature of the flour used, will not make good cottage loaves or fancy shapes, it is more suitable for tin bread or scones, etc.

The heat of the oven for baking is given by authorities as from 500° Fah. downwards. Some give the first temperature for baking as low as 350° Fah. This diversity of opinion is chiefly owing to the fact that the construction of ovens is so very various, and the nature of heat in an iron and a brick oven is not quite the same. Also we must remember that a large batch of bread will, by its entrance, lower the heat more than a small one. Few private houses, however, are able to use a thermometer for such purposes, and what is generally known as a **hot** oven is all that is found necessary. For the first part of the baking, for about one-third of the time calculated to complete it, the oven door should be kept shut. At this stage all the steam from the bread should be kept in the oven, and, as the heat quickly kills the yeast, and the rising **in the oven** is chiefly the result of expansion of the tiny bubbles contained in the dough, no cold air should be admitted till the bread is fully risen and a crust formed. When this point is reached, the heat ought gradually to decrease, that the centre of the loaves may be well baked without the crust being burnt. Under-baked bread is very unwholesome.

To judge if properly baked, it is customary to try it in various ways, but all these tests need an accompaniment of experience. If the loaf, on being knocked, sounds hollow, it is said to be well baked; if the sound is heavy and leaden, it is under-baked. A crust that is elastic and springs back after pressure is considered another sign of well-baked bread, and there are people

who judge entirely by the smell, and others decide by appearance.

Occasionally, on cutting a loaf, it is found to have large and irregular holes in the centre, or sometimes just under the top crust, and it is not easy to assign a reason for this. In some cases the cause is doubtless insufficient kneading, in others careless moulding of loaves ; but when neither of the above may be suspected, the cause is probably owing to the nature of the flour used. Some flours contain so little gluten, and their chemical composition is such that the tiny bubbles formed by the yeast run together, making larger and larger holes. Many flours, good for pastry and other purposes, will not make satisfactory bread on this account. Good bread cannot be made without suitable flour, good yeast and careful attention to many little points.

CAKES.

THOUGH there is no limit to the variety of cakes that can be made, the greater number may be classified under one of three general heads :—

1. Pound Cakes.—As the name implies, the typical pound cake has equal weight of various ingredients, a pound to a pound of butter, sugar, eggs, flour, fruit, etc. Though this strict proportion is not always followed, a pound cake has always a considerable quantity of butter, eggs and sugar. The usual method of mixing is, therefore, to beat the butter and sugar to a cream, then add eggs and flour alternately, beating the mixture well between each addition. Last of all, the fruit and flavouring are put in. Much of the success of these cakes depends upon good beating, so as to blend ingredients and to enclose as much air as possible ; but it must be remembered that there is such a thing as overbeating eggs for cakes, though the other extreme is a more common fault. Pound cakes, if large, need very careful baking—a moderate and uniform heat of oven for a considerable time, then gradually decreasing heat is essential. Other things being equal, the smaller the cake the hotter the oven should be ; but in no case do cakes require extremely great heat.

2. Plain Cakes.—These, containing as they do smaller proportion of butter and eggs, are generally mixed by rubbing the shortening into the flour, then

the dry ingredients are mixed in and the whole made into a soft paste with beaten eggs and other liquid. When the proportion of shortening is very small, lard or dripping is often substituted for butter, but their flavour is unpleasant when used in large quantities. Lard and butter mixed make a good shortening for plain cakes. Baking powder is generally added to such mixtures; they are not made so moist as pound cake, and generally require rather quicker baking.

3. Sponge Cakes.—The chief ingredients of the best quality of sponge cake are eggs and sugar; flour must be used, but its weight is relatively small. Cheaper cakes have more flour, are moistened partly by milk, and baking powder is frequently used to help to make them light, but this is only from motives of economy. Strictly speaking, a sponge cake contains no butter, and for this reason can be given to invalids and children to whom butter after cooking would be indigestible. The usual method of mixing is to whisk the eggs and sugar till light and creamy—this is sometimes done over gentle heat; just before baking, the finely-sifted flour and the flavouring are carefully mixed in. If butter is used, it is first melted, and, when cool, but still liquid, added to the mixture. When baking, very moderate and yet uniform heat is required. Large sponge cakes are best baked in a brick oven, but smaller ones can be successfully managed in an iron one if the heat can be kept regular.

SOUFFLÉS.

SOUFFLÉS are either steamed or baked, a similar mixture being used in either case. Steamed soufflés are by far the most delicate, but also the most difficult to cook, and therefore often set aside for the easier method of baking.

One of the points upon which success chiefly depends is the thorough preparation beforehand of all utensils, as when the actual cooking begins there should be no waiting. First prepare the mould in which a soufflé is to be steamed. It should be fairly, but better not *quite*, new. If long in use, tin becomes discoloured, and eggs have a marvellous faculty for attracting to themselves both colour and flavour. A soufflé tin must be kept for one purpose only, and the same tin not used for both baking and steaming, or the steamed soufflés cannot be depended upon to turn out of the mould. For steaming purposes a plain "Charlotte" mould is best. It should be very thickly buttered, especially in the joining of the tin, the butter used being free from salt or water. The upright sides of the mould must be surrounded outside by a band of paper, kept in place by a string round the edge, the band to reach not more than one inch down from the top of the mould, and being tied on just under the edge. On no account must it be deep enough to touch the water in the pan, and it should stand above the edge as high as the top of the pan in which it is to be steamed.

The top is closed by a piece of paper laid over the band, to prevent condensed steam dropping from the lid on the soufflé. Both band and sheet of paper should be thickly buttered. The pan must have a tight-fitting lid, to prevent escape of steam. A white lined iron pan or a common iron pan is better than one of thinner material, which would allow any variation of heat to be too quickly felt. About one inch depth of water will be sufficient to steam the soufflé; the cooking being slow, the evaporation is not great. Too much water causes the mould to float, and any movement during cooking may cause the mixture to become close and heavy. The pan must be sufficiently large to allow a good margin round the mould to leave space for the steam to rise freely, for lifting the soufflé in and out easily and without shaking, also to allow it to stand somewhat to the side, so that the fire or gas is not directly under the tin mould, but at the other side of the pan. To make the lid fit still more tightly, a sheet of paper may be first laid over the pan.

