

The family manual and servants' guide : with new and improved receipts, arranged and adapted to the duties of all classes of servants: housekeeper, cook ..., forming a complete system of domestic management from the most recent and authentic sources ... [etc.].

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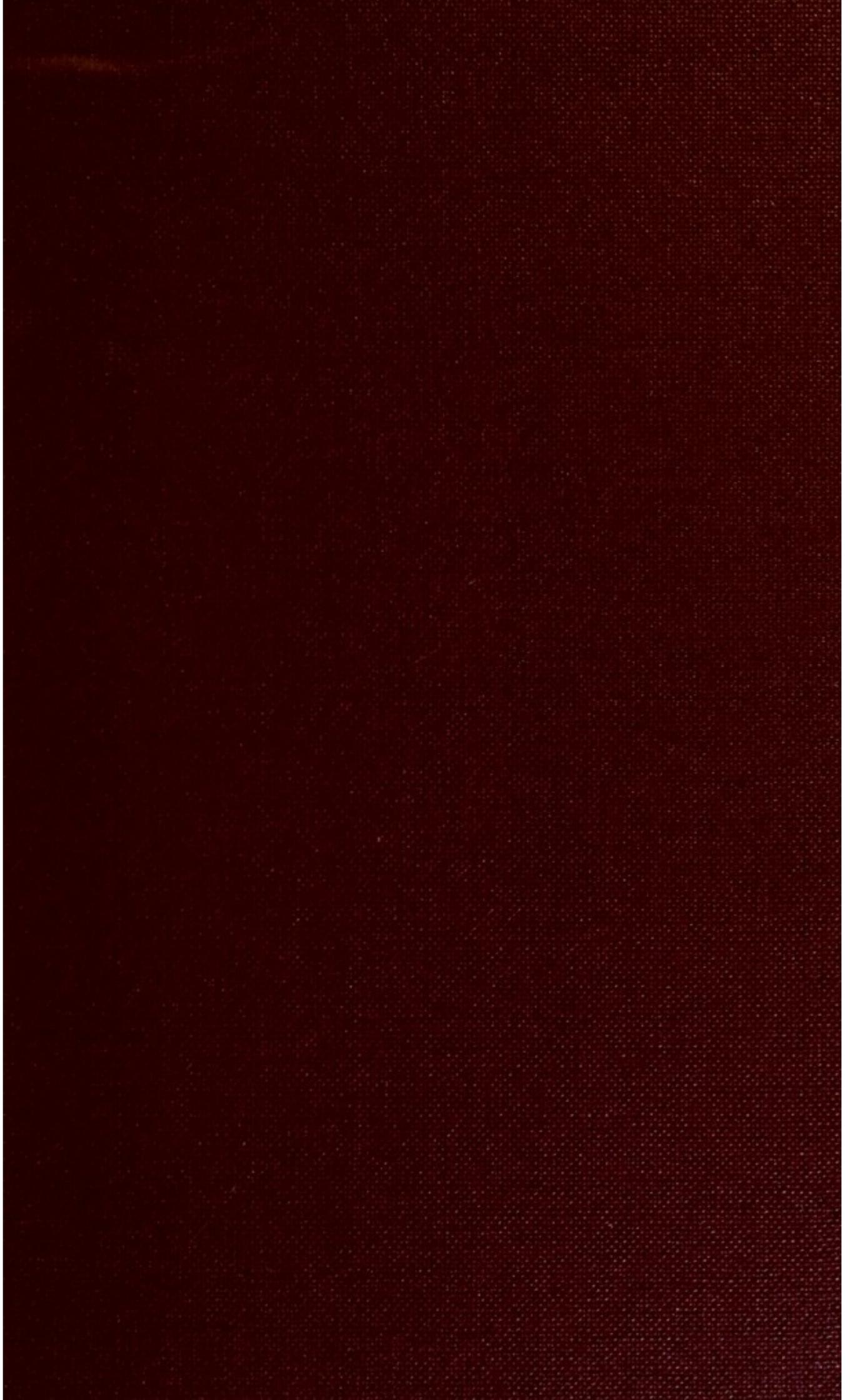
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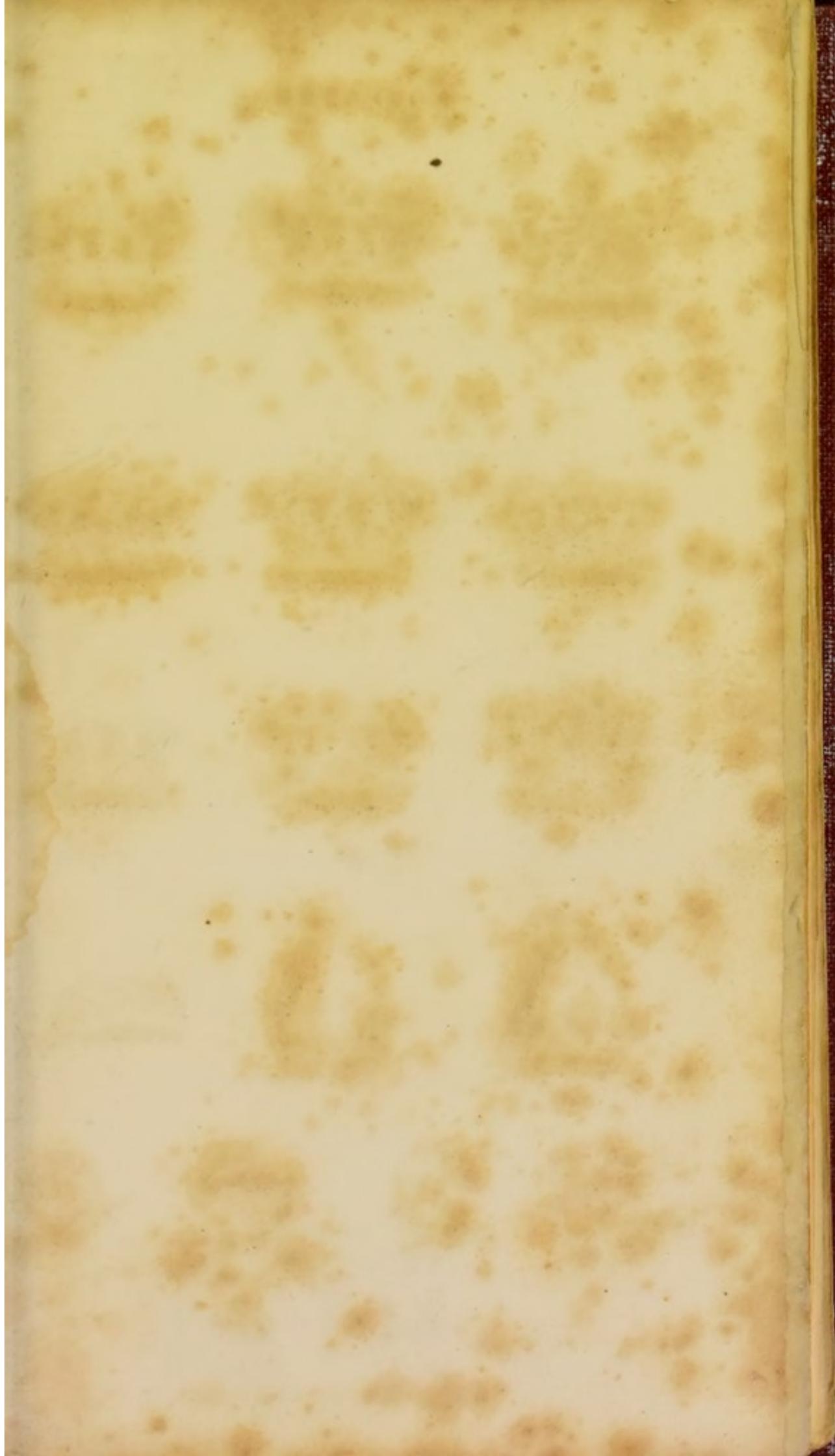
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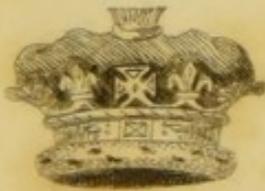
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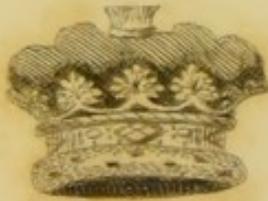
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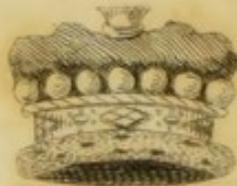
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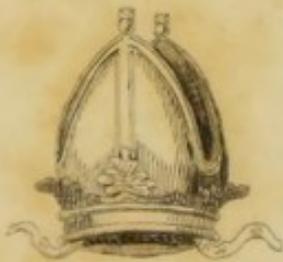
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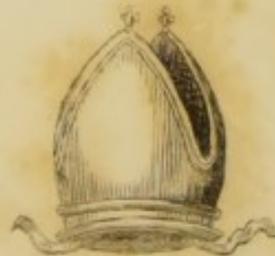
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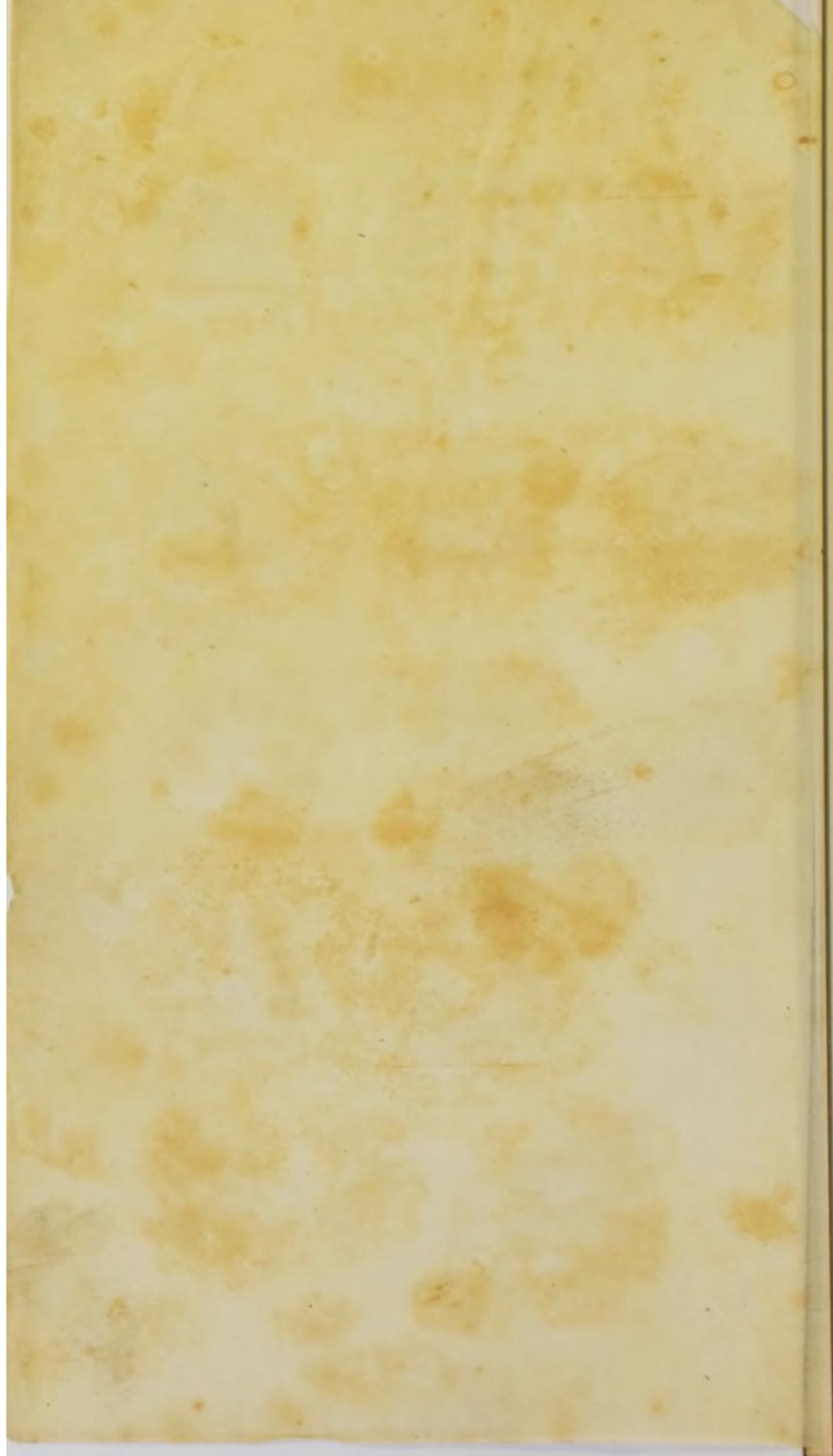
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For the Servant's Guide.

Raffa Scaly.



THE
FAMILY MANUAL
AND
SERVANTS' GUIDE:

WITH
NEW AND IMPROVED RECEIPTS,

ARRANGED AND ADAPTED TO
THE DUTIES OF ALL CLASSES OF SERVANTS:

HOUSEKEEPER,
COOK,
LADY'S MAID,
NURSE,
HOUSEMAID,

LAUNDRYMAID,
DAIRYMAID,
BUTLER,
VALET,
COACHMAN,

GROOM,
FOOTMAN,
AND
GARDENER.

FORMING A COMPLETE SYSTEM OF
DOMESTIC MANAGEMENT,

FROM THE MOST RECENT AND AUTHENTIC SOURCES, AIDED BY
NUMEROUS PRIVATE COMMUNICATIONS.

"DILIGENCE ALONE IS A GOOD PATRIMONY."

See the little day-star moving,
Life and time are worth improving:
Seize the moments while they stay;
Seize and use them,
Lest you lose them,
And lament the wasted day.—WATTS.

FIFTH EDITION.

LONDON:
PRINTED BY AND FOR JOHN LIMBIRD, 143, STRAND.

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PREFACE.

THE present, being a volume of plain and practical duties, requires but little introduction from the pen of the Editor or Author. It may, however, be as well to speak of the general object of the work, and the means by which the writer has endeavoured to render it complete.

The plan of this work differs essentially from previous works addressed to the same valuable class of readers. It aims at containing the daily duties of each Servant in a large establishment, conveyed in the fewest possible words, consistent with clearness; it is, indeed, intended to comprehend the business of every house; but it aims at a novel arrangement, compared with works of similar pretension. Most of these are from the experience of *one person*, or the author; but the present work also combines the most valuable suggestions of others with the writer's own testimony and knowledge of the respective subjects. He has seen many books of instruction for Servants, which for utility and simplicity are

highly prized. Each of these books has, however, been addressed to one particular Servant—as a System of Cookery, to the Cook; a volume of Directions, to the Footman, &c.; but, as the duties of Servants are differently apportioned in establishments of different extent, it has been thought that a volume, which should include every description of duty, would be a desirable object. Thus, in some families, the situations of Housekeeper and Ladies' Maid are filled by one person; and a Cook not unfrequently attends to what, in larger establishments would form part of the business of a Housekeeper. The utility of assembling the several duties of all Servants in *one volume* will, consequently, be evident.

The following pages are divided into chapters—as The HOUSEMAID, The COOK, LADY'S MAID, &c. Each of these portions commences with a brief outline of the general duties of the Servants, and is followed by a classification or arrangement of the best methods of such operations as are the business of the Servant whose name is prefixed to the chapter. In all cases, where it has been possible, reference to other pages of the volume has been preferred to repetition:—for example, the business of “Cleaning” belongs more or less to every Servant, and it would be a very difficult task to determine precisely what description of this kind of work belongs to each Servant. Still, this has been done as far as practicable.

Brevity and clearness of style have been studied, and the best authorities have been consulted in preparing the present volume. Probably one hundred books have been turned to for this purpose, and, as the work has been many months in hand the Editor has enjoyed the advantages of registering, from time to time, every new fact which is at all connected with Domestic Economy. Scores of pages have thus been treasured up and extracted from books which, probably, would not readily fall into the hands of general readers. Many ingenious discoveries for increasing domestic comfort, and adding to family enjoyment, do not find their way to the persons to whom they would prove most serviceable, from such information being conveyed in terms of science, or not being familiarly explained to the reader. To obviate this evil is a main point in the subsequent pages, and, accordingly, simplicity and plain writing have been universally kept in view.

From these observations, it will be concluded, that the *FAMILY MANUAL AND SERVANTS' GUIDE* is from the latest as well as the best authorities; and not only a useful book for Heads of Families, but an interesting work for Young Servants and for Upper Servants;—the Editor hopes it will be found to contain every thing that a Servant is expected to know in these days of universal education and improvement.

Wherever the Editor has profited by other books, partaking generally or specifically of the character of his own, due acknowledgment has been made; and, where it has not been possible to explain subjects at length, the main points have been seized upon, and the reader is referred to the best authorities for further information on the subject in question.

Perhaps it is not too much to add, that few volumes have hitherto been presented to the public, containing greater variety of information, or, for its extent, more useful knowledge than is contained in the present work. Every family, as well as Servant, may profit by the information which has here been collected, and fully impressed with its general utility, the Editor trusts it will not be deemed presumptuous in him to invite the attention of the public to the result of his labours.

Four Editions of this work having already received the flattering testimony of the public press, the Editor feels assured the present one will be found equally worthy of their commendation.

EXPLANATION
OF
THE FRONTISPIECE.



THE Plate represents Coronets, Mitres, and Helmets: a knowledge of their distinctions will be useful to the reader.

1. *Prince of Wales's Coronet.*

A circle of gold set round with crosses pattee and fleurs-de lis, with one arch decorated with pearls, and surmounted by a mound and cross, and bordered with ermine. Besides the Coronet, the Prince has another distinguishing mark of honour peculiar to himself, viz. a plume of three ostrich feathers, with a Coronet of the ancient Prince of Wales. This ornament was first assumed by Edward the Black Prince, after the Battle of Cressy, in 1344, where, having with his own hand killed the King of Bohemia, he took from his head such a plume and put it on his own.

2. *Coronet of Younger Sons, or Brothers of the Blood Royal.*

This Coronet has a circle of gold, bordered with ermine, heightened up with four fleurs-de-lis, crosses pattee, and strawberry leaves alternate.

3. *Nephews of the Blood Royal,*

Differ from the younger sons or brothers, by having strawberry leaves on the rim, as theirs have fleurs-de-lis.

4. *Coronets of the Princesses Royal.*

Coronets of the Princesses of Great Britain, are a circle of gold bordered with ermine, and heightened up with crosses pattee, fleurs-de-lis, and strawberry leaves alternate.

5. *Duke's Coronet.*

A circle of gold, bordered with ermine, with eight strawberry or parsley leaves of equal height above the rim.

6. *Marquess's Coronet.*

A circle of gold, with ermine, set round with four strawberry leaves, and as many pearls or pyramidal points of equal height alternate.

7. *Earl's Coronet.*

A circle of gold, bordered with ermine, and heightened up with eight pyramidal points or rays, on the tops of which are as many

large pearls, these are placed alternately with as many strawberry leaves.

8. *Viscount's Coronet.*

A circle of gold, bordered with ermine, and with sixteen pearls on the rim.

9. *Baron's Coronet.*

Formed with six pearls on a circle of gold, bordered with ermine.

. The eldest sons of Peers, above the degree of a Baron, use the Coronet belonging to their father's second title, and bear his arms and supporters with a label; and all the younger ones bear the same arms with the proper difference; but without Coronets.

10. *Mitre*

Of the Palatine Bishop of Durham, issuing out of a Ducal Coronet.

11. *Mitre*

Of Archbishops and Bishops, distinguished by a plain fillet of gold.

12. *Cap of Dignity.*

Or *Chapeau*, an ancient hat or cap worn by Dukes; generally of scarlet velvet on the outside, lined and turned up with ermine: it is frequently painted above a helmet instead of a wreath, under noblemen and gentlemen's crests.

13. *Helmet*

Of a King, Prince, or Duke, full forward, open faced, and grated, the number of bars denoting the wearer's quality; thus the King's helmet has six bars; Duke's and Marquess's, five; and all other Peers only four.

14. *Helmet*

Of a Marquess, Earl, Viscount, and Baron, in profile, and with bars as above.

15. *Helmet*

For a Knight or Baronet, standing direct forward with the beaver open and without guards.

16. *Helmet*

For all Esquires and Gentlemen, sideways, with the beaver close.

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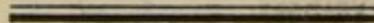
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THE
SERVANTS' GUIDE.

THE HOUSEKEEPER.

THE duties of a housekeeper form one of the most important branches of domestic management. To her is confided the superintendance of nearly the whole of the establishment; and on her proficiency materially depend the comfort * and good order of its members, both collectively and individually. In proportion to the importance of this trust will be the credit reflected on the housekeeper by the faithful discharge of her duties; by which means she may not only enjoy the esteem and confidence of her employers, but the respect and even attachment of those over whom she is placed.

Foremost among these duties are the general MARKETING for the establishment, as the purchase or choice of meat, poultry, fish, vegetables; the storing of fruit; pickling, and the curing of meat; preserving fruit; and some branches of confectionary; the management of British wines and liqueurs, &c.; the purchase of groceries, and various stores for kitchen and other domestic uses; together with the general charge of the store-room. Her situation is therefore one of high responsibility and trust,

* It has been frequently observed by travellers and men of experience, that *comfort* is a term only understood in England, and scarcely applicable to the habits of any other nation. This distinction is more evident on the continent in the management of servants. There, *comfort* is for the most part restricted to the dining-rooms and saloons, whilst the *offices* are miserably deficient of what would be thought in England, *common comfort*. There you may in vain look for such enjoyment as is to be witnessed in some of our castled seats, mansion-houses, and large farming establishments, which are so truly characteristic of the main charms of English country life. Even the chimneys, "those windpipes of good hospitality," as an old English poet calls them, do not give token of such comfort as we associate with the princely halls of England; and there are few *châteaux* (as country-seats are called in France) or even palaces in Italy, which in this respect can compare with the venerable halls of Staffordshire or Lincoln. An ingenious and impartial Frenchman who lately travelled through England, was so convinced of the superiority of English country-life, that in his journal, he compares our country-seats to the scenes of enchantment and romance!

and experience and economy can alone fit her for its several duties.

We shall accordingly arrange this portion of our little work into a series of useful hints and information on each of the above divisions of the housekeeper's peculiar business.

MARKETING

(For a variety of Useful Tables, see the APPENDIX.)

MEAT.

Choice of Meat.

Beef is never out of season, but is enjoyed in perfection in cold weather, as November, December, and January. The fat should be white and pure; and the lean smooth-grained, and of a bright crimson colour. When the fat is of a deep, yellow colour, the beef is *old*, and has been ill fed; on the contrary, if the beef be too young, the fat will be almost like mutton fat, and the lean of a pale colour. In *old* meat, too, a streak of horn runs between the fat and lean of the sirloin and ribs; the harder this is, the older, and the flesh is not finely flavoured.

Veal should be judged by the state of the kidney, which should be well covered with white, thick fat. If newly killed, the vein in the shoulder looks blue, or of a bright red; but if of any other colour, the meat is stale. The other parts should be dry and white, not clammy or spotted. The finest calves have the smallest kidneys.

Mutton is best about five years old, and not good under three. The lean should be fine-grained and of good colour, and the fat white and firm. Ewe mutton is paler, but not so well flavoured as wether mutton, which may likewise be distinguished by a lump of fat on the leg. Ram mutton is strong flavoured, high coloured, and its fat is spongy. Welsh sheep, driven up and fattened on Banstead Downs, and those bred on the South Downs, in Sussex, yield the finest mutton. These, and the Oakhampton, are highly esteemed in London; but in Somerset, the short-shanked Dorset and the Lansdown mutton enjoy the preference; in Norfolk and Suffolk, the long-shanked; but the sheep bred in the Fens and deep lands of Lincoln are ill-flavoured. Mutton tastes strong of the coat in May or June, or just before shearing-time.

Lamb.—The eyes should be full and bright, and the vein in the neck of a fine blue colour; but if it be green or yellow, or if there be a faint smell about the kidney, it is stale. The season for grass lamb is from April or May to August; house lamb is in highest perfection in December and January, but is eaten all the year.

Pork.—The rind should be thin, and when young and properly fed, the lean will break on being pinched; but when the rind is tough and thick, it is old. Measly pork may be known by the little lumps and kernels mixed with the fat, which are clammy and greasy. The lean should likewise be smooth and dry, and the fat white and fine.

Bacon.—The rind should be thin, the fat firm and white, or rather inclined to a pink tinge, and the lean of a bright red, and adhering close to the bone. If there be any appearance of yellow, the bacon is rusty. The Wiltshire and Hampshire bacon is best, but the Yorkshire is much esteemed. Irish bacon is in general bad; but this article is now so re-manufactured in London, as to resemble in appearance the finest Wiltshire bacon.

Hams are usually chosen by sticking a sharp knife under the bone; if it comes out with a pleasant smell, the ham is prime; if otherwise, the ham should be rejected. Short-hocked hams are usually the best. Westphalia, or bear's hams, are the most prized; but of the English curing, the Westmoreland, Wiltshire, and Yorkshire are the most desirable. If *brawn* is old, the rind will be thick and hard.

Subjoined are a few useful hints on the management, &c. of Meat, which will be found worthy of the special attention of the housekeeper:—

Seasons of Meat.—The season of the year has considerable influence on the quality of butcher's meat—depending upon the more or less plentiful supply of food, upon the periodical change which takes place in the body of the animal, and upon temperature. The flesh of most full-grown quadrupeds is in the highest season during the months of winter, after having enjoyed the advantage of the abundance of fresh summer food. Its flavour then begins to be injured by the turnips, &c., given as winter food; and in spring it gets lean from deficiency of food. Although beef and mutton are never absolutely out of season, or not fit for the table, they are best in November, December, and January. Pork is absolutely bad, except during the winter.

Solid joints, as round of beef, fillet of veal, and leg of mutton, bear a higher price; but when weighed with the inferior joints are cheaper; while the latter may be dressed as palatably as the former.

Joints, if bruised, (as is sometimes the case from the cruelty of drovers,) will soon taint, and therefore should be rejected.

Wiping joints with a dry cloth tends to preserve the flavour of the meat, and prevents mustiness. Even after every other precaution to prevent taint, *wiping* is highly important.

Hanging improves the flavour of all meats, and renders them easier of digestion; and meat eats better by hanging a day before it is salted.

Charcoal laid about meat or game prevents putrefaction, and restores what is already tainted.

Dried meat, hams, &c., require to be kept in a cold, but not damp place.

POULTRY, GAME, &c.

Venison should be thick and firm in the fat. When young, the cleft of the haunch is smooth and close. Its sweetness may be judged by thrusting a narrow knife into the shoulder or haunch. It eaten fresh killed, venison is not so good as mutton. It will bear keeping better than any other sort of meat, and by management will hang a fortnight. In this case it will be necessary to keep it in a cold place, wash it with milk and water, and then dry it with clean cloths, till not the least damp remains. Pounded ginger or pepper should be applied to such parts as are attacked by the fly. When properly dressed, a haunch of venison is one of the finest luxuries brought to table. The joints of venison are only four, viz. the haunch, neck, breast, and shoulder.

Turkeys.—Prefer cock birds, the very best of which have black legs. The age is known by the legs and spur, the former of which will be smooth, and the latter short and tender, if young; but if old, the legs will be rough, and the spurs long and hard. The poulterers, however, cut and shorten the spur to get off old birds. When the eye is sunk, the feet dry, and the vent tainted, they are stale. When hens are old, the legs are red and rough. A turkey should be kept without meat thirty-six hours before it is killed, and should be hung up in its feathers a week before it is dressed.

Fowls.—Choose black-legged fowls, which are the most juicy, and best for roasting. The spurs of a young cock will be short, and comb bright red. Their freshness is denoted by the rump being close and dark. Pullets are in their prime before they begin to lay; but hen fowls are best when full of eggs. Old hens have rough combs, skin, and legs. Capons should be chosen by the fat at the shoulders, large rump, and pale comb. Dorking fowls bear a high price in the London market, although comparatively few are bred in that neighbourhood.*

Ducks should be chosen by the same rules as fowls. Young ducks should be scalded, as that sweetens them, and improves

* Of course we only speak in comparison with the immense number sold as *Dorking fowls*. The Dorking market is chiefly in the hands of a few dealers who supply the London markets. The original breed of Dorking fowls is with *five claws*, one sort being perfectly white, and another of a partridge colour. They have long been peculiar to that neighbourhood; for Columella, who wrote on agriculture, at Rome, in the days of the Emperor Claudius, describes fowls of this kind, so that it may reasonably be supposed that these fowls were originally brought here by the Romans.

their flavour. The feet of *tame* ducks are thick and yellowish; but those of *wild* ones are smaller and reddish.

Geese.—When young, the bill and feet are yellow, the breast fat and plump, and the fat white and soft. Redness, dryness, and stiffness denote age and staleness. Green geese are in season in April, May, and June, and should be scalded; stubble geese come into season in September, and should be picked dry.

Pigeons, when young and fresh, are fat and full at the vent, and their legs supple, and of a dusky white. They should be fat, but care is requisite in purchasing them, as the crop is sometimes as large as the body of a small pigeon. Tame pigeons are the most prized, although the wild pigeon may, by keeping, be rendered equal in flavour to teal.

Plovers should be chosen as other fowl, except that those that feel hard at the vent are fresh. The eggs of plovers are a pretty dish for a large breakfast or supper.

Hares and Rabbits.—When young, the claws are smooth and sharp, the ears tender, and the cleft in the lip narrow: when fresh, the body will be stiff, and the flesh of hares pale. Hares are much improved by keeping, if the inside be preserved from must; they should be cooked when they begin to turn and bleed at the nose. *Leverets* are known from hares by a knob or small bone on the fore leg, near the foot, which hares have not. They will not keep. *Old Rabbits* are known by their hairs being intermixed with the wool, limber claws, and flesh shiny and of a bluish cast, instead of white.

WILD FOWL

SHOULD be chosen by the same rules as TAME, and like them, fat and hard at the vent.

Pheasants.—The cock-birds are best, except when the hens are full of eggs.

Partridges.—The bill should be dark, and the legs yellow. When the legs are blue, they are old. In France, the finest partridges have red legs.

Woodcocks, when in good condition, are thick and firm, and have a vein of fat down the sides of the breast; when stale, they run at the nostrils. The same rule applies to *Land Rails* and *Snipes*.

Quails, *Ruffs*, and *Rees* are chiefly found in Cambridgeshire and Lincolnshire. *Teals* have black bills and feet, in shape like those of a duck.

Preservation of Game.

A NOBLEMAN, residing in Scotland, states that, by the following means, he has preserved game from putrefaction many weeks, and that grouse sent in this state by him from Scotland to his

friends in town, has arrived perfectly sweet:—Wrap a piece of ice, the size of a walnut, in some linen cloth, two or three times folded; then immerse it in the strong, pyroligneous acid, and put it inside of the bird, wrap the bird up in a piece of linen also, moistened with the same acid.—He has found the pyroligneous acid answer without ice.

FISH.

Cod generally comes into good season in October, when, if the weather is cold, it eats as fine as at any time in the year; about the latter end of January, and February, and part of March, they are mostly poor; but they come in fine order about the latter end of March, April, and May. The *Dogger Bank Cod* are in highest estimation, as they cut in large fine flakes; an inferior sort, the north-country cod are woolly, and sold at a lower price. When fresh, the gills of cod are red, and the eyes bright.

Salmon. The earliest in the London market comes in season in the beginning of November, but it is usually scarce till January, after which it continues in season till October. Salmon is sometimes sold at two-pence and eighteen-pence per pound in the same day; the former quality having been probably kept at sea several days. The principal supply is from Scotland, whence it is sent packed in ice. Salmon should be chosen for its small head and thick neck; its scales should be bright, and its gills and flesh of a fine red colour. Salmon Peel are the small salmon, from four to ten pounds; there is also another sort, called Culvered Salmon, which is caught in the Thames, and barbarously cut into slices alive! Salmon unless crimped, eats better the second or third day.

Eels, when yellow taste of mud. The colour of the back of the best kind is a very bright coppery hue, and those with white bellies are preferable to the olive or green, the two last species being very inferior. Dr. Kitchiner recommends, as a humane method of putting eels to death—to pierce the back part of the skull with a sharp-pointed skewer. Eels when long kept in a tub, are not of such fine flavour.

Skate should be broad and thick, and of a cream colour. When too fresh, they eat tough; but they should not be kept more than two days.

Turbot is in season from May to Michaelmas. The middle size is the best. The fish should be thick in the belly, which should be of a cream coloured white, and spring under the slightest pressure of the finger. The *Halibut* in Scotland is often mistaken for turbot; it is a handsome fish, but not equal in richness and flavour to the turbot.

Soles, when good, are thick, and the belly is of a cream co-

lour; but if of a bluish cast and not firm, they should be rejected. They are in perfection in the summer.

Flounders and Plaice should be stiff and firm, with bright, full eyes, and are in season from January to March, and from July to September. The Thames produces the best. They should be dressed as soon as caught, or they will soon become flabby, and spoil. Flounders differ much in quality; those with scarlet spots are coarse, and very inferior to the gray-back, which is the best test of their quality.

Herrings, Whitings, and Sprats, should be firm, and have their fins stiff; fine red gills and bright eyes. Herrings are seldom long out of season. The high season of Whiting is during the first three months of the year.

Mackerel are in season during May, June, and July. They look beautifully bright when first caught, but should be dressed as soon as possible.

Smelts, when good, have a beautiful silvery tinge, and smell like fresh-cut cucumbers.

Haddocks are in season from Whitsuntide to Christmas. The shortest fish are the best.

Carp, Perch, and Tench should be eaten as soon as caught. Their freshness, as well as that of most other river fish is denoted by the stiffness of the body, redness of the gills, and brightness of the eyes.

Lobsters and Crabs are in season from March till October. Lobsters are esteemed for the fineness, purity, and flavour of their flesh. They are also best when of the middle size, and heavy. If the tails and joints are stiff, they are fresh. The cock-lobster is known by the narrow back part of his tail, and the two uppermost fins within it are stiff and hard; but those of the hen are soft, and the tail broader. The male, though generally smaller, has the highest flavour, the flesh is firmer, and the colour when boiled is a deeper red. The age of shell-fish may be known as that of a tree is by the bark, from the roughness and incrustation upon the surface.