The base of a soufflé is usually starch of some description, and the greatest care must be taken to have this thoroughly cooked and to keep the exact proportions of the materials mentioned in a reliable recipe. A large pan must be used, so that the whites of the eggs can be mixed in without unnecessary crushing and without having to turn it into a cold bowl. As soon as the mixture is ready, place it in the prepared mould, and cook at once. The eggs used should be of the freshest, and the whites must be beaten extremely stiff. Generally more whites than yolks are used. Any solid substance, such as fish, added to a soufflé, must be wholly or partially cooked before, except in the case of oysters, which do not require cooking; and all solid materials

must be cut into small pieces, so that the weight will not carry them to the bottom of the tin.

The mixing together of the various ingredients must be very thorough before the whites are added. These come last, and must be very carefully handled. The object is to carry into the heavier mixture a quantity of air, which expands in heat, and so makes the soufflé light. Great care must therefore be taken not to break down the froth and squeeze out the air, while at the same time mixing it thoroughly with the other substances. When the whites are mixed in the cooking must not be delayed; pour into the prepared tin and set in the pan of boiling water, with the lid tightly secured and the temperature reduced to simmering. Cooking must be continued very steadily and without opening the pan for fully half the time allowed. Then, if there is any question as to the condition, the lid may be very slightly and carefully lifted at one side, and the soufflé examined. If cooking too fast or too slow alter the position without jarring the pan or allowing an inrush of cold air, which at that stage might entirely spoil the soufflé. If the recipe has been tried before and you can rely on its accuracy and arrange not to open the pan till the cooking is completed your chance of success is much greater. When you expect the soufflé to be done, lift the lid and paper and touch the centre lightly with a teaspoon. If done it should have risen about half as high again as the raw mixture and feel slightly firm and dry in the middle. It should then be quickly and lightly lifted from the pan, the paper removed and the soufflé turned on to a hot plate as quickly as possible, turned again into its original position, set on the dish for the table and served instantly. If placed on a very hot dish and covered at once with a

hot cover, it will fall less quickly and can be served in better condition.

The time allowed for cooking a soufflé must be carefully watched. If cooked too slowly it will take longer—that is easily remedied; but if cooked too long or too quickly the eggs will curdle and the pudding crack and collapse. The sauces are usually served on the same dish, and if of a contrasting colour form the only garnish required. They must be poured round, never over the soufflé.

For baked soufflés the same rules must be followed as to thoroughness of mixing and cooking the separate parts. They are usually baked in the dish in which they are to be served, which is often slipped inside another of silver or earthenware before being placed on the table. Have a very hot oven and avoid causing a draught by too frequently opening the door. The band of paper round the dish must be thickly buttered, and should be fastened just **inside** the rim of the dish, not on the outside as in steaming or the butter will brown on the outside and make it quite unfit for the table. In some cases this band is dispensed with, if a rather large dish is used, which allows room for rising, the dry heat of the oven stiffens the edges more quickly and there is less risk of an overflow. In the case of baked soufflés the sauce, if any, is served in a sauce-boat.

OMELETS.

OMELETS may be considered as of two kinds—omelets and omelet soufflés. In the first whole eggs are used, in the second the whites are separated and added in froth. The omelet pan should be of fairly thick material with rather sloping and shallow sides, so that a knife can easily be slipped round; it must be kept exclusively for the one purpose, if taken for indiscriminate frying the omelets suffer. It should be kept clean by wiping while still hot with paper, and then a dry cloth, but should never be washed, as water renders it more liable to catch and burn.

The butter used for frying is incorporated during cooking with the eggs, it should therefore be unsalted, and must not be allowed to become over-heated, as the slightest browning of the butter will spoil both appearance and taste. Salt butter is more liable to burn, and also gives a rough and rather bitter taste, and for all sweet omelets, at any rate, the salt is in excess.

The eggs for the omelet require to be well beaten, but not over much, as if much froth is formed it separates from the liquid too easily and the mixture does not set sufficiently for folding. In the omelet soufflé, however, the yolks require little beating, but the whites can hardly be too stiff. They must be freshly whipped and used at once. The mixing of the yolks and seasonings with the whites is a point on which special care must be taken, for

if roughly handled the whites are broken and watery, while if not thoroughly blended they separate and cook in tough pieces, unpleasant to taste, and leaving the omelet unaffected by their lightness.

Both kinds should be quickly cooked, but the omelet soufflé requires rather less heat than the simple omelet. Have all the surroundings thoroughly hot, the frying pan not merely hot in the middle but all over and the butter hot without a suspicion of colouring. For the **omelet** bottom heat only is required, and should be applied evenly as well as quickly, as the omelet toughens if too long or unequally cooked. The omelet is folded either in two or three before removing from the pan so that the bottom folds over and encloses the still liquid top. The **omelet soufflé** is set with top heat after frying on the bottom, and when tinted brown and cooked a broad knife should be slipped under, right across the middle of the pan, and the omelet lifted on the knife so that the two sides fall and the top is on the outside. The dish for serving should be quite hot and ready the moment required. The doubled omelet soufflé must be laid on the hot dish, instantly covered, and not exposed to air in carrying from the kitchen.

Meat or fish added to omelets must be previously cooked—except oysters, which require no cooking. Any materials added must be finely minced to prevent their weight carrying them to the bottom of the pan, where they would scorch.

GELATINE AND JELLY.

THE essentials of good gelatine for cookery purposes are : (1) absolute tastelessness ; (2) uniformity of strength.

Inferior gelatine has frequently both the taste and odour of glue, and although these stronger and coarser kinds are useful and even preferable for certain manufactures, nothing could be more objectionable as food.

The gelatines prepared by different firms vary greatly in their power of stiffening liquids. It is wise, therefore, to decide on some one good preparation and work with that only ; in no other way can we insure uniform results.

The clearness of a jelly does not altogether decide the quality of the gelatine used, as inferior kinds often clear more easily than some of the finer kinds, but no gelatine can be considered good for cooking purposes unless it does clear perfectly.

There are two principal kinds of gelatine, pipe or ribbon, and leaf gelatine. The pipe—sometimes known as packet gelatine, from the fact that it is frequently sold in ounce packets, is of varying thickness, and always requires steeping and softening in cold liquid before it is dissolved. After softening it should be gradually heated, being stirred all the time, brought to boiling-point and actually boiled for a few seconds in order to prevent the slight stickiness often observable in jellies that have been hastily made. All pipe gelatine should be strained after

boiling, as there is always a risk that some undissolved morsel may still remain. Leaf gelatine is thin and transparent, and some kinds will dissolve quickly in hot liquid without any previous steeping. This is convenient and saves time, but some, especially those prepared by what is known as the "acid process," cause milk to curdle when boiled with it, and none are quite free from an unpleasant odour and taste, suggestive of too much gelatine having been used.

Isinglass has the same properties as gelatine, but is prepared from finer and more costly materials, and its average price is about double that of gelatine. It is principally used for sick-room cookery. Its stiffening power, its preparation and the method of using it, are practically the same as gelatine, but being of somewhat finer texture it softens more quickly.

Jellies.—The proportion of gelatine used for jellies varies according to the temperature of the weather, and to the purpose for which the jelly is required. Ordinary table jelly in average weather requires one ounce of gelatine to one quart of liquid. In calculating the liquid, care must be taken to include all liquids, such as lemon or other fruit juice, also any wine or spirit that may be added after the clearing process. Allowance, too, must be made for sugar or any substance which will become liquid during cooking. An ordinary sweet jelly should be just stiff enough to retain its shape when turned out of the mould, yet soft enough to shake and quiver with the movement of the dish or table, so that the brightness and clearness of the jelly is noticeable. It should also be soft enough to serve with very slight pressure of the spoon, if it has to be cut or bitten it is much too stiff. If, on the other hand, it is too soft, it will collapse or melt in the ordinary

temperature of a dining-room. In hot weather allow $1\frac{1}{4}$ oz. of gelatine to 1 qt. liquid, but in cold weather not less than 1 oz.

Jellies that are intended to have solid substances, as fruit, etc., set in them must be considerably stiffer than plain jellies, or the weight of the fruit will not be supported. For these use $1\frac{1}{2}$ oz. to 2 oz. gelatine to 1 qt. liquid. These same proportions are also to be used for lining moulds, often garnished with small solid substances before being filled in the centre with other materials. Aspic jelly requires from 2 to 3 oz. gelatine to each quart of liquid. It is so generally used for decorating, moulding, and lining that it is always made much stiffer than sweet jelly. The weight of the substances to be set in it, and the weather, must decide the quantity within the above limits.

CLEARING OF JELLIES.

SOME jellies are not intended or required to be cleared. In these cases it must be remembered that though not transparent they must be free from any solid substance, and this is only to be ensured by careful straining through a fine material such as a tammy or hair cloth. In all jelly making the first essential is absolute cleanliness of all utensils and materials used. The jelly pan should be of a material capable of being perfectly polished, brass by preference, and it should be polished directly before, as well as after, using.

Egg shells should be well scrubbed before the eggs are broken, lemon rinds carefully cleaned, and no speck of any kind of fat or starch allowed to come in contact with either materials or utensils. Wire whisks need special attention—much more than they often get—if they are to be in a fit condition for whisking jellies. Any failure in perfect cleanliness will result in cloudy jelly. Cleanliness alone, however, will not clear it. For this albumen is the principal agent, and is provided in the case of sweet jelly by white of egg—two whites being sufficient to clear one quart of jelly. Savoury jellies are also cleared with white of eggs in the same proportion, but have frequently the additional help of raw meat, which contains a large proportion of albumen, and yields also a certain flavour. The albumen must be thoroughly blended with the other ingredients by means of vigorous whisking till the jelly

reaches boiling-point. The whisking must then be discontinued, and the contents of the pan should boil briskly for three or four minutes so as to thoroughly harden the albumen, during which boiling it gathers together the impurities in the jelly. It must be allowed to stand, the pan being covered to keep in the heat, till the scum cracks and shows a clear liquid. The next process is the straining. The entire contents of the pan must be poured into a jelly bag suspended where it will not get chilled or shaken. The egg shells settling at the bottom of the bag form a filter through which the liquid passes and where it leaves behind all the hardened albumen and the substances contained in it. The first part of the liquid which passes through the bag will not be clear, but as soon as it runs clear the first liquid should be carefully returned to the bag without disturbing the other contents ; in this way all the jelly will strain perfectly. In order to avoid waste of the jelly, heat the bag with boiling water just before using it, have the bag set in a warm place out of draughts, and after pouring in the contents of the pan cover the bag to keep it as warm as possible.

The ordinary felt jelly bag as supplied by shops is not altogether a satisfactory article. It is somewhat too close while new, and after a few scaldings and washings frequently keeps back as much jelly as it lets through. It is better to make a bag of flannel not too closely woven, so as to allow for shrinking. A rather closely woven tea cloth is sometimes used for this purpose, but it is liable to be troublesome owing to its shapelessness. Whatever is the material used it should be spotlessly clean, and flannel or felt need the utmost care to prevent any smell or taste of soap being detected.

Wines and spirits when added to jelly should be added

after—not before—the clearing. Their flavour is weakened and wasted by boiling, and they require no clearing but simply straining through a clean cloth into the finished jelly. But it must always be remembered that liquids added after the clearing must be included in the calculation that decides what proportion of gelatine is to be used for any given purpose.

CREAMS.

THE chief important points in the making of creams are:—

1. Accuracy in measuring ingredients.
2. The temperature of the different parts at the time of mixing.
3. Perfect mixing of the various ingredients before moulding.
4. The consistency of the mixture at the time of being moulded.