Prawns and Shrimps should be firm, stiff, and of a bright colour.

Oysters. The Pyfleet, Colchester, and Milford are the best; the native Milton are white and fat; but others may be made to possess both these qualities by feeding. When the fish is alive and strong, the shell closes on the knife. Oysters may be preserved good for some time; when to be kept, lay them bottom downwards in a tub, and cover them with water, in which a good deal of salt is dissolved. Change the water every twelve hours; and feed them with oatmeal or flour sprinkled in the water. Oysters are *conceitedly* said to be in season in every

month of the year that has an *r* in its name, beginning with September and ending with April; but the season in many places extends from August to May.

VEGETABLES

ARE at their best season just before they begin to flower, and where their growth has been natural, that is, neither retarded nor forced by artificial means; for it would seem to be a return to man for attempting to hasten the course of nature, that forced vegetables fall very short of the flavour and delicacy of such as are of natural growth. The following table of the *Seasons of Vegetables* will be found very useful:—

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Season.</i>	<i>Names.</i>	<i>Season.</i>
Artichokes	July to October.	Cucumbers.....	June to September.
Asparagus	May to July.	Endive	June & all Winter.
Beans, Wind- sor, &c.	Midsummer to Sep- tember	Leeks.....	Sept. & all Winter.
—— French ..	Midsumr. & onwd.	Lettuces	April & all Summer
—— Scarlet ...	July to October	Onions	June to November.
Beet-root.....	All the year.	Parsley	All the year.
Scotch Kale... {	November and all the Winter.	Parsnips	Aug. & all Winter.
Brocolo	October and ditto.	Peas (Green).....	June to September.
Cabbage	May & all Summer.	Potatoes.....	May & all the year.
—— red.....	July to September.	Radishes	March to July.
—— plants...All	the year.	Small Salad	All the year.
Carrots.....	May till Winter.	Sea Kale	April and May.
Cauliflowers	June to August.	Spinach (Spring.)	March to July.
Celery	June to March.	Ditto (Winter) ..	Winter and Spring.
Corn Salad	May to July.	Turnips.....	May to September.
		Turnip Tops.....	February to May.

Keeping Vegetables. Succulent or juicy vegetables are best preserved in a cool, shady, and damp place. Strong-scented vegetables should be kept apart. Potatoes, turnips, carrots, and similar roots, intended to be stored up, should never be cleaned from the earth adhering to them, till they are dressed. They must be kept from the air and frost, by laying them in heaps, burying them in sand or earth, or covering them with straw or mats. Frost, it should be recollected, destroys the life of vegetables, and causes them to rot speedily.

Onions are best preserved strung, or if small, in nets, in a cool, dry place. The thick-necked spongy ones should be used first, or the germ may be taken out, and the onions then hung up or kiln-dried.

Herbs, for drying, should be gathered on a dry day, the roots cut off, and being perfectly free from dust, they should be dried in small bunches, very quick by the heat of a stove, or otherwise by the heat of fire rather than by the sun. Then put them into bags, and hang them up in a dry place. The season of sweet and savoury herbs is from May to August.

French Beans may be kept by being salted and closed up. They should be soaked before they are dressed. *Cucumbers*, *Kidney Beans*, &c. may be parboiled, and kept closed up in strong pickle, and *Green Peas* may be kept shelled or in pods by the same method, although in neither case does the taste approach their original sweet flavour. Such experiments are seldom better than expensive outlays of time and patience, often repaid with loss and disappointment. It may be a rarity to see French beans and peas at Christmas; but it is no treat to masticate them when they are tough and tasteless.

Middle-sized vegetables should be preferred to the largest or smallest, as they are more tender, juicy, and full of flavour, just before they are quite full-grown. Freshness, too, is their chief excellence.

Mushrooms.—Each of our readers must be aware of the many fatal accidents which happen every season from the use of poisonous mushrooms. The following is, however, a tolerably accurate description of the unsuspected sorts:—The *atable* mushrooms first appear very small, and of a round form, on a little stalk. They grow very fast, and the upper part and stalk are white; as the size increases, the underpart gradually opens, and shows a fringy fur, of a very fine salmon colour, which continues more or less till the mushroom is a tolerable size, and then turns to a dark brown. These marks should be attended to; and likewise whether the skin can be easily parted from the edges and middle. Those which have a white or yellow fur should be carefully avoided, but many of them have the same smell, though not so strong as the right sort.

STORING FRUIT

To Keep Apples, &c.

INTO the bottom of a glazed jar, well dried, place some pebbles just to cover the surface; fill the jar with the apples rubbed dry; cover the fruit with a piece of wood made to fit exactly, and over that lay some fresh mortar. The apples are thus preserved from the pressure of the air, and will keep good all the ensuing summer.

Hardy and keeping sorts of apples may be preserved in hods in the earth, in the manner of potatoes, not more than 4 or 5 bushels being put into one hod. Straw should be placed at the bottom, sides, and top of the apples, so as entirely to separate them from the earth.

Any good baking sort of apples, which is liable to rot, if peeled and cut into slices about one-sixth of an inch, and dried in the sun, or in a slow oven, may afterwards be kept in boxes in a dry place for a considerable time; they only require to be soaked in water for an hour or two before using.

Apples may be kept the whole year round by being immersed in corn, which receives no injury from their contact. In Portugal it is customary to have a small ledge in every apartment, (immediately under the cornice,) barely wide enough to hold an apple; in this way the ceilings are fringed with fruit, which are not easily got at without a ladder; while one glance of the eye serves to show if any depredations have been committed.

Mr. Cobbett's method is as follows:—"If the quantity be small, I have found that wrapping each apple in a piece of paper, and packing in a chest, is the best way. In all cases they should be carefully hand-gathered, *laid* in the basket which you use in gathering, and not *tossed* into it, for the smallest bruise leads with certainty to rottenness. They should be quite ripe before they are gathered; and yet, when quite ripe, they fall with the least shake of the limb. When apples are gathered, they should be laid upon cloths or mats in the sun, or in some dry, airy place, until they become perfectly dry in every part of them. If the quantity be large, they ought to be laid upon a floor, or upon broad fruit-shelves; but not one upon the other. Clean straw laid under them is very good; but I have found a single new mat to be better. They should be looked over frequently to see if they begin to rot; and such as do begin, ought to be immediately taken away. When there is frost, all that you have to do, is to keep the apples in a state of total darkness until some days after a complete thaw has come. In America they are frequently frozen as hard as stones. If they thaw in the light they rot; but if they thaw in darkness, they not only do not rot, but lose very little of their original flavour. This may be new to the English reader; but he may depend upon it that the statement is correct."

Apples for Cooking.

MR. COBBETT, whose experience in gardening is well known, recommends the following:—Our best codlins, which come earliest; Conklin's pie-apple, a celebrated American fruit; russetings, which are very fine, and will keep a long time; and the Spitzenberg pippin, a fine large apple, which keeps the greater part of the winter. In Herefordshire, the most highly esteemed for this purpose are the quining, or queening, and the Boovey red-streak. There are some excellent sorts in Devonshire.

Chestnuts.—To preserve chestnuts, so as to have them to eat through the winter, you must take them perfectly dry after they come out of their green husk; then put them into a box or barrel, mixed with, and covered by, fine and dry sand, 3 gallons of sand to 1 gallon of chestnuts. If there be maggots in any of the chestnuts, they will come out of the chestnuts, and work up through the sand to get to the air; and thus you have your chestnuts sweet, sound, and fresh.

Filberts—May be preserved by the same means as the preceding. In Turkey they are preserved by the following method:

—When perfectly ripe, remove the husks, and dry the nuts, by rubbing with a coarse cloth; sprinkle the bottom of a stone jar with a very little salt; then place a layer of filberts, adding a small quantity of salt between each layer. The jar must be perfectly dry and clean. Secure the top from air, and keep them in a dry place, and, at the end of six months, they will peel. Filberts are never good till they are ready to drop out of the husk or green shell, and until the ends of them are white; if taken out of the husk at an earlier stage than this, the kernels will shrivel.

Nuts, &c.—Nuts may be preserved during winter by placing them in a large, brown, earthenware pan, which, when filled, should be placed in a deep hole in the earth; the top of the pan being covered with a flat piece of wood, on which is put a heavy weight, the hole is to be filled with earth.—Mix chestnuts with walnuts, and both will keep sound.

Grapes.—Take an air-tight cask, and put into it a layer of bran, dried in an oven, or of ashes well dried and sifted. Upon this place a layer of grapes, well cleaned, and gathered on a dry day, before they are quite ripe. Proceed thus with alternate layers of bran and grapes till the barrel is full. To restore the grapes to their freshness, cut the end of the stalk of each bunch, and put that of white grapes into white wine, and that of the black grapes into red wine, as you place flowers in water, to revive or keep them fresh.

Oranges and Lemons.—Dry small sand, and when cold, strew it between layers of oranges with the stalk downwards, taking care they do not touch each other.

Pears.—In some parts of Germany, winter pears are kept packed in wooden boxes or casks, interlaid with clean, sweet straw, closely shut down, and placed in a room out of the reach of frost. The fruit requires examination monthly, when the specked pears should be taken out.

The Common Blue Plum.—Gather the fruit, when ripe, with great care, (the hands being covered with gloves, and only the stalks touched, in order to preserve the bloom,) and lay the plums one by one in small glass or air-tight wooden vessels. When full, cover the vessels with wet bladders, and bury them in the ground, or suspend them in a cistern, well, or cellar, out of the reach of frost. In February or March they may be used, and if the above precautions have been taken, will be found excellent. The vessels should be small sized, as the fruit remains good but a very short time after being opened.

To Preserve Fruits the whole Year without Spoiling.

MIX 1 pound of nitre with 2 pounds of bole ammoniac and 3 pounds of clean common sand; then, in dry weather, take fruit of any sort, which is not fully ripe, allowing the stalks to remain, and put them one by one into an empty glass till it is quite full;

cover the glass with oiled cloth closely tied down; put the glass or 4 inches down in the earth, in a dry cellar, and surround it on all sides to the depth of 3 or 4 inches with the above mixture. The fruit will thus be preserved quite fresh all the year round.

To Purify Lemon-Juice.

ADD an ounce of powdered charcoal to a quart of lemon-juice; after it has stood 12 hours, filter the juice through white blotting-paper: it will keep good several years in a cellar, if well corked

Seasons of Fruit for Desserts.

January.—Apples, pears, nuts, walnuts, medlars, and foreign grapes.—*February and March.* Apples and pears.

June.—Strawberries, cherries, melons, green apricots, currants and gooseberries (for tarts).—*July.* Cherries, strawberries, pears, melons, gooseberries, currants, apricots, grapes, nectarines—most of which, however, are forced.

July. Strawberries, gooseberries, pine-apples, plums, cherries, apricots, raspberries, melons, currants, and damsons.—*August and September.* Peaches, plums, figs, filberts, mulberries, apples, pears, nectarines, grapes, melons, medlars, and quinces in the latter month; Morello cherries, damsons, and various plums.

October, November, and December.—Peaches, pears, figs, grapes, apples, medlars, damsons, filberts, walnuts, nuts, and chestnuts.

CURING MEAT, &c.

MEAT intended for salting in winter should hang a few days to make it tender; but in summer it may be salted as soon as killed. It should then be wiped dry, and the kernels and pipes should be taken out, and the holes should be filled up with salt.

The art of salting meat is to rub the salt in thoroughly and evenly; first rubbing in half the salt, and after a day or two the remainder.

Bay salt gives meat a sweeter flavour than any other salt. Sugar is likewise an excellent article for curing meat, producing mellowness and richness. By some sugar is used to rub meat previous to salting. *Saltpetre* dries up the meat too fast, so that it is now seldom used but for giving a red colour in the proportion of half an ounce and the same quantity of sugar to every pound of salt. The meat should be kept covered with the brine, and turned and rubbed daily. In frosty weather it is recommended to warm the salt, in order to ensure its penetrating and mixing with the juices of the meat.

Round or Rump of Beef.—To a rump weighing 25 pounds, take 2 ounces of saltpetre, 6 of sugar, 4 of pepper, half a pound of common, and as much of bay salt. Rub it and turn it daily for a month. Or the same joint may be salted in four or five

days, by rubbing it, at once, with a pound and a half of salt. An edgebone of beef, weighing 12 or 14 pounds, will require about three-quarters of a pound of salt and an ounce of brown sugar to be well rubbed into it; in which case it will be ready in four or five days—*Pork*, it should be observed, requires longer time, in proportion, than beef; eight or ten days is generally sufficient for a *leg*.

General Rules for Pickling Beef, Pork, Mutton, &c. and keeping Meat good and sweet.

TAKE 4 gallons of good water, to which add 1½ lb. of muscovado sugar, (molasses will answer,) 2 oz. of saltpetre, and 6 lbs. of bay or common great salt, put the whole into a clean pot or kettle, and let it boil, being careful to take all the scum off as it comes up; when no more scum rises, take the liquor off, and let it stand till it is cold; then having put the meat you want to preserve into the vessel you intend to keep it in, pour the liquor over the meat till it be quite covered, in which condition it must be kept.—If you intend to preserve your meat for a considerable length of time, it will be necessary once in two months to boil the pickle over again, skimming off all that rises, and throwing in during the boiling 2 oz. of sugar and ½ lb. of common small salt; thus the same pickle will last good for twelve months. This pickle is incomparable to cure hams, neat's-tongues, or beef which you intend to dry, or make what is called hung-beef: observing when you take them out of the pickle first to clean and dry them, then put them into paper bags, and hang them up in a warm place.—N. B. Some who have tried the above receipt, choose their meat salter than this will effect, and instead of six, take eight or nine pounds of salt.—In the hottest weather it has been found necessary, before the meat is put into the pickle, to rub it well over with salt, and let it lie from one to three or four hours, until all the blood runs out from it. If the meat is in the least tainted before it is put into the pickle, it will be entirely spoiled in a day's time in hot weather.

Another Method.—Take 6 ounces of salt and 4 of sugar to a quart of water and a quarter of an ounce of saltpetre—to be boiled, skimmed, and cooled.

In the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, a work of unquestionable authority and value, the following *pickle* is much recommended:—6 pounds of salt, 1 pound of sugar, and 4 ounces of saltpetre, boiled with 4 gallons of water, skimmed, and allowed to cool, forms a very strong pickle, which will preserve any meat completely immersed in it. To effect this, which is essential, either a heavy board or a flat stone must be laid on the meat. The same pickle may be used repeatedly, provided it be boiled up occasionally with additional salt to restore its strength, taking care that in boiling, the scum is removed.

Hams.—Short, thick legs should be chosen. To each ham

allow half a pound of bay salt, about 2 ounces of saltpetre, 8 ounces of coarse sugar, and half a pound of common salt, with 4 ounces of allspice and black pepper, and 1 of coriander seeds. Pound the ingredients, and mix them; then rub in about 6 ounces of the salt and saltpetre, and after two days, the rest of the salt and the spices. Rub for about half an hour, stuff the knuckle, and tie up the hole with packthread. Lay the hams in the trough, keep them carefully covered, and baste them with the brine every day or oftener; turn them occasionally, and rub with the brine. Bacon and pig's face are treated as above. Hams are *spiced* by using aromatic spices and sweet herbs.—*Cook and Housewife's Manual*.

Tongues.—Cut off the roots, and soak them in a weak brine; afterwards salt them with common salt. Scrape and dry the tongues; rub them with common salt and saltpetre; and the next day rub them well with salt and brown sugar. Keep them covered with pickle for a fortnight.

The usual composition of saltpetre and salt has been found to preserve meat much better when a small quantity of a mixture of the nitric and muriatic acids, in equal proportions, is added. A teaspoonful of this mixture is sufficient for a pound of salt, with the usual proportion of saltpetre. Beef, mutton, pork, and tongues, salted in this manner during the hottest days of summer, although slightly tainted, have kept as long as pig's meat salted in the common way during cold weather, and the flavour of the meat is superior to that of the best hams. If it be desirable to impart a fine smoky flavour to the meat, a dessert spoonful of the impure pyroligneous acid may also be added to each pound of salt.

A curer of bacon, in the neighbourhood of the Marquess of Sligo, in Ireland, has lately acquired great reputation for the superior, delicate, smoky, and rich flavour of his hams and bacon, in consequence of using the impure pyroligneous acid with common salt and saltpetre.

The nitric and muriatic acid, and the pyroligneous acid, may be had at any chemist's.

Salting and Smoking.

By the following method, meat may be salted and smoked in *forty-eight hours*:—Dissolve in water a quantity of saltpetre, equal to the common salt that would be required for the meat in the usual way. Into this, the meat to be smoked must be put, and kept over a slow fire, *till all the water has boiled away*. It must then be hung up in a thick smoke for twenty-four hours, when it will be found in flavour equal to the best Hamburgh smoked meat that has been kept several weeks in salt, as red throughout, and equally fine.

Hung Beef.

RUB and salt half a round of beef with the same mixture as hams

let it lay in the pickle six weeks, turning it frequently; tie it up, and hang it in a dry place, or smoke it a fortnight. The red colour may be heightened by the addition of saltpetre.

Potted Beef.

BAKE two pounds of lean beef with one pound and a half of butter; when done, cut and beat it in a mortar, adding half the butter it was baked in with one dram of pounded mace, the same of allspice, and salt and pepper to taste; when it is very smooth, put it into pots, and cover it with the remainder of the butter it was baked in.

The following is another method of potting meat, game, or poultry:—Take three pounds of lean gravy beef, rub it well with an ounce of salt, and then a handful of common salt. Let it be in salt for two days, rubbing it well each day; then put it into an earthen pan or stone jar, that will just hold it; cover it with the skin and fat that you cut off, and pour in half a pint of water; cover it close with paste, and set it in a very slow oven for four hours. When it is taken from the oven, drain the gravy from it into a basin, pick out the gristles and the skins, mince it fine, and moisten it with a little of the gravy you poured from the meat. Beat the meat patiently and thoroughly in a mortar with some fresh butter, till it is a fine paste, seasoning it (by degrees as you beat it) with a little black pepper and allspice, or pounded cloves or mace. Put it into pots, press it down as close as possible, and cover it a quarter of an inch thick with clarified butter; tie it over with a bladder, and keep it in a dry place.—*Cook's Oracle.*

CURING FISH.

Haddocks.

FINNAN Haddocks are now closely imitated by salting the fish for a few hours, splitting, and wetting them with pyroligneous acid, and hanging them to dry.

Herrings.

CLEAN and salt them well over for two days; dip them in the pyroligneous acid, and hang them up to dry.*

To Kipper Salmon.

SALMON are cured in a peculiar manner, which is called *kippering*, and is thus practised in various parts of Scotland. All the blood is taken from the fish immediately after it is killed; this is

* Pyroligneous Acid, or *Crystal Vinegar* is now getting into general use for pickling, preserving meats, game, fish, &c. from putrefaction. It is *distilled from wood*, and is now so purified as to become a substitute for vinegar, and fit for every purpose of domestic economy. We believe the credit of introducing this article for general purposes is due to Messrs. Beaufoy, the vinegar-makers at South Lambeth.

done by cutting the gills. It is then cut up the back on each side the bone, or chine, as it is commonly called. The bone is taken out, but the tail, with two or three inches of the bone, is left; the head is cut off; all the entrails are taken out, but the skin of the belly is left uncut; the fish is then laid, with the skin undermost, on a board, and is well rubbed and covered over with a mixture of equal quantities of common salt and allspice. Some of this mixture is carefully spread under the fins to prevent them from corrupting, which they sometimes do, especially if the weather is warm. A board with a large stone is sometimes laid upon the fish, with a view to make the salt penetrate more effectually. In some places, instead of a flat board, a shallow wooden trough is used, by which means the brine is kept about the fish; sometimes two or three salmon are kippered together in the same vessel, one being laid upon the other. The fish, with the board or trough, is set in a cool place for two or three days; it is then removed from the board, and again rubbed with salt and allspice: after which it is hung up by the tail, and exposed to the rays of the sun or the heat of the fire. Care is previously taken to stretch out the fish by means of small sticks or hoops placed across it from side to side. After it has remained in the heat a few days, it is hung up in a dry place till used. Some people, in order to give the kipper a peculiar taste, highly relished by not a few, carefully smoke it with peat reek, or the reek of juniper bushes. This is commonly done by hanging it up so near a chimney in which peats or juniper bushes are burnt, so as to receive the smoke; there it remains two or three weeks, by which time it generally acquires the required flavour.

Another method is to mix equal proportions of salt and Brazil, or fine raw sugar, with a little salt-petre. Pepper in powder may be added to the salt.

Potted Salmon.

SPLIT, scale, and clean the fish by wiping *only*, rub it with salt, drain off the moisture, and season the salmon with pounded mace, cloves, black pepper, and allspice. Cut it into pieces, lay them in a pan, and cover them with melted butter. Then bake them, drain from the fat, and put the pieces into cans, and lastly, cover the fish with clarified butter.*

To Pickle Salmon.

DR. KITCHINER, in his valuable *Cook's Oracle*, gives the following as the method of those who pickle salmon for the London market. Cut the fish into proper pieces, do not take off the scales, make a brine strong enough to bear an egg, in which boil the fish—it must be boiled only in just liquor enough to cover

* Butter may be clarified by melting it over a clear, slow fire, when the butter-milk should be skimmed off the top, and the impurities allowed to sink, and the butter strained through a sieve.

it—do not overboil it. When the fish is boiled, lay it slantingly to drain off all the liquor—when cold, pack it close in the kits, and fill them up with equal parts of the liquor the salmon was boiled in (having first well skimmed it,) and best vinegar; let them rest for a day, fill up again, striking the sides of the kit with a cooper's adze. until the kit will receive no more—then head them down as close as possible.

An easy way to pickle Salmon already boiled, is to add a fourth part of vinegar to some of the liquor in which it was dressed, with a few black peppercorns and some salt; boil this liquor half an hour, and when cold, pour it upon the fish.

The season for pickled Salmon is from February to September; and it should be chosen by the brightness of the scales, and their sticking fast to the skin; the firmness, and pale red, rose colour of the fish—all which may be considered as sure tests of its goodness.

Artificial Anchovies.

To a peck of sprats put two pounds of salt, three ounces of bay salt, one pound of salt-petre, two ounces of salt prunella, and a few grains of cochineal. Pound these articles in a mortar, and sprinkle the powder over each layer of sprats. When the jar or pan is full, press the fish down hard, cover them for six months, and they will be fit for use.

To Pot Shrimps, &c.

WHEN picked, beat them in a marble mortar, with a little powdered mace, or allspice, and pepper and salt, and a little cold butter, till all are of the consistence of paste. Put into pots covered with clarified butter, and tie over with bladder.

SHORT RULES FOR CARVING.*

ALTHOUGH no directions can supply the place of practice, the following hints may not prove unserviceable to the young or uninitiated Housekeeper, and at the same time aid the memory of the more experienced.

Unless the tools are good, proficiency cannot be expected. Thus, the carving knife should be light, of middling size, and fine edge.

* The custom of *Carving* is of considerable antiquity. Among the Greeks, the master of the feast carved for all his guests. In the great families at Rome too, the carver was in high repute. There were masters to teach them the art regularly, by means of figures of animals cut in wood. In the ages of chivalry, the Grand Carver was a functionary of some dignity; and in modern times so important is it among the minor accomplishments or sciences of polite life, that the great Lord Chesterfield, in his celebrated Letters to his Son, points out *Carving* as a fit object of his peculiar study, to qualify him for the circles of nobility and fortune.

The joints of loins, breasts, and necks, of mutton, lamb, and eal, should be properly divided by the butcher before they are sent home, otherwise the most adroit carver will have no opportunity for displaying his skill.

A knowledge of *choice cuts* is requisite. Among them are the fat of venison; lamb and veal kidney; the pope's eye in a leg of mutton; the firm, gelatinous parts of a cod's head; the thin or fat of salmon; the thick and fins of turbot and other flat fish; the ribs and neck of a pig; the breast and wings of fowl; the legs and back of hare and rabbit; the breast and thighs (without the drum-sticks) of turkey and goose; the wings and breast of game; and the legs and breast of ducks.

One of the principal maxims of carving is to apportion these delicacies impartially to all, which may be done by attention and management.

Fish should be carefully served, so as not to break the flakes, or handsome slices; and the roe, melt, or liver, should be helped to each person.

In carving poultry for a large party, do not make wings, but cut the slices from pinion to pinion, by which means you will get more prime pieces.

BEEF.

Sirloin. This joint may be carved at either end or the middle; but where part is to be eaten cold, the latter method should be avoided. It may then be cut in the direction of the ribs, quite down to the bone, giving a little of the soft inside fat with each slice. When the inside, or English side is wanted, the joint must be turned over.

The *ribs* are to be carved in the same way.

Edgebone. First cut off a slice an inch thick all the length, and then serve, cutting the firm fat with the lean, and the soft fat resembling marrow, at the back of the bone, with each slice. If it is necessary to serve it with a skewer, a silver one should be substituted before the joint is sent to table.

Round or Buttock should be cut in even, thin slices, first cutting off a deep slice as directed for the edgebone.

Brisket is cut to the bone in long, thin slices.

VEAL.

Fillet should be cut as the round of beef, with a thin slice of stuffing and fat to each slice.

Breast consists of ribs and brisket, which should be divided both ways, and served according to choice.

Calf's Head is a delicious, meaty joint. It should be cut lengthwise, from the nose to the neck, passing the knife through the flesh under the eye, quite to the bone all the way. The throat sweetbread lies in the thick part of the neck end, short slices of which may be served with the former. The eye is by

some considered a great delicacy, and may be taken out with the point of a knife, and divided into two parts. Some fine lean will be found under the jaw-bone, and the palate in the under-part of the head, is a nicety. The tongue and brains are served in a separate dish.

MUTTON

The Shoulder affords many nice cuts. The first cut should be made in the thin, hollow part, and the knife passed to the bone. When that is cut away, some fine slices may be taken from both sides of the ridge of the bladebone, cutting from the thick end upwards. The under side produces many nice cuts of fat and lean intermixed. The prime fat is on the outer edge, and is to be cut out in thin slices. The most tender of the lean is on the under side of the bladebone.

The Leg, when *boiled*, should be served up lying on its back; but when roasted, with the back upwards. The best part is a little distant from the knuckle, quite down to the bone, taking out thin, deep slices towards the thickest part. If the outside is not fat enough, help some from the side of the broad end in slices. The back of the leg affords some fine long slices at the thick end, which must be cut out the long way of the joint. The knuckle, though dry, is full of nourishment. The cramp-bone forms a slight prominence at the back of the leg, near the shank.

The Saddle is formed by two loins; from which long slices may be cut from the tail to the end, beginning close to the chine-bone. Fat may be cut from the sides.—*Haunch* as *Venison*.

The Loin may be carved the same way, or cut in the direction of the bones.

LAMB.

The Fore-Quarter. Take off the shoulder from the breast and ribs, so as not to cut the meat too much off the bones. Then squeeze on the latter the juice of half a lemon, with a slice of butter, and some pepper and salt, and replace the shoulder, which, after a few moments may, if large, be put into another dish. The gristly part should then be separated from the ribs, and served according to choice. The shoulder is to be carved as mutton, and the shank should be covered with paper to enable the carver to hold it while he seasons the breast, &c.

The Hind-Quarter usually forms a leg and loin, and is carved as mutton.

VENISON.

Haunch. Make a deep incision towards the knuckle end to let out the gravy. Then turn the broad end towards you, and cut thin slices from the first or cross-cut to the end. The delicious fat lies in the round prominent part, on the left side, when the broad end is next the carver; some of which should be given

with each slice. As the fat of venison cools very fast, it should be helped expeditiously ; but a dish supported over a spirit-lamp will keep the whole joint and gravy hot. A haunch of mutton may be carved in the same way.

HAM

May be carved three different ways ; but the most general is to begin in the middle, by long slices from the centre through the thick fat. The second way is to cut a small round hole in the top of the ham, and enlarge the circle by cutting out thin slices. This keeps the meat moist. The latter, which is the most economical way, is to begin at the hock end, and proceed onwards, or to begin near the middle of the ham, and then take off slices each way.

A TONGUE

Should be cut across towards the thickest or plumpest end ; the fat will be found in the root.

ROASTED PIG.

First take off the head ; then cut down the back from neck to rump ; afterwards remove the shoulder and leg on each side. Then divide the ribs into four portions, and the legs and shoulders into two ; and nice slices may be taken from the gammon and fleshy parts. The neck is the favourite part ; but the ribs were formerly considered the most delicate. Stuffing and sauce should be liberally served.

POULTRY, GAME, &c.

Goose. A goose, fowl, turkey, pheasant, and partridge are to be cut up nearly alike. Turn the neck towards you, and cut the breast into long slices quite down to the bone, and take them off. Then turn the goose upon one side, and take off the leg, by putting the fork through the small end of the bone, and pressing it close to the body ; this will show the direction in which the knife may be passed to separate the leg ; which may be done by turning it back. The wing on the same side is next to be removed, by putting your fork into the small end of the pinion, and pressing it close to the body ; then enter the knife at the point of the wing, and separate it from the side. Then take off the merry-thought. Proceed in the same way to take off the other leg wing, &c. All parts being thus separated from the body, divide the breast from the back by cutting through the tender ribs on each side from end to end. Then lay the back upwards, fix your fork under the rump, and pressing the edge of the knife hard across the back, lift up the rump, and the body will divide into two parts. The rump part may then be divided into three, cutting it lengthwise through the bones on each side of the back,

and taking off the side bones. It is seldom necessary to cut up the whole goose. After the breast is distributed, the thigh, which is a favourite part, may be separated from the drumstick, and the fleshy part of the wing from the pinion. Dismembering an old goose, or turkey, is one of the most laborious of the duties of a carver.

Fowls, whether roasted or boiled, are to be cut up alike. In a *boiled* fowl, the legs are bent inwards, trussed with the apron, and skewered so till served; in a *roasted* fowl they are left out, and skewered longwise. Take the fowl on your plate, and place the joints, as cut off, on the dish. Fix your fork in the breast, and cut out slices from each side of the merry-thought. Next take off the wings by separating the joint with your knife, and with your fork raising the pinion and jerking back the wing towards the leg, by which means the wing will separate in a more complete form than if cut. Then take off the leg, by passing the knife between the leg and the body, and cutting to the bone; with the fork turning the leg back, which, in a young bird, will give way. Turn over the fowl on your plate, and take off the other leg and wing. Next the merry-thought at the neck end, across the body; and where it joins the body on each side, you will find the joint of the neck-bones; then put in the knife and pass it under the longest part of the bone, when you may lift it up, and break it off the breast-bone. Then take off the remaining parts, as directed for the goose. The point that demands the most attention is to hit the joint of the wing, so as not to interfere with the neck-bone. The choice parts of a fowl are the breast and wings (particularly the *liver* wing,) the merry-thought, and side-bones; the legs of young fowls are, likewise very juicy. A piece of dexterity in carving a fowl is to take out a side-bone, and leave on the leg and wing, by which means the fowl appears handsomer, when cold.

A Turkey is carved as a fowl or goose; but it has no merry-thought.

Pheasant. First cut off the head, which is trussed under one of the wings. Then proceed as with a fowl. The choice parts are the same; the leg has a high flavour, and there is a favourite conceit for the brains.

A Partridge is cut up as a fowl or pheasant; but the bird being smaller, the breast and merry-thought are seldom divided. The tip of the wing is the greatest dainty.

Pigeons may be cut in half, either from top to bottom, or across—or fairly divided. The lower part is usually the most esteemed.

Hare. Enter the knife beneath the point of the shoulder, and cut from thence to the rump, on each side of the back bone, thus dividing the hare into three parts. Then cut the back crosswise into four pieces. The shoulders should be taken off in a circular direction, and the legs may be easily separated from the

body. This direction will, however, only apply to a young hare. If old, do not cut it down, but place the knife between the leg and back, turning it inwards at the joint, which should be hit, and not forcibly broken. A few fine slices may then be cut off the back; then divide the back, and cut off the fore limbs, or shoulders, which are styled sportsman's pieces. When the company are served, divide the head by cutting the upper from the under jaw, and then cut it exactly through the middle. The ears and brains are delicious, and should be served according to choice. The prime parts of a hare are the back pieces, which are tender, delicate, and full of gravy, and the shoulders as beforementioned.

A Rabbit may be carved as a hare, except that the back should only be cut in two pieces, and the head not divided.

FISH.

THERE is but little opportunity for the carver's skill in serving fish at table; but attention to the few hints already given on the delicate parts of fish will be found useful. To these may be added the sounds of *Cod*, which lines and lies underneath the back bone, and is somewhat darker coloured than the body of the fish. The palate and tongue, which may be got at by putting a spoon into the mouth, are likewise choice, and the firmest and best parts are about the back bone and shoulder. *Salmon*, and all short-grained fish should be cut longwise, and not the cross-way. The head and jowl of *Salmon* are very rich.

It would be as well if roasted pig, turkeys, geese, and hares, were sent to table *cut up*, especially as they often baffle the strength and skill of dexterous carvers. This plan would likewise save much time, relieve the host of much trouble, and the guests of much anxiety. In short, he or she is the best carver who fills the plates of the greatest number of guests, in the least portion of time.

As an aid to elegance in carving, it should be the object of every carver to cover the unsightly gashes he must make in the joints. In fish this may be done by a fold of the napkin on which it is served. Much of the comfort of the guests too will depend on the fair distribution of the stuffing, gravies, sauces, &c.; but these and other little points in the honours of the table, with a few seasonable hints, like the preceding, may soon be perfected by practice, or by closely observing *good carvers*.

PICKLING

PICKLES are an useful class of culinary preparations, which belong rather to the business of the housekeeper than to that of the cook. They involve great care and nicety, insomuch that without strict attention to a few cautionary rules, disappointment, and not infrequently worse consequences, are the result

Colour is of great importance in the pickling, and till within these few years it was no uncommon thing to produce this effect by the use of brass and copper vessels. This practice should, however, be carefully avoided. Acids dissolve the lead contained in the tinning of saucepans, and corrode copper and brass; consequently, if vinegar is kept in them for any length of time, it becomes highly poisonous. This pernicious custom is therefore easily avoided by heating the liquor in a stone jar on a stove; but glazed stone jars should never be used for pickles, as salt and vinegar dissolve the lead which is in the glaze.

Use the strongest vinegar for pickling, for it will be found the dearest method to employ that of an inferior quality. It should be made scalding hot, as raw vinegar becomes ropy and will not keep; but it should be remembered that neither vinegar nor any other fermented liquor can be boiled without great loss of strength.

Pickles should be kept from the air, otherwise they soon become soft. They should likewise be touched only with a wooden spoon or ladle, and as it is a great object to keep the jar as full as possible, small jars should be from time to time filled up from larger ones. The articles should always be covered with pickle at least two inches above their surface.

Scalding or parboiling the articles to be pickled in salt and water will cause them to absorb the vinegar much sooner; but this does not add to their crispness. In this case, the articles should be cold and *quite dry* before they are put into the pickle. Should the vinegar turn thick, it may be advisable to pour it off the pickles, boil it up again, and pour it back.

Spices are generally regulated by the taste; but the following is a good proportion:—To every quart of vinegar, add 1 ounce each of black pepper, ginger, shalots, and salt; half an ounce of allspice, and half a dram of cayenne. These are generally used for *walnuts*, when they are put into a stone jar, covered with a bladder, wetted with the pickle; tie over that some leather, and set the jar on a trivet, beside the fire, for three days, shaking it three times a day, and then pour it, while hot, on the walnuts, and cover them over with a wet bladder.

To Pickle Walnuts.

MAKE a brine of salt and water, with a quarter of a pound of salt to a quart of water. Soak the walnuts in this for a week, and if you wish to have them ready soon, run a larding-pin through them in half a dozen places. Put them into a stew-pan with the brine, and simmer them gently. Lay them on a sieve to drain, then put them on a fish-plate in the open air for two days, or till they turn black. Put them into unglazed stone jars, about three parts full, and fill up the jars with the preceding pickle; and when they have been done about a week, open them and fill them up again, and so on continually, or else they will be spoiled.

Onions.

TAKE off the outer skin, and put a sufficient quantity into salt and water for nine days, observing to change the water every day; next put them into jars, and pour fresh boiling salt and water over them; cover them up close till they are cold, then make a second decoction of salt and water, and pour it on boiling. When it is cold, drain the onions on a hair sieve, and put them into the jar, fill them up with distilled vinegar, with ginger, a blade of mace, and a tea-spoonful of sweet oil, which will keep them. This is the method of pickling them *white*. Tie them over, and keep them in a dry place. If you wish them *brown*, use the white wine instead of the distilled vinegar.

Gherkins

CHOOSE nice young gherkins, as free from spots as possible; put them into strong brine till they become yellow; then pour off the water, boil it, and pour it on the gherkins till they change to a green. Then put them in a hair sieve to drain, and to every two quarts of vinegar put a little mace, a few cloves, an ounce of ginger cut in slices, an ounce of black pepper, and a handful of salt. Boil them altogether for five minutes: pour the liquor hot upon the pickles, and tie them down for use. A few cloves of garlic or shalots may be added at choice.

Red Cabbage.

TAKE off the outside leaves of a fine purple cabbage, quarter it, take out the stalk, shred the leaves into a cullender, and sprinkle them with salt. Let them remain a day, then drain them dry, put them into a jar, and fill up with boiling vinegar, with the usual quantity of ginger and black pepper, and a few grains of cochineal powdered.

Piccalili, or Indian Pickle imitated.

AN excellent pickle may be made of gherkins, sliced cucumbers, cauliflower, radish-pods, French beans, samphire, celery, white cabbage, carrots, and capsicums; all of which, except the cucumbers, should be salted, drained, and dried; over the cucumbers pour boiling vinegar and drain them in twelve hours, using no salt.

The liquor should then be prepared thus:—to one gallon of vinegar put four ounces bruised ginger, two ounces whole black pepper, two ounces allspice (whole,) half an ounce of bruised chillies, half a pound of shalots, and half a pound of bay salt. Boil them together for half an hour, then pour them over the vegetables, having mixed a little turmeric and mustard in a basin with a small quantity of vinegar, which should also be poured in. Some persons prefer straining the vinegar, but the spice materially improves the flavour of the pickle in keeping, and at last, the liquor is an excellent sauce for cold meat, &c. A

melon mango prepared as under, and cut into small pieces, makes an excellent addition to this mixture. Currie and cayenne, although recommended in some books, are too expensive for pickling; besides the turmeric and capsicum almost render them superfluous.

Melon Mangoes.

A DELICIOUS imitation of India mangoes may be made by pickling a small sort of melon, according to the following method:—Cut the melons in half, take out the seed and pulp, stuff the space with mustard-seed, garlick, and the usual pickling spices, and then bind up the melons with packthread. Pour boiling spiced vinegar over them four successive days, and when cold, tie them over. Before they are brought to table, the melons should be untied and the spice taken out. Large cucumbers prepared as melons are excellent.

Mushrooms.

CHOOSE the smallest button sort, rub them with flannel and salt, and from the larger, take out the red inside; when this part is black, they should be rejected as too old. As they are cleaned, throw them into cold water, which will make them keep their colour. Then put them into a stew-pan with some salt, cover them, and let them remain on the fire a short time till they are dry. Then put as much distilled vinegar as will cover them into the pan, gently warm them, and turn them into a glass or stone jar. Into each bottle or jar, put a blade or more of mace, and when quite cold tie them over, or cork and cement the tops. Mushrooms are perhaps the most delicate of all pickles, but when prepared by this method, they will keep two years.

French Beans.

NEXT to mushrooms, these are the most critical of vegetables to pickle, as they are apt to lose their fine colour in the process. They are pickled by the same method as cucumbers, and in case of failure, the colour of beans may be restored by pouring boiling vinegar over them every twenty-four hours, taking care to confine the steam.

Beet Roots.

BOIL the roots till they are nearly done, and when cool, peel them and cut them into thin slices; place them in a jar, and pour cold spiced vinegar on them.

Cauliflower,

FOR pickling, should be chosen hard. When pulled into small pieces, it should be put into a stew-pan half filled with salt and water, till it boils. The pieces should next be taken out and dried before the fire, and then covered with pickle. A little

turmeric will give the cauliflower a fine yellow colour, and improve the flavour.

Cucumbers and Onions,

SLICED, make an economical and useful pickle. To every dozen of cucumbers put three large onions; cut both in thick slices and sprinkle salt on them; next day drain them for five or six hours; then put them into a stone jar, pour boiling vinegar over them, and keep them in a warm place. Repeat the boiling vinegar, and stop them up instantly, and so on till green; the last time put pepper and ginger.

Sour Krout.

THIS celebrated winter dish consists of white cabbage cut into very fine shreds, salted, and put in a warm place, with a heavy weight on it, to ferment. This process being over, it should be removed to a cool place, and kept closely covered. In boiling for table, it requires to be two hours on the fire. Sausages and sour krout are a very favourite dish all over the continent. Aniseeds are sometimes strewed between the layers of cabbage; but we do not recommend this for English taste.

Bay salt should be used for making the brine for preparing vegetables, &c. In all pickling it is important that the articles to be prepared should be free from water or damp, otherwise they will soon become mouldy, and spoil. The water may easily be pressed out of cabbages, as directed above.

As a general receipt for preparing or spicing vinegar for pickling, Dr. Kitchiner suggests that four ounces of the usual spices be bruised in a mortar and put into a stone jar with a quart of vinegar. Then stop the jar *closely* with a bung, cover that with a wet bladder, and set it on a trivet by the side of the fire for three days, well shaking it up at least three times daily.

Seasons of Vegetables, &c. for Pickling.

WE cannot better conclude this division than by a list of the vegetables used for pickling, with their respective seasons:—

Artichokes, July and August—and *Jerusalem*, for three following months.

Cabbage, Red, August.

Cabbage, White, September and October.

Capsicums, August.

Cauliflower, July and August.

Chilies, August.

Cucumbers, middle of July and month following.

French Beans, July.

Garlick, Midsummer to Michaelmas.

Melon Mangoes, middle of July and month following.

Musarooms, September.

Onions, middle of July and month after.
Radish Pods, July.
Samphire, August.
Shalots, Midsummer to Michaelmas.
Tomata, or *Love Apples*, August.

STORE SAUCES, VINEGARS, &c.

ALTHOUGH these culinary luxuries are usually purchased at Italian warehouses, their preparation, in some establishments, appertains to the housekeeper. In either case they are kept in the still, or as it is more modernly called, the *store-room*, or in that part of the cellar which is entrusted to the housekeeper.

BROWNING.

THIS convenient article to colour soups, sauces, &c., is made as follows:—Put into a clean iron saucepan half a pound of pounded lump sugar, and a table-spoonful of water; set it over a slow fire, and stir it with a wooden spoon till it becomes a bright brown colour, and begins to smoke; then add to this an ounce of salt, gradually diluting it with water till it is the thickness of soy; let it boil, take off the scum, and bottle it for use. It may be made on a smaller scale in an iron spoon held over the fire. This browning, or burnt sugar, is used by brewers to colour their beer, and by spirit-merchants to improve the flavour and colour of brandy; and well would it be if all their disguises were as harmless as browning.

Quin's Sauce.

Two glasses of claret, and two of walnut pickle, with four of mushroom catsup; six pounded anchovies, with their pickle, and six shalots pounded, half a glass of soy, black and cayenne pepper. Simmer all slowly by the fire; strain, and when cold bottle for use.

Mustard.

MIX the superfine, or No. 18 mustard, gradually with boiling water to a proper thickness, rubbing it perfectly smooth, and adding a little salt. Or mix the mustard with new milk and a little raw cream, which will make it much softer. A tea-spoonful of sugar to half a pint of mustard is likewise a great improvement. Horseradish too is sometimes used for the same purpose.

The "patent" mustard, sold mixed at the oilman's, is nearly as cheap, always ready for use, and free from lumps. The juice of a clove of garlic is a fine addition to mustard if it be not too strong.

* * * Epicures sometimes mix their mustard with Madeira or cherry; the French flavour it with vinegars, as tarragon, shalot, &c; and a catalogue of Parisian sauces contains twenty-five differently flavoured mustards.

Anchovy Paste.

THIS preparation is used for toasts, deviled biscuit, &c. Bone, wash, and pound fresh mellow anchovies in a mortar; press them into small cans and cover them with clarified butter. If for deviled biscuit, add a little cayenne.

Anchovies

SHOULD look red and mellow, and the bones moist and oily; the flesh should be high-flavoured, the liquor reddish, and have a fine smell. When the liquor is dry put in a little beef brine, and keep the fish pressed down.

Tomata Sauce.

IN France, tomatas are eaten with beef, mutton, and veal—all a "*la sauce tomata*"—and a most delicious addition it proves. It may be made as follows:—Put tomatas, when perfectly ripe, into an earthen jar, and set in a *slack* oven, till they are quite soft. Then separate the skins from the pulp, and with this mix chili-vinegar and a few cloves of garlic pounded, which must be proportioned to the quantity of fruit. Add powdered ginger and salt to your taste. The sauce should be kept in wide-mouthed bottles, well corked. An excellent sauce may be made from the pulp of the tomatas mixed only with vinegar, which serves as well for cold as hot meat.

Tarragon Vinegar.

TARRAGON is a very hot, peppery herb, used in soups and salads and is with shalots an excellent addition to rump-steaks.* The vinegar may be made as follows:—Fill a wide-mouthed bottle with fresh tarragon leaves (gathered just before it flowers) previously dried a little before the fire. Then cover them with the best vinegar for fourteen days, when the vinegar should be strained and bottled.

Chili Vinegar.

TAKE fifty small red chilies, or as they are called by our gardeners, *peppers*; cut them in half, and infuse them in a pint of vinegar for a fortnight. The bottle may be several times filled up before all the strength of the chilies is extracted

Salad Vinegar.

THE French are celebrated for their *salads*; indeed, it is difficult to imagine any thing more delicious than one of their fine salads. One of their chemists gives the following receipt for a vinegar

* Mr. Cobbett, in his *English Gardener*, says, "an orthodox clergyman once told me, that he and six others once ate some beef-steaks with shalots and tarragon, and that they voted unanimously, that beef-steaks were never so eaten."

for mixing salads.* “Take of tarragon, savory, chives, eschalots, 3 ounces each, a handful of the tops of mint and balm. all dry and pounded; put it into a wide-mouthed bottle, with a gallon of vinegar; cork it close, set it in the sun, and in a fortnight strain off, and squeeze the herbs; let it stand a day to settle, and then strain it through a filtering bag.”

Mint or *Garlick* vinegars may be prepared by the same means; the first is an excellent substitute for the green herb in mint sauce, and the latter, used with great caution, (say a few drops to a pint of gravy,) is one of the finest flavours in cookery.

Salad Mixture.

IF the following ingredients are kept ready, much time and trouble may be saved in mixing salads:—Four mustard-ladles of mustard, 4 salt-ladles of salt, 3 dessert-spoonsful of essence of anchovies, 4 ditto of mushroom ketchup, 3 ditto of salad oil, 12 ditto of vinegar, and the yolks of 3 eggs boiled hard. As a substitute for an egg in salad, rub down a dessert spoonful of a mashed potatoe with mustard and salt; and some cream, which answers for oil, when that is not at hand; then add vinegar.—*Domestic Cookery.*

Essence of Anchovies.

MR. ACCUM, the chemist, detected red lead in some essence of anchovies which he examined; but, if purchased at any respectable oilman's, this, as well as any other sauce, may be depended on. The *essence* is prepared by beating the anchovies to a paste, which is thinned and boiled, seasoned, and sometimes thickened; but as it can be bought much cheaper than it can be made at home, and as it is not the better for keeping, we do not give the proportions. The excellence of the sauce depends on the quality of the fish, which have never yet been successfully imitated; and as a manufacturer who is celebrated for his essence of anchovies, has some credit at stake in its preparation, he is more likely, than the private purchaser, to procure the genuine fish.

Walnut Ketchup.

MIX the green shells of walnuts with common salt, and let them stand six days, frequently beating and mashing them. This will produce a black liquor which should be simmered in an iron saucepan as long as any scum rises. To 3 quarts of this juice, put 2 ounces of bruised ginger, 2 ounces of allspice, 1 ounce of long pepper, and 1 ounce of cloves, letting all boil slowly for half an hour; when bottled, put a little of the spice in each bottle.

Mushroom Ketchup.

MOST of the ketchup sold in London, is made from the mush-

* A vinegar-maker at Paris, advertises sixty-five sorts of flavoured vinegars.

rooms in the country, whence it is sent up to dealers, who boil it up again and spice it. Great quantities are yearly sent from Cambridge and Lincolnshire. There are, however, but few persons who do not prefer ketchup of their own making. For this purpose, look out for mushrooms about September; be careful as to the sort, prefer those with full-grown flaps and fresh gathered. Put a layer of mushrooms into an earthen pan, over which sprinkle salt, and then another layer of mushrooms, &c. Let them remain two or three hours, then break or mash them well, and let them remain two days longer, mashing them each day. Then strain and boil the liquor with allspice and black pepper, a little mace, ginger, a clove or two, and some mustard seed. When bottled, the corks should be sealed, and the spice left in. At the end of three months, strain the liquor, and boil it with fresh spice, which also put into the bottles.*

Improved Sauces.

SOY, anchovies, and ketchup, are, for the most part, the bases of the *sauces* sold at Italian warehouses, under high-sounding epicurean titles—as City of London, Harvey's, Reading, and John Bull and Coventry Sauces, the notoriety of two or three of them having been established in a court of law—that is, *upon trial*. The essence of anchovies made by Burgess, in the Strand, is held in high and deserved estimation; but essences of lobster and shrimps have not become so general in use. There is, too, an excellent sauce, named *Rich Universal*, for making gravy without meat for fowl and game, and improving made dishes. It is, perhaps, one of the richest sauces made; and we know of none better entitled to recommendation. The late Dr. Kitchiner invented a sauce or ragout powder, for chops and made dishes, which he called *Zest*; and the same gentleman gives a receipt for *Fish Sauce Superlative*.

SPICES, GROCERIES, &c.

SIR HANS SLOANE, the celebrated botanist, is of opinion that *pimento*, or *allspice*, so called, from having a flavour composed as

• In choosing mushrooms for ketchup, care should be taken that they are not kept too long, as they become filled with insects a few days after they are gathered. An experienced gardener at Kensington, observes, that some people think all funguses poisonous, and that the mushroom is only the least noxious. He relates that he once ate about 3 spoonsful, which had been cooked, he supposed, in the usual way; but he had not long eaten them before his whole body, hands, face, and all, was covered with red spots or pimples, and to such a degree, that the doctor was sent for. He gave him a little draught and the pimples went away; but he attributed them to mushrooms. In the following year he took a dessert-spoonful of mushrooms, which had the same effect, both as to sensation and outward appearance. He was previously hale and healthy, so that he concludes there must be something poisonous to produce the effect he describes.

it were of cloves, cinnamon, nutmeg, and pepper, is the best and most temperate, mild, and innocent of common spices, almost all of which it far surpasses, by promoting the digestion of meat, and moderately heating and strengthening the stomach, &c.

Peppers, according to Sir A. Carlisle, may be taken freely with soups and fish; they are the most useful stimulants to old stomachs, &c.

Truffles and *Morels*, in their *green* state, have a very rich flavour, and materially improve some dishes; or they make a fine stew by themselves. In France they are used for stuffing turkeys, partridges, &c.: but as they are sometimes met with in England, *dried up and shrivelled*, they are little better than useless.

Currie Powder.

IN almost every family there is a favourite method of imitating this celebrated Indian dish. The following is given by Dr. Kitchiner, as sanctioned by an East Indian friend to be a perfect copy of the original Indian currie:—Coriander seed, 3 ounces; turmeric, 3 ounces; black pepper, mustard, and ginger, 1 ounce each; allspice and lesser cardamom seeds, half an ounce each; cummin seed, quarter of an ounce. Put them in a cool oven all night, and the next morning pound them in a mortar, and rub them through a sieve.

Another Method.

TAKE of coriander seeds in powder 12 ounces, black pepper in powder 6 ounces, cayenne pepper 1½ ounce, fenugreek seeds powdered 3 ounces, turmeric powdered, 6 ounces, cummin seeds powdered 3 ounces. This composition, well dried, should be kept in a bottle, with a glass stopper, in a dry place.

Currie is an economical and wholesome condiment, much recommended by physicians, although from its being originally from India, it is thought an expensive article. It is little dearer than pepper, whilst its flavour is much finer.

Cayenne Pepper.

THE genuine cayenne is a mixture of the powdered pods of capsicums, especially of the bird pepper, which is the hottest of all. It is often of a bad colour when imported, which causes it to be sometimes adulterated with red lead, a practice which has been often detected. The safest way, therefore, is to make your own pepper of English chilies, drying and then pounding them, and mixing them with one-fourth their weight of salt.

An elegant preparation of cayenne is sold in London under the name of *Soluble Cayenne, in Crystals*, which is well adapted for soups, &c., the crystals entirely dissolving, and being equal in flavour to the genuine pepper.

Essential Salt of Lemon.

THIS article is principally used for taking out iron-moulds, &c. ; and in the printed directions sold with it, it is recommended for *punch* and *apple puddings* instead of *lemon-juice*. When used for the latter purposes, it has, however, been known to produce serious effects, since the "salt of lemons" is composed of cream of tartar and oxalic acid (a strong poison), and the quantity sufficient for half a pint of punch has been decided to be capable of destroying life.

The *Concrete Lemon Acid*, sold at the chemists', should likewise be used sparingly, the difference between that preparation and lemon-juice being much greater than is set forth.

Purchasing of Sugar.

THE coarsest sugar in quality, and consequently the cheapest in price, is not the cheapest in the end, as it is heavy, dirty, and of a very inferior degree of sweetness. That which is most refined is always the sweetest. White sugars should be chosen as fine and as close in texture as possible. The best sort of brown has also a bright and gravelly look. East India sugars appear finer in proportion to the price, but they do not contain so much sweetness, and are consequently less fit for wines and sweetmeats than for common household purposes.

To Choose Tea

THE best way to choose *Gunpowder Tea* is to try it by infusion, as it is often mixed with common hyson, dyed a deeper green with verdigris, and rolled up like it in small round grains. *Hyson* tea is larger in grain, and will fall to dust with a slight pressure of the finger ; yet its leaf is large after infusion. Its infusion is deeper coloured than the *Singlo*, which may be known by the flatness of its leaf, whilst that of the hyson is round. These are *green teas*. The best of the *black* is *Pekoe*, but little used here. Next is the *Souchong* ; but very little of the real sort ever reaches this country, the best *Congo* being substituted for it: this has a much larger leaf, and is allowed to come to greater maturity before pulling. To distinguish genuine tea from the *sloe-leaf*, let it be infused, and some of the largest leaves spread out to dry, when the real tea-leaf will be found narrow in proportion to its length, and deeply notched at the edges with a sharp point ; whilst the *sloe-leaf* is notched very slightly, darker in colour, round at the point, and of coarser texture.

Varieties of Tea.

IN Great Britain, teas are divided into three kinds of green teas, and five of bohea. The *Green Teas* are :—1. Imperial or bloom tea. It has a large leaf, a faint smell, and a light green colour.—2. Hyson. Small curled leaves of a green shade, inclining to blue—3. Singlo. Thus named from the place where it is culti

vated. *Boheas*, or *Black Teas*:—1. Souchong, which, on infusion, yields a yellowish green colour.—2. Camho. A fine tea with a fragrant violet smell, and of a pale shade.—3. Pekoe. This is known by the small flowers which are mixed with it.—4. Congo. Has a larger leaf than the preceding variety, and yields a deep tint to water.—5. Common bohea tea, the leaves of which are of a uniform green colour.—Gunpowder teas differ from the above kinds only in the minuteness of their leaves, and being dried with additional care.

Substitute for Rice.

PEARL barley has long been used in Scotland in broth, and, when boiled with milk, sometimes called Scotch rice; but the best way of using it is by pounding it in a mortar. In this form it rivals mannacrop, tapioca, or ground rice, and can be easily procured at one-twelfth of the price of the first, and one-third of the price of the last substance.

CAKES, BISCUITS, BREAD, &c.

IN many establishments, the making of cakes, biscuits, fancy bread, &c., is part of the business of the housekeeper, and on special occasions, her superintendance is requisite in making the choicer kind of pastry for large parties. A mere list of their varieties would, however, occupy many pages, so that we shall only attempt to enumerate a few general instructions in these branches; together with such receipts as appear best to combine elegance and economy. Biscuits, it should be observed, are usually purchased at the manufacturers of fancy bread, so that our receipts in this department will obviously be but few, and restricted to such as are usually made *at home*.

MAKING CAKES.

SUGAR and flour should be quite dry; the former should be rubbed to powder on a clean board, and sifted through a drum sieve of fine hair or lawn. Spices should also be well pounded.

Eggs should be well beaten, whites and yolks *together*, and well incorporated with the other ingredients. If slightly heated over the fire, the process will be much assisted.

Lemon-peel should be cut in shavings, or beat to a paste in a mortar with sugar or a little cream, so as to mix thoroughly with the rest of the articles.

Currants should be well washed, and picked, and large fruit carefully stoned.

Butter, when used for light cakes, should be beaten cold to a cream.

The lightness of cakes depends on the whole of the articles being well beaten together; when this is done, they should be

immediately put into the oven, or the fruit will sink. Eggs, it should be observed, are intended to supply the place of yeast; but when yeast is used, the cake should stand for some time to rise before it is put into the oven.

Proper baking is very essential to the goodness of a cake; for the best ingredients are often spoiled by neglect of this point. The management of *the oven* is thus directed:—be sure to have it of a good sound heat at first, when, after its being well cleaned out, may be baked such articles as require a *hot oven*; after which, such as are directed to be baked in a *moderate oven*; and lastly, those in a *slack or cooling oven*. The oven for *large cakes* should be pretty quick, or the batter will not rise; paper being put over the top to prevent their scorching. To judge whether a cake be ready, plunge into the middle a clean knife, draw it out instantly, when, if the blade be sticky, the cake should be returned to the oven. If the heat of the oven slack, fresh fuel ought to be occasionally added till the cake is drawn. *Raising* the cake is, however, of the greatest importance.

Cakes wetted with milk eat best when new, and do not keep so well as others. They may be kept moist in earthen pans or in tin, but they soon become dry in drawers or wooden boxes, besides acquiring a disagreeable taste.

Iceing for Cakes.

BEAT up four whites of eggs, and add by degrees treble refined sugar (pounded and sifted through a lawn sieve) till it becomes a thick paste; put 4 spoonsful of lemon-juice in it, beat it well till it becomes quite white and will just drop off the spoon. Dry gently in a stove or warm place.—*Cooke's Confectionary.*

The iceing may (if required) be coloured with the juice of raspberries or currants, in preference to lake or cochineal, which are used by confectioners.

A Rich Plum Cake.

TAKE 1 pound of fresh butter, 1 pound of sugar, 1½ pound of flour, 2 pounds of currants, a glass of brandy, 1 pound of sweetmeats, 2 ounces of sweet almonds, 10 eggs, a ¼ of an ounce of allspice, and ¼ of an ounce of cinnamon.

Melt the butter to a cream, and put in the sugar. Stir it till quite light, adding the allspice, and pounded cinnamon; in a quarter of an hour take the eggs and work them in 2 or 3 at a time; the paste must not stand to chill the butter, or it will be heavy; then add the orange-peel, lemon, and citron, and the currants, which must be mixed in well, with the sweet almonds blanched, and cut small. Then add the sifted flour and a glass of brandy. Bake this cake in a tin hoop in a hot oven for 3 hours, and put sufficient paper under it to keep it from burning.

Plain Plum Cake.

TAKE 1 pound of flour, and the same quantity of sugar. Beat

12 ounces of butter to a cream; then beat 8 eggs to a cream with a whisk in a tin pan, and set them on the fire, with the sugar sifted, whisking all the time. When warm take them off, and beat till they are cold, when the butter must be well mixed with them; and then half a pound of currants, previously picked, dried in a cloth, and rubbed in flour, and a quarter of a pound of citron, or lemon and orange-peel. Mix the whole together and pour into a buttered pan, and bake it in a *quick* oven.

Another.

ONE pound of butter, 1 pound of sugar, 1 pound of flour, 8 eggs, 1 lemon-peel grated, half an ounce of caraway-seeds, 1 glass of brandy, and 1 glass of rose-water. Melt and rub the butter to a cream; work in the sugar and eggs gradually; next the brandy and rose-water, and then gently mix in the flour and sweetmeats. Bake in a hoop.—*Cooke's Confectionary.*

Small Rich Seed Cake.

BREAK 14 eggs into a copper pan, whisk them 10 minutes; then beat 1 pound of butter to cream; put 1 pound of powdered sugar to the eggs, and whisk them over the fire 3 minutes, then whisk them till they are cold; afterwards mix them with the butter with your hands, as light as you can; put in 2 or 3 handful of caraway-seeds, some sweet almonds cut, and a little cinnamon and mace; mix 1 pound and a quarter as light as you can with your hand; put 3 papers inside the rim or tin, and 4 or 5 at the bottom and let the oven be rather brisk; when the cake has risen, and the oven is too hot at the top, cover it with a sheet of paper, and it will be done in an hour and a half, or two hours.—*Nutt's Confectioner.*

Pound Cakes.

BEAT 1 pound of butter to cream, and work it with one pound of finely sifted sugar, till quite smooth; beat up 9 eggs, put them by degrees to the butter, and beat them for 20 minutes; mix in lightly 1 pound of flour. Lemon-peel cut fine is sometimes added. Put the whole into a hoop lined with paper, on a baking plate, and bake about 1 hour in a moderate oven. An ounce of caraway-seeds added to the above, will make a *rich seed cake*; and half a pound of currants, and a quarter of a pound of lemon and orange-peels mixed lightly with the same, will make a *plum pound cake*.

Common Seed Cake.

PUT 2 pounds and a half of flour into a pan or bowl, with half a pound of Lisbon or loaf sugar; in the centre of which pour a pint of tepid milk, and a tablespoonful of thick yeast. Mix the milk and yeast with flour so as to make it as thick as cream; then set it by in a warm place. Melt half a pound of fresh butter to be added to these ingredients, with 1 cunce of caraway-

seeds, and enough milk to make it of middling stiffness. Line a hoop with paper, well rubbed over with butter; put in the mixture, set it some time to prove before the fire, and bake it on a plate about an hour in rather a hot oven. When done, rub the top over with a *whisk* brush dipped in milk.—*Cook's Oracle*.

A good Cheap Cake

MAY be made in the following manner for the Nursery, and will be much more wholesome for children than bread and butter.—Take of treacle 1 pound; flour $3\frac{1}{2}$ pounds; turmeric powder, 2 drachms; caraway seeds, bruised, 3 ounces; a little lemon peel; butter 3 ounces; carbonate of soda, 6 drachms. First mix the powders with the flour well together, and add the other articles, with $3\frac{1}{2}$ pounds of steamed or boiled potatoes, well blended with $5\frac{1}{2}$ drachms of muriatic acid, diluted with half a pint of water; and with a sufficient quantity of milk, form it into a mass of a proper consistence, and proceed as directed for making bread. The expense of this cake, weighing nearly 9 pounds, will not exceed 2s. 6d.

Gingerbread.

FOR plain gingerbread, mix with one pound and a half of flour four ounces of butter, four of brown sugar, half an ounce of ground ginger, and some allspice. Make this into a paste with two ounces of hot treacle, and shape and bake the cakes.

For fine gingerbread, take two pounds of flour, half a pound of brown sugar, half a pound of orange peel cut into bits, one ounce of ground ginger, half an ounce of caraway seeds, cloves, mace, and some allspice; to which add one pound and a half of treacle, and half a pound of melted butter. Mix the ingredients well together, and let them stand for some hours before rolling out the cakes. Gingerbread nuts may be made of the above paste, using a little more ginger and spice, and a good deal more flour.

Short Bread.

TAKE two pounds of sifted flour; one pound of butter, fresh or salt; quarter of a pound of mixed candied peel; pounded loaf sugar, blanched sweet almonds, and caraway comfits, of each a quarter of a pound: cut the peel and almonds into bits, and mix with them one pound and a half of the flour, a few of the comfits, and the sugar; melt the butter, and when cool, pour it clear from the sediment into the flour, at the same time mixing it quickly. With the remainder of the flour, make it into a circle nearly an inch thick; cut it into four, and prick each bit neatly round the edge; prick them with a fork, and strew the rest of the comfits over the top. Put the pieces upon white paper, dusted with flour, and then upon tins. Bake them in a moderate oven.

Plain short-bread is made with the same proportions of flour and butter, with only a little sugar, and should be rolled out thinner than the above.

Cake without Butter.

TAKE five eggs, and the weight of three eggs in sugar, and two in flour; when the five eggs are well beaten, gradually add the sugar, and then the flour, with a little grated lemon peel, or a few caraway seeds. Bake it in a tin mould, in rather a quick oven.

Shrewsbury Cakes.

MIX half a pound of butter well beat like cream, and the same weight of flour, 1 egg, and 6 ounces of beaten and sifted loaf sugar. Form these into a paste, roll them thin, and lay them in sheets of tin; then bake them in a slow oven.

Ginger Cakes.

MAKE the same paste as for the preceding, Shrewsbury, adding a spoonful of fine ground ginger.

Derby Cakes

MIX one pound of butter, one pound of sugar, one pound of currants, one pound and a quarter of flour, with an egg, in a paste; roll it round in small cakes, and bake them on a tin.

Lemon Cakes.

TAKE one pound of sugar, three quarters of a pound of flour, fourteen eggs, two table-spoonsful of rose-water, the raspings and juice of four lemons. Separate the whites from the yolks of the eggs, and to the yolks add the powdered sugar, the lemon raspings, juice, and rose-water; beat these well together in a pan with a round bottom, till the paste becomes light, which will occupy about half an hour; put the whites into a similar pan, and whisk them till they will bear an egg; then put the paste into the whites, and mix very lightly with a spoon; when well mixed, sift and mix in the flour as lightly as possible. Ice them very slightly, and bake on buttered tins, with six or seven sheets of paper beneath the cakes, in a moderate heat.—*Jarrin's Confectioner*

Savoy Cake in a Mould.

TAKE ten eggs, one pound of sugar, and three-quarters of a pound of flour, some grated lemon, or half a gill of orange-flour water; separate and whisk up the whites to bear an egg; stir the yolks and sugar together well, and mix the whites with them; then stir the flour in gently, and put all in the mould, well papered round the outside, in a moderate oven, for one hour and a quarter. The mould should be previously brushed over with clarified butter, half cold; put some fine-sifted sugar all over it after being buttered. To try when the cake is done, stick a piece of dry whisk in the middle of it; if it comes out quite dry, the cake is done; if the least sticky, it wants more baking.

Light Sponge Cake.

TAKE one pound of sugar, three-quarters of a pound of flour, and sixteen eggs, leaving out the whites of five; when separated, the

juice and rind of one lemon grated: mix the same as savoy cake. Either of these cakes is an elegant centre for a dessert or supper table.

Diet Bread Cake.

BOIL one pound of sugar with a quarter of a pint of water; pour it hot on eight eggs; beat it well together till cold; then add one pound of flour, and bake it in tins, papered. Flavour with lemon peel, grated.

Yeast Cake.

FLOUR, two pounds and a half; sugar, half a pound; butter, ten ounces; currants, four pounds; set sponge, with half of the flour, and three spoonsful of yeast, in a pint of milk; work the butter and sugar in the other half of the flour, with half a pint of milk; add the other ingredients, and mix altogether; bake it in a hoop or tin three hours.

Yorkshire Cakes.

MIX one pound of flour, two spoonsful of yeast, one egg, three ounces of butter rubbed in, and warm milk sufficient to make it into a light dough; this must be mixed altogether, and set to rise three quarters of an hour; then made in round cakes, laid on a tin in a warm place to rise; when risen, bake in a moderate oven, and wash them over with milk and sugar mixed.

Good Tea Cakes.

RUB four ounces of butter into eight ounces of flour, and mix with this six ounces of cleaned currants, the same of beat sugar, and three beat eggs. Make this into a paste, and roll it out about half an inch thick, and stamp out the cakes with a glass, by running a paste-cutter round the glass. Dust the top with sugar.

Lightness.