For creams the proportion of gelatine varies, there being so much difference in the materials used. Whipped cream, if mixed with other cold materials, has itself some degree of stiffening power, while in those creams having custard for a base the stiffening is still more marked. Syrup also and fruit pulp require less gelatine than thinner fluids, such as milk or water, but in all creams, as in jellies, allowance must be made for varying temperature of the weather. Creams should not be very stiff, only just stiff enough to stand steadily, and should cut easily without pressure. To insure this, extreme accuracy is necessary and weighing ingredients is essential. A common fault is to have creams too sweet. The materials used are generally so rich that if much sugar is added the result is cloying. In those creams that have custard for the foundation care must be taken that the custard is quite cold before the whipped cream is added. If warm, it reduces the cream to liquid and destroys its soft spongi-

ness, while if hot it may cause the cream to curdle. The gelatine too must be allowed to cool considerably after dissolving before being added to either custard or cream. It is not always stated in recipes that cream is to be whipped, but there are very few cases in which it is not better whipped than plain. Care must, however, be taken not to over- whip it, as that will result in its separating into two parts, neither of which will improve the dish. It will generally be found best to pour the thinner materials on to the whipped cream. Being so light and yet solid it does not easily mix with more liquid substances, and yet perfect mixing is essential. It may be taken as a rule that the thinner materials should be very gradually poured on to the more solid and the whole worked smooth by degrees. This mixing must be done before the gelatine begins to solidify or it will be lumpy. After thorough mixing the whole should be stirred from time to time until the first sign of stiffening, when it is ready for moulding. In cases where solid substances, as fruit, etc., are incorporated in the cream the solidifying must be more advanced before moulding, the pieces must be suspended and upheld by the stiffness of the mixture or they will sink in the mould, and on turning out will be found in a cake on the top. For the same reason all fruit should be cut in very small pieces, or its weight will cause it to fall.

Moulds for jellies and creams require care both in their selection and preparation. Mixtures containing acids or fruit juices should be moulded in delf. Metal moulds frequently cause discoloration and sometimes impart a disagreeable flavour to such substances. As delf moulds are of unequal thickness, it is impossible to turn out the contents in perfect condition by applying external heat to

the mould. The best preparation for delf moulds is to brush them lightly but thoroughly out with oil. If any drops remain in the cuttings, rinse with cold water and turn upside down to drain. This preparation will cause the cream to slide out easily without roughening the surface. If a metal mould is used no preparation is needed for a mixture containing gelatine. The metal being thin and of even thickness, a momentary plunge into hot water is all that is required to loosen the mixture, and it may be turned out without trouble. The water for this purpose must be perfectly clean and as hot as the hand can comfortably bear. The mould must be plunged over-head for an instant only. This will generally be found sufficient to loosen the contents; but, if the mould has been standing on ice, a second plunge may be needed. In every case the operation must be quickly performed—simply a plunge and out again. The mould and mixture should be carefully wiped dry from all trace of water before attempting to turn out.

ICES.

These may be classed into three divisions :—

1. Those with a base of sugar and water-syrup.
2. „ „ „ plain cream.
3. „ „ „ custard made of eggs and milk
or eggs and cream.

The first are known as water ices, the second and third include all varieties of cream ices.

Water ices may be made from stock-syrup of 32° to which is added the special fruit juice, flavouring and colouring required, which should reduce the strength of the syrup to 24°. Or the fruit juice may be extracted from fresh fruit at the time of making the ices, the sugar added and the whole boiled to the right degree, *viz.*, 24°.

If too much sugar is used, *i.e.*, if the saccharometer registers over 24°, it must be reduced with fruit juice or water, or it will be difficult to freeze and too rich when finished, while if it registers below 24° it must be raised to that point by the addition of strong syrup or sugar and longer boiling, otherwise it will freeze hard and poor. Extreme accuracy on this point is essential to insure uniform success.

Frequently whipped whites of eggs are added to these ices just before freezing, and greatly increase their mellow-ness and richness.

Plain cream ice (*crème glacée*) is made from thick

cream, to which is added sugar, flavour and colour, the sugar being dissolved in the flavouring. This flavouring may be used in the form of fruit syrup, jam, or fresh fruit, and in the case of oranges and lemons is extracted from the zest and juice. If either jam or fresh fruit is used it must be tammied or sieved to perfectly remove seeds and skins. An immense variety of flavours may be used for these ices, which are the simplest and quickest made of all.

The third class of ices is, perhaps, the most popular, as it is certainly the most troublesome. The base of rich custard must be made with great care to prevent any risk of the eggs curdling. The sugar must be perfectly dissolved and the amount calculated with due regard to the acidity of the other ingredients. The materials must be smoothly blended and perfectly cold before putting them into the freezer.

When a good recipe has been secured, adhere with great strictness to the proportions given, and if different ingredients are used from time to time let the balance of the different materials be strictly maintained.

Any of these ices may be dished in rough masses, handed or served, or they may be moulded, tinted according to the shape or flavour, and turned out in large shapes to serve from, or in small ones for each person.

Freezers are of many kinds, varying from the home-made arrangement of milk can and pail to the most costly and elaborate machinery. Those known generally as American freezers are most used, because, though the work of freezing is more tiring and longer than with some others, the cream when once frozen can be kept in a condition for serving for an indefinite time. Others which are much more easily managed and quicker in their action

require a second and somewhat elaborate machine if the ice is not to be served at once.

The principle is the same in all cases. A metal receiver with a close-fitting lid holds the mixture to be frozen. This is set inside a larger vessel, generally of wood, which is supplied with a socket into which a corresponding ball on the receiver fits, and is thus held in position. The space between the inner and outer vessel is packed with ice and salt (freezing mixture). An arrangement of cogs permits the inner vessel to rotate, while a fixed knife, generally of wood, scrapes the frozen mixture from the sides of the receiver, and allows the more liquid parts to reach the colder edges.

When the cream is to be moulded a second process is inevitable. After being frozen in the ice machine the cream must be tightly packed in a mould with a tight-fitting lid, carefully protected against the entrance of liquid by having the edges covered with fat. It is then buried in a freezing mixture of ice and salt for three or four hours. Or it may be packed tightly in a mould and set in a charged ice cave for the same or a rather longer time. In the latter case the seal of fat is not required, as the salt and ice do not come into contact with the mould and there is no risk of the salt entering.

Ice caves are metal boxes suspended inside a second larger and stronger box, the space between the two being filled with ice and salt so that the inner box is entirely surrounded with the freezing mixture. When the door is closed, the temperature can be maintained below freezing-point for many hours by occasionally withdrawing some of the liquid and adding more ice and salt. The ices are thus ready for serving at any moment.

Such a machine is to be desired where ices are

constantly used, or in large quantities, but in addition to the initial cost, the amount of salt and ice required to keep them charged for many hours is very considerable.

The ice should be finely chopped to allow of it lying closely round the vessel containing the mixture and so keeping the temperature low and even, a condition not assured where the ice is in blocks of any size. A large needle or fine skewer is the best for breaking up the ice where there is no machine crusher used, and if tapped with a light wooden mallet will give no trouble. When crushed, the ice must be mixed with about one-third of its own weight of rough rock salt and then packed closely round the receiver in the freezing tub.