To make cakes light, sal-ammoniac or smelling salts may be added immediately before putting them into the oven: allowing, to a sponge cake, made of one pound of flour, one teaspoonful of the salts, and two or three to a large plum cake.

Biscuits.—(Baker's Method.)

THE necessary quantity of flour is to be mixed with water in such quantity that the dough produced will be the stiffest and most solid that it will be possible to work. So hard ought this dough to be, that it would not be possible to knead it with the hands in the usual manner. Two methods are resorted to:—The dough being spread out, a cloth is laid over it, and a man tramples it in all directions with his feet; or a long bar of wood, having a sharp edge, fastened at one end to a block, yet with sufficient liberty to move with a kind of chopping motion, extends over a table, on which lies the dough flatted out. The dough is chopped in all directions, is often doubled up, flatted, and chopped again. When sufficiently kneaded, it is rolled into pieces of about an inch and a half in diameter, and these are cut into lengths the

same as their diameter. They are then flatted, and moulded with the hand; some holes are struck through with a *docker*. After a slight sprinkling with flour, they are laid on the tiles of the oven, and baked.—*Donovan's Domestic Economy*.

Sweet Biscuit.

ONE pound of flour, half a pound of butter, the same quantity of finely-powdered sugar, and two eggs without being beaten. Make the above into a very stiff paste with cold water, roll it out, form into little balls, flatten, and bake upon tins.

Sally Lunn Tea Cakes.

THE cakes known by this name are made as follows:—Put into a pan one pint of warm milk, and a quarter of a pint of thick small beer yeast, with flour sufficient to make a batter; cover it, and let it stand about two hours; then add two ounces of lump sugar, dissolved in a quarter of a pint of warm milk (or four eggs), and a quarter of a pound of butter rubbed into the flour; then make dough as for French rolls; let it stand half an hour; then make up the cakes, and put them on tins; and when they have stood to rise, bake them in a quick oven. Care should be taken never to put the yeast to water or milk too hot or too cold: in summer it should be lukewarm, and in winter a little warmer, and in very cold weather warmer still.

Muffins.

MIX one pint of warm milk with a quarter of a pint of thick small-beer yeast, strain them into a pan, and add flour to make a batter; cover it till it has risen, then add a quarter of a pint of warm milk, and one ounce of butter rubbed in flour; mix them, and add flour to make a dough; cover it up, let it stand half an hour, then work up again; break it into small pieces, roll them up round, and cover them over for a quarter of an hour; then bake them.

Crumpets.

THE same: instead of making the mixture into dough, add only flour to make a batter, and in a quarter of an hour it will be ready to bake. Muffins and Crumpets bake best on a stove with an iron plate on the top; but they will also bake in a frying-pan, if the fire be not too fierce.

To detect Adulterated Flour.

MIX with the suspected flour some lemon juice, or good vinegar; if the flour be pure, they will remain together at rest; but if there be a mixture of whitening or chalk, a fermentation, or working like yeast, will ensue. Adulterated flour is generally heavier and whiter than the pure. Another method is to grasp a handful of flour briskly, and squeeze it half a minute: if genuine, it will preserve the form of the cavity of the hand, even though rudely placed on a table; if adulterated, it will almost immediately fall down.

PASTRY.*

NOTWITHSTANDING the immense number of articles that may be made, you proceed nearly always on the same principle, and with the same paste. The arrangements and forms may be endlessly multiplied; but the taste is always that of a compound of butter, flour, sugar, &c. Puff-paste, however, can be made in one single way only; but it may be made finer by using more butter. The best prepared paste, if not properly baked, will be good for nothing; and in making, dry flour should always be used, as damp would spoil every thing. We shall, therefore, only give the best modes of making

Puff-Paste.

TAKE the same quantity of butter as of flour; weigh and sift two pounds of the flour; then lay it on the table, and make a very large hole in the middle; throw in a small pinch of salt, a few small pieces of butter, and three yolks of eggs; use a little cold water to melt the salt; take water enough to make the paste of the same consistence as the butter. In winter the paste must be made very firm, because then the butter is so; in summer the paste should be very soft, on account of the butter being the same. When you have worked the flour lightly, mould it into a large ball, which flatten as quickly as possible; turn it in a spiral direction, and then flatten the middle. Lay the butter on the table with a little water, handle it, to extract the white liquid, and squeeze it in a clean towel, that no moisture may remain. Lay the ball of butter over the paste, flatten the butter with a cloth, then fold the paste over the butter all round, but in a square form, so as to wrap it well all over. Try whether the paste is firm enough to prevent the butter from breaking through it. Now powder a little flour over the table and the paste; roll the paste as smooth as possible with the rolling-pin, as long as you can; fold it in three, and roll it over once again, taking care always to powder it over with a very little flour, to prevent its sticking to the table or to the rolling-pin. After having spread it well, fold it again in three. Make two marks on the top with the rolling-pin, to remember that it has been rolled twice. Then put it into a dish, trimmed with a little flour; place it on the ground to keep it cool, and leave it there for a little while. Shortly after put the paste on the dresser, and proceed twice more as before; then let it rest again, and give it two turnings more, which will make six in all. Now give it a long shape, and fold it in two.

* The art of making Pastry was formerly of so much importance as to be taught in schools. Thus, from an old record, we learn that in Queen-street, Cheapside, lived Mr. Edward Kidder, a famous pastry-cook; he died in April, 1739, aged 73 years. He is said to have taught nearly six thousand ladies the art of making pastry; for which purpose he had two schools, one in Queen-street, near St. Thomas Apostle, and the other near Furnival's Inn, Holborn.

When at the latter end, fold the paste double only and that is what is called half a turning. This paste is well adapted for a *vol au vent*, or patties; but for the former, the paste must be kept thicker than for other small articles of pastry. Puff-paste always requires the oven to be very hot. If intended for *entrées*, the paste should be brushed over with the yolks of eggs.—*Ude*.

Paste for Tarts may be made as follows:—Spread on the table two handfuls of flour, two spoonsful of pounded sugar, a pinch of salt, an ounce of butter, and a little water to melt the salt. Make a hole in the middle of the flour; break into it two whole eggs, besides the yolk of another; mix the paste well, and it will serve for tarts, tartlets, &c.

Small articles of pastry are sometimes glazed as follows:—Sift fine powdered sugar over the pastry when baked and emptied, and use over it a red-hot salamander, or else put it in a very hot oven, for the sugar to melt and glaze.

The foregoing is termed *French glaze*; the English method is as follows:—Whisk up the white of one egg to a froth; brush it over the pastry with a paste brush; cover it thick with powdered sugar; sprinkle a little water over it; put it in the oven, and just let it set. Pastry or tarts should be nearly baked when this is done, as it is likely to burn if done at first.

Patties.

SPREAD some puff paste (six turns and a half) about three-eighths of an inch thick; cut out twenty patties with a fluted-cutter; rub a baking tin over with a brush dipped in water, and place the patties on it; close them well; open a hole on the top of them with a small knife, and then bake them quickly. When done, take off with dexterity the small bit of paste which you must keep for the cover; empty the crumb, put them on a clean sheet of paper, with the small cover on the side of them, and cover them all with paper till dinner-time. For all kinds of patties, it is the same process and the same paste, the variety consisting only in the size, and the flavour of the inside.—*Ude's Cookery*. A *vol au vent* is a large kind of patty.

Cream Soufflé.

TAKE three yolks of eggs, three spoonsful of flour, one spoonful of noyeau or white wine; mix them together, and add a pint of cream; beat up four whites of eggs to a strong froth, and mix all together; bake it in a case, and sift pounded sugar over it.

Frangipane Tart.

UDE directs this much-admired French tart to be made as follows:—Beat four spoonsful of flour in a stewpan, with four entire eggs and a pint of cream; then add a little salt and a little sugar. Next rasp into the pan the peel of a lemon, with a lump of sugar. Place the whole on a slow fire, continually stirring it; when it has been on the fire for a quarter of an hour, blanch twelve sweet and twelve bitter almonds, which pound very fine, and moisten a

little, that they may not turn to oil. When reduced to a paste, mix them with the foregoing. This you may use for tarts, tartlets, cakes in custards, &c.

CREAMS, ICES, AND CUSTARDS.

ALL creams were formerly in the department of the confectioner, but many are now prepared by the Housekeeper at home.

Whipt Cream.

TAKE one quart of cream, put it into a bowl with some powdered sugar and orange-flower water, and have another bowl near you, over which place a sieve, to receive and drain the cream; whip the cream with a whisk, and as it rises in a froth, take it off with a skimmer, and put it into the sieve; continue to the end, putting back into the first bowl till you have finished that which drains from the sieve. When done, put it into your dish, ornamented with lemon raspings. It may be iced, by putting it into a cellaret with some ice pounded with salt.

Orange and Lemon Whipt Cream.

RASP on a piece of sugar the peel of two fine Seville oranges; scrape off the sugar, as it imbibes the essence; mash it very fine, and add it to the cream. Lemon cream is made in the same manner.

Strawberry Whipt Cream.

MASH a few very ripe strawberries in a dish, and add the juice to your cream, with powdered sugar.

Ices.

ICES are composed of the juice of fruits, creams, and liqueurs, prepared and congealed by means of pounded ice, mixed with salt, or with nitre or soda. The freezing-pot should be always of pewter, because it prevents the contents of the vessel from congealing too quickly, and there is time enough to mix them thoroughly. Some are of opinion that when any article is iced it loses its sweetness, and that it ought therefore to have an additional quantity of sugar; but this is not correct: the diminution of the sweetness arises from the materials not being properly mixed or worked with the spaddle when in the freezing-pot. In ices that are badly mixed the sugar sinks to the bottom, and they have necessarily a sharp unpleasant taste. Another very general defect in ices is their appearing full of lumps.

To make ices take a tub or pail, in which place the freezing-pot in the midst of pounded ice, well mixed with salt. The mixing of the salt with the ice must be particularly attended to, as upon this circumstance depends the freezing power, and consequently, the goodness of the ice. The freezing-pots being set in the middle of the ice, up to the covers, put into them the articles to be iced; keep turning the pots quickly round in the ice,

by means of the handles at top, till the cream is set, opening them every three minutes, and with a copper spaddle take the contents from the edges, stirring the whole well together, till the ice is completed; then cover the pot with fresh ice, mixed with salt, and let it remain till wanted to be served up.

Ice Creams are of various flavours. The *fruit* ices most in use are strawberry, raspberry, and currant; and instructions for one fruit ice will serve for all varieties. Thus, for *strawberry*, mash and strain the fruit over a basin; then mix a sufficient quantity of the juice to a pint of fine cream, with the juice of a lemon without boiling, taking care that neither the strawberry flavour nor the cream preponderates. Sweeten with pounded sugar, pass it through a sieve, and put it into the freezing-pot to ice. *Water Ices* are similarly made, by omitting the cream. *Vanilla* and *Brown Bread Ices* are likewise much approved of.

In making ices in winter, preserved fruits or marmalades are used instead of fresh fruits; but fruit preserved without sugar is very valuable for ices. The foregoing instructions are principally by M. Jarrin, one of the most celebrated confectioners in London.

The management of the *ice wells*, upon which the supply of ice depends, generally belongs to the *Gardener*, which, as well as some general information on the art of *Iceing*, appertaining to the *Butler*, will be found in their respective instructions.

CUSTARDS.

Cheap and Good Custards.

BOIL three pints of new milk with a bit of lemon peel, a bit of cinnamon, two or three bay leaves, and sweeten it. Meanwhile, rub down smooth a large spoonful of rice-flour into a cup of cold milk, and mix with it two yolks of eggs, well beaten. Take a basin of the boiling milk, and mix with the cold, and then pour that to the boiling, stirring it one way till it begins to thicken, and is just going to boil up; then pour it into a pan, stir it some time, and add two spoonful of brandy, or a little ratifia. Marbles boiled in custard, and shaken in the saucepan, will prevent it from burning.

Rich Custard.

BOIL a pint of milk with lemon peel and cinnamon; mix a pint of cream and the yolks of five eggs well beaten; when the milk tastes of the seasoning, sweeten it enough for the whole; pour it into the cream, stirring it well; then simmer the custard till of proper thickness. Do not let it boil; stir the whole time one way; flavour as above.

Baked Custard.

BOIL one pint of cream, half a pint of milk, with mace, cinnamon, and lemon peel—a little of each. When cold, mix the yolks of three eggs; sweeten, and make your cups or paste nearly full. Bake them ten minutes.

Blancmange, or Blamange.

BOIL two ounces of isinglass in three half-pints of water half an hour; strain it to a pint and a half of cream; sweeten it, and add some peach-water, or a few bitter almonds; let it boil once up, and put it into forms—before which let it settle, or the blacks will remain at the bottom of the forms, and be on the top of the blamange when taken out of the moulds.

An excellent Trifle.

LAY macaroons and ratafia-drops over the bottom of the dish, and pour in as much raisin wine as they will suck up, which when they have done, pour on them cold rich custard. It must stand two or three inches thick; on that put a layer of raspberry jam, and cover the whole with a very high whip, made the day before, of rich cream, the whites of two well beaten eggs, sugar, lemon peel, and raisin wine, well beat with a clean whisk. If made the day before used, it has quite a different taste, and is solid and far better.

Junket.

SET a quart of new milk, with half a pint of cream in it, in a glass dish, with a spoonful of runnet; pour over it half a pint of white wine, two ounces of sugar, and half a nutmeg grated; cover with plain whisked cream, and garnish with apricot jam or jelly.

Mock Cream.

BIRCH, the celebrated confectioner, has the following excellent receipt for mock cream:—Mix half a table-spoonful of flour with a pint of new milk; let it simmer five minutes, to take off the rawness of the flour; then beat up the yolk of an egg, stir it into the milk while boiling, and run it through a fine sieve.

Bitter Almonds.

THE *poisonous* effects of bitter almonds is now too well known to be used but very sparingly by confectioners and cooks, to give a fine bitter flavour to custards, cakes, &c.; and there is little doubt that the prejudicial effects which have been so frequently attributed to confectionary, and to the use of copper vessels, were often produced by this or some other poison, employed either to flavour or colour sweetmeats.

CONFECTIONARY.

EVERY Housekeeper is expected to know something of the art of confectionary, although confectioners are now so numerous, that little is saved by manufacture at home. As our book is for the house, and not for the manufactory, we shall only give a few receipts for *Jellies*, *Marmalades*, and *Preserving Fruits*, the branches generally practised at home.

This caution is very important in all branches:—Vessels intended for the preparation or preservation of preserves, &c., ought to be either of glass, or the coarse brown, or speckled stone

ware. These are preferable to the best earthenware, the glaze of which will not always withstand the acids of fruit, pickles, &c. For boiling, tin or iron should be used. Copper vessels are not quite so dangerous as leaden ones; and due attention to their cleanliness may prevent any unpleasant effects from using the former.

Raspberry Jam.

WEIGH equal quantities of fruit and sugar; put the former into a preserving-pan, boil and break it, stir constantly, and let it boil very quickly. When most of the juice is wasted, add the sugar, and simmer half an hour. This jam is superior in colour and flavour to that which is made by putting the sugar in at first.

Gooseberry Jam.

PUT twelve pounds of the red hairy gooseberries, when ripe, and gathered in dry weather, into a preserving-pan, with a pint of currant juice, drawn as for jelly; let them boil quick, and beat them with a spoon; when they begin to break, put to them six pounds of pure white Lisbon sugar, and simmer slowly to a jam. It requires long boiling, or will not keep. Look at it in two or three days, and if the syrup and fruit separate, the whole must be boiled longer.

Red or Black Currant Jelly.

STRIP the fruit, and in a stone jar stew it in a saucepan of water, or by boiling it on the hot hearth; strain off the liquor, and to every pint weigh a pound of loaf sugar; then put it into a preserving pan; simmer and skim as necessary. When it will jelly on a plate, put it in jars or glasses.

Apple Jelly.

PARE and core six pounds of green codlins, or any juicy apples: cut them in pieces, and add one quart of water to them; boil them gently till quite mashed, stirring all the time; put this through a jelly-bag. To a quart of this juice, take three pints of syrup, and boil them together ten minutes; care must be taken not to boil them too much, or they will not jelly, but taste like treacle. Any sort of preserved fruit may be put in this jelly free of its syrup, by boiling the fruit in it, and putting in the glasses while hot.

Orange Jelly.

RUB the rind of six oranges on sugar; scrape it off; take the juice of three lemons and the oranges rubbed; boil two ounces of isinglass in one pint and a half of water for half an hour; add half a pound of sugar; strain it through a lawn sieve, and put it in moulds or glasses. A few grains of saffron will improve the colour.—*Lemon Jelly* is similarly made, but with more sugar.

Ude's Receipt to make Calf's Foot Jelly.

BONE the feet first, put them into warm water to clean; then boil them in clear water, and skim till the water is quite limpid. Then put the stewpan on a small stove, and let it boil gently till the

calf's feet are well done. Drain the liquor through a double silk sieve; skim the fat off carefully, and throw a large piece of sugar into the liquor. Six feet will make a large dish. Throw likewise into the jelly the peel of four lemons, and also the juice; add to this a stick of cinnamon, a few cloves, a little allspice, and break four eggs whole, but very fresh, into the mixture: if one of the eggs be not fresh and sweet, it would spoil the whole jelly. Whip the jelly, but take care the rod is not greasy. Lay the jelly on the fire, and keep beating it till it begins to turn white, and to bubble round the stewpan; then remove the stewpan from the fire, cover it, and lay some fire on the cover: this fire is intended to preserve the strength of the jelly, which otherwise (the steam dropping from the lid) would become weak. Simmer the jelly for an hour on a very slow fire, and strain it through a bag several times, to make it quite bright; then put it into the mould, and send it up like all other jellies.

Grape Jelly.

TAKE the ripest grapes, and spread them on clean straw; at the end of a fortnight pluck them from the stalks, and boil them for five or six minutes, in order to be able to extract the juice with ease; after passing the juice through a sieve, add a quarter of a pound of white sugar to each pound of juice, and boil for half an hour. Then set to cool; and in twenty-four hours there will be a fine jelly, the properties of which are excellent for invalids.

Orange Marmalade.

CHOOSE the largest Seville oranges, with clear skins; weigh them, and an equal quantity of loaf sugar. Skin the oranges, dividing the skins into quarters, and put them into a preserving-pan; cover them well with water, and set them on the fire to boil. In the meantime prepare your oranges: divide them into gores, then scrape all the pulp from the white skin; or, instead of skinning the oranges, cut a hole in the orange, and scoop out the pulp, carefully removing all the pips. Have near you a large basin, with some cold water in it, into which throw the pips and skins—a pint is sufficient for twelve oranges. A great deal of glutinous matter adheres to them, which, when strained through a sieve, should be boiled with the other parts. When the skins are boiled tender, strain them, some of them being boiled with the other parts; scrape clean all the white, or inside, from them, and cut them into thin slices of about an inch long; add the sugar to the liquor, and throw in the pulp and skins; stir it well, and let it boil about half an hour, skimming it well when it boils. The season for Seville oranges is in March and April, when marmalade should be made.

Quince Marmalade.

PEEL and cut in quarters four pounds of golden rennet apples, and four pounds of quinces; add a pint of water, and one pound

of sifted sugar to them, boiling and stirring them to a mash; rub them through a hair sieve, and add seven pounds of sifted sugar, and boil half an hour. If wanted red, it may be coloured with a little cochineal.

Damson Cheese.

BAKE or boil the fruit in a stone jar in a saucepan of water, or on a hot hearth. Pour off some of the juice, and to every two pounds of fruit, weigh half a pound of sugar. Set the fruit over a fire in a pan; let it boil quickly till it begins to look dry; take out the stones, and add the sugar, stir it well in, and simmer two hours slowly; then boil it quickly half an hour, till the sides of the pan candy; pour the jam then into potting pans or dishes, about an inch thick, so that it may cut firm. If the skins be disliked, then the juice is not to be taken out; but after the first process, the fruit is to be pulped through a very coarse sieve with the juice, and managed as above. The stones are to be cracked, and some of them and the kernels to be boiled in the jam.

To keep Currants, Gooseberries, Damsons, &c.

GATHER the fruit in dry weather, and let the currants, &c. be cut from the large stalks with the smallest bit of stalk to each, that the fruit not being wounded, no moisture may be among them. Put them into bottles perfectly dry, cover the corks with rosin, and bury them in a trench in the earth, with the neck downwards, placing sticks opposite to where each sort of fruit begins. Cherries and Damsons may be kept in the same way.—Another method is as follows:—

The fruit, not quite ripe, is put into wide-necked bottles, which are placed in a saucepan of water nearly up to their mouths, and they are *lightly* corked; the water is then heated till it is very hot, *but does not scald*, and this heat is kept up for half an hour; the bottles are then taken out and immediately filled with boiling water to the very brim, carefully corked, wired, placed on their sides, and turned, at first every week, but afterwards seldomer, to prevent any part (in consequence of the bubble of air that forms in them) from getting dry, and thus becoming mouldy. Some attempt to preserve fruit, &c. without water, by heating the water-bath to boiling, and corking the bottles while in the boiling water; but this does not succeed so well unless the fruit is very green—and the water is at any rate useful to put into pies. Great quantities of cranberries are yearly brought from the northern countries in casks, preserved in water. Plums, apricots, cherries, peaches, and other juicy fruits, may be preserved in brandy or other spirits; but they ought to be gathered before they are perfectly ripe, and soaked for some hours in very hard water, *or in alum water*, to make them firm. As the moisture of the fruit weakens the spirit, it ought to be strong; and five ounces of sugar should be added to each quart of it.

Or the fruit in the bottles may be set in an oven when the

bread is drawn, and let stand till shrunk a quarter part, when they should be corked close.

For other methods of preserving and storing various kinds of fruit, see page 11.

Beautiful Preserve of Apricots.

CHOOSE the finest ripe apricots; pare them as thin as possible, and weigh them; lay them in halves on dishes, with the hollow part upwards; strew over them an equal weight of pounded loaf sugar; in the mean time break the stones and blanch the kernels. When the fruit has lain twelve hours, put it, with the sugar and juice, and the kernels, into a preserving-pan. Let it simmer very gently till clear; then take out the pieces of apricot, put them into small pots, and pour the syrup and kernels over them; or they may be dried in the sun, or a warm place. The scum must be taken off as it rises.

The three kinds of apricots best for the confectioner's use are as follow:—The first, resembling the peach, red on one side and yellow on the other, the stone smooth and flat; the second is between the peach and the plum, the colour lighter, and the kernel sweeter; the third is smaller, yellower, and less agreeable to the taste.

To Preserve Strawberries, whole.

TAKE equal weights of the fruit and double-refined sugar; lay the former in a large dish, and sprinkle half the sugar, in fine powder, over; shake the dish, that the sugar may touch the under side of the fruit. Next day make a thin syrup of the remainder of the sugar, and instead of water, allow one pint of red currant juice to every pound of strawberries; in this simmer them until sufficiently jellied. They eat well served in their cream, in glasses.

To Preserve Cherries.

A NEW method, which is highly recommended in a French work, is to procure some common cherries very ripe, and add to them two pounds of sugar, four pints of brandy, four ounces of clove pinks, and a few Morel cherries; bruise some of them with the hand, and boil them over a slow fire until they have the consistency of syrup. They are then to be strained, and the juice to be poured into the mixture, as before ordered, which is to be left in infusion, and exposed to the sun for a fortnight or a month. By this process the cherries will have a very fine flavour. A few cloves may be used as a substitute for the clove pin^{ks}.

To dry Cherries with Sugar.

STONE twelve pounds of Kentish fruit; put them into a preserving pan, with four pounds of loaf sugar pounded and strewed over them; simmer till they begin to shrivel; then strain them from the juice, lay them on a hot hearth or in an oven, so as to dry without baking them; or on sieves in a drying-stove.

Green Gooseberry Hops.

SPLIT each gooseberry in six slips, but not to come asunder; take out the seed; put four gooseberries, so done, together, running

a thread through them, thus making them the size of a hop. Then put layers of vine leaves and the gooseberries into a preserving pan, a great many leaves on the top, and fill up with water. Cover the pan up closely, and set it by a slow fire till scalding hot; then take it off till cold, and do so till the gooseberries are of a good green; then drain them on sieves, and make a thin syrup of a pound of sugar to a pint of water; boil and skim it well; when half cold, put in the fruit; next day give it one boil; do this thrice. If the hops are to be dried, they will become so in a week; but if they are to be kept wet, make a syrup in the above proportions, adding a slice of ginger in boiling; boil the gooseberries in it once, and when cold, pour it over them. Gooseberry Hops, if done with care, have a very elegant appearance, and are very delicious. They eat best dry.

To Preserve Cucumbers.

CHOOSE the greenest cucumbers; cut them in pieces, with some small ones of the same sort to preserve whole. Put them in brine, with a cabbage leaf or two over them; then simmer them over the fire in water, with a little salt in it. Take out the seeds, and put the cucumbers into cold water for two or three days, to soak out the salt. Make a syrup of a pound of refined sugar, and half a pint of water; boil and skim it; then put in the thin rind of a lemon, and an ounce of cleaned white ginger; boil the syrup till thick, and when cold, put into it the cucumbers, carefully wiped. Boil them about four times—three days between each boiling.

Barberries in Bunches.

TIE them up in bunches, and prick them all over; simmer them in syrup two successive days, covering them each time with it when cold; when they look clear, they are simmered enough. If wanted wet, keep them in the syrup in pots; if dry, drain them from the syrup, and put them on boards in the drying-stove, then on sieves, and dry them hard.

If wanted for tartlets, pick barberries that have no stones from the stalks, and to every pound weigh three quarters of a pound of lump sugar; put the fruit into a stone jar, and either on a hot hearth, or in a saucepan of water, and simmer them slowly till soft; then put them with the sugar into a preserving-pan, and boil them gently for a quarter of an hour. They require great care, and should be only touched with silver.

To Preserve Various Plums.

UNRIPE Greengages should be pricked all over with a pin, covered with water, and a spoonful of sugar, and gently scalded till tender; put them in a tub in the same liquor for two days, then drain them, and put them into a preserving-pan, with vine or cabbage leaves, and thin syrup; heat them gently till they become green; then put them into pans, and cover them with thicker syrup; and on the two succeeding days boil them again.

They may either be kept in apple-jelly or white brandy. When large and *ripe*, greengages should be split without paring, and half their weight of sugar strewn over them. Blanch the kernels, and next day pour the syrup from the fruit, and boil it gently with the same quantity of sugar; skim, and add the plums and kernels; simmer, and put the fruit, syrup and kernels into pots. If to be candied, do not add the syrup, but dry as directed for candying fruit.

Magnum Bonum Plums make fine tarts: prick them over, simmer them in a thin syrup, and let them lie in a basin for three days. Then make a syrup of three pounds of sugar to five pounds of fruit, the sugar, in large lumps, being quickly passed through water. In this fresh syrup boil the plums till they are clear, and the syrup hangs to them, and then put into pots. If to be dried, the fruit and syrup require longer and quicker boiling.

Damsons may be preserved like gooseberries without sugar, or by boiling together one-third as much sugar as fruit, till a jam is formed. Another method is—Fill jars a quarter up with fruit, then the same with sugar, and so on, and bake the whole in an oven. When cold, cover the fruit with white paper, over which pour melted mutton suet, about half an inch thick. A large kind of fruit called *Prune Damsons* make very fine tarts, as also mussel-plums.

To preserve Pears.

PAPE and divide large fruit. Throw the pears into water, as the skin is taken off, to prevent their changing colour. Pack them round a block-tin stewpan, and sprinkle over them sugar to make them pretty sweet, adding lemon-peel, a clove or two, and a little bruised allspice; but cover them with water, into which put a few bruised grains of cochineal, tied up in muslin; stew them closely covered for three or four hours, till tender. *Jarganel Pears* should be pared thin, simmered in syrup, and after a day or two simmered again, in a richer syrup, in which they should be kept and dried as wanted.*

Quinces.

PRICK the quinces with a pointed knife, and scald them; pare them neatly; cut in halves, and take the core out; boil again quite tender, with a little red colouring; let these remain in the water till quite red; strain, put them in pans, and cover with syrup made of the same proportion of sugar as of quinces. Next day boil them two or three times till clear, and the last time for twelve minutes. Cut small quinces into pieces, put them into a saucepan and cover them with water, and boil it fast till strongly flavoured of the quinces; strain it through a flannel bag, and boil a pint of the liquor with a pound of sugar till it be a rich syrup, which, when cold, pour over the quinces.

* *Pear syrup*, though little, if at all known, in England, is much used on the Continent. The pears are boiled to a pulp, and the juice being strained is to be gently boiled to the consistence of treacle.

GENERAL RULES FOR PRESERVING.

THE only secret of keeping preserves is to exclude them from the air, and to set them in a dry place, not placing the pots on each other. They should be properly boiled, or heat will cause them to ferment, and damp to grow mouldy. If not likely to keep, the only way is to boil them up again. Syrups may be boiled to any consistence, either simply to preserve or to candy the fruit.

The more sugar to fruit the less boiling is required: for instance, jellies made with equal quantities of sugar and fruit or juice, require but little boiling.

Raspberries should be used the day they are gathered, else the flavour will be entirely gone. Even on the bush, the flavour does not continue above two or three days after the fruit is ripe.

As it is not always possible to gather fruits for preserving in dry weather, the fruit should, in that case, be boiled some time before the sugar is added.

Block tin preserving-pans are much used, as are cast-iron pans double tinned. Bell-metal pans are likewise very general. The tinning of copper or brass pans soon wears out.

A good way to clarify sugar for sweetmeats is to boil it up twice in the proportion of a pound with half a pint of water, with the white of an egg, and then to set it by, when the impurities will settle, or rise to the top in a black scum.

Candyng may be done by putting a layer of fruit from the syrup into a clean sieve, dipping it quickly into hot water, and then putting the fruit on a fine cloth to drain. Sift over it refined sugar, and dry on sieves in a moderate oven.

Colourings for Jellies, Ices, or Cakes may be made as follow:

For a beautiful *red*, boil fifteen grains of cochineal finely powdered, with one and a half dram cream of tartar, in half a pint of water, slowly for half an hour, adding a piece of alum the size of a pea. Or sliced beet root, and some liquor poured over it may be used.

For *white*, use almonds finely powdered, with a little water; or use cream.

For *yellow*, yolks of eggs, or a very small piece of saffron steeped in the liquor and squeezed.

The juice of boiled spinach or beet leaves may be used for *green*.

Chocolate or strong coffee may be used for *brown*.

Marmalades should be made with at least twelve ounces of sugar to a pound of fruit.

Powdered alum dissolved in water, and put into the syrup of preserves with a full quantity of sugar, will prevent their candyng, to which they will otherwise be liable.

Compotes are served up with thin syrup, as an accompaniment to ices; they are fruits prepared as if to be preserved, except they are not boiled so much: in winter, use preserves, which

must be taken from their own syrup to be put into a thinner one, with the juice of a lemon.

Dried Cherries are very useful for dessert in the winter and spring. Nothing can be more easy than to dry them. Gather when ripe, and do not break or bruise the skins; spread them on earthenware dishes, and place them in a very cool oven; the next day increase the heat, and at the end of a very few hours they will be found sufficiently dry for putting into close vessels. The Kentish Cherry, being rather acid, requires a longer time than any other cherries; but they are also more valuable, because, in fevers, they are used to moisten the mouth.

Dried Figs, when they are brought to table, are commonly covered with a scurf, composed of a mealy, sugary substance, very disagreeable to the teeth. To get rid of this scurf, and much improve the figs, is, first to keep them in a cool and rather moist cellar for twenty-four hours before using.

An excellent receipt for *drying Apples* will be found at page 9. Codlins may be kept several months by gathering them at Midsummer, putting them in an earthen pan, and pouring boiling water over them; then cover the pan with cabbage leaves, keep them by the fire till they would peel; do not peel them, but pour the water off till both are quite cold. Then put the codlins and water in a small stone jar, and tie over very closely.

The apples and pears which arrive here in a dried state from France, are thus prepared. The fruit is put into boiling water, in which it is left until it becomes soft. It is then taken out, and carefully peeled, the stalk being left on. To prevent any loss of juice, it is placed on a strainer, under which is a dish. When peeled, it is put into an oven heated as for bread, and left there twenty-four hours. When taken out and cold, the fruit is pressed flat between the hands; and being plunged into its own juice, which has been set apart for that purpose, it is packed in boxes, and exported. Simmer them in thin syrup for use.

Mr. Jarrin has preserved fruit by the following means very extensively:—Take very clean bottles, without any smell; the fruit must be gathered on the morning it is to be used, bottled instantly, corked quite tight, tied with wires, and steamed the same day.

All fruit, with or without kernels, says Mr. Jarrin, gathered and bottled the same day, may be preserved without loss by breakage of bottles, and will keep well: when the fruit is not gathered the same day the average loss is ten or twelve bottles per case. The fruit then shows a small white spot, and is apt to soon become musty.

Cement for the corks of bottles may be made as follows:—Melt a quantity of rosin, a fourth of the same of bees'-wax, add a fourth of brick-dust, and mix them well in a pot on the fire into which dip the corks so as completely to cover them.

MADE WINES.

MORE has been written on the manufacture of British wines than upon any other branch of our Domestic economy. Almost every writer has his favourite theory or system of making wine, and every good housewife has her customary receipt for the same purpose. Even one of these systems would occupy the whole of this volume, therefore, we shall not be expected to enumerate them.*

Many of the Compounds which are thus manufactured hardly deserve the name of wine, so that we shall confine ourselves to the fruits usually employed, and a few practical hints on the management of British wines: those for foreign wines belong to the duties of the Butler, and are to be found accordingly in another portion of this work.

The usual domestic fruits are—

Gooseberry, and three varieties of Currant.

Sloe, Damson, and Elderberry.

British Grapes.

The foreign fruits are

Raisins.

Orange and Lemon.