The time required to freeze a cream varies very much, being greatly influenced by the temperature of the atmosphere, as well as by the kind of machine. A machine which exposes a large surface of the cream to contact with the freezing mixture will always freeze more quickly than one where the cream is deep and thick, and of course a small quantity of cream will freeze much more quickly than a large amount. Therefore, never attempt to use any machine for a larger quantity than it is certified to contain. Everything required in the process should be ice cold before being brought together, and the work should be carried through in the coldest possible place. But even more important is accuracy in the proportion of materials, both in the mixture to be frozen and in the freezing mixture.

JAM AND FRUIT JELLY.

MOST fruits are not only fermentable, but contain in themselves substances that can cause fermentation. The air in every place abounds with germs that cause decay, and all processes of preserving fruit are directed against the activity of these agents. What are known as bottled fruits are heated to prevent fermentation and then covered from the access of air. Though sugar in small quantities helps forward fermentation, a strong solution hinders it altogether, therefore sugar is much used in the preservation of fruit.

By jam is generally meant fruit preserved by simply boiling with sugar, the fruit being more or less broken up in the process. When it is desired to keep it perfectly whole a syrup must first be made; this when boiling is poured over the fruit and left to cool; the syrup is then drawn off, again boiled and again poured over; this is repeated several times according to the kind of fruit in hand. The last process is the careful boiling up of the whole. Fruits preserved in this latter way may be removed from the syrup, dried, and crystallised in a syrup of about 35° by the saccharometer, but as the drying ought to be done at a fixed temperature and crystallisation needs special apparatus, these processes are rarely attempted at home as small quantities cannot be considered worth the outlay required. On the other hand, home-made jams are often a great economy, especially where and when fruit is

plentiful ; and even in cases where it costs more to make than to buy many people prefer to have home-made jam.

The fruit for jam making should be ripe, but not over-ripe or crushed, and it should be gathered in dry weather. The best kind of sugar is the most economical, as the common kinds make much more scum. Jars need careful overlooking before use, they must be free from cracks, clean and dry. Bright brass, aluminium or an enamel pan should be used, iron or tin-lined pans will discolour some fruits. A clear fire is needed ; bright, but not fierce. If an open coal fire is used it is a necessary precaution to have all loose soot swept away from the back of the fireplace, and from the chimney as far as can be reached, before beginning jam making. The pan must not be set on a quite flat surface of fire or the jam will be likely to burn, strong flames up the side of the pan must be avoided for the same reason.

The proportion of sugar may vary somewhat according to the fruit used—a common rule is equal weights of each, but this is not always necessary. Too little sugar will result in fermenting jam, too much will cause candying in the jars. The jam maker must steer between these two points, and it must be remembered that too long continued boiling may boil away so much liquid that the jam candies even though proportions were right at the beginning. It is important to remember also that it is the fruit, not the sugar, that requires cooking, and there are cases where it is wise to boil and skin the fruit before adding any sugar ; this is the invariable rule with jellies.

There are three chief methods of boiling jam : (1) boiling the fruit before adding sugar ; (2) making a syrup and then boiling the fruit in it ; (3) putting fruit and sugar in the pan together. Each method is good for

some purposes ; in all cases steady boiling is required. Jars, after filling, may be covered while hot with paper brushed over with flour paste or other substances, or when cold with gummed paper or any material that will keep out the air. The old-fashioned plan of first a thin paper soaked in brandy laid on the jam, then a cover for the jar, or writing paper brushed over with white of egg, is good, but scarcely necessary. If jam is to keep well it must be stored in a cool, dry, airy place.

Fruit Jellies.—The materials for jelly should be chosen in the same way as for jam, but a few points need special emphasis. There is in fruit a naturally gelatinous substance known as pectin, some fruits contain more than others, all fruits contain their greatest quantity at the time of maturity, and if left hanging on the trees this substance diminishes. As the “setting” of jelly depends largely upon the quantity of pectin, it is essential fruits should be gathered at the point of maturity—green fruits just before they begin to colour. Dampness or watery fruit dilutes the jelly-making substance, therefore the rule about gathering in dry and if possible in sunny weather. Cane sugar is desirable for all jam, but it is necessary for jellies. Beet sugar, though good for many purposes, contains more water than cane does, and refiners say it is impossible to do away with this difference. After sugar is added jelly must be boiled quickly, and, as soon as it sets, be taken from the fire at once.

BONING.

FOR boning, a short-bladed, sharp-pointed knife is needed, and if the blade be sharpened on both edges it is an advantage. A knowledge of the structure of the various birds, joints, etc., usually boned is essential, and can generally be obtained by an intelligent examination before beginning operations. The only possible general rule for boning is "keep the knife on the bone". If this rule is kept in mind and it is understood that boning means removing the bone, not tearing the meat, practice is all that is needed.

In boning very small birds, such as quails, etc., except for beginning and finishing, the knife is hardly needed, the fingers being much better. By inserting the thumbs between the flesh and the bone, the flesh can be pushed off with very little effort, and will be much less torn than when a knife is used. Legs and wings of small birds are often left whole and trussed as usual.

Wild birds and fowls are usually boned whole, *i.e.*, without dividing the skin. Begin by cutting off the legs and wings where the flesh begins to be thick and worth saving, usually removing the first and half of the second bone. Cut off the head about half way between the head and body, slit down the piece of skin and remove the neck at the joint of the back. Then take out the neck bone (merry thought), loosen the flesh from about the bones till the joint of the wing is reached, then twist the wing and dislocate the joint. Insert the point of the knife and

separate the wing from the body. Push down the flesh and skin gradually, scraping quite clean and leaving the bony carcass intact. When the joint of the leg is reached, treat it in the same way as the wing, then the whole of the flesh can be scraped and drawn off the carcass, the tail being removed. Turn the flesh inside out and scrape the bones clear from the flesh of the legs and wings, draw this inside, and when it is turned right side out it is ready for stuffing.

Birds of all kinds should be undrawn when boned and the skin as unbroken as possible. In boning the back the skin will be found so near the bone that care will be needed to avoid cutting it. The knife must be carefully prevented from piercing the interior as the process will be rendered unnecessarily unpleasant if that happens.