The Gooseberry and Currant, when used in their green state,

* Mr. Cobbett, whose experience in farming and gardening is entitled to our respect, altogether ridicules the idea of making wine from British fruits, the great quantity of sugar required, making the liquor a sort of rum or spirit of sugar rather than pure wine. A correspondent of Mr. Loudon's *Gardeners' Magazine*, says "the idea of making good wine with British fruits, which abound with undecomposable acids, with only two pounds of sugar to each gallon, is almost impracticable. It may be asked, what are the substances that make wine keep, and prevent it from turning sour? Undecomposed sugar and alcohol. Now, as to spirit, this wine, as it is called, scarcely contains any; and the small quantity of sugar it contains would be speedily decomposed, were it not for the frequent skimmings and rackings it undergoes. Without this the wine, as it is called, would not keep a twelvemonth; whereas wine made upon true chemical principles will keep any length of time, if properly managed. I have wine by me now, made from ripe gooseberries, nineteen years old, which is perfectly sound; the wine now drunk by my family is twelve years old, and if it has any fault, it is that it is too strong; it never had any spirit added to it of any kind; all the alcohol it contains is genuine, the product of the fruit and sugar. To add brandy or spirit of any sort to wine, will spoil the flavour of the best that ever was made, unless it be kept a certain number of years, or added in a very small quantity."

Dr. Macculloch, on the other hand, is of opinion that the best wine may be made from unripe fruit, and he has written a sensible volume on the subject.—See *Macculloch on Wine*, fourth edition, 1829. A variety of useful information on British and Foreign Wines, in a concise form, will likewise be found in a neat little work, called the *Wine Drinker's Manual*.

may be made to form light brisk wines, falling little short of Champagne. Ripe gooseberries will make sweet or dry wines; but these are ill-flavoured, particularly if the husk has not been carefully excluded. Ripe currants, if properly managed, make much better wines than gooseberries. These fruits are much improved, according to Dr. Macculloch, by *boiling* previous to fermentation. This, he states, is particularly the case with the black currant, which, when thus managed, is capable of making a wine closely resembling some of the best of the sweet Cape wines. The strawberry or raspberry may be used to flavour other wines, but alone they are hardly agreeable. The blackberry and mulberry may be similarly used with advantage. The juice of the sloe and damson is acid and astringent; and hence they are qualified for making *dry* wines. By a due admixture of currants or elderberries, with sloes or damsons, wines, resembling the inferior kinds of Port, are often produced. The elderberry makes an excellent red wine, which may be improved by the addition of sloes. Grapes of British growth make excellent wines. Dr. Macculloch has made wines from unripe grapes and sugar, so closely resembling Champagne, Grave, Rhenish, and Moselle, that the best judges could not distinguish them from foreign wines. The grapes may be used in any state, however unripe; when even but half grown and perfectly hard, they succeed completely.* Raisins, oranges, and lemons are less in use than any of the preceding, as they contain too much acid. Before our receipts for the several British wines, it may not be amiss to introduce a few general remarks from the *Vintner's Guide*, a work of good authority, being upon the experience of a practical man, of whose book some thousand copies have been sold.

“The great radical defect in the manufacture of domestic wines, is using too small a portion of fruit compared with the sugar employed. It is this circumstance which renders the fermentative process incomplete, and thus imparts that sweet and mawkish taste to our domestic wines, which renders them intolerable to many people, and even to all, perhaps, without the addition of brandy. The fermentative process being rendered tardy and incomplete, by the improper adjustment of the sugar to the fruit, is frequently endeavoured to be excited by yeast; than which nothing can be more injudicious. *Yeast* invariably spoils wines, by imparting to them a flavour that nothing will ever overcome. The only ferment to be employed in wine-making, is that furnished by nature; and when this is defective, as is sometimes the case in our domestic fruits, the ferment of the grape

* A knowledge of this fact will be found very useful, especially as grapes in the open air seldom ripen, except in very fine seasons. In Surrey and Sussex, the cottagers almost annually make wine from the produce of vines trained on the walls of their dwellings. The price of ripe grapes varies from four to eight and ten shillings per bushel.

must be supplied artificially. This may be done by introducing a certain portion of *crude tartar*; the dose of which may vary from one to six *per cent.*, or from two to four pounds of tartar to a hundred pints of liquor, the sweetest requiring most, without materially affecting the wine, as a great portion of what escapes decomposition will be subsequently deposited. All fruits, except the grape, will require more or less of tartar.

“The last circumstance we shall notice, is the introduction of *brandy* or other spirit into domestic wine. We again repeat, that if the fruit and sugar be duly adjusted to one another, and the fermentative process be properly managed, an infinitely better wine will be produced without the use of brandy, than can ever be produced with it.”

Among the important points in wine-making are the following:—

The fruit should be gathered in fine weather.

Picking the fruit is important, as unsound berries and stalks should be rejected.

The quantity of fruit for making a vintage of domestic wine is not so large but it may be bruised in a tub, and from thence removed into the vat, or if the quantity be very small, it may be bruised in the vat. Raisins should be put into the water in the vat, and the following day taken out and bruised, and then returned to the vat.

In vatting, the guard should be placed against the tap-hole, to prevent the husks escaping at the time the must or extract is drawn off. When all the fruit is in the vat, the water should be added, and the contents stirred with the vat-staff, and left to macerate till the next day, when the tartar, sugar, &c., diluted with some of the liquor, is to be put in the vat, and the whole stirred up again. The situation of the vat should have a free circulation of air, and if the fermentation does not take place in a reasonable time, the contents should be often stirred, and the place made warmer. It is impossible to specify the exact time for fermentation; but for eighteen gallons, two or three days are generally sufficient for white wines; red wines require a day or two more. Flavouring ingredients should be put into the vat when the fermentation is about half over.

If the object be to produce a *dry* wine, the fermentation must be protracted by breaking the scum or head, and mixing it with the fermenting fluid. This is the use of *rolling* wine, or returning it on the lees to *feed*, as it is called; and it renders the wine stronger and better, by re-exciting the languid fermentation. If you want a *sweet* wine, the fermentation must be checked by separating the head as fast as it rises; and if the wine is to be brisk, the fermentation ought to be, as far as possible, in a close vessel, and the liquor bottled before the fermenting process is completely finished. Such wine should be bottled on the approach of spring; this too is the best period for adding flavour-

ing substances, and brandy, which will now incorporate best with the wine. Fermentation is more rapid and more perfect in large than in small vessels; thus, two gallons would occupy a much longer time in fermentation than ten gallons.

Clean casks are very important. The cask should be washed with hot salt and water, then with hot water, and lastly with a portion of the fermented liquor made to boil. Washing the vat with lime-water, immediately after the lime is perfectly slaked, is much recommended as a corrective of the predominance of acid in English fruits.

After the liquor is removed from the vat, the liquor will still undergo a slow fermentation in the cask, during which time some of the liquor will evaporate. The cask should, however, be kept filled near the bung-hole, else the scum cannot be thrown out. When the *fret* subsides, close the bung-hole, and bore a hole with a gimlet for a peg to be withdrawn occasionally, else there will be danger of the cask bursting. In the following spring, you determine whether you bottle or keep in wood another year; but wines that have been properly fermented and promise well, will be improved by remaining in the cask another year. In this case, one gallon of brandy must be added to twenty gallons of wine; and, if the wine wants rich flavour, add at the same time sugar-candy, in the proportion of five pounds to twenty gallons.

Dry, clear weather should be selected for bottling: if the liquor should not be sufficiently fine, draw a quart off, in which dissolve isinglass in the proportion of half-an-ounce to twenty gallons, and pour the solution in at the bung-hole. In about three weeks, the liquor will be sufficiently clear for bottling. In drawing off, care must be taken to tap the cask above the lees. For bottling, the wines should be fine and brilliant, or they will never brighten after. When bottled, the wine should be stored in a cool cellar, and the bottles laid on their sides and in saw-dust, but on no account set upright. These general observations will be found serviceable in making British wines, although much of their success depends on skill and judgment in the application of them. We subjoin a few receipts for British wines most in use.

Red Currant Wine.

TAKE seventy pounds of red currants, bruised and pressed; good moist sugar, forty-five pounds; water sufficient to fill up a fifteen-gallon cask, and ferment. This produces a very pleasant red wine, rather tart, but keeps well.

White Currant.

To each gallon of the juice of white currants, add three and a half pounds of good moist sugar, stir them well together, let the liquor stand twelve hours, and then pour it into the cask, adding twelve ounces of crude tartar, powdered, to each twenty gallons, mixing it well; allow it to ferment for three months, carefully filling

up, and covering the bung-hole with a tile; then bung down close, and have the spile peg rather loose, examining the cask occasionally, for six months, when it may be bottled.—*Vintner's Guide*.

Another receipt is, to add two gallons of water to every gallon of juice, and to every gallon, when mixed, three pounds of fine lump sugar; put it into the cask, and leave the bung-hole open; when it has worked fourteen days, put into it, in a bag suspended about half way from the bung, one pint of mustard seed, previously steeped in a quart of brandy, and in twelve months it may be tapped, when it will be little inferior to Lisbon wine.

Black Currant.

To seven gallons of the juice of the currant, and the same quantity of water, add fifty-six pounds of good raw sugar; when it has fermented in a cask, add one gallon of brandy, and let it remain for twelve months.

Mixed Currant.

FOR a fine currant wine, take black, red, and white currants, ripe cherries, raspberries, and strawberries, of each an equal quantity. To every four pounds well bruised, add a gallon of clear soft water. Steep three days in open vessels, stirring frequently; then strain through a sieve, and press the pulp to dryness. To each gallon, put three pounds of good, rich, moist sugar. Let the whole stand three days, skim off the top, and stir frequently. Tun it into casks, and let it work for a fortnight; then to every nine gallons, add a quart of brandy, and bung up the casks; fine with isinglass, if necessary.

Raspberry Wine.

RASPBERRIES and sugar will produce a liquor with little, if any, of the flavour of the fruit; but a small quantity of the juice of raspberries added at the decline of the fermentation, or a little fresh fruit suspended in the cask at the same period, will give it an excellent raspberry flavour.

Gooseberry Wine.

A FINE wine may be made as follows:—To every two gallons of full ripe gooseberries mashed, add an equal quantity of soft water, milk-warm, in which has been dissolved one pound of loaf sugar. Stir up the whole in a tub, and cover with a blanket; let it ferment three days, frequently stirring it; then strain through a sieve, and a coarse cloth: put the liquor in a cask, and ferment from ten days to three weeks, when brandy, in the proportion of one bottle to every two gallons, and the same quantity of sherry, should be poured in, together with a small quantity of isinglass, perfectly dissolved in water. Close the cask tightly: if, at the end of a fortnight, it is not sweet enough, add more sugar. Close finally for six months, and then bottle; or sooner, if it is wished to imitate sparkling champagne.

Another method is:—Take a bushel of ripe gooseberries, when they are about two-thirds ripe, and put them into a tub with nine

gallons of water, let them stand twenty-four hours, put then into a press, and to the liquor add forty pounds of good lump sugar; put it into a cask, bung it up, and let it stand twelve months; then bottle it, and be careful to wire the corks

French Method of Making Superior Gooseberry and Currant Wines.

For *Currant Wine*:—Dissolve eight pounds of honey in fifteen gallons of boiling water: to which, when clarified, add the juice of eight pounds of red or white currants. Then ferment twenty-four hours, and to every two gallons of water add two pounds of sugar. Then clarify with whites of eggs and cream of tartar.

For *Gooseberry Wine*:—Gather the fruit dry, when about half ripe, and beat it in a mortar; strain the juice through a canvass-bag, and mix it with sugar, in the proportion of three pounds to every two gallons of juice. Leave it quiet for fifteen days, when it should be carefully poured off, and left to ferment three months, when the quantity is under fifteen gallons; and for five months, when double that quantity. It should then be bottled, when it will soon become fit for drinking.—*Gardener's Magazine.*

Elder Wine.

A GOOD method of making this very agreeable wine is as follows:—To every gallon of berries, put a gallon of water, and let them stand twenty-four hours, often stirring them; then put them into a copper, and boil well for half an hour; then draw off, and strain through a sieve; then put the juice into the copper a second time, and to each gallon of liquor, add three and a half pounds of moist sugar; let it boil well for half an hour; in the last five minutes, add bruised ginger and allspice, of each four ounces to every ten gallons; then take it out, and, when cool, put in a toast covered with good yeast; let it work well. When it has done fermenting, put it into a cask; stop it close; let it stand three or four months, and then bottle it off. This wine will possess all that rich and full flavour which is so much admired by good judges. The wine may, however, remain in the wood if more convenient, although it is much improved by bottling.

The making of elder wine is a very simple process, although almost every farm house has its peculiar method. It should be well boiled, or it will not keep. Damsons, sloes, or any acid plum, will give it the roughness of port wine; spices should be added with caution.

Orange Wine.

TAKE thirty pounds of good raw sugar, and ten gallons of water; boil them for half an hour, and clarify with the whites of six eggs; pour the boiling liquor upon the peels of one hundred oranges, add the strained juice of three oranges and half a pint of yeast; let it ferment three or four days, then strain into a barrel, and bung it up loosely; in a month, add four pints of brandy, and in three months it will be fit to drink.

Dr. Kitchiner, in his last work, *The Housekeeper's Oracle*, gives the following receipt for nine gallons:—First, pare fifty-four Seville oranges very thin, and put the rinds into hot water for a few hours; then throw the water away, and put enough to cover them, as the first water is apt to be too bitter. Let them stand two or three days, then strain off, and reserve the liquor to flavour the wine when in the cask. Squeeze the fifty-four Seville oranges with fifty-four China oranges; cover the pulp with two or three gallons of hot water for twenty-four hours, and strain the whole through a thick cloth. Put twenty-seven pounds of lump sugar into a tub, and dissolve it with three or four gallons of hot water, taking care that the juice and water before-mentioned shall not exceed nine gallons. Put the whole into a cask, the juice first, stirring it up well, and, after it has done working, add one pint of brandy: it will be fit to bottle in nine months; but if kept longer it is supposed to improve.

Ginger Wine.

DISSOLVE fifteen pounds of loaf sugar in 10 gallons of water, into which put the beat whites of twelve eggs; mix this well, and boil and skim it; then put to it twelve ounces of Jamaica ginger, peeled and bruised; boil the whole for half an hour in a covered vessel. When the liquor is nearly cold, put into the tub a glassful of fresh yeast. Let it ferment for three days, and on the second add the thin parings of four Seville oranges and six lemons. Cask it, and bottle off in six weeks or less.

Another method is:—Three pounds of moist sugar to every gallon of water, and two ounces of ginger to each gallon, boil and skim them well one hour; when luke-warm, put a large yeast toast into the barrel, and one sliced lemon to each gallon; stir all together, and it will be fit to drink in two months. When bottled, the corks should be wired.

Raisin Wine,

A FEW years since, was very generally made in families, till the introduction of cape and other second-rate wines. A pleasant and healthy wine may be made as follows, at any season of the year:—For twenty gallons, take one hundred pounds of Malaga raisins, pick off the stalks, chop them coarsely, and put them into an open vessel more wide than deep; put thirteen gallons of water to them, and let them stand fifteen days, stirring them well daily; then strain and press them, putting aside the liquor that flows from them; add seven gallons of water to the raisins which have thus been pressed, and let it stand for a week, frequently stirring them as before directed; then press off the liquor, add to it what is first collected, putting both runnings into the vessel, together with one quart of brandy. When the liquor in the barrel has done singing, stop it close, and let it stand.

Damson Wine.

To every eight pounds of damsons, add one gallon of boiling

water; allow it to stand three days; strain off the liquor, and to every gallon add three pounds of raw sugar; put it into a cask, and ferment, with the bung loose, two months; then drive it in close, let it stand four months longer; and, when fine, bottle off.

Grape Wine.

THE finest British wine is manufactured from grapes; and in those parts of the country where the fruit is abundant, it is still made in considerable quantities. One of the methods most in practice is as follows:—Put two bushels and a half of ripe grapes into a tub, with eight gallons of soft water; let them stand for three days, and then press them; add the juice to the water, with twenty pounds of strong raw sugar; then draw it off into a cask. Let it ferment for about ten days; then add two gallons of brandy, and half a pound of mustard seed. Bung it down close for six or eight months, and it will then be fit to tap.

DR. MACCULLOCH'S RECEIPTS FOR MAKING WINES.

WE abridge the following from Dr. Macculloch's excellent Practical Rules for managing Wines made from Fruits of British growth.

Wine from unripe Gooseberries.

CHOOSE the fruit before it has shown the least tendency to ripen, but about the time when it has nearly attained its full growth. The *green Bath* is perhaps among the best gooseberries. The smallest should be separated by a sieve properly adapted to this purpose, and any unsound or bruised fruit rejected, while the remains of the blossom and fruit stalk should be removed. Put forty pounds of this fruit into a tub, carefully cleaned (the quantities, in all the receipts, are computed for a cask of ten gallons), and of the capacity of fifteen or twenty gallons, in which the fruit is to be bruised in successive portions, by a pressure sufficient to burst the berries, without breaking the seeds, or much pressing the skins. Then pour four gallons of water into the vessel, carefully stir the contents, and squeeze them in the hand until the whole of the juice and pulp are separated from the solid matters. The materials are then to remain at rest from six to twenty-four hours, when they are to be strained through a coarse bag. One gallon of fresh water may afterwards be passed through the *marc*, or pulp, &c. Then dissolve thirty pounds of white sugar in the juice thus procured, and make up the total bulk with water to the amount of ten gallons and a half. The liquor thus obtained is the artificial *must*, or juice of the grape. Next pour it into a tub, over which place a blanket or similar substance covered by a board; the vessel being placed in a temperature from fifty-five to sixty degrees of the thermometer. Here it may remain for twenty-four hours or two days, according to its symptoms of fermentation, and from this tub it is to be drawn into the cask in which it is to ferment. When in the cask, it must be filled nearly to the bung-hole, and kept so filled as the fermentation proceeds. When the fermentation has somewhat subsided, the bung may be driven in, and a spile-hole bored, the peg being loosened occasionally till the fermentation has entirely ceased. The wine thus made must remain over the winter in a cool cellar; and, if required, it

may be bottled some clear and cold day, towards the end of February or beginning of March, without further precaution. To insure its fineness, however, it is better to decant it towards the end of December, into a fresh cask, so as to clear it from its first lees. If the wine be too sweet, instead of decanting it, stir up the lees so as to renew the fermenting process; taking care, also, to increase the temperature at the same time. At whatever time the wine has been decanted, it is to be fined, in the usual way, with isinglass. Sometimes it is found expedient to decant it a second time into a fresh cask, and again to fine it. All these removals should be made in clear, dry, and, if possible, cold weather. In any case, it must be bottled during the month of March.

Dr. Macculloch then describes a few variations of the foregoing process. The husk of the gooseberry, or the whole of the *marc*, as well as the juice, may be fermented together in the vat with the sugar, in the first stage of the process. The fermentation will thus be more rapid, and the wine prove stronger and less sweet, but it will acquire more flavour. Crude tartar may be added to the must, in the proportion of six ounces.

If it is wished to have a very sweet, as well as brisk wine, the quantity of sugar may be increased to forty pounds.

If the wine is intended to be less sweet, and less strong, than in the first case, the sugar must be reduced to twenty-five pounds. Thus made, it will rarely fail to be brisk; but will, at the same time, be less durable. Wines of this kind will resemble the inferior classes of champagne, and must commonly be consumed within the twelvemonth.

The proportion of fruit adopted in this receipt, is that in common use; but to insure briskness without excessive sweetness, or the chance of being obliged to renew the fermentation, it is recommended to increase the proportion of fruit to fifty pounds, when the sugar is thirty. If, during the fermentation of the wine thus formed, there should be any danger of the sweetness disappearing altogether, it may be decanted, and the fermentation then checked by fining. Thus it will speedily be fit for use.

The same proportions and precautions apply to *Wine from unripe Currants*; but this fruit is still better calculated for brisk wines than the gooseberry.

It must be understood, that in no case is the solid matter to be introduced into the cask; and if the head, which is formed in the fermenting vat, should acquire a sour or a musty smell, it is to be carefully separated. In those cases, also, where the solid matter is not to be fermented with the fluid, the juice, or *must*, may be introduced at once into the cask, without previously remaining in the vat.

Wine from unripe Grapes.—The fruit may be of different degrees of ripeness, and the varieties mixed. The same proportions of fruit and sugar will be proper as when gooseberries and currants are employed, but the tartar must be omitted. The husks, also, may be permitted to ferment with the liquor in the vat. The subsequent management is precisely the same as that described above. Dr. Macculloch also says, an excellent wine may be made from the leaves and tendrils of the vine; but the process is by no means so certain as either of the preceding, and is consequently less calculated for domestic practice.

Wine from ripe Gooseberries and Currants, may be made either sweet or dry. The rules immediately preceding, which relate to the fermentation, require equally to be attended to in this case. If sweet wine is intended, the quantity of fruit should not exceed forty pounds; if dry wine

is desired, it may extend to sixty. The proportion of sugar will be thirty pounds, as before. If a much stronger, of either quality, is desired, it must extend to forty. The same precautions are required in the selection and care of the fruit, and the management of the husks.

Wine from ripe Grapes.—No water is to be used; but, as the juice of the fruit is, in general, deficient in sugar, it is necessary that from one to two pounds of sugar should be added to each gallon of must. The addition of tartar is also useful in this case. The remainder of the management is as before.

A superior class of wines is made by the juices of British fruits, without any water being added.

Management of British Wines.

A FEW hints on keeping and improving domestic wines, will be found very useful.

There are several methods of *sweetening casks*: the following is very simple.—set fire to a pound or more of broken charcoal, put it into the cask, and immediately fill up the cask with boiling water. After this, roll the cask once or twice a day for a week; then pour out the charcoal and water, wash out the cask with clean cold water, and expose it to the external air some days.

Poor Wines may be improved by being racked off, and returned into the cask again; and then putting into the wine about one pound of raisins bruised, and a quart of brandy. An ounce of powdered roach alum, mixed in four gallons of the wine, and returned to the cask, will make the whole fine and brisk in ten days. Ripe medlars or bruised mustard seed will likewise remove mustiness, or other disagreeable taste.

Pricked Wines may be restored by being racked off in a fresh cask that has had in it the same kind of wine. The cask is to be matched or sulphured; and to every ten gallons put two ounces of oyster-shell powder and half an ounce of bay salt; then stir it, and let it stand a few days to fine; after which, rack it off into another cask, also matched. A quart of brandy should also be added to every ten gallons. A fresh empty cask is preferable.

LIQUEURS AND MISCELLANEOUS BEVERAGES.

FOREIGN LIQUEURS may now be purchased at a moderate rate of any wine-merchant or Italian warehouseman in London. Imitations of three of the most celebrated may, however, be made as follows:

*Ratifa.**

BOIL equal quantities of gooseberries and sugar into a thick jelly, over which pour a little white wine. Let the mixture remain a

* We cannot sufficiently caution the reader against the danger of purchasing spurious *Ratifa*, or *Noyeau*. A melancholy proof of this occurred not long since at Pisa. Two ladies were living together in that city, when one of them complaining of cramp in her stomach, the other gave her a wine glass of *ratifa*. Shortly after having swallowed it she died—so evidently in consequence of poison, that strong suspicions fell on

few days, when it should be pressed out and filtered, and half the quantity of brandy added, with spices to the palate. A pleasant ratifia may also be made with 1 gallon of water, 1 pint of brandy, and 1 pound of sugar, flavoured at pleasure. If to this be added apricot-stones, broken, dried in the air, powdered, and steeped in brandy, an agreeable noyau may be produced.

A simple method is, however, to fill a large bottle lightly with the full blossom of the white thorn, upon which pour French brandy; let it stand 2 or 3 months, when it may be decanted, and sweetened with sugar.

Curacoa.

IN a gallon of white brandy infuse 6 ounces of dried Seville orange-chips, 1 ounce of dried orange-flowers, and 1 ounce of cinnamon, for 3 days. Then strain the liquor through a fine cloth, and add 5 pounds of boiled sugar, and colour with sugar boiled black.

Martinique Noyeau.

BLANCH 1 pound of bitter almonds, $\frac{1}{2}$ a pound of sweet almonds, and 2 ounces of cassia-buds. Put them, with 2 gallons of British gin, into a barrel, and shake it every day for a fortnight. Then make a syrup of sugar and 3 quarts of water, and put it into the barrel milk-warm. Add 3 quarts of spirits of wine, a pint of ratifia, 4 ounces of orange-flower water, the juice of 2 lemons, and a piece of burnt alum, about the size of a walnut. Shake the barrel occasionally for 3 or 4 days. Then add half an ounce of isinglass, dissolved in half a pint of gin, reserved from the 2 gallons for that purpose. Shake the barrel only once afterwards, let the whole remain 3 or 4 days, and then filter it through an earthenware cylinder, with blotting-paper laid on it, changing the paper every time it is empty. In 2 days and nights full 16 clear quarts will be produced; when bottled, dip the corks in melted resin.

Brandy Shrub.

ORANGES and lemons, four each; loaf sugar, two pounds; rub the sugar on the fruit till the whole of the yellow rind is off: then add one gallon of brandy, allow the sugar to dissolve in the spirit, mix and add one pint of orange juice, one pint of lemon juice, and two quarts of water that has boiled and stood to cool.

Rum Shrub may be prepared in a similar manner, using rum instead of brandy.

Cherry Brandy.

STONE 6 pounds of fine black cherries; pour on them 4 quarts of the best brandy; bruise the stones in a mortar, and put

her friend; who, to prove her innocence, took the same quantity of ratifia herself which she had administered to the deceased, and expired within a few hours.—Prompted by this circumstance, Professor Santi, of Pisa, wrote a beautiful little work, to show that ratifia has of late years been made with Italian laurel leaves, the extract from which is a deadly poison.

Starke's Directions for Travellers on the Continent, 1828,

the kernels in with the cherries; cover them close, and let the whole stand a fortnight; then squeeze them clean from sediment through muslin. Boil 2 pounds of very white sugar to clear syrup; mix it with the strained brandy, and bottle it. It may be used in two months, and should be kept in a cool cellar.

Raspberry Brandy.

To each quart of the juice of fine ripe raspberries put a pound and a quarter of loaf sugar; stir it well, cover it closely for 3 days, and then pour off the clear liquor, to each quart of which add two quarts of good brandy.

Dr. Kitchiner's "Warm-Heart."

CUT, with a very sharp knife, the yellow peel (without any of the white) of 9 middling-sized lemons; put the peels into a jar that will hold a gallon, pour on them a pint of the strongest rectified spirit of wine, and shake them about; this will mix with their essential oil, and render it easy to be extracted. After remaining 12 hours, add 3 bottles of rum; let them stop 12 hours longer, and then strain off. Now squeeze the lemons, which should give about $\frac{3}{4}$ of a pint of juice; pour a quart of boiling water upon the pulps, &c. of the squeezed lemons; after 5 minutes, strain it into an earthenware barrel, with a spigot and faucet, and which holds 4 gallons; then add the lemon-juice, the rum, 3 bottles of brandy, 2 of Madeira, (or Sherry or Lisbon,) and 1 quart of thick syrup, which is to be made in the following manner:—Break into bits 4 pounds of good lump sugar, put it into a clean stewpan that is well tinned, with a quart of cold spring-water; when the sugar is dissolved, set it over a moderate fire; beat the white of an egg, and put a quarter of it to the sugar before it gets warm; stir it well together, watch it, when it boils take off the scum; keep it boiling till no scum rises, and its surface is perfectly clear; then run it through a clean napkin, pour it into the barrel, and stir it till thoroughly mixed; add 4 quarts of boiling milk, stir all again thoroughly together, and bung it down tight till it is cold; then strain through a flannel jelly bag till it is quite clear.

These ingredients will yield about 15 bottles, the cost of which will be about 3s. per bottle! It is a very nice thing for evening parties; and a wine-glass of it in a tumbler of water is an extremely agreeable and refreshing beverage in warm weather.—*Traveller's Oracle.*

Regent's Punch.

TAKE 3 bottles of champagne, 1 bottle of hock, a bottle of curaçoa, a quart of brandy, a pint of rum, 2 bottles of Madeira, 2 bottles of Seltzer water, 4 pounds of bloom raisins, Seville oranges, lemons, white sugar-candy, and, instead of water, green tea. The whole to be highly iced.

To Improve British Brandy.

PUT about eight French plums to every pint of spirit; let them

steep for ten days, and strain, when the spirit will have the flavour of French brandy.

Milk Punch.

PARE six oranges and six lemons as thin as possible; steep the peels in a bottle of rum or brandy, stopped close twenty-four hours; squeeze the fruit on two pounds of sugar; add to it four quarts of water, and one of milk, boiling hot. Stir the rum into the above, and run it through a jelly-bag till perfectly clear. Bottle, and cork close immediately.

Norfolk Punch.

PARE six lemons and three Seville oranges very thin; squeeze the juice into a large jar; put to it two quarts of brandy, one of white wine, and one of milk, and one pound and a quarter of sugar. Mix, and cover for twenty-four hours; strain through a jelly-bag till clear, then bottle it.

Capillaire.

TAKE 2 quarts of water and 14 pounds of loaf sugar; simmer them over the fire, and when lukewarm, add the whites of 4 or 5 eggs well beaten, and during the simmering, skim off the eggs, &c. till scum ceases to rise. Then flavour with orange-flower water.

Italian Lemonade.

THIS is an elegant beverage for routs, evening parties, &c., and in richness almost equals liqueur. To make about a gallon of it, 2 dozen lemons should be pared and pressed, and the juice poured on the peels, and allowed to remain on them 12 hours. 2 pounds of loaf sugar, a quart of white wine, and 3 quarts of boiling water should then be added, and subsequently a quart of boiling milk. The whole should then be clarified through a jelly-bag.

Orangeade

MAY be made by steeping the rinds of 6 China and 2 Seville oranges in a quart of boiling water, for about 6 hours. 3 pints of water and a pound of sugar should then be made into a syrup, and added to the above, with the juice of 12 China and of 2 Seville oranges. The whole being well stirred, should be passed through a jelly-bag. Should sweetness be wanted, orange-flower water and capillaire may be added; and, according to taste, 2 lemons.

Syrup of Currants.

IN France a pleasant beverage is made from this syrup, mixed with water. Take twenty pounds of ripe currants; prick them, and put them into a vessel on the fire, and let them get just so hot that the greater part shall burst, or the pulps become discoloured. Pour them out gradually into a sieve, and add one pint of cherry juice, prepared in the same way to that of the currants. Place the liquor in a cool cellar, and thirty-six hours afterwards strain

the jelly through clean cloths; then add about one pound of lump sugar, and bottle off the syrup till wanted.

Raspberry Vinegar.

MASH two quarts of raspberries, let them stand in a pan to get sour; strain the juice through a sieve, and to every pint put a pound of loaf sugar, and a pint of Beaufoy's Crystal Vinegar (or the usual white wine vinegar); let it boil ten minutes, skim, and when cold, bottle.

Orgeat.

BLANCH two pounds of sweet, and a quarter of a pound of bitter almonds; rub them to a paste in a mortar with water; strain through a tammy, and add four pounds of lump sugar to the liquid. Boil together, with a quarter of a pint of orange-flower water, ten minutes, and skim. When cold, bottle.

Ginger Beer.

THIS beverage, of a superior quality, may be prepared as follows:—Powder of ginger, 1 oz.; cream of tartar, $\frac{1}{2}$ an oz.; loaf sugar 2 lbs. A large lemon sliced and 1 gallon of water added together, and simmered over the fire for half an hour; fermented in the usual way with a table-spoonful of yeast, and bottle it close for use; it may be proper to observe, that it should be put into bottles used for soda water and closely corked.

Spruce Beer

Is now seldom drunk. For *White Spruce*—To ten gallons of boiling water, add six pounds of good raw or lump sugar, four ounces of essence of spruce, and about half a pint of good yeast; ferment, and bottle in half pints. *Brown Spruce* is similarly prepared, using treacle instead of sugar.

Mock Arrack.

THE punch at Vauxhall, so generally admired by visitors, is made with Mock Arrack, or two scruples of Flowers of Benjamin dissolved in each quart of Rum.

Making Coffee.

IN no country is coffee worse made than in England. Of Europeans, the French are the most celebrated for their coffee; and the following is their method, extracted from a pretty little volume, called *The Coffee Drinker's Manual*, translated from the French. The original is written by the proprietor of one of the most splendid *cafés* in Paris.

The principal points are these:—The coffee should be roasted only till it is of a *cinnamon colour*, and closely covered up during the process of roasting. In France this is done in closed iron cylinders, turned over a fire by a handle or winch, like a grindstone. The coffee should be coarsely ground soon after it is roasted, but not until it is quite cold. The proportions for making are *one pint of boiling water to two ounces and a half of coffee*. The water being poured on the coffee, the coffee-pot

should be covered up, and left for two hours surrounded with hot cinders, so as to keep up the temperature, without making the liquor boil. Occasionally stir it; and after two hours infusion, remove it from the fire, and allow it twenty minutes to settle, and when perfectly clear, decant it: when wanted, it may be boiled up again. Isinglass, hartshorn shavings, sole skin, &c. are sometimes used to clarify coffee; but connoisseurs consider this prejudicial to the aromatic flavour of the coffee. In France, coffee is sometimes mixed with *chicorée*, a bitter weed, which is recommended by some physicians: the proportions are, a tea-spoonful to one ounce of coffee.

But the causes of our failure in making good coffee in England are—1. Over-roasting the berries; 2. grinding them too fine; 3. not using enough coffee: for unless these points are attended to, we cannot produce good coffee. Over-boiling is another evil, as it extracts the bitter principle from the berries.

It is advisable to roast your own *Coffee*, as grocers are only allowed by the excise laws to roast a large quantity at once; and to obtain coffee fresh roasted is consequently a chance. Powdered sugar-candy, to sweeten coffee, is a material improvement.

Coffee Cream

BOIL a calf's foot in water till it wastes to a pint of jelly, clear of sediment and fat. Make a cup of strong clear coffee, pour it to the jelly, and add a pint of very good cream; sweeten with Lisbon sugar, and boil up. It should jelly, but not be stiff.

ECONOMICAL HINTS.

THE following miscellaneous hints are collected from various authorities, as well as from our own experience, and will be found very useful to those entrusted with the management of a house and family.

Wax Candles, four in the pound, will last about eleven hours, and should be used only when the evening is expected to be five hours, as, in that case, each candle will serve for two nights. Shorter candles, of six to the pound, are preferable when required to burn six or seven hours.

A French table-lamp will consume a quarter of a pint of oil in four hours and a half.

In a common japanned kitchen lamp, with one burner, one-eighth of a pint of oil will last upwards of nine hours, for the expense of $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ when oil is $8s.$ a gallon.