Turkeys are usually boned by cutting through the skin on the back from the tail to the head and lifting the flesh with the knife from either side till the joints of the legs and wings are reached. The knife must be slipped sharply through the joints, leaving the legs and wings attached to the flesh. The whole of the body bones can be scraped and removed in one piece and the flesh laid even and flat. The legs and wings of turkeys are usually left whole, and when the forcemeat filling is in place the edges of the skin are drawn together and stitched, and the bird is trussed as for roasting or boiling.

Small birds and fowls are stuffed with various meats minced or chopped, the skin is stitched and they are rolled in a buttered cloth and boiled; sometimes without tying in a cloth they are braised, and then pressed under weights till quite cold. Occasionally small birds, as pigeons, etc., are braised and served hot. Turkeys are usually stuffed so as to recover their shape as far as


possible. For this purpose a whole tongue is often used, this being not unlike, in outline, the breast bone, which it replaces. The tongue is surrounded with sausage and forcemeat to the capacity of the skin, and the edges are drawn together with needle and thread.

While in boning poultry and meat the great object is to get the bone out, in boning fish it is usually to take the flesh off. The process is known as filleting and is generally done by the fishmonger, but when this is not the case the single rule for boning must be strictly adhered to—keep the knife on the bone—lifting the flesh with the left hand while the knife slips in between the bone and the flesh.

Flat fish are divided down the middle of each side well into the bone, and the boning is begun at either side of the incision. Round fish are cut down the back, the flesh is laid open from one side and the bone is removed from the other.

Occasionally round fish are really boned, the whole fish minus the bones being returned to its proper shape, as in anchovies, sardines, herrings, haddock, etc., in this case the fish would be split down the front, not the back, and stitched together after boning.

Joints of meat are usually prepared by the salesman, but are not difficult, merely requiring time, patience and care, so as not to cut or tear the flesh. The cavity is generally filled with forcemeat. Sometimes only portions of the bone are removed, rendering the joint more shapely or convenient to carve, or allowing the insertion of forcemeat for purposes of seasoning.



TRUSSING POULTRY AND GAME.

TRUSSING is the preparation of poultry and game for cooking, and is frequently done by the poulterer when birds are bought, but as a great deal never passes through a poulterer's hands, it is important that a cook should perfectly understand the operation on which to a large extent the appearance of the dish and comfort of the carver depends.

Plucking or removing the feathers is the first stage. The longer the process is deferred after killing the easier it becomes, quite fresh birds being difficult to pluck without tearing the skin. Take hold of a pinch of feathers between the finger and thumb and give a sharp pull, always in the downward direction, or as they lie on the skin. Begin with the soft feathers under the wings and over the breast, then the back, and two or three inches up the neck. Take the large feathers from the wings and tail one or two at a time and pull them out thoroughly, taking care not to leave any quills behind. If quills are left in the flesh, which often happens with large birds, take hold of them with the edge of a small knife and the thumb and they will come out.

Singeing.—After plucking, a quantity of down and sometimes hair will be seen on the skin ; this is removed by passing the bird over a flame of gas or burning paper close enough to singe the down. Then wipe the bird over with a cloth.

Drawing.—When the bird is singed proceed to draw it or empty the body. Cut off the head about two or three inches from the body and split the skin on the back of the neck for those two or three inches, or until the backbone is reached. Loosen the skin and remove the piece of neck where it joins the backbone, and you will have left a flap of loose skin which will cover the aperture. Take out the crop, which will be found in the front of the neck. Insert one or two fingers at the triangular hole at the neck, and keeping them close to the inside of the bones of the body carefully break and loosen all the threads and integuments which attach the internal organs to the frame. Turn the bird and at the tail make a small cut **across** just between the tail and the vent. Keep this incision as small as possible or the bird will be unsightly and torn. Insert the fingers at this cut and loosen the remainder of the inside in the same way as from the neck, taking great care not to tear or break anything inside.

When all is free, with two fingers take hold of the gizzard, the large hard portion of the interior, and carefully draw out the whole contents of the body. If this is roughly or carelessly done the gall bladder may break and an unpleasant bitter taste will be imparted to the flesh. When quite empty wipe out the fowl with a clean damp cloth.

Trussing.—Break the bone of the leg half way between the foot and the next joint. Twist the foot round till the skin gives way at the break; this will expose the white glittering sinews which are to be taken up one at a time with a skewer and drawn out of the body. To draw the sinews successfully the legs and feet of the bird must be quite perfect. If the claws have been cut the sinews are

liable to slip out from the feet before leaving the body. In that case a morsel of paper or cloth must be wrapped round each sinew and then twisted round the skewer when it will be found possible to pull them out. There is one sinew which must be left, for if sufficient strength is exercised to draw it out the flesh of the leg will be torn. All but this one, however, can be drawn and the leg in this way rendered much more tender ; these sinews, if left in, harden during cooking into stiff bone-like substances difficult to separate from the flesh. When all are removed cut off the foot at the break in the leg.

This drawing of the sinews is not done in the case of small birds where they are so fine as to be unobjectionable, but in all from the size of a pigeon upwards it is essential. In the case of boned fowls the sinews may be picked out after the bone is removed.

In the case of boiled fowls the short piece of broken bone must be taken off at the joint. For roasting, this piece is left on till it is ready for serving as it prevents the skin shrinking up the leg. If the backbone is very bent break it with a sharp blow that it may stand flat and steady. Sprinkle the bird inside and out with salt and pepper. When it is to be stuffed place the forcemeat inside the neck of fowls, turkeys, etc., and inside the body of ducks and geese, drawing the flap of skin at the neck over to the back and securing it with a stitch or a small skewer.

Lay the bird with the breast upwards and twist the wings so that the points are laid across the back.

Roast Fowls, etc.—Press the legs firmly downwards and against the sides of the body, run a skewer between the folded bones of the wings, then through the point of the thigh, pass it through the body and out at the corre-

sponding points at the other side. Tie the ends of the legs and the tail together firmly, or pass a skewer through the thick sinew at the back of the leg close to the joint, then through the thin shell-like bone of the body and out at the other side. Either method is correct, the latter often keeps the bird a better shape.