In every five chaldrons of *Coals* there is an allowance of three additional sacks, called the ingrain.

Wetting Coals is wasteful, because the moisture, in being evaporated, carries off the heat, and makes a bad fire.

A *Filtering Apparatus* will be found a valuable acquisition to an establishment where the family drink water at table.

Ten shank bones of Mutton, which may be bought for $2\frac{1}{2}d.$, will give as much jelly as a calf's foot, which costs $1s.$

Forced Fruits never have half the flavour of those which are fed with the fresh air, and ripen gradually in due season.

New Potatoes are scarcely worth eating till they cost little. Framed potatoes have not half the flavour of field potatoes, which are not good till they are not more than $2d.$ per pound.

Heating Apartments by Stoves is destructive to furniture. Lambert, in his *Canadian Tour*, states that English made furniture falls to pieces in the winter drawing-rooms of Quebec. The effects even of a low stove-heat are very pernicious, especially to piano-fortes and other musical instruments.

ROUT SUPPERS.

BEFORE we conclude this division of the Housekeeper's duties, we must give the substance of a few judicious observations on *Rout Suppers*, from the Appendix to the last edition of Ude's *French Cook*. M. Ude first suggested the plan to Lord Sefton, whose refined epicurism is the admiration of all diners-out; and under the patronage of this distinguished Nobleman these suppers were brought into fashion. Instead of the supper being set on table, and the company seated, M. Ude's plan is to ornament the sideboard with a basket of fruit, instead of imitative pastry, &c. *Things that can be eaten*, as jelly, plates of mixed pastry, and superior sandwiches, should take the place of mere ornaments; but, adds the distinguished *artiste*, make excellent articles, but never in too great profusion. The chief fault of all cooks is, that they are too profuse in their preparations. The persons who attend a ball given by one of the nobility are, it is to be presumed, of the same class, and have the same customs, dining at a late hour, and are not to be tempted even by the most enticing assemblage of aspic of fowls, of lobsters, of fillet of sole, ham, &c."

M. Ude recommends a label to be affixed to each plate, indicating its contents: for a simple *soirée*, or evening party, some sandwiches, of fowl, ham, veal, or tongue, some plates of pastry, and here and there some baskets of fruit. For a select ball he recommends sandwiches of suprême of fowl, fillets of soles, sandwiches of salads, &c. For the latter, at least, the bread should be expressly made in moulds, "so that the cavities usual in the crumb may be close, and the crust that remains not dried up. This bread is for the fillets of soles: the bread for the other sandwiches should be made round and long, for these are left with the crust on, and they would not otherwise have sufficient substance, but would bend, and not be so good."

THE COOK.

COOKERY is, strictly speaking, a science ; and an experienced Cook is a Professor. *Systems* and *Treatises* to explain the principles and practice of Cookery have hence multiplied so fast with the taste and luxury of the times, that to furnish the reader with a mere abridgment of the various modes of Cookery now adopted, would require the whole of the present volume. All that we shall attempt will be a brief view of the Elements of Plain Cookery, with a few of the superior dishes most in use ; presuming that our hints, aided by the good sense of the reader, will enable her to attain something near excellence in her art ; while such as have inclination and opportunity to *study* the science of Cookery will do well to provide themselves with either of the undermentioned books.*

Cleanliness is considered the first virtue of every cook ; in this respect females are considered superior to those of the other sex. Great care is requisite with the utensils you make use of ; entrust to no one but yourself the examination of the copper utensils of the kitchen, which are very dangerous. Every time you use a saucepan, see that it has been well scoured and cleaned ; if the inside be not clean, it will happen that the taste be entirely spoiled, and the persons who eat dishes cooked in dirty vessels are often afflicted with colics and other maladies, without knowing the cause of them. The tinning of saucepans, stewpans, &c., will likewise require frequent examination, for many accidents have occurred from this point being neglected.

* Domestic Cookery, by a Lady.

Cook's Oracle, by Dr. Kitchiner.

Cook and Housewife's Manual, by Mrs. Dods.

Cookery and Confectionary, by J. C. Cooke.

Practice of Cookery, by Mrs. Dalgairns.

The best Treatise on *French Cookery*, is by Mons. Ude ; and Jar-
rin's *Italian Confectioner*, will qualify any one in every branch of the
art.

In large establishments, there are men-cooks, and a man-cook is often engaged to assist in the preparation of a large dinner in smaller houses. M. Ude, the author of the "*French Cook*," received a salary of 500*l*. a year, as cook to the late Duke of York.

Soup, gravy, &c. should not be put away in metal utensils,* but in stone or earthenware vessels. Pudding-cloths, tapes, jelly-bags, sieves, tammy-cloths, &c. should be clean, sweet, and dry, otherwise they spoil the flavour of articles cooled in them or passed through them. French cooks recommend wood-ashes for washing kitchen cloths, as soap gives an unpleasant taste to puddings, &c.

One of the most celebrated cooks of the present day, says "It is on a good first broth, and good sauce that you must depend for good cookery: if you have entrusted this part to persons who are negligent, and if your broth has not been well skimmed, you can make but indifferent work; the broth is never clear, and when you are obliged to clarify it, it loses its goodness and savour. A stock-pot, well managed, saves a great deal of trouble, for it would be ridiculous in a small dinner to make several broths. When you have put into the stock-pot the articles and ingredients requisite, the same broth will serve you to make the soup, and white or brown sauce, &c. Economy should be the order of the day, seeing the dearness of every thing used in the kitchen. You should be very careful to take off the fat, and skim the soups and sauces; it is an operation which must be repeated again and again: the smallest drop of fat or grease is insufferable; it characterizes bad cookery, and a Cook without method. The theory of the kitchen appears trifling; but its practice is extensive: many persons talk of it, yet know nothing of it beyond a mutton chop or a beefsteak."

An important point with every Cook should be to learn the particular taste of her employers—how they like their victuals dressed—much, or little done? Of what complexion they wish their roasts, of a gold colour, or well browned? If they like soups thick or thin, white or brown, clear or full in the mouth? What accompaniments they are partial to? What flavour they fancy? especially of spice and herbs. Seasoning high should be avoided, as the eaters may add the condiments, according to their own palate and taste.

The old proverb, "There is no accounting for tastes," was never better applied than in the food of different nations. *Assafœtida*, which we consider a nauseous drug, and few people willingly take as a medicine, was called by the ancients, "Food for the Gods;" in the east it is eaten in sauces, and still called by that name, and we have heard of an Englishman pouring tincture of *Assafœtida* as a sauce over beefsteaks.

* Some years ago, the death of several gentlemen was occasioned at Salt Hill, by the cook sending to table a ragout which she had kept from the preceding day, in a copper vessel badly tinned. If put away damp, saucepans will become crusted with poisonous matter. In August, 1829, a gentleman in Paris was poisoned by partaking of soup which had been warmed in a saucepan infected with verdigrise.

RUDIMENTS OF COOKERY

MAY be classed as follows :—1. *Boiling*.—2. *Roasting*.—3. *Broiling*.—4. *Frying*.—5. *Baking*.

Of these processes, BOILING is the most simple, although, for want of a little attention, much fuel is wasted and food spoiled. The great secret is slow boiling, and the time required for doing the joint; since, it must be very natural to suppose that the food will be less savoury, nourishing, and wholesome when the boiling is violent, and that the best properties must then be carried off with the steam. Besides this, fast boiling always makes the meat hard, less plump, and of darker colour than when boiled gradually. Skimming the pot is another important point, for upon this depends the good appearance and sweetness of boiled meats, &c.; a little cold water and salt will aid in throwing up the scum. Milk put into the pot does more harm than good, and wrapping in a cloth is unnecessary, if the scum be carefully removed. The meat should always be covered with water, but the less water the more savoury will be the meat. Much fuel may be saved by gradually boiling, and by recollecting that after the water has boiled, all additional heat will but the more quickly make the water boil away, and become converted into steam.

Meat loses weight considerably by boiling and roasting, and scientific persons have been at some pains to ascertain the exact loss, which is as follows :—Beef *in boiling* loses 26 lbs. in 100 lbs. or rather more than a quarter; beef *in roasting*, loses one third; beef *in baking*, loses very nearly the same; and legs of mutton *in boiling*, lose one-fifth; the same *in roasting*, about one-third; a loin of mutton *in roasting*, loses rather more than one-third. The result is, that it is more profitable to boil than to roast meat; and whether we roast or boil meat it loses, by being cooked, from one-fifth to one-third of its whole weight. The only real utility of these calculations is to enable the Cook to provide with greater certainty for a stated number of guests. In calculating for a family, large or small, one pound per day for each individual, is a fair allowance both for dinner and supper.

The boiling should be reckoned from the time the pot first comes to a boil. The usual or average time is eighteen to twenty minutes to a pound of fresh meat; salted meat requires rather more water and boiling; fresh-killed meat a much longer time—and all meats longer in cold than warm weather. Smoked or dried meats, and dried and salted fish require to be soaked previously: frozen meat should be thawed by the fire,* and salted

* In frosty weather, meat, poultry, &c., should be brought into the kitchen, early in the morning. If it be *frozen* it will not be possible to make it tender, however it may be cooked. The time meat should hang to be *tender*, must, of course, depend on the state of the weather; but it should always hang in a current of air, and be dried night and morning. Partly roasting or half boiling meat will keep it two days longer. In

meat should likewise be washed with cold water before they are put into the pot. But the surest way to render meat or poultry speedily tender, is to wrap it in a cloth to preserve it from dirt, and expose it the preceding evening to a gentle and constant heat, such as the hearth of a fire-place. Meat or poultry should not remain in the water after it is done, else it will lose its flavour, and become sodden. Some meats are eaten less done than others, as beef and mutton, in which case they hash or boil well; but veal, pork, and lamb should be well done.

There is a difference of opinion respecting the meat being put into cold or hot water. What is generally called pot-liquor, particularly that in which fresh meat or poultry has been boiled, may be easily made into a good and economical soup, or applied to other useful purposes. The liquor in which a salted leg of pork is boiled, will also make excellent pea-soup.

Subjoined are a few examples in

BOILING.

A Round of Beef.—Take it from out the brine,* and, the bone being cut out, wash, skewer, and bind the joint before boiling. Put it on with plenty of cold water, and, when it boils, remove the scum. It is then to be kept simmering for some hours. A joint weighing fifteen pounds, will require three hours and a half to boil. Carrots and turnips for garnishing should be put on to boil with the beef. If in the least tainted, a piece of charcoal may be boiled with it. This receipt is equally applicable to every piece of salted beef, whether ribs, brisket, or edge-bone, except that these pieces being less solid, require, in proportion to their weight, about a sixth less time in boiling.

Leg of Pork, if large, should lie in cold water half an hour to make it white; it should then be boiled gently, allowing twenty minutes for every pound.

Leg of Mutton.—Wash clean, put on in boiling water, and carefully skim. If weighing eight or nine pounds, it should be boiled nearly three hours. If you wish to whiten it, blanch it for ten minutes in warm water, before you boil it. If chickens are wanted for the same dinner, they will boil advantageously with

warm weather, it is as desirable to keep the flies from meat, as it is to keep it from the frost in winter. In Geneva, the butchers prevent flies from attacking the meat in their shops, by rubbing the walls and boards of their shops with the oil of laurel.

* For *salting meat*, see *Housekeeper*, page 12. The following receipt is new:—Get a tub nearly full of rain or river water, and put the tongs, or two pieces of thin wood, across it, and set the beef on them, distant about an inch from the water; heap as much salt as it will hold on your beef, and let it stand for twenty-four hours; then take the meat off and boil it, and you will find it as salt as if it had been in pickle for six weeks.

the mutton, or in some of the liquor in a separate pot. In this case, however, vegetables should not be boiled with the mutton. Slow boiling is very essential to make a leg of mutton eat well.

Leg of Lamb, of five pounds, should simmer very gently for about two hours, from the time it is put on in cold water.

Veal, to look delicately, requires very careful boiling, clean water, and constant skimming.

An *Edgebone of Beef*, of twenty pounds, will take about four hours boiling; of ten pounds, about three hours.

A *Calf's Head* should be cut in two, washed, and soaked in warm water for a quarter of an hour before it is dressed: without the skin, it will take from an hour and a half to two hours and a quarter; with the skin, about an hour longer. Calf's head will make a fine hash, for which some of the liquor it is boiled in should be saved.

Hams and Tongues (the latter dried or pickled,) should be soaked in water, according to their size, before boiling. A Westphalia ham takes from ten to twenty hours to soak; a Yorkshire or Westmoreland ham, from three to seven hours; dried tongue, about twenty hours; pickled tongue, about six hours. All should be boiled *very slowly*, according to their thickness: four or five hours is sufficient for a ham of fifteen pounds; if not to be cut till cold, they require rather more boiling. Trimming improves the appearance of hams and tongues; and all the rusty and skinny pieces should be pared off before the ham or tongue is sent to table.

POULTRY.—A *Chicken* requires from fifteen to twenty minutes boiling; a *Fowl* about forty minutes; a large fowl, or *Capon*, about an hour; a large *Turkey* upwards of two hours. To look white and plump, they should be slowly boiled, not in a cloth, but the pot well scummed. Epicures sometimes direct fowls and small turkeys to be boiled with oysters, and their liquor in a bladder. *Rabbits* require plenty of water, and from half to an hour, according to their age. Conrade Cooke says, "Fowls, chickens, lamb, and rabbits, should be put in boiling water sufficient to cover them, with a small piece of crumb of bread, and about two ounces of chopped mutton or beef suet, and a slice of lemon without peel. The object of this is to keep the article perfectly white during the operation of boiling, and to gather any impurity that may arise. The liquor will serve afterwards to make soups and broths; and, when it is cold, the fat may be used or clarified as dripping.

VEGETABLES are best when in the greatest abundance; when forced, they are almost tasteless. They should be fresh gathered, and washed quite clean; when not recently gathered, they should be laid for several hours in cold water, and well shaken to get out the insects. All should be boiled quickly. *Cabbages*, *savoys*, and *turnip-tops* require that the water should be changed

when half done, which will make them much milder and sweeter. Salt should always be put in the water: when *peas*, *French-beans*, &c. do not boil easily, it has usually been imputed to the coolness of the season or the rains; but this is not the cause, which we have not room to explain at length; the difficulty may be remedied by a teaspoonful of salt of tartar, which will also make them of a fine colour. *Potatoes* may be dressed twenty ways; they are seldom well cooked, which is often owing to their being of unequal sizes. A new method, said to be the best, is to boil the potatoes three or four minutes with a little salt in the water; then to pour off the hot water, fill up the pot with cold water, and put into it a piece of unslaked lime, about the size of a walnut, to eight or ten pounds of potatoes; then pour off the water, and dry them as usual. Glazing potatoes with egg improves them for the table. Two of the best French methods are to fry them crisp in thin slices in good dripping or butter, drain them quite dry on a towel, and serve them hot on a napkin or in a deep dish; or, *à la Maître d'Hotel*, to cut into rather thick slices when boiled, and cover with butter sauce, with pepper, salt, and parsley sprinkled in it, and a lemon, if acid is required. Potatoes may be preserved in a proper state for food for many years, by scalding them, and placing them in a heated oven for a few minutes, so that they be well dried.* It has been satisfactorily ascertained, that good pure or soft water, is best fitted for boiling vegetables: hard water gives a better colour to greens, &c. but vegetables boiled in soft water eat much better. To restore frost-bitten vegetables, lay them in cold water for an hour before boiling, and put a piece of saltpetre into the kettle when set on the fire.

FISH, particularly if large, must be put into cold water with plenty of salt; when ready, it will part from the bone, and should be directly taken out of the water. If not immediately wanted, let it stay on the fish-plate, over the hot water, and throw over it a clean cloth, dipped in boiling water, to preserve its colour. *Turbot*, says M. Ude, which has been kept two or three days, is much better eating than a very fresh one. A middling-sized turbot, of eight or nine pounds, will require about fifteen or twenty minutes gentle boiling. *Brill* is dressed the same way as turbot. A fine thick *Sole* will take about five minutes boiling. A very small *Cod-fish* will require from fifteen to twenty minutes boiling, and a large one half an hour; *sliced Cod*, fifteen minutes. *Salted Fish*, when hard and dry, requires two nights' soaking in two or three waters; the intervening day, lay it on a stone floor. Barrelled and dogger-bank cod will require much less soaking. *Haddock*, of three pounds, will take about ten minutes' boiling. *Salmon* requires about a quarter of an hour to a pound of fish; but the thickness, not the weight, is to be considered; half a

* For choosing *vegetables*, see *Housekeeper*, page 8.

salmon will take little longer than a quarter boiling. *Mackerel* are done when the tail parts, and the eye starts. *Lobsters* are boiled with a table-spoonful of salt to a quart of water, put in when the water boils, and kept boiling from half an hour to an hour; and when done wiped, and the shell slightly rubbed with fresh butter. Soles, cod-fish, whittings, &c. cut into small pieces, and put into escallop shells, with cold sauce and bread crumbs, when browned before the fire, are an economical supper.

ROASTING.

THE success of roasting depends on the fire, which should always be brisk and glowing, and clear at the bottom. Beef requires a strong and steady fire; large joints should be kept at a good distance from the fire, and gradually brought nearer; when nearly done, the smoke will draw from the meat. It is as requisite to *roast slowly* as to boil slowly; the general rule is to allow full a quarter of an hour to a pound for roasting, with a good fire. The warmer the weather, and the staler killed the meat is, the less time it will require roasting; very fat meat requires more time than lean.

Neither beef nor mutton require to be so well done as pork, lamb, and veal. Pork, in particular, requires to be thoroughly done. Pigs, and young pork, require a brisk fire, and quick turning. A little sweet oil rubbed over a leg or loin of pork will make the crackling crisper and browner than basting. The following instructions may, in most cases be taken as a certain guide for the Cook:—

BEEF.—*A Sirloin* of about sixteen pounds, will take three hours and a half or four hours roasting; *Ribs* of nearly the same weight, being thinner, will require half an hour less. A sirloin of beef, being very delicate, requires some extra care in the roasting. When the joint is very large, the fire must be more moderate, as it is a long time before the middle can be warm. If the fire is sharp, the meat will be burnt on the outside and raw in the middle: the spit should not be put too low, else the meat will loose a great deal of heat, receiving it only from the top. To keep down the colour, it is better to cover it (but not too closely) with a few sheets of white paper, and uncover it only when the meat is nearly done.

MUTTON requires a brisk and sharp fire. *A Leg* of eight or nine pounds, will take about two hours; a *Loin* or *Neck*, from an hour and a half to an hour and three quarters; a *Breast*, an hour and a quarter; a *Haunch*, of fifteen pounds, about three hours and a half.

VEAL requires to be managed as beef. *A Fillet*, of fourteen or sixteen pounds, will take from four to five hours; a *Loin*, about three hours; a *Breast*, from an hour and a half to two hours; a *Shoulder*, from three to three hours and a half; a *Neck*, two hours.

LAMB, as well as veal, should be thoroughly done. *A Hind-*

quarter of lamb, of eight pounds, will take nearly two hours roasting; a *Fore-quarter*, of ten pounds, about two hours; a *Leg*, of six pounds, one hour and a half; *Loin* of ditto, of four ditto, one hour; *Neck* of ditto, of three ditto, three quarters an hour; *Shoulder* of ditto, with a brisk fire, an hour; *Ribs*, (to be cracked across and jointed,) about an hour, to be divided from the brisket when roasted; *Breast*, three quarters of an hour.

PORK, if under done, is not eatable. A *Leg*, of eight pounds, will require about two hours and a half roasting; a *Loin* of ditto, of seven ditto, two hours; *Griskin*, of seven or eight pounds, an hour and a half; *Spare-rib*, of eight or nine pounds, from two to three hours, according to the thickness. A *Sucking-pig* is very troublesome to roast; one three weeks old, requires about an hour and a half; but most persons have pigs baked, when a quarter of a pound of butter should be sent for the baker to baste them.

POULTRY and GAME should be singed when put to the fire; and, when nearly done, just before taking off the spit, should be frothed up; which is done by taking off the paper and basting with butter, then dredging them over with flour, and basting them once more with butter, suffering them to turn three or four times round, after they are done fit to dish up.

A very large *Turkey*, will require about three hours roasting; one of eight or ten pounds, about two hours; and a small one, an hour and a half. A full-grown *Fowl*, will require about an hour, and a *Chicken*, from twenty to forty minutes; and, to prevent the gizzard and liver being scorched, they should be covered with buttered paper. A *Goose*, will take an hour and a quarter, and a *Green Goose*, three quarters of an hour; a *Duck*, three quarters of an hour; *Leveret*, half an hour; a middling-sized *Hare*, an hour and a quarter, (the neck-skin being cut to let the blood out); *Rabbit*, from half to three quarters of an hour; a *Pheasant*, three quarters of an hour; *Guinea* and *Pea-fowls*, as pheasants; *Partridge*, half an hour; *Black-cock*, *Moor-game*, and *Grouse*, same as partridges; *Wild-ducks*, fifteen or twenty minutes; *Teal*, ten minutes; *Widgeons*, fifteen minutes; *Wood-cock*, twenty minutes; *Snipes*, about five minutes less; *Pigeon*, twenty minutes; *Fieldfares*, fifteen minutes; *Plovers*, twenty-five minutes; *Larks*, and other small birds, fifteen minutes.

Pheasants and partridges, for roasting, should be slit in the back part of the neck, the craw taken out, leaving on the head, the feet twisted closely to the body, the claws cut off, and the head turned under the wing. A pheasant is served with gravy in the dish; partridges with a gravy, or laid upon buttered toast, and melted butter poured round them. Bread sauce is served with both. Guinea and pea-fowls are roasted like pheasants. Black-cock and moor-fowl, in the same way, and served with gravy in the dish, and bread sauce in a sauce tureen. Wild-duck, or goose, requires a quick fire, and to be well basted

with butter; when to be served, beef gravy is poured through the duck into the dish, and in a sauce tureen some hot port wine; the breast is then cut, sprinkled with salt and cayenne, the juice of half a lemon squeezed over it, and the port wine is then poured all over; or many prefer a fine rich gravy served up in a covered tureen. Widgeons and teal, are dressed as wild-duck, and may be served upon fried bread crumbs. Woodcocks and snipes, are roasted without being drawn; a piece of toasted bread buttered is put under each bird, to catch the trail; they are well basted with butter, and served upon the hot toast over which they were roasted; a rich brown gravy, or melted butter, being poured round them. Ortolans and green plovers are not drawn, and are roasted and served in the same manner as woodcocks. Larks, wheatears, and other small birds, should be nicely picked, gutted, cleaned, and trussed; brushed over with melted butter, and rolled in grated bread, then put on a bird spit; basted with butter, and sprinkled with bread crumbs, and served upon fried crumbs with brown gravy in a sauce tureen.

VENISON.—A *Buck-haunch*, weighing from twenty to twenty-five pounds, will take about four hours and a half roasting, in warm weather; a *Haunch*, of from twelve to eighteen pounds, will be done in about three or three hours and a half. The great point in roasting venison, is to keep the fat as much as possible from wasting; for which purpose the joint should be covered with paste, papered over, and tied on with pack-thread; to prevent which from burning, the joint should be basted as soon as laid down. About a quarter of an hour before it is done, the string, paste, and paper should be removed, and the haunch basted with butter, dredged lightly with flour* till the froth rises, and it has a very light brown colour, when the knuckle should be garnished with a ruffle of cut writing paper. Served up with a good, strong, but unseasoned gravy in one boat, and currant-jelly sauce in another, or cold jelly in a side plate. Neck and shoulder of venison, may be dressed in the same way as the haunch, only they do not require the paste in roasting.

All joints should be wiped clean and dry before they are put down to the fire, basted with dripping, and, within the last half hour, basted with butter, and made to brown and froth by sprinkling with salt and flour.

Fowls should be basted with butter. Hares should be wiped with a thin dry cloth, as the flavour is destroyed by washing. Milk and small-beer are used by some for basting, but dripping is best. The flavour of all game is acquired by long keeping. Epicures think a pheasant only fit to be eaten when the blood

* Ude does not approve of dredging joints with flour, unless it be done early enough to imbibe the gravy: if done just before the meat is removed from the spit, he thinks "the froths of the flour and butter adhere to the palate, and have an abominable taste."

runs from the bill, or in five or six days after the bird has been killed.

The spit should be kept, at all times, exceedingly clean: it must be wiped dry immediately after it is drawn from the meat, and washed and scoured every time it is used. Care should be taken to balance the roast properly upon the spit; but, if not exactly right, it is better to make it equal by fastening on a leaden-headed skewer than to pierce it again.

BROILING.

THE fire should be brisk and clear, and, consequently, free from smoke. If the article to be broiled be thick, you must have a gentle fire to heat it through; if it be thin, the fire must be brisk, or it will not get a good colour, nor eat so well. If a gridiron is well polished at first, there can be no good cause for the bars ever becoming black. Let it be always rubbed bright when put aside. The gridiron should be hot through (which will take five minutes) before any thing is put on it. It must then be rubbed with a piece of fresh suet, to prevent the meat from being marked, or sticking to the hot bars; if for fish, chalk the bars.

To broil a Rump-steak properly, requires more attention than is generally paid to it. The best steaks are from the inside of the sirloin; the next best are those cut from the middle of a rump, about half an inch thick; they should not be beaten, else they will be dry and hard. They require a very clear and brisk fire, and to be turned often with tongs.

Fowls and Chickens, to be broiled, should be trussed as for boiling. Split the fowl down the back, and flatten it; rub butter over it, and broil gently till it is a fine brown, taking care that the fleshy side is not burnt; when done, sprinkle with pepper and salt, and some mushroom sauce under it. *Pigeons* are better broiled whole over a clear slow fire.

FRYING

Is *boiling in fat*, which must be quite fresh. Oil, lard, or clarified fresh suet or dripping, is better adapted for batter, for fish, eggs, potatoes, or any thing watery, else clarified fresh butter is the most delicate fat in which meat can be fried. Fritters, and sweet things, require good butter, or good lard or oil.

Fish are far more difficult to fry than meat. A test of the proper degree of heat for frying fish is, to dip the tail in boiling dripping or oil, and, if it be crisp at once, the material is ready.

Fat becomes richer from having meat fried in it, and, if carefully taken up, may be used repeatedly; but the fat that is used for fish, would spoil any meat.

To fry Soles, or other Fish.—Wash the soles, and wrap them in a clean cloth, to make them quite dry, an hour before you dress them. Then have ready some bread crumbs, or oatmeal will answer the purpose. Beat the yolk and white of an egg to-

gether on a plate; dry the fish with flour, and wipe them with clean cloth; dip them in the egg, or egg them over with a paste-brush; then strew the bread crumbs or oatmeal equally over the fish. Put sweet olive oil, or clarified butter, dripping, or lard, into a frying-pan, over a sharp and clear fire, and, when it boils, or does not bubble, put in the fish, and, in four or five minutes, one side will be done. When the fish are fried, lay them on a soft old table-cloth, near enough the fire to keep them warm, and turn them every two or three minutes, till they are quite dry on both sides.

Charcoal is best calculated for a broiling or frying fire, on account of its being clear and free from smoke and flame.

To clarify Dripping, &c. for Frying.—Put the dripping in a clean saucepan over a slow fire; when just about to boil, skim it well, let it boil, then stand till a little cooled, and pour it through a sieve into a pan.

Oil is best calculated for frying fish, although it is not approved in many families. An omelette is a delicate test of frying, for which fresh butter is invariably used. Cutlets, with crumbs of forcemeat, require careful frying to prevent their burning.

BAKING

CAN scarcely be considered a part of the kitchen duties, its success depending on the care of the baker. In large establishments, however, there is usually a small brick-built oven; and cast-iron ovens are often attached to stove-ranges, &c.

A sucking-pig, being troublesome to roast, is usually baked; a large ham, if covered with a thin paste, may likewise be advantageously baked, and, in the preparation of a great dinner, this may be a point of some convenience.

Beef loses about one-third of its weight by baking: the nourishing juices are, therefore, in a great measure, dried up, and baking is the least advantageous of all modes of cookery.

SOUPS AND GRAVIES.

A FEW general hints on the making of soups and gravies, will be found serviceable to the Cook, especially as we do not think it requisite to enter into many of their varieties.

To extract the strength from meat, long and slow boiling is necessary, but the pot should never be off the boil.

All soups are the better for being made the day before they are to be used, and they should then be strained into earthen pans; but removing it in a jelly, occasions it to become sour sooner than it otherwise would; when in danger of not keeping, it should be boiled up. It never keeps long with many vegetables in it, and the meat used for soups, &c. cannot be too fresh; the softest water should be used. The more skimming the better, as the fat which rises on the surface alters the taste, and is very disagreeable: a good method of skimming is, by repeatedly putting a sheet of paper flat on the surface, and removing

it as often as grease appears; but, if made the day before wanted, the top-fat can be removed in a cake, and the soup attains more complete consistence, without losing the flavour; but it need not be seasoned till wanted, and then slowly heated till boiling. In rewarming, if soup, &c. cannot be heated completely by the vessel containing them being plunged into a stew-pan of boiling water, care must be taken that the soup, &c. is not smoked; the fire should be clear, and the lid close. To set by, soup should not be covered up till quite cold.

Four to six hours is not too much for making soup; the finer flavouring ingredients should not be added till towards the conclusion; this observation is peculiarly applicable to catsups, spices, wines, juices, &c. In boiling weak soups, the pan should be uncovered, that the watery particles may escape. All roots, bread-raspings, or barley, for plain common soups, ought to be put in as soon as the pot is skimmed, when the roots are merely intended to thicken and flavour the soup. When to be cut in pieces and served in the broth, an hour's boiling is fully enough for carrot, turnip, onions, &c. A lump of butter mixed with flour, and boiled in the soup, will give it richness or greater consistence. Cow-heel jelly likewise improves all soups; and truffles and morels thicken soups and sauces, and give them a finer flavour. To do this, wash half an ounce of each carefully, then simmer them a few minutes in water, and add them with the liquor, to boil in the soup, &c. till tender. Other articles used in thickening, seasoning, and flavouring soups, are chiefly bread, flour, oatmeal, peas, rice, Scotch and pearl-barley, isinglass, macaroni, turnips, beet, carrots, mushrooms, garlick, onions, shallots, cress, parsley, thyme, sage, mint, and other sweet and savoury herbs. Basil, savoury, and knotted marjoram, are very pungent, and should be used cautiously. In making soup, it is advisable to cut the meat in about half-pound pieces; and both the flavour and colour are improved by stewing the meat, onions, carrots, &c. with a bit of butter to prevent burning, at the bottom of the soup-kettle, before the water is added to it: this is the French method. Colouring may be obtained by toasted bread, onions fried with flour, or burnt sugar, the usual browning; but, as the elegance of soups is their transparency, this extra colouring is not recommended.

When there is any fear of gravy meat being spoiled before it is wanted, season well, and fry it lightly, which will preserve it two days longer. Should brown gravy or mock-turtle soup be spoiling, fresh made charcoal, roughly pounded, tied in a bag, and boiled with either, will leave it sweet and good.

An economical Cook will make a rule to convert the liquor, in which meat has been boiled, into some sort of *soup* or *stock*, which may be done at her leisure, and by which means she will always have a *rich kitchen*, as it is technically called, and will be able to make an *extra dish*, or an additional tureen of soup, at

short notice, and at a trifling expense. The fragments of meat left after dinner, with the trimmings of undressed meat and game, the heads, necks, gizzards, and feet of fowls, &c. when picked and washed clean, will help to enrich soups, or make stock, and save much expense in gravy meat. The broths, if saved in separate pans, will assist in making white or brown soups, and the gravies left in the dishes after dinner, will be good in hashes, or, with some trifling ingredients added, will make sauce for fish, goose, &c. The liquor of a knuckle of veal may be converted into glaze, if boiled with a knuckle of ham, till reduced to a fourth or a third part, with the necessary herbs and spices added.

PLAIN STOCK.

THIS is the kitchen phrase for plain beef broth, which is the basis of many soups and sauces. Accordingly, the day before a large dinner, it is desirable to prepare the stock-broth, or plain stock. To every pound of fresh juicy beef, or a shin broken, allow a quart of soft water, and to this add any trimmings you have of meat, game, and poultry. An old fowl, a rabbit, or knuckle of veal, are excellent additions, and with them less meat will serve. Watch, and stir it up well, and when it simmers, skim it carefully; then add a little cold water to make the remaining scum rise, and skim it again; then add to it three or four carrots, two turnips, four large onions, a head or two of celery, and herbs according to taste. Let the whole stew slowly by the fire from four to six hours, and when done, let it settle, skim off the fat, pour it from the sediment, strain it and set it by for use.

••• The beef may be served as *bouilli*, if taken out when just done enough; or, if covered again with water, and boiled four hours longer, it will make second stock, or produce very good glaze or portable soup.

Brown Gravy.

CUT eight pounds of the lean of a knuckle of veal into small pieces, with two pounds of lean ham, and an old fowl. Put all into a stewpan with one ounce of butter, three onions, two carrots, eight mushrooms, one head of celery, one parsnip, a blade of mace, and a quarter of a pint of water or broth; let it stew covered up till it is quite brown, but not burnt; then add four quarts of stock, and let it boil gently three hours and strain it. This is the basis of almost all gravy soups, which are called by the name of the vegetables which are put into them—as turnips, onions, celery, carrots, and a few leaves of chervil make *Spring Soup*. With rice or Scotch barley, with macaroni, vermicelli, or celery, it will be the soup usually called by those names. The seasoning for all is the same, viz. salt, and a very little Cayenne pepper. The roots and vegetables should be boiled first, or their flavour will be too strong.

White Gravy.

THIS is a *stock* for several kinds. Break a large knuckle of veal, to which put any poultry trimmings, and a few slices of lean ham, a carrot, three onions and a blade of mace. Moisten these in a stewpan, over which butter is rubbed, with a little good broth or water. When the jelly is drawn out, prick it, and add clear broth or water till you have enough. Add a bunch of parsley, onions, white peppercorns; boil and skim, and when the soup is ready, skim and carefully strain it. Add to this rice or vermicelli, or if wished white, thicken with arrow root, and add, before serving, a pint of sweet cream first brought to boil, to prevent it from curdling.—*Cook's Manual.*

Mock Turtle.

DR. KITCHINER gives the following receipt for a successful imitation of the mock turtle made by Messrs. Birch, of Cornhill.