Boiled Fowls.—After drawing the sinews, cut off the ends of broken bone. Loosen the skin from the legs and body that the legs may be pushed up inside the skin of the body. Tie the legs to the tail underneath the skin, draw the skin smoothly over and stitch neatly. Truss as for roasting, but use a trussing needle and string instead of a skewer so that the fowl may be folded in a buttered cloth.

Ducks, Geese, etc.—These do not usually have the sinews removed as the feet are left on after being well scalded and scraped. There is, however, no reason why the sinews should not be drawn, and it would probably render the flesh much more tender and palatable, but it is not customary. The wings are folded as for fowls, the foot and leg are twisted round towards the body so that the foot lies on the back of the bird and the leg is kept in position by a skewer used as for fowls.

Game, either for roasting or boiling, is trussed as roast fowl with a few small points of difference. The head is sometimes left on, drawn to the side and fastened with the same skewer as the wings. In pheasants the tail feathers are sometimes replaced after cooking, but it is a fashion that is quickly dying out. Quails, snipe, etc., are generally trussed on their own long bills and when this is done the greatest care must be taken to thoroughly cleanse the bill inside and out. Very small birds have the point of the wing removed with the feathers, it being

too small and bony to pluck, and in this case the broken end of the wing is caught on the skewer.

All poultry and game for roasting should be dredged with flour before and after trussing, to dry it perfectly, as otherwise it does not crisp and brown so well.

Unless poultry is to be boiled or stewed it should never be washed or wet in any way, as this renders the flesh sodden and the skin soft. Good wiping with clean cloths should be quite sufficient.

With the exception of ducks and geese, all poultry and game require rather a large addition of fat during roasting, as the flesh is dry. Fat is applied either by basting with butter or dripping, by barding with fat bacon, or by larding before and basting during cooking.

The time required varies, as in other meat, according to age, size, etc. Chickens will cook in from twenty to thirty minutes; fowls take from thirty to sixty minutes when young and tender, the only condition in which they are fit to roast; turkeys take from one to two hours and even more if exceptionally large. Game takes longer in proportion to its size than poultry, and all birds require better and more cooking than beef or mutton.

GLOSSARY OF COMMON TERMS USED IN COOKERY.

ALLEMANDE. A sauce similar to Velouté with the addition of cream and yolks of eggs.

AU FOUR. Baked.

AU GRATIN. Food covered with sauce and bread crumbs, baked and served on the same dish.

BARDING. Covering game and other dry meats with slices of bacon for the same purpose as larding—to add flavour and moisture.

BECHAMEL. A sauce made from milk in which has been infused onions, peppercorns, mace and bayleaf.

BEIGNETS. A batter which may be fried, or used to coat other substances before frying.

BISQUE. A fish soup usually prepared from shell-fish.

BLANCHING. A process by which colour is improved and over-strong flavour removed. To withdraw colour or whiten (sweetbreads, fish, etc.) the article is laid in slightly warm water, sometimes salted; to brighten and intensify green (parsley, etc.) it is plunged into fast boiling water for a few seconds.

BOUILLON. A well-flavoured meat broth, unthickened.

BRAISE. To stew on a bed of vegetables in a closely covered vessel, the lid being removed before the cooking is finished, in order to crisp and brown the surface.

CONSOMMÉ. A clear thin soup made from clarified stock, which, though complete in itself, is garnished with solid substances, from which, or from their method of preparation, a special name is given to the soup.

CROQUETTES. Meat, fish, poultry, etc., finely minced and well seasoned, mixed with panard or sauce. It is moulded into a variety of shapes and finished by being egged and crumbed,

dipped in batter or enclosed in a case of pastry or potato and fried.

ENTRÉE. A made dish served in the first course at dinner following the fish and preceding the Removes.

ESPAGNOLE. A rich brown sauce made from glaze, stock, vegetables, etc., forming the base of numberless brown sauces, as Velouté does of white.

FRICASSÉE. A stew of white-meat served with sauce, generally enriched with eggs.

FUMÉ. Smoked.

GLACÉ. Iced—frozen.

GLAZE. Stock reduced by long boiling to the consistency of stiff jelly. It is liquefied by heat and used to brush over or "glaze" cold meats, such as tongue, pressed beef, etc., and also to enrich and colour gravies, stews, etc.

KROMESKY. A fine mince of meat or fish, sometimes whole oysters, mixed with rich thick sauce. Small portions are placed on very thin slices of cooked fat bacon, rolled, dipped in batter and fried.

LARDING. This process is generally applied to those meats which in their nature are somewhat dry and lacking fat, or which, from the method of cutting, are deprived of their proper portion of natural fat. Its object is to add moisture and improve flavour. The substance used is bacon, though the term larding is also applied to the insertion of vegetables, pickles, etc., for purposes of flavouring alone.

Bacon, for larding, should be carefully selected; it should be firm and dry, and cured without saltpetre, that giving a somewhat red appearance to the surrounding portions of meat. The fat only of the bacon is used, and it must be cut in strips parallel with the rind. When cut through the depth of the fat it is liable to break in irregular lengths owing to the grain. That lying close under the rind is the firmest and best, and its firmness may sometimes be increased by cutting some time before it is required and letting it cool and harden. The strips, which are called lardoons or lardons, must be of exactly uniform thickness, and of size proportionate to the article larded. All the four sides of the strip must be the same width, the ends being square.

Larding needles are sold in sets of different sizes for different

purposes. They are tubes of steel, one end being closed and tapered to a sharp point, the other opened and split down in four places for from one to two inches. The strip of bacon is inserted in the open end, and must be encased for about half its length to prevent the shrinking of the meat after the needle has passed through drawing it out of the tube. As a rule, both ends of the lardoon stand out of the meat, but sometimes it is drawn through so as to leave only one end in sight. The needle is inserted—not too deeply—generally across the grain, and the size of the stitch depends on the size of the article and the number of lardoons to be used. The ends which stand up should be trimmed with scissors to an even length, care being taken that the stitches are evenly placed and at equal distances apart.

MARMITE. Literally “a pot”. A small pot with a lid, usually earthenware, in which is served one portion of soup.

MASK. To cover with a liquid which will solidify, such as sauce stiffened with gelatine or jelly. These are used when just on the point of setting.

MAYONNAISE. An emulsion of raw yolks of eggs and oil, which with various seasonings and flavourers forms a thick cold sauce, served with salads, fish, etc., and making the base of many others, as Tartare, Remoulade, Ravigote froide, etc.