Get a calf's head with the skin on, take out the brains, wash the head several times in cold water, let it soak for about half an hour in spring water, then lay it in a stewpan; and cover it with cold water, and half a gallon over; remove the scum as it rises, boil it gently for one hour, take it up, and when almost cold, cut the head into pieces about one and a half inch by one and a quarter inch, and make a side dish of the tongue and brains. When the head is taken out, put in about five pounds of knuckle of veal and as much beef, add all the trimmings and bones of the head, skim it well, cover it close, and let it boil five hours, then strain it off, and let it stand till the next morning. Then take off the fat, set a large stewpan on the fire with half a pound of good fresh butter, twelve ounces of sliced onions, and four ounces of green sage (chopped small;) let these fry one hour, then rub in half a pound of flour, and by degrees add the broth till it is the thickness of cream; season it with a quarter of an ounce of ground allspice, and half an ounce of black pepper, ground very fine, salt to your taste, and the rind of one lemon peeled very thin; let it simmer very gently for one hour and a half, then strain it through a hair sieve, but do not rub it through: put it in a clean stewpan with the head, and add to each gallon of soup half a pint of Madeira wine, and two table spoonsful of lemon juice. Let it simmer gently till the meat is tender—or from half an hour to an hour—when the soup will be ready.

While the soup is doing, prepare for each tureen eighteen forcemeat balls, and twelve hard egg balls. Brain balls or cakes are a very elegant addition, and are made by boiling the brains for ten minutes, then putting them into cold water, and cutting them into pieces about the size of a nutmeg; take savoury or lemon thyme dried and finely powdered, nutmeg grated, and pepper and salt, and pound them all together: beat up an egg, dip the brains in it, and then roll them in this mixture, making as much of it as possible stick to them; dip them in the egg again, and

then in finely grated and sifted bread crumbs, fry them in hot fat, and send them up as a side dish. Cucumber in a side plate is a laudable vegetable accompaniment.

A Turtle,

Is usually dressed by a professed Cook, hired for the purpose; and as a receipt would occupy more space than we can well spare for the instructions, (which, to say the truth, are not of general utility,) we refer the reader to "Ude's Cookery," tenth edition, pages 56, 57, 58, & 59, for the best receipt with which we are acquainted.*

Ox-tail Soup.

GET for a large tureen, three small or two large tails, jointed. Rub them with salt, and soak them in lukewarm water. Put them in a stewpan with four onions, a bunch of parsley, two dozen Jamaica and black peppercorns, a turnip sliced, and three quarts of water. When the meat is tender, lift it out, and cut it into mouthfuls. Thicken the soup, and strain it into a fresh stewpan, put in the cut meat, boil it up and skim it, and finish with a spoonful of mushroom catsup and pepper to taste.

Giblet Soup.

SCALD and clean three or four sets of goose or duck giblets; stew them with one pound or two of gravy beef, scrag of mutton, or the bone of a knuckle of veal, and ox-tail, or some shanks of mutton, with three onions, a large bunch of sweet herbs, a tea-spoonful of white pepper, and a large spoonful of salt. Put five pints of water, and simmer till the gizzards (each cut in four pieces) are quite tender; skim nicely, and add one ounce of butter mixed with a dessert spoonful of flour. Let it boil a few minutes, and serve with giblets. Season with two glasses of sherry or Madeira, a large spoonful of catsup, and some Cayenne. When in the tureen, add salt.

Madras method of preparing Mulga-tawney.

CUT up a fowl, duck, rabbit, beef, or mutton, and boil the same in two quarts of water for a quarter of an hour. Then take two table-spoonful of curry, made as follows:—half an ounce of turmeric; one-sixth of an ounce of Cayenne; one and a half coriander seed; one-third of an ounce of powdered cassia; and two scruples of black pepper. Next take a table-spoonful of butter, the juice of a fine lemon, or equal quantity of lemon pickle, three onions cut fine, six cloves of garlic chopped very fine, six tea spoonful of peas-flour; then pour thereon half-pint of boiling water; strain the ingredients through a fine cloth or

* Ude, in a note, says "In perfecting this receipt for turtle soup, which the author can without vanity assert is the *best*, if not the only *authentic and practical* one in print, the author has bestowed his utmost care and attention. When in manuscript, he obtained a very high price for it.

sieve; then put the same with fowl, &c. over the fire, adding the butter and onions previously fried together; boil the whole together for half an hour, adding, in the last five minutes, the acid, when the mulga-tawney will be ready for table; if eaten as soup and bouilli, boiled rice should be mixed with it. The soup should be of the consistency of cream; but no water should be added late in the process.

Indian methods of boiling Rice.

THE rice used should be Patna: it should be well done, as white as possible, and perfectly free from water. Carolina rice, though much whiter, is not so good either for curry or mulga-tawney.

Take one pound Patna rice; wash it well, looking over each grain for small stones, husks, &c. Then put the rice into a saucepan, and pour on it boiling water; put on the cover, and let the saucepan remain off the fire about a quarter of an hour; in that time, if the water was full boiling, the rice will be sufficiently softened for use; pour the water off, and to dry the rice, set it over the fire for a couple of minutes, stirring it well during the time with a fork; great care being taken that it does not become hard by the heat. Another method of boiling rice, is to soak it an hour in cold water, and then to put it into a saucepan and cover it with hot water, adding one tea-spoonful of salt to every tea-cup full of rice. Place it over the fire, and when it has boiled about ten minutes, the water should be poured off. Then cover the saucepan closely, and let it stand by the fire for a few minutes to dry, when the rice will be fit to serve up with curry.

By either of the above methods, rice may be as well cooked as that prepared by the natives in the East Indies. They are copied, as well as the previous receipt for mulga-tawney, from a small pamphlet printed at the expense of a gentleman long resident in the East Indies, and privately circulated in this country.

SAUCES.

A FEW of these, but more especially such as are the basis of many varieties of sauces, will be found very useful. They are chiefly of French origin, but such as are now in general use at English tables.

Thickening

Is of two colours—*white and brown*. For the *white* melt a good lump of butter in a stewpan over a slow fire, then drain it and squeeze out the butter-milk: powder it over with flour enough to make a thin paste; keep it on the fire for a quarter of an hour, but do not let it colour; pour it into an earthen pan. For *brown* the butter and flour should be fried over a slow fire, and then set over fierce ashes, till of a nice, light brown colour; but this is to be obtained only by slow degrees. Thickening is indispensable for improving sauces. To make a pint of sauce as thick as cream, requires about half an ounce of butter and a table-spoon-

ful of flour, or some cooks merely skim the fat of the broth pot, and mix it with flour, or potato flour.

Cullis or Brown Sauce.

PUT into a stewpan, in slices, six pounds of lean veal and two pounds of lean ham, with two ounces of butter, a handful of mushrooms chopped, three onions, and a bunch of sweet herbs, one carrot, a rind of lemon, and a teaspoonful of allspice, cloves, and mace together. Let it just brown at the bottom, then add four quarts of good brown gravy (*see page 81*), and boil it three or four hours; then strain it off, colour it with brown thickening, and boil for ten minutes, stirring it: lastly, put it through a tammy and you will have brown cullis, which is the basis of all other brown sauces.

White Sauce or Bechamel.

TAKE two pounds of veal and one pound of ham in small pieces, a pottle of mushrooms, and two onions sliced; four cloves, two blades of mace, a sprig of thyme, and marjoram, and a quarter of a pound of butter. Stew gently with three pints of good white gravy (*see page 82*) one hour and a half; mix some of the gravy with two tea-cupsful of flour, and add to it a quart of cream; let it boil a quarter of an hour, stirring it well, strain, and season with salt. This is the basis of all white sauces: Ude gives a new method for *bechamel*, which he says is "the formation of all little sauces, especially in England, where white sauces are preferred:" Put into a stewpan a knuckle of veal, some slices of ham, four or five pounds of beef, the legs of a fowl, any trimmings of meat and game, and moisten with boiling water sufficient to cover half the meat; sweat it gently on a slow fire, till the meat is done through, or when no blood follows the knife; then cover all the meat with boiling water. Season with a bundle of parsley and green onions, a clove, half a bay-leaf, thyme, a little salt, and trimmings of mushrooms. When the knuckle is well done, skim off all the fat, strain it through a silk sieve, and boil down this gravy till it is nearly a glaze; next put four spoonsful of very fine flour, with three pints of cream, into a stewpan large enough to contain the cream, gravy, flour, &c.; set the flour and cream on a slow fire, and when boiling, pour in the gravy, and continue to boil all on a slow fire if the sauce be thick, but if the sauce be thin, on a quick fire. Season with salt, but no pepper. This sauce should be very thick, and put into a white basin through a tammy. It may be easily thinned with stock-broth or with cream.

German Sauce.

DILUTE some white thickening with white-stock (*page 81*) and let it boil on the corner of the stove. Throw in a few mushrooms, with a bunch of parsley and green onions. Skim it well, and thicken with the yolks of two or four eggs well seasoned. This sauce is always used for blanquettes or white fricassees of veal, fowl, ragout, loin of veal, with bechamel, &c.

Sorrel Sauce.

PUT two quarts of sorrel well washed and picked into a stewpan, with a small piece of butter; stew it till soft, then rub it through a tammy, and put a small piece of butter in it, and a quarter of a pint of brown sauce, or cullis, a little salt, and the squeeze of a lemon.

Endive Sauce.

BLANCH twelve heads of endive by boiling them in water two minutes and washing all the scum off, chop them and stew them till tender in half a pint good strong gravy; thicken with half a pint of white sauce, and season with salt.

Cucumber Sauce.

PEEL and cut cucumbers, take out the seeds, and soak them an hour in vinegar and water, with salt, and a large onion sliced. Strain them off, and put them in a quarter of a pint of white gravy, with one ounce of butter, and two table-spoonsful of vinegar; stew for three quarters of an hour, and when done tender, add half a pint of white or brown sauce, with salt to season.

Onion Sauce.

BOIL six large onions soft; rub them through a sieve; add three ounces of butter; boil four or five minutes; then add one table-spoonful of flour with half a pint of cream, and season with salt and sugar. Or it may be made with button onions boiled tender, and mixed with white or brown sauce.

White Onion Sauce

SHOULD be very mild, for which purpose the onions should be first boiled and then drained before mixed with the butter, flour, &c. Spanish onions are the mildest.

Stewed Celery.

CUT the whitest of several heads of celery, blanch them, drain, and put in cold water; let them cool, and drain dry. Then put them into a stewpan, with a little stock broth and sugar; stew for an hour and a half, till there be no kind of moisture. Then mix them with four spoonsful of bechamel; strain the whole through a tammy, and put in a water-bath. When ready to send up, refine and whiten the sauce with a little thick cream.

To dress the Roots of Celeriac or Celerie Rave.

The following is considered a cheap and an elegant mode:— Pare the roots, and cut into slices somewhat less than a quarter of an inch in thickness; then boil them gently till they are tender in some broth, or in water well seasoned, and a slice of butter added. When dished, pour over them some melted butter, or bechamel sauce, which is made by thickening some broth, and adding a little cream. Celeriac is cultivated at greater ease and at less expense than the common celery, and it may be used

in the kitchen for seven or eight months in succession.—*Gardener's Magazine*.

Mushroom Sauce.

PEEL a pottle of mushrooms, and put them in water and lemon juice, to keep white while paring. Strain them, and put them in a stewpan, with a quarter of a pound of butter, a teaspoonful of salt and pepper mixed, and the squeeze of half a lemon. Stew half an hour; then add a tablespoonful of flower with half a pint of cream, or white or brown sauce, and boil five minutes.

Lobster Sauce.

ACCORDING to M. Ude, a *hen* lobster is indispensable for this sauce. Pound some of the spawn very fine in a mortar; add to it a small piece of butter. When very fine, rub it through a hair sieve, and cover till wanted. Break the lobster with great care, and cut all the flesh into dice, but not too small; dilute some of the red spawn in melted butter, with two spoonsful of essence of anchovies, a little salt and Cayenne, two spoonsful of double cream, and mix all well before the meat is added, as that must retain its dice-like form. Do not let this sauce boil. It must be very red. Add to it a tea-spoonful of cavice, the older the better.

Liver and Parsley or Lemon Sauce.

WASH the fresh liver of a fowl or rabbit; boil it in water five minutes, and chop it fine; wash about one-third the bulk of parsley, and boil it in water with a little salt; drain and mince it very fine; mix it with the liver, and put it into a quarter of a pint of melted butter, and warm, but do not boil it. Or, instead of the parsley cut the pulp only of a lemon in slices, and mince a little of the peel, which add to the liver and butter as above.

Sauce Piquante.

BOIL in butter four or five minutes a table-spoonful of chopped onion, parsley, and mushroom, mixed: add a quarter of a pint of brown sauce, and two table-spoonsful of vinegar, and season with salt.

Burnt Butter

Is generally used for boiled skate. Stir a quarter of a pound of butter very slowly over the fire, till it gets a good brown; then put in a tea-cupful of vinegar, with salt to season it; and heat together.

Tomata Sauce.

TAKE about twelve ripe and red tomatas; pull off the stalks, cut them in half, and get out the water and seeds. Then put them in a stewpan with a capsicum and two or three spoonsful of beef gravy; stew them slowly for an hour, and then rub them through a tammy into a clean stewpan with a little white pepper and salt, and simmer together a few minutes. French cooks add an onion, shalot, or a little tarragon vinegar.

*Laver,**

WHEN fresh from the sea, should be well washed and drained, and put in a kettle in an oven and baked six hours, till quite soft. When cold it should be covered with hot mutton suet, and the jars kept tied close. It should be served hot, with two ounces of butter, a tea-spoonful of salt, and the juice of one lemon to a pint of laver. It is usually eaten with roasted mutton, or with eggs.

Wine Sauce

FOR venison, hare, or haunch of mutton, is made as follows:—A gill of Port wine; the same quantity of plain mutton gravy, and a table-spoonful of currant jelly; let it boil up.

MADE DISHES.

Braizing,

AN important operation in made dishes, may be done as follows:—Clean, season, and stuff, or lard the article; then put it into a stewpan just large enough to hold it, with thin slices of fat bacon under and over; also one onion, twenty peppercorns, and allspice, with three slices of lemon without the peel, and as much gravy or broth as to keep it stewing without covering it; adding to it, as it boils away, and stewing till quite tender. This method is very general in French cookery, and is far superior to boiling. The braize or jelly which is left, may be used several times, and meat, poultry, or game, will keep in braize a fortnight.

Glazing

Is also essential in some made dishes. Take a knuckle of veal, shin of beef, fat and trimmings of poultry, and a few slices of bacon. Put them in a stewpan over a quick fire, and pour in a little stock; stew till this is a strong jelly, then strain and pot for use. This is to be brushed over the meat, &c.

Larding

Is likewise useful. For meat, fowls, sweet-breads, &c. have ready larding pins of proportionate sizes; cut slices of bacon into proper lengths, quite smooth, and put into a larding pin to suit it, with which pierce the skin and very little of the meat, leaving the bacon in, and the two ends of equal length outwards. Lard in rows the size you choose.

Curries.

LET the fowl, duck, rabbit, meat, fish, or vegetable, &c. be cut into small pieces, sprinkling a little flour thereon, fried in butter, (with two middle-sized onions sliced fine,) or what is called

* Laver is sold at most Italian warehouses. It is a kind of reddish sea-weed, forming a jelly when boiled, which, in some parts of Scotland, is eaten by poor people on bread instead of butter. It is likewise, with fulmar, made into broth. It is curious to know that what is eaten at the tables of the rich as a first-rate luxury, is used by the poor in Scotland twice or thrice a day.

drawn in a pan, then stewed in the gravy from a pound of beef (though water is frequently used) over a brisk fire, for about twenty minutes, with two or three table-spoonsful of the curry, stirring the whole occasionally; or the powder may be rubbed well over the fowl, &c. and fried with it, adding two ounces of butter, the juice of a fine lemon, or half a wine glass of lemon juice, or lemon pickle, two cloves of garlic, chopped very fine, and one tea-spoonful of salt. The curry will be much improved by the mixture being made into a thin paste with a few spoonsful of cream, and then rubbed over the meat, previously to its being put into the stewpan.

Partridge Curry.

TAKE two partridges, one moor fowl, or half a pheasant, any one of them you please, but perfectly fresh, and divide them into the smallest joints; melt two table-spoonsful of butter in a two quart stewpan, and add to it the game ready cut up, with three middling sized table-spoonsful of curry powder, and four table-spoonsful of cold water, with a tea-spoonful of salt; stew gently over a slow fire, stirring all the while till done, which will be in about twenty minutes; serve it up quite hot, in a deep dish, with a cover. Snipe, teal, plovers, &c. may be beautifully curried in the same manner, using one-and-a-half table-spoonful of curry to each pound weight of the game.

Fricandeau.

No better authority than Ude can be quoted for this fine dish. Take off the skin of the large part of the leg of veal to which the udder is attached, flatten it with a cloth, then at one stroke level it with your knife. When you have pared the top part turn it round, make slits in the middle, that it may taste more of the seasoning. Next lard it very thick with bacon. Then put it into a stewpan with plenty of roots in slices, as carrots, onion, and some roots of parsley, besides a little mace, allspice, thyme, bay-leaves, and whole pepper. Put all these on the bottom of a stewpan, with layers of very fat bacon on the top of the vegetables. When you have thus well covered the roots, erect a small dome in the centre, lay the fricandeau over the bacon, powder a little salt over it, and moisten with broth enough to cover the roots without reaching the fricandeau. Then put much fire on the cover of the stewpan, keeping very little beneath. When it begins to boil, put it on a very slow and equal fire for three hours and a half, if not very large. Baste it frequently with the liquor; then run a needle through the middle; if it gets in easily, the fricandeau is done. Now put much fire over it to make the bacon firm, which otherwise would break when you glazed it. Reduce the liquor to be used as glaze for the fricandeau. Serve with spinach endive, tomata, white or any other saucc.

Sweetbreads.

BLANCH them till firm, lard them with ham, and stew them be-

tween layers of bacon in a pan, rubbed over with butter, for three quarters of an hour, then drain and glaze them, and serve up with sauce as fricandeau. Or, when blanched, dip them in a yolk of an egg, then in bread crumbs, with or without spice, lemon peel, and sweet herbs; and fry them a fine brown in clean dripping. Garnish with crisp parsley, and for sauce use mushroom catsup and melted butter, or anchovy sauce.

Maintenon Cutlets

ARE mutton or lamb chops. Chop parsley, shalots, and mushrooms, and fry them in butter. Then fry the chops in that seasoning till nearly done, when they should be wrapped in writing paper, with crumbs of bread and chopped ham, and broiled over a slow fire.

Blanquette of Veal

Is veal roasted and put into German sauce (*page 85*) well seasoned, with chopped parsley, and the juice of half a lemon, before thickening.

Scotch Collops of Veal.

CUT slices of veal off the fillet or leg, season with salt and pepper, brown them with a yolk of an egg, dip them in crumbs of bread, then in melted butter, and again in crumbs. Put a little butter in a *sauté*, or frying-pan; fry the collops briskly of a good colour, drain them and serve them round a dish with mushroom or sharp sauce in the centre.

Veal Olives.

CUT long slices half an inch thick off a fillet of veal; flatten them, and rub them over with an egg; cut fat bacon as thin as possible, lay it on the veal, and rub it with an egg; spread veal forcemeat very thin over the bacon; roll up the olives tight, tie them, and braize them for one hour: glaze and serve with sauce piquante. Beef olives are done in the same way.

Beef Pallets

SHOULD be scalded, skimmed, braized, and stewed till tender. They are served with forcemeat, when they should be rolled up, tied, and again braized, and served with cucumber sauce. In the shape of cutlets, they should be *passed off*, or boiled a few minutes in butter with onion, parsley, and mushroom; dipped in egg, crumbed, and fried on the *sauté*-pan, and served with tomato sauce. For patties they should be made fine, passed off with two shalots, two mushrooms, and a spoonful of parsley, chopped, and the whole mixed with white sauce to a proper consistence; season with salt, pepper, and lemon-juice.

Stewed Steaks.

PUT a couple of rump steaks into a stewpan, and cover with slices of fat bacon, two onions, three cloves, a slice of lemon peel, and half a pint of wine. Stew till tender, and when done take all the fat off, thicken the liquor, and season with Cayenne pepper

and salt, and half a lemon squeezed. A few button onions, blanched, may be added, if approved.

Stewed Rump of Beef.

TAKE the bone of a rump of beef, lard it through the middle with bacon the size and thickness of a finger, and tie it up. Put it in a stewpan with slices of fat bacon under and over it; add three large onions, a lemon-peel, four bay leaves, twelve cloves, four blades of mace, and a tea-spoonful of allspice, two carrots, and a bunch of marjoram, thyme, and parsley tied all up. Add a quart of gravy and a bottle of white wine, and stew four hours till tender: when done, strain off the liquor and take off the fat, and thicken it. Season with salt and pepper, and a few mushrooms, truffles and morels may be served in the sauce. Glaze the beef, and Spanish onions may be braized and glazed, and laid round the beef with the same sauce.—*C. Cook.*

Calf's Head hashed.

AN economical dish may be made thus:—Put into a stewpan the half of a calf's head, with water to cover it, a knuckle of ham, and onions, herbs, &c. Simmer till the meat may easily be separated from the bone; then cut it into as fine a fillet as the size will admit, and put the trimmings and half the liquor by in a tureen: to the remaining half add a gill of white wine, and reduce the whole one half by quick boiling, when it should be poured over the fillet, surrounded with mushrooms, small white onions, pieces of pickled pork, and the tongue in slices, simmered till the whole is fit to serve up; browned forcemeat balls are sometimes added. The trimmings and liquor set aside, and what remains of the above dish, with a little more wine, and thickened, will make good mock turtle soup. Dr. Kitchiner gives this receipt as written by an accomplished English Lady.

Haricot Mutton.

THIS is an excellent family dish. Cut the breast, neck, and scrag of mutton in pieces, and fry them a nice colour; then shake flour, salt, and pepper over them. Moisten this with boiling water, adding a large onion, with two cloves in it, a bunch of parsley and green onions well spiced. Boil till the meat be nearly done; skim all the fat, and then add some turnips, previously trimmed, and fried with sugar to colour them. Put the turnips to the mutton, take out the onions and herb, and serve up.

Knuckle of Veal to Ragout.

CUT a knuckle of veal into slices; pepper, salt, and flour them; fry them a light brown; put the trimmings into a stewpan, with the bones well broken, a sliced onion, a head of celery, a bunch of sweet herbs, and two blades of bruised mace; cover all about an inch with warm water, and stew gently for two hours. Strain, and then thicken with flour and butter; add a spoonful of catsup and a glass of wine, and the juice of half a lemon; boil

up, and strain into a clean stewpan; put in the meat, make it hot, and serve up. Poultry, Game, Pigeons, or Rabbits, made into ragouts, are good side dishes.

Jugged Hare.

CUT into pieces and wash the hare, and put it into a stewpan with a few sweet herbs, half a dozen cloves, allspice, and black peppercorns, two large onions, and a roll of lemon peel; cover it with water; when it boils, skim it, and let it simmer till tender. Strain off the gravy, thicken it with three ounces of butter and some flour, and boil it about ten minutes; then strain over the hare, and it is ready. Force-meat balls are sometimes added.

Many persons prefer boiling the hare in a stone jar in a saucepan of water; but the preceding is a quicker method, and equally good. Care should be taken not to boil made dishes too fast.

Matelot of Eels.

CUT two pounds of eels four inches long; put them in a stewpan, with one large onion, a sprig of knotted marjoram, thyme, and parsley, a teaspoonful of mace and allspice; half a pint of port wine and half a pint of gravy, one spoonful of essence of anchovy, and two ditto of mushroom catsup; let them stew three quarters of an hour; strain the gravy; thicken it, and add salt and pepper, with the juice of half a lemon; boil it five minutes; add the eels, and twelve button onions boiled tender. This will make a stew; if a matelot is wanted, add tench, carp, trout, &c.; but carp is generally used.

Fricassée of Chickens

TAKE a couple of fat chickens, empty them, and singe them till the flesh gets firm. Next carve them, each into ten pieces. Take out the lungs, and spongy substance within the loins, and wash the members in lukewarm water. Then *blanch* them in boiling water; drain them, and then put them in cold water; trim them, and put them into a stewpan with a little butter, till you have made the gravy as follows:—Put the trimming into the water in which you have blanched the chicken, and add the necks, the four legs, some parsley, green onions, a clove, a few blades of mace, one small shallot, and a bay-leaf; let these stew well for one hour, and use them to moisten the fricassée. Fry the chickens lightly, dust a little salt and flour over them, and moisten with the liquor they were blanched in. Let them boil for three quarters of an hour; skim off all the butter, &c.; then put the members into another stewpan, reduce the sauce, and strain through a tammy over the chickens. Put this stewpan into a water-bath till dinner-time; then thicken the fricassée with the yolks of four eggs and a little cream. If the fricassée does not boil, the thickening will not be thoroughly done. if you add lemon, put more seasoning.

Omelettes.

AN Omelette is the pride of cookery, and its perfection depends almost entirely on the dexterity of the cook. A good rule, as far as instruction can do, is as follows:—Break, and *beat* well, five or six eggs, and add a little salt. Then throw an ounce and a half of fresh butter into a very clean frying-pan, over a brisk fire. Pour the eggs into the pan, which should not be too close to the fire. Keep turning continually, but never let the middle part of it be over the fire, for it is always too hot. Gather all the border together, and roll the omelette before it is done too much. The middle part must always be kept mellow. Roll it equally with your knife before you dish it, and take care not to let the pan soil the dish, in turning the omelette into it.—*Ude.*

The above is the basis of all omelettes, which are distinguished by the articles with which they are flavoured. Thus, omelette with fine herbs is the same as the above, with finely-chopped parsley, onions, or shalots. Ham, tongue, and kidney of veal are also much used, these being previously cooked. Sweet omelettes are made by the addition of sugar, or jelly, the sweetmeats being put in before the omelette is rolled. When done, they should be sprinkled with finely-powdered sugar, and then glazed with a salamander.

Omelettes are always second-course dishes, called *entremets*, or they are handy to make up a dinner. They should not be greasy, nor overdone, but full and thick, and the outside of the same taste as the inside. It is best to use only half the number of whites that you do of yolks of eggs. A table-spoonful or two of potato-flour will much lighten an omelette of six eggs. They are often brought to table thin and flat, whereas they should be thick and rolled up.

Macaroni.

OPINIONS are somewhat at variance as to the best method of dressing Macaroni. The English mode, and the common method in France, is to boil the macaroni, tape or pipe, in a stewpan of milk, broth, or water, till it is tender, but firm; then put it into a dish without the liquor, and among it bits of butter and grated Parmesan cheese; and over the top grate more, and put a little more butter. Set the dish to get light-brown in a Dutch oven, but not to let the top become hard. What is usually called the Italian method is to boil the macaroni in water and a little salt, and grate the Parmesan over it, without browning it. With cream, sugar, and cinnamon flavour, macaroni makes a delicious sweet dish.

But the finest way of dressing macaroni is what in France is called the *Timballe de Macaroni*. It is a very expensive dish, and may be met with in *Ude's* work.

Lobster Salad.

THIS consists of the finest parts of the lobster cut into pieces, and

intermixed with salad, the spawn of the lobster being used to colour the sauce of the salad: it has an elegant appearance, and is a nice supper dish. Lobster salads are also made in moulds, when ornaments of the whites of eggs, boiled hard, some black truffles, gherkins, or beet-root, are placed in the mould, with jelly, lobster, &c.; and the whole is set in ice, and when frozen, turned out of the mould, and served with salad sauce. This is a pretty dish, but should never be attempted but by a skilful hand.

A good receipt for salad sauce is to take the yolks of four eggs, boiled hard, and put them into a mortar with a spoonful of mustard; pound this very fine; add to it salt and pepper, two spoonsful of vinegar, and three of oil, or a spoonful of tarragon vinegar. A little meat jelly may be used at choice, but cream is very unwholesome. Chopped herbs, as chervil, tarragon, &c., should be added according to taste.

Savoury or Aspic Jelly

Is used for the tops of cold pies, and for garnishing all sorts of cold meats and fish. Boil four calf's feet as for jelly (page 45), and put in half a pound of lean ham while boiling; when strained off, and the fat taken away, put the juice of two lemons, a tea-spoonful of whole pepper, and one blade of mace, and salt to flavour; a sprig of knotted marjoram, thyme, and parsley, and two onions; whisk in ten whites of eggs, and let them boil till curdled; put the whole through a jelly-bag three or four times till clear. If wished, add three table-spoonsful of tarragon vinegar. If wanted for ornamenting cold dishes, this jelly may be coloured pink with cochineal, and green with spinach juice.

PUDDINGS AND PIES.

OUR observations on these must be brief, and our receipts few, since their varieties would lead us into a volume. Their goodness depends on the purity of Milk and Flour, and freshness of Eggs, Butter, Suet, &c.

Eggs should be well beaten, if many, with a whisk. Puddings in paste are tied lightly, but other puddings loosely, in the cloth. When a pudding is to be boiled in a shape, put a piece of buttered white paper on the top of it, before the floured cloth is tied on. Puddings are improved by standing some time after being prepared for baking or boiling. A plum-pudding is the better for being mixed the day before it is boiled: it will keep for months after it is dressed, if the cloth remain on it, and if, when cold, it be covered with a sheet of foolscap paper, and then hung up in a cool place. When to be used, it must be put in a clean cloth, and again boiled for an hour. A slab of marble or stone is preferable to wood for rolling out paste on. Salt butter should be well worked in two or three waters. Paste will not suffer from standing a short time, if made early in the morn-

ing, and the air is excluded from it, by putting first a tin cover over the pie or tartlets, and above that a folded table-cloth.

Puddings are more variously made than any other dishes. Scarcely two persons have the same receipt for plum-pudding. Marrow, Colledge, Macaroni, and Vermicelli, are favourite puddings; and almost every Cook is familiar with some mode of preparing them.

ALTHOUGH we have not here attempted a detailed system of Cookery, our object has been so to condense, as to give the substance of the Practice of Cookery in a few general rules, and such detailed instructions in a few of the higher branches, as, with good sense in their application, cannot fail to make a complete Cook, and to enable her to aim at proficiency in her art.

Whilst the Cook's attention is directed to the last-mentioned point, she will be materially relieved of laborious duty by the SECOND COOK, or

KITCHEN MAID,

Whose business it is, under the superintendence of the Cook, to take nearly the whole management of roasting, boiling, and otherwise dressing all plain joints and dishes, and all the fish and vegetables. The cleanliness of the kitchen is likewise one of her foremost duties—as scouring the dressers, shelves, and kitchen-tables, &c.: she also cleans the Housekeeper's room, the hall and passages, the front-door, and area-steps, the larder, and the Butler's pantry. The remainder of her duties are, the preparation of dinners, &c., under the direction of the Cook; and as the Kitchen Maid generally looks forward to the situation of Cook, the foregoing instructions and receipts will be especially useful to her. In large establishments the Kitchen Maid is assisted by

THE SCULLERY MAID.

Whose business is the most laborious of the kitchen-work, as washing up plates and dishes, scouring and cleaning saucepans, stewpans, and other kitchen utensils. Cleanliness in this respect is of the greatest importance, as many serious accidents have arisen from neglect of this precaution (see Note at page 70). She also assists the Kitchen Maid in picking, trimming, washing, and boiling the vegetables, as well as in other portions of her work.

A HEALTHY kitchen is a desirable acquisition; for without cleanliness, and proper ventilation to carry off smoke and steam, those employed in it cannot enjoy good health. Charcoal in stoves, and the glare of a scorching fire, are continual and inevitable dangers. To have recourse to frequent drinking, to counteract their effect, is still worse, since nothing so soon destroys the palate or taste, which is necessary even for the most experienced

Cooks, to ascertain the flavour and seasoning of their soups, sauces, &c.

A few useful Receipts connected with the *Kitchen* will conclude this division of our work.—

Insects in Kitchens.

FLIES and Cockroaches are very frequent in most kitchens, whither they are drawn by the warmth of the stoves, &c. A good method of driving away *flies* is to mix together half a teaspoonful of black pepper in powder, one teaspoonful of brown sugar, and one tablespoonful of cream. Place them on a plate where the flies are troublesome. A mixture of gum-arabic, honey, brown sugar, and alum, will answer the same purpose. A strong infusion of souchong tea, sweetened with sugar, is equally effectual; and either of the methods is preferable to mixing poison with sugar, &c.

To Destroy Cockroaches.

TAKE a small quantity of arsenic, finely powdered, strew it on crumbs of bread, which lay near the haunts of these insects. A few nights will suffice; but dogs, cats, &c., should be kept out of the way. Poisoned wafers, for this purpose, are sold at the tallow-chandlers. A large glazed basin, or deep pie-dish, about half filled with sweetened beer, or linsced oil, serves as a complete trap.

Fires in Chimneys.

WHEN a chimney or flue is on fire, throw into the fire-place, one handful after another, of flour of sulphur, which will paralyze, or, in effect, destroy the flame. A wet blanket applied to the throat of the chimney, or over the whole front of the fire-place, will effect this. A chimney-board or register-flap will answer the same purpose, by stopping the draught of air from below, and acting upon the same principle as an extinguisher to a candle.

To Prevent the ill effects of Charcoal.

PLACE over the burning charcoal a vessel filled with boiling water, the steam of which will counteract the dangerous fumes.

Glazed Vessels.

THE glazing of vessels is sometimes badly executed, so as to be dangerous and unfit for use. This may be proved by filling the vessel with vinegar, into which put some fat of beef, salted. Set this upon a stewpan to boil for half an hour; then set all by for twenty-four hours, when, if the glazing is imperfect, small particles of lead will be discovered of a black colour, at the bottom of the vessel.

Crust on Boilers.

THE crust formed on the sides and bottoms of boilers, kettles, &c., may be prevented by potatoes or a little flour being put into the vessel, which may then be used a month without being cleaned out.

THE LADY'S MAID.