PANARD, PANADE or PANADA. Boiling water, butter and salt, into which flour is stirred and cooked. It forms an ingredient in most farces or forcemeats, and is the base of certain mixtures of the same class as beignets. The name is applied to bread soaked and used for forcemeats, also to meat and bread pounded and stewed for infants' and invalids' food.

PARBOIL. A process often combined with blanching and for the purpose of removing colour or rank flavour. The substance is placed in cold water for a longer or shorter time, then brought to the boil. After a few seconds' scalding it is plunged into cold water, rinsed, trimmed, or cleaned, when it is ready to use for cooking.

POTAGE. A general term meaning “soup” applied to almost any kind except clear soup.

PURÉE. A soup thickened with the substance from which it derives its special name, which is generally passed into it through a sieve or tammy. Also any substance, fish, meat, vegetables

or fruit, passed through a sieve before serving in the form of a pulp.

QUENELLES. Any kind of fish, meat, poultry, etc., finely scraped, pounded and sieved, mixed with panard, eggs, etc., and shaped between spoons or from a tube. They are generally poached in stock or water, sometimes served as an entrée, but more frequently as a garnish in soups or entrées.

RAGOUT. A savoury stew, very rich and highly seasoned.

RECHAUFFÉ. Re-heated.

ROUX. Equal parts of flour and fat blended together over heat and cooked with or without browning according to the purpose for which it is intended. It is frequently made at the time it is required for thickening sauces and soups, but may be prepared in bulk and kept ready for use.

SAUTÉ. To toss over the fire with fat in a vessel called a sauté pan, which is like a very shallow stew pan, or a frying pan with straight edges.

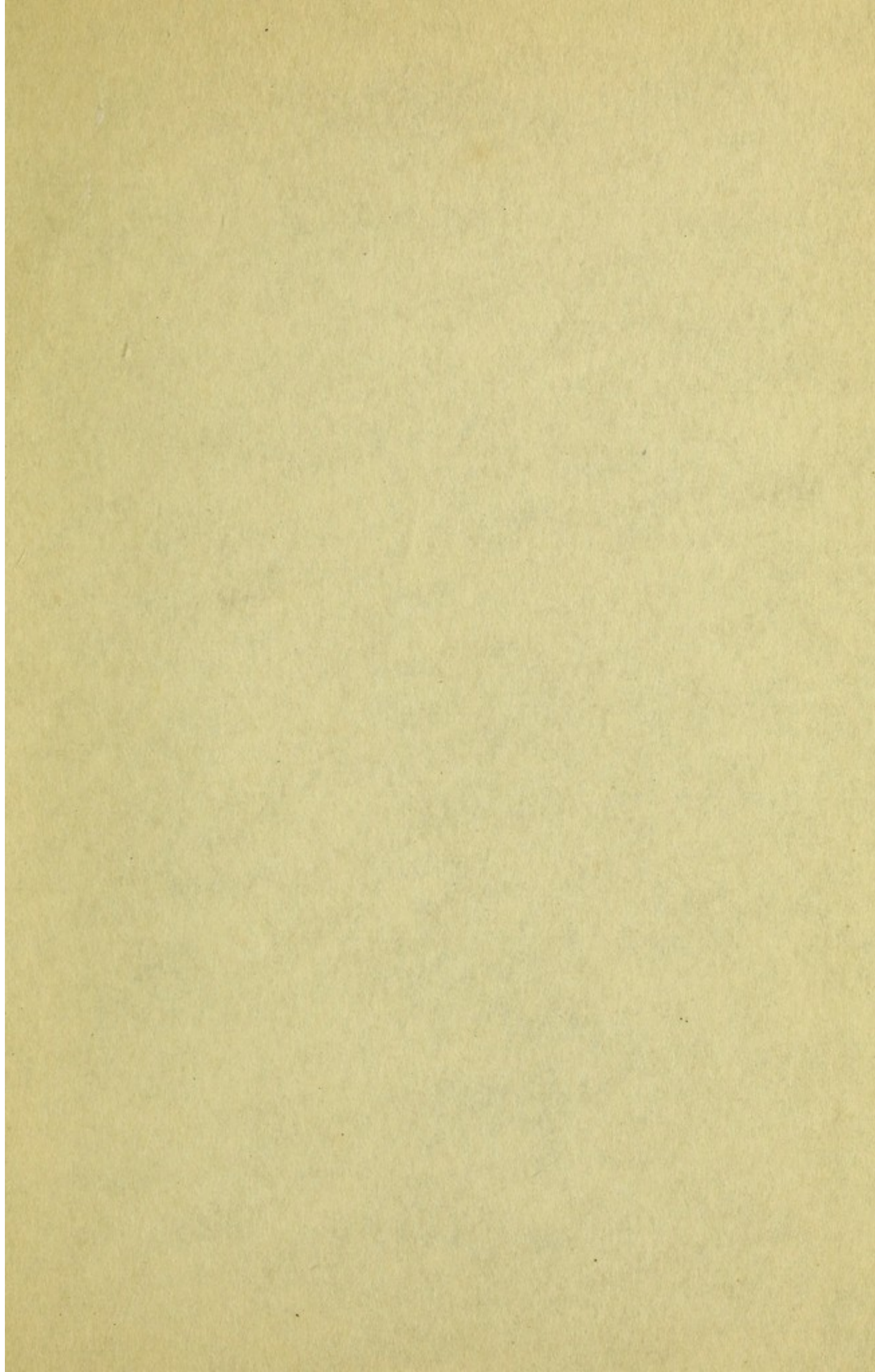
SHRED. To scrape or slice into thin transparent shavings.

TAMMY or TAMIS. A strong woven woollen material used for rubbing soups and sauces through to ensure perfect smoothness and freedom from lumps. Also to pass through a tammy cloth.

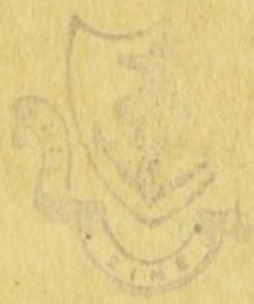
TRUSS. To fix by means of skewers or string in a position convenient for cooking or serving, generally applied to poultry or game.

VELOUTÉ. A smooth, rich white sauce made from well seasoned white stock; the base of all rich, savoury white sauces.





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