THE principal duty of the Lady's Maid is her personal attendance on her Mistress: she ought, therefore, to possess the qualifications of propriety and polite behaviour; and her conduct should be uniformly influenced by correct principles, and strict regard to religious and moral obligations. Although these ought, strictly speaking, to be the qualifications of every servant, yet in no instance will their necessity be more evident than in the situation of the Lady's Maid. Again, her education, and share of the useful and ornamental branches of female acquirements, ought to be considerable; neatness and gentility of person and address will be great recommendations; and cheerfulness of temper and mildness of manners will ensure her the esteem and respect of her superiors.

Her employment is extremely simple, and far from laborious, and is, in most instances, little more than an agreeable exercise of useful qualities. Simple and little varied as are her duties, her taste will be regulated, and her services otherwise rendered more valuable by her attention to particular instructions and receipts connected with the toilette and the wardrobe, as well as the personal ornament, dress, and decoration of her mistress. We shall, for easy reference, arrange these duties under separate heads, as

TASTE IN DRESS.

Contrast and Choice of Colours.

THE rules of the contrasts and harmonies of colours, as derived from nature, and recognized by painters, who, from the nature of their studies, are the best judges of colours, are the following:—yellow, red, and blue, are contrasts in all their shades, and the harmonizing tints are discovered by the union of two of them. These colours have different qualities; blue is of a cold, unassuming nature; yellow illuminates, and red warms; yellow and blue form green; yellow and red form orange, and blue and red produce violet; and, though yellow, blue, and red are contrasting colours, yet still greater contrasts to each may be procured by the union of two of them; for instance, blue and red form violets and violet is the greatest contrast to yellow. The other intermediate colours, also, of green and orange, form the greatest contrasts to red and blue.

Grey and black are contrasts to white; yellow and a yellowish green, the harmonizing tints; yellow and a deep purple are contrasts, with which orange and a pale yellow green harmonize. The deepest blue is the greatest contrast to orange, and the harmonizing tint is red; but bright red must be mixed in a very small proportion, and not allowed to interfere, but to be introduced only as a harmonizing principle. Orange and blue, when mixed together, give an olive colour, which may not be unsuitably introduced with the contrasts of blue and orange, as it harmonizes both with red and orange.

Green, graduating from yellow to the deepest shade, has contrasts in red, which should incline to purple when the greens incline to yellow; green, in its deepest shade, is the contrast to bright scarlet; the intermediate colour is red, or very deep scarlet. The colours that are not very unfit to be mixed with these, are orange, blue, and a small proportion of yellow, purple, and black.

Light blue is contrasted to orange, and may be subdued by the mixture of black and white; its harmony is deep blue.

The contrast to violet is yellow. The blue, which is a mixture of violet and of white, has its contrast in pale yellow; the intermediate colour is deep purple. Crimson has its contrast in deep green, and its harmony in violet.

Nothing contributes in a more particular manner to heighten the beauty of the skin, than the choice of colours. For example, females of fair complexion ought to wear the purest white; they should choose light and brilliant colours, such as rose, azure, light yellow, &c. Women of a dark complexion, who dress in such colours as we too frequently see them do, cause their skin to appear black, dull, and tanned. They ought, therefore, to avoid wearing linen or laces of too brilliant a white; they ought to avoid white robes, and rose-colour or light-blue ribbons, which form too disagreeable a contrast with their carnations. Let such persons, on the contrary, dress in colours which are best suited to them; in particular, green, violet, puce, purple, and then that darkness, which was only the effect of too harsh a contrast, will suddenly disappear, as if by enchantment; their complexion will become lively and animated, and will exhibit such charms as will dispute and even bear away the palm from the fairest of the fair. In a word, the fair cannot be too careful to correct, by light colours, the paleness of their complexions; and darker women, by stronger colours, the somewhat yellow tint of their carnation. We must not omit a very important observation, respecting the change of colours by light. Thus, crimson is extremely handsome at night, when it may be substituted for rose colour, which loses its charms by candle-light; but this crimson, seen by day, spoils the most beautiful complexion; no colour whatever strips it so completely of all its attractions. Pale yellow, on the contrary, is often very handsome by day, and is perfectly suited to people who have a

fine carnation ; but at night it appears dirty, and tarnishes the lustre of the complexion, to which it is designed to add brilliancy.

The truth of these observations must be evident to the reader, as they explain effects which we witness daily, but which, for want of so familiar an explanation as the above, are not easily understood.

THE SKIN—COSMETICS.

A GOOD selection of *Cosmetics* is important for the completeness of a lady's toilette. Whether the use of paints, washes, &c., be judicious, is not for us to determine ; but in giving the following receipts, we have endeavoured to distinguish those which are the most objectionable, on account of the deleterious articles which they contain. A knowledge of their manufacture will therefore prevent ill consequences, if it be productive of no other good.

*Freckle Wash.**

TAKE 1 dram of muriatic acid, half a pint of rain water, half a tea-spoonful of spirit of lavender ; mix, and apply it two or three times a day to the freckles, with a bit of linen, or a camel-hair pencil.

Roman Balsam for the Skin.

TAKE 1 ounce of bitter almonds, 1 ounce of barley flour, a sufficient quantity of honey ; beat the whole into a smooth paste, spread it thinly on the skin at night, and wash it off in the morning.

Wash for Sunburn.

TAKE 2 drams of borax, 1 dram of Roman alum, 1 dram of camphor, half an ounce of sugar candy, a pound of ox-gall ; mix, and stir well for ten minutes, or so, and repeat this stirring three or four times a day for a fortnight, till it appears clear and transparent. Strain through blotting paper, and bottle up for use.

Sir William Knighton's Lotion for Pimples.

TAKE half a dram of liquor of potass, 3 ounces of spirit of wine ; apply to the pimples with a camel's hair pencil. If this be too strong, add one half pure water to it.

Remedy for Nettle Rash.

No other treatment is required than freely opening the bowels ; and, if it is severe, or obstinate, taking a gentle emetic. It sometimes continues only a few days, but it is very apt to return, and is occasionally very troublesome to get rid of. In such cases,

* *White Veils* have a tendency to promote sunburn and freckles, by their increasing the power of the sun's light. They are, also, very injurious to the eyes. *Green* is the only colour which should be worn as a summer veil.

the diet must be carefully attended to, and cooling medicines, such as the elixir of vitriol, employed.

Warren's Milk of Roses.

PUT two ounces of rose-water, a teaspoonful of oil of almonds, and twelve drops of oil of tartar, into a bottle and shake the whole till well mixed.

Virgin Milk for the Skin.

THE virgin milk which is in most general use, and is the most salutary, is a tincture of benzoin precipitated by water. To obtain the tincture of benzoin, take a certain quantity of that gum, pour spirit of wine upon it, and boil it till it becomes a rich tincture. Virgin milk is prepared by pouring a few drops of this tincture into a glass of water, which produces a milky mixture. This virgin milk, if the face be washed with it, will give a beautiful rosy colour. To render the skin clear and brilliant, let it dry upon it without wiping.

Lotion for Eruption of the Skin.

MANY advertised remedies for cutaneous diseases have been found to be a solution of the corrosive sublimate of mercury in the almond emulsion. In chronic eruptions of the skin, particularly in the last stage when attended with scurf, the application may prove useful; but in acute cases or even in the first stage of chronic affections of the skin, and particularly when the consequence of bad habit of body, it is a dangerous remedy, and we have met with cases of erysipelas in which its use endangered the lives of the patients.

Rose Water.

PUT roses into water, and add two or three drops of vitriolic acid. The water assumes the colour and becomes impregnated with the aroma of the flowers.

Strawberry Water.

THIS name is given to the liquid distilled from strawberries. When wood strawberries are used for this purpose, the water has an exquisite smell, and ladies have recourse to it at their toilette to remove freckles and spots upon the face.

Pernicious Effects of White Paint.

WHITE paint affects the eyes, which it swells and inflames, and renders painful and watery. It changes the texture of the skin, on which it produces pimples; it causes rheums, attacks the teeth, makes them ache, destroys the enamel, and loosens them. It heats the mouth and throat, infecting and corrupting the saliva. Lastly, it penetrates through the pores of the skin, acting by degrees on the spongy substance of the lungs, and inducing disease.

Carminé

Is made from cochineal, and may therefore be safely used. It is ~~and is~~ adulterated; but the best method of detecting such imposi-

tion is to fill a small silver thimble, successively, with different sorts. The finest and best sort will not weigh above one-half or two-thirds of the worst, being commonly adulterated with vermilion and red lead, by which means the weight is materially increased.

Rouge.

THE yellow colouring matter of flowers is the most permanent. The carthamus contains a red and yellow colouring matter; the latter is easily dissolved by water, and from the red, rouge is prepared by a process which is kept secret.

Pearl Powders.

OF these powders there are several sorts; the first and finest is a magistery made from real pearls, and is the least hurtful to the skin. It moreover gives the most beautiful appearance, but is too dear for common use.

White Salve which may be used for Paint.

TAKE 4 ounces of very white wax, 5 ounces of oil of almonds, 1 ounce of very pure spermaceti, 1½ ounce of white lead washed in rose-water, and an ounce of camphor. Mix the whole up into a salve, which may be preferred to all other whites.

Pomade for removing Wrinkles.

TAKE 2 ounces of the juice of onions, the same quantity of the white lily, the same of Narbonne honey, and 1 ounce of white wax; put the whole into a new earthen pipkin till the wax is melted; take the pipkin off the fire, and, in order to mix the whole well together, keep stirring it with a wooden spatula till it grows quite cold. You will then have an excellent ointment for removing wrinkles. It must be applied at night, on going to bed, and not wiped off till the morning.

Soap for Improving the Colour.

DILUTE 2 ounces of Venice soap in 2 ounces of lemon-juice; add 1 ounce of oil of almonds, and a like quantity of oil of tartar. Mix the whole, and stir it till it has acquired the consistence of honey.

Paste for the Hands.

TAKE 1 pound of sweet almonds, ¼ pound of bread crumb, 1 pint of spring water, the same quantity of brandy, and the yolks of 2 eggs. After blanching the almonds, pound them and sprinkle them with vinegar, that the paste may not turn to oil; add the crumb of bread, which moisten with the brandy as you mix it with the almonds, and the yolks of eggs. Set this mixture over a slow fire, and keep stirring it, lest the paste should adhere to the bottom of the vessel.

Lady Derby's Soap.

THIS elegant soap may be prepared as follows:—Take two ounces of bitter almonds blanched, one ounce and a half of tincture of benjamin, one pound of curd soap, and a small piece of

camphor. Blanch the almonds, and beat them with the camphor to a paste in a mortar, with the tincture of benjamin, and then add the soap, previously cut into fine shavings. This preparation cleanses and assists the complexion, and is perfectly harmless.

Cold Cream.

THE article sold under this name is composed of white wax, almond-oil, and rose-water, in the following proportions:—Take of almond-oil 4 ounces, white wax 1 ounce. To be gently melted, and well blended with 4 ounces of fresh rose-water, by stirring in a warm marble mortar. The rose-water should be added very gradually.

THE HAIR.

Curling.

THE use of pomatums and hair oils will, in some kinds of hair, assist in the important operation of curling, but in other cases will be disadvantageous. If the hair be soft and very fine, instead of washing and oiling it in the way usually directed, it will be better to clean it with a brush dipped slightly in spirits of hartshorn, or to dress it with the following composition, which will give it both a fine gloss and strength to remain in the curl.—Cut into small pieces about 2 pounds of good common soap, and put it into 3 pints of spirits of wine or brandy, with 8 ounces of potash, and melt the whole in a hot-water bath, stirring it the while with a glass rod or wooden spatula. After it is properly melted, leave it to settle, pour off the liquor clear, and perfume it with any fragrant essence you please. Or you may mix together equal parts of essence of violets, jasmine, orange flowers, and ambrette, with half the quantity of vanilla and tuberose. With these, mix rose and orange flower-water, so as to form in all about three pints of liquid, in which dissolve, as in the first case, 2 pounds of good soap sliced, 8 ounces of potash, and proceed as before. Add some drops of essence of amber, musk, vanilla, and neroli, to make it more fragrant. You will find this as good, if not superior to any of the articles sold under the name of curling-fluids, and one half cheaper.

Papillotes, the most usual method of curling, are apt to be more injurious than the curling-irons; for by being closely twisted, they not only prevent the hair from growing at the roots, but are apt to cause head-aches, tooth-ache, ear-ache, and sometimes pimples on the face. None of these consequences, however, will happen, if care be taken not to run into the extreme.

Dyeing the Hair.

THE hair may be turned black with different vegetable substances boiled in wine, with which the head is to be washed several times a day; but this operation ought to be continued for some time. The substances preferred for this purpose are, leaves of the mul-

berry, myrtle, fig, senna, raspberry, arbutus, and artichoke; the roots of the caper-tree; the bark of the walnut, shumac, skins of beans, gall-nuts, and cores of cypress. It is also necessary to make use of a leaden comb. Most of the dyes sold for the hair contain caustic, and should be used with great care. It not unfrequently happens that, by mismanagement, one head of hair appears of half a dozen shades of colour.

The following receipts (*from the French*) are quite new, and from good authority: any of the articles may be bought at the druggists:—Take common French or other wine one pint, common salt two drs., green copperas four drs.; boil for some minutes, and then add oxide of copper two drs.; boil for two minutes, take from off the fire, and then add powdered nut-galls four drs. Rub the hair with this composition, and some moments afterwards with a warmed linen cloth, and then wash with common water.—Another method is oxide of lead two parts, slaked lime one part, chalk two parts; mix with water, and dip a brush into the preparation, with which, the hair must be well rubbed; after two hours, washed.—The following is more active: Take quicklime in stone one pound, yellow litharge and white lead each one ounce; dissolve the lime in water, and stir in all the other articles. These preparations are harmless; but that containing caustic produces crisympelas on the skin.

To Restore the Hair,

When ill health has removed it, little more is necessary than to keep the roots perfectly moist and free from scurf. For this purpose, innumerable specifics are recommended. One of the simplest, and certainly the safest, is olive oil, slightly scented, or pomatum made of beef or mutton suet and lard, with the marrow from the bones: the latter we believe to be very efficacious. Onions rubbed on the scalp will stimulate the growth of hair; but this is an unpleasant application. Many of the scented oils advertised give a fine gloss to the hair, but should be used with caution. We have heard oil of walnut much recommended for restoring the hair. One of the best of the perfumer's remedies is Fox's Vegetable Cream—sold at 456, Strand.

Italian Pomatum.

TAKE 25 pounds of hog's-lard, 8 pounds of mutton-suet, 6 ounces of oil of bergamot, 4 ounces of essence of lemons, $\frac{1}{2}$ an ounce of oil of lavender, and a $\frac{1}{4}$ of an ounce of oil of rosemary. These ingredients are to be combined in the same manner as those for the English pomatum, and kept in pots for use.

Jessamine Pomatum.

MELT any quantity of hog's lard; skim it, and when cold, wash it, and spread it an inch thick on a large dish, over which strew jessamine flowers.

Perfumed Oils

MAY be made by soaking cotton in fine olive oil, and spreading it in layers—over which flowers, as jessamine, violet, or rose-leaves, should be lightly strewn. The oil, which will thus imbibe the scent of the flowers, should then be pressed from the cotton, and, if necessary, filtered through flannel. Most of the French scented oils are made by this process.

Remedy for Bad Breath.

TAKE from 5 to 10 drops of muriatic acid, in an ale glassful of barley water, and add a little lemon juice and lemon peel to flavour: mix for a draught to be taken three times a day, for a month or six weeks at least, and, if effectual, it may be continued occasionally. Another medicine of this kind, which has often proved beneficial when the stomach has been wrong, and the bowels costive, is, the following:—Take 1 dram of sulphate of magnesia, 2 drams of tincture of calumba, 1½ ounce of infusion of roses; make a draught, to be taken every morning, or every other morning, an hour before breakfast, for at least a month.

Eye Water.

LATE hours frequently make the eyes very weak, when the following will restore them:—Put two teaspoonsful of brandy or laudanum into a wine-glassful of water; dip into the mixture a piece of fine linen, and apply it to the eye, allowing some of the lotion to get within the eye-lid. Hot water is a favourite prescription with the most celebrated oculists; and many obstinate inflammations are cured by this simple remedy.

FOR THE TEETH.

A MIXTURE of honey with very finely-powdered charcoal, will make the teeth white as snow. The bases of all tooth-powders are powdered bark, myrrh, Bole Armenian orris-root, &c. The best of these is *Trotter's Asiatic Dentifrice*. Prepared charcoal and Areka nut, in powder, are much used. Salt and alum are injurious to the enamel of the teeth, and their frequent use will make them brittle. Soft brushes are decidedly better for the teeth than hard ones.

Lady E. Conyngham's Lip Honey.

TAKE 2 ounces of fine honey, 1 ounce of purified wax, half an ounce of silver litharge, the same quantity of myrrh; mix over a slow fire, and add milk of roses, Eau de Cologne, or any other perfume you may prefer, and keep for use.

To make Lip Salve.

MELT together one ounce of white wax and beef marrow, and three ounces of white pomatum; to which add a dram of Alkanet root, tied up in a piece of muslin.

Promade Gloves,

USED for softening and refreshing the skin, are prepared with a fine rose promade, to which is added a little white wax.

Superfluous Hairs.

FOR the purpose of destroying the vitality of superfluous hair, there are many infallible remedies advertized. The one found to succeed best in destroying hair is made by a Mr. Colley. If the hair be first washed or soaked in warm water for ten minutes, this article, formed into a thin paste with warm water and applied whilst warm, will so effectually destroy the hair, in five or six minutes, that it may be removed by washing the skin with flannel. It is a powerful caustic, and should therefore be removed as soon as it begins to inflame the skin, by washing it off with vinegar. It renders the skin softer, and improves its appearance. This application, like other depilatories, destroys only the trunks of the hair. The roots being left, the hairs will, of course, grow. The assertion that they eradicate the hair is therefore false.—The only means of removing superfluous hair effectually, is to eradicate it by means of small forceps made for the purpose. Only five or six should be drawn in the course of twenty-four hours, and those not close together. The part should be afterwards washed with spirit of wine.

Cure for a Stoop.

THE following anecdote will, perhaps, set the question of the propriety of wearing the back collar in a correct point of view: A surgeon was consulted by a gentleman, who is now one of our first tragedians, as to the best mode of correcting a stoop which he had acquired. The surgeon told him that neither stays nor straps would do him any essential good, and that the only method of succeeding was to recollect to keep his shoulders braced back by a voluntary effort; but the tragedian replied, that this he could not do, as his mind was otherwise occupied. The surgeon then told him that he could give him no further assistance. Shortly after this conversation, the actor ordered his tailor to make a coat of the finest kerseymere, so as to fit him very tightly when his shoulders were thrown back. Whenever his shoulders fell forward, he was reminded by a pinch, under the arms, that his coat cost him six guineas, and that it was made of very fragile materials. Being thus forced, for the sake of his fine coat, to keep his shoulders back, he soon cured himself of the stoop. The surgeon was much obliged to him for the hint, and afterwards, when consulted whether young ladies should wear shoulder-straps, permitted them, on condition that they were made of fine muslin or valuable silk, for tearing which there should be a forfeit.

Cure for Squinting.

THE defect of squinting commonly arises from the unequal strength of the eyes, the weaker eye being turned away from the

object, to avoid the fatigue of exertion. Squinting, even in cases of long standing, has often been cured by covering the stronger eye, and, of course, compelling the weaker one to exertion.

To Remove Warts.

THE common annual spurge is frequently found in richly dunged gardens. It is far more efficacious than celandine, a rare plant, or than the milky juice of the fig-leaf, the latter being very slow in removing those troublesome excrescences. The bark of the willow-tree burnt to ashes, mixed with strong vinegar, and applied to the parts, will also remove warts, corns, &c.

PERFUMES, &c.

Spirit of Lavender.

THE compound spirit of lavender, made with the essence of lavender, according to the following recipe, is very superior to that usually sold:—Take of nutmegs, bruised, cinnamon bark, bruised, of each 3 drams; red saunders, $\frac{1}{2}$ a dram. Mix and infuse for a fortnight in a quart of the best French brandy, (shaking the bottle for a minute or two every second day,) then add essence of lavender, 2 ounces. After standing about a week, the liquid may be poured off clear for use.

Spirit of lavender upon loaf sugar is a pleasant remedy for head ache, low spirits, &c.; but its too frequent use should be guarded against.—*Camphor Julep*, or mixture, is another favourite lady-medicine: it may be made with about a scruple of camphor, powdered finely in a marble mortar, with a few drops of spirit of wine; then stirred into a quart of cold water, and filtered. It will not long keep good.

Musk.

To ascertain the genuineness of this expensive perfume, draw a silken thread two or three times through a clove of moist garlic, and then through the musk, which, if genuine, will instantly overcome the odour of garlic. When mixed with quicklime, musk, if impure, will smell of ammonia. To preserve musk well, keep it perfectly dry; and when it is to be used as a perfume, *moisten* it.

Attar, or Otto of Roses.

IT is most difficult to procure the *genuine* Otto of Roses, even in the countries where it is made; but to discover if the otto be mixed with a grosser oil, drop a very little otto on a clean piece of writing paper, and hold it to the fire. If the article be genuine, it will evaporate without leaving a mark on the paper; if otherwise, a grease-spot will detect the imposition.*

* Dr. Heber, late Bishop of Calcutta, in his interesting Journal of Travels, gives the following particulars of this valuable perfume:—Ghazedpon is celebrated throughout India for the beauty and extent of its rose gardens. The rose fields occupy many hundred acres; the roses are cultivated for distillation, and for making attar. The price of a

Eau de Cologne,

EQUALLY good with the best *Farina*, and at one fourth of the price, may be made as follows:—Take essence of bergamot, lemon peel, lavender, and orange-flower, of each one dram; essence of cinnamon half a dram; spirit of rosemary, and of the spirituous water of melisse (honey) of each two ounces; strong alcohol one pint. Mix the whole together, and let the mixture stand for a fortnight; after which, introduce it into a glass retort, the body of which is immersed into boiling water contained in a vessel placed over a lamp, while the beak is introduced into a large reservoir, well luted. By keeping the water to the boiling point, the mixture in the retort will distil over into the receiver, which should be covered with wet cloths. In this manner will be obtained pure Eau de Cologne.

To make Eau de Luce.

TAKE one ounce of spirits of wine, four ounces of spirits of ammonia, twenty drops of oil of amber, and ten grains of white Castile soap. Digest the soap and oil in the spirit; then add the ammonia, and shake them well together.

Court or Sticking Plaster.

TAKE half an ounce of isinglass, a dram of Friar's balsam; dissolve the isinglass in a very small quantity of water; then gradually add to it the balsam, stirring them well together. After the whole has simmered a short time, remove it from off the fire, and while warm, spread it over black silk with a camel hair brush.

Odoriferous Pastiles.

TAKE of benzoin gum, frankincense, of each $2\frac{1}{2}$ drams, gum myrrh, gum styrax, cascarilla bark in powder, nitre, of each $1\frac{1}{2}$ ounce, charcoal powder 1 ounce. Mix, and form into pastiles with gum, water, and oil of turpentine.

Pôt Pourri for China Vases, Jars, &c.

TAKE one pound of orange flowers and rose leaves, half a pound each of the leaves of red pinks, marjoram, and myrtle; the leaves of musk-roses, thyme, lavender, rosemary, sage, camomile, melilot, hyssop, sweet basil, and balm, two ounces each; two or three handfuls of jessamine flowers, a large handful of lemon rinds, cut very thin; the same quantity of those of small green

sieve, or two pounds weight (a large quart), of the best rose-water, is eighteen linas, or a shilling. The attar is obtained after the rose-water is made, by setting it out during the night, until sun-rise, in large open vessels, exposed to the air, and then skimming off the essential oil which floats on the top. To produce one rupee's weight of attar, 200,000 well-grown roses are required. The juice, even on the spot, is extravagantly dear, a rupee's weight being sold at the bazaar (where it is often adulterated with sandal-wood oil) for 80 *s. r.*, and at the English warehouse for 100 *s. r.* or 10*l.* sterling. Mr. Melville, who made some for himself, said he calculated that the rent of the land, and price of utensils, really cost him 5*l.* for the above quantity.

oranges, and fifteen or twenty laurel leaves. Put them all into a well leaded earthen jar, with half a pound of bay salt and stir the whole with a stick, twice a day for a month; then add powdered orris-root and benzoin (from the chemist's), each twelve ounces; powdered cloves and cinnamon, two ounces each; mace, storax, calamus-root, and cypress, of each one ounce; lemon coloured sandal and long sweet cypress, of each six drams. Stir all together, and if these proportions be carefully attended to, a most delightful fragrance will be obtained.

Excellent Lavender Water,

WITHOUT distillation, may be made by mixing three drams of oil of lavender, and one dram of essence of ambergris, with one pint of spirits of wine.

Pomade Divine.

THIS celebrated domestic remedy for rheumatic pains, &c., may be made as follows:—Put a pound and a half of beef marrow into an earthen vessel with spring water, which must be changed twice a day for ten days; at the end of which time drain it well, and let it lie a day in a pint of rose water; then dry it in a clean cloth, and add storax, benjamin, cypress, and orris-root, powdered, of each one ounce, to be carefully mixed with the marrow. Put the whole into a silver cup with a cover, tie it close down with a fine cloth, and immediately over it lay on a paste made with the white of eggs and flour, and upon that another piece of cloth. Then suspend the cup in a copper of boiling water for three hours: afterwards strain the liquor through muslin into pots, and tie it down the next day.

MANAGEMENT OF WARDROBES, SCOURING, CLEANING, &c.

To counteract the unpleasant smell of clothes long laid up in wardrobes, drawers, &c., place newly-burnt charcoal among them, and the smell will cease in a day or two.

To drive away Moths.

WRAP up in paper yellow soap, or place an open bottle containing spirits of turpentine within the wardrobe. Bay-leaves, wormwood, camphor, lavender, walnut-leaves, rue, or black pepper in grains, or musk seed, will answer the same purpose. Neither of these articles will, however, affect the eggs of clothes moths, and even the insects sometimes wrap themselves up too closely to be affected by any thing but heat. This, when it can be conveniently applied, will be certain either to dislodge or to kill them.

The use of camphor, pepper, &c., to keep moths away, has however, been denied by the keeper of the Museum at Strasburg, who says that the only way to preserve clothes is to take them out, brush, and air them frequently. To convince himself of the uselessness of camphor, he hatched moths in the strong scent, of camphor.

Furs.

IN putting away furs, or any articles made of woollen, for the summer, it is necessary for you to be aware that they are liable to be injured by the grub, or caterpillar of a small moth, by which means valuable articles are frequently rendered entirely useless. A piece of camphor, or of tallow candle, or shavings of real Russia leather, will be the best means of preventing such accidents. The furs should also be put away quite dry, and not in a damp place, else they will mould, mildew, or rot.

Stains from Mourning.

TAKE a handful of fig-leaves, which must be boiled in two quarts of water until reduced to a pint; squeeze the leaves, and decant the liquor for use. The articles, whether of bombazine, crape, cloth, &c., need only be rubbed with a sponge dipped in the liquor, when the effect will be perceived.

To Remove Stains from Silk or Cotton.

GRATE raw potatoes to a pulp, in clean water, and pass the liquid through a coarse sieve, into another vessel of water; let the mixture stand till the fine white particles of the potatoes have fallen to the bottom; then pour the liquor off clear, and bottle it for use. Dip a sponge in the liquor, and apply it to the spot till it disappears; then wash it in clean water several times. Two middle-sized potatoes will be enough for a pint of water.—Spirits of turpentine is as effectual for the same purpose as any thing. Apply it to the spot with a clean sponge, and rub it with a dry linen rag till the spots disappear, which will very soon be the case, as the turpentine quickly evaporates. A little essence of lemons will prevent all smell from the turpentine, for, in truth, these two articles form the celebrated "*Scouring Drops*."

Another method of taking out grease spots, is to powder a quantity of French chalk, and mix it with lavender water, or with turpentine, to make a paste about as thick as table mustard, a little of which is to be put upon the stain; over which a piece of blotting-paper is to be laid and run over with a hot smoothing iron; or a little piece of the dry powder may be placed on the stained part, which is then to be put on a pewter or tin pot filled with boiling water. This will melt the grease, which will be dried up by the powder, and may then be brushed off.

To Clean Silks.

THE best way of cleaning silk of a black colour is to sponge it with hot ox-gall on both sides, and then rinse it in clear water, and dry it by stretching it out smooth on a board. If the silks are of any other colour than black, make a strong lather by dissolving soft soap in boiling water, and when it is about as hot as the hand will bear, or rather less, put the article in and soap it thoroughly, either rinsing it or not, as the texture will bear without injury. It is then to be rinsed in warm water, to which dye

stuffs may be added in small quantity, according to the colour; such as sulphuric acid for crimson, scarlet, maroon, or bright yellow; solution of tin, or lemon-juice, for pink, rose, or carnation; pearl-ash for blue and purple; and for olive-green a little verdigrise. When the colour is fawn, brown, or orange, no acid must be used. When this part of the process is finished, squeeze the liquid out of the stuff carefully and gently, then roll it in a coarse sheet and ring it. Hang it in a warm room to dry, and finish with fine gum-water, or dissolved isinglass, to which add some pearl-ash. This is to be rubbed on the wrong side before drying, calendering, and mangling.

Either black or plain silks may be cleaned by laying them smooth upon a board, and spreading a little soap over the dirty place. Then make a lather with fine soap, and, with a brush dipped into this, pass over the stuff the long way till one side is done, when the other is to be done in the same manner. It must then be put into hot water, and afterwards rinsed through cold water, taken out, squeezed, dried, and smoothed on the right side with an iron moderately hot.

Chintz

MAY be cleaned by boiling 2 pounds of rice in 2 gallons of water till soft, when the whole is to be poured into a tub and used, as soap lather is for linen. Wash it till quite clean, and then rinse it in the water the rice has been boiled in, which will do as well as starch. In drying it must be hung smooth, and rubbed with a smooth stone, but not ironed.

Fine Lace and Linen

MAY be washed advantageously with the ashes of furze blossoms in which case only about half the usual quantity of soap will be necessary. Lawns are done with soap in the usual way, but are put through gum-arabic water instead of starch, and to be ironed on the wrong side.

To Clean Feathers.

THIS may be done by washing the feathers in soap and water; but as the original pure white can never be actually restored, we subjoin the simplest methods of artificially tinging them. *Grey* may be produced by sprinkling common ink judiciously upon the feather, reduced by water to any shade. Turmeric will give a fine *yellow*, which may be brightened by lemon juice. Liquid blue added to turmeric, gives a *green*. A little pearl-ash added to arnatto, boiled in water, produces *buff*. Liquid *blue*, applied solely, will yield a fine tint of the same colour. A little of the red sold in saucers, added to the blue, will produce purple; or a few grains of carmine dissolved in spirits of hartshorn, and mixed with a solution of archil. For *red*, wet the feathers with lemon juice, and then tint them with the saucer red.

To Clean Veils.

BLACK veils are done with ox-gall, as directed for black silk; and white ones are put into a lather of white soap, simmered for a quarter of an hour, then squeezed and rinsed in cold water, with a drop of liquid blue in it. The veil is then to be starched, clapped between the hands, and dried on a frame, or by pinning it out straight.

To Restore Velvet.

VELVET Pelisses are easily restored by passing the under side of the velvet over a warm smoothing iron. Let one person hold the velvet tight, and another pass the iron over it on the wrong side; after which the garment must be spread out, and a brush, or very fine whisk, passed gently yet briskly over the pile. Wax may be taken out of velvet by applying toasted bread very hot to the part spotted. This method should not, however, be employed for crimson velvet.

To Clean Silk Stockings.

WASH the stockings in luke-warm soap liquor, and when free from dirt, rinse them, and then work them in a fresh soap liquor. Then wash them in a third liquor, with the necessary quantity of stone blue. Dry them till they are merely damp, when they should be stoved with brimstone. Then put upon the wooden tree, or leg, two stockings, with the fronts or outsides face to face, and polish them with a glass. It is necessary that the two first soap liquors should be only lukewarm, but the third should be boiling.

To Restore the Colour of Pearls.

SOAK them in hot water in which bran has been boiled, with a little salt of tartar and alum, rubbing them gently between the hands, when the heat will admit of it; when the water is cold, renew the application until the object is attained, when the pearls may be rinsed in luke-warm water, and laid on white paper in a convenient dark place to cool.

To Clean Gilt Buttons, &c.

CLEAN the article with a soft brush and soap and water, and set it by the fire to dry; then burn a piece of bread, reduce it to a fine powder, and with it polish as with whitening. Soiled gold boiled in wine, with a little sal-ammoniac in it, will soon become clean and brilliant.

To Clean Alabaster.

SPOTS of grease are first to be removed with spirits of turpentine; the article is then immersed in water, where it is suffered to remain about ten minutes, or, perhaps, a little longer, if the alabaster be very dirty; it is then rubbed over with a painter's brush, suffered to dry, and then rubbed over with a soft brush dipped into finely-powdered plaster of Paris, when the article will be found perfectly clean.

To Restore Colours.

BOIL the articles in a ley of equal parts of quicklime and wood ashes, rinsing them out in weak alum-water; or wash them in water saturated with black soap and salt, rinsing them carefully, and in either case pressing them well when nearly dry.

DYEING.

A FEW receipts for Dyeing on a small scale will be found very serviceable, especially in the country, where regular dyers are not at hand. The articles for the respective colours are merely given, as the depth or shade must be at the discretion of the operator.

Lilac.—Archil, a root to be bought at the druggists. The colour, which is very powerful is extracted by boiling.

Nankeen.—Boil equal quantities of Spanish arnatto and pearl-ashes in water till dissolved.

Blue.—Indigo is generally used; but as its preparation is not so simple as others, it will be better to purchase a bottle of *Blue Dye*.

Yellow.—Fustic chips, weld or dyer's weed, turmeric, or Dutch pink.—*Green* may be produced by mixing the requisite portion of *Blue* with either of the preceding.

Red.—Archil, madder, cochineal, and Brazil-wood are employed to give silk a bloom—else it is only used by itself when lilac is wanted.

Poppy, Cherry, Rose, and Flesh-colour are given to silk by means of carthamus, by keeping the article as long as it extracts colour in a solution of carthamus, with pearl-ash, into which as much lemon juice as gives it a fine cherry-red colour has been poured.

Scarlet.—Silk cannot be dyed a full scarlet; but a colour approaching to it may be given to silk by first dyeing it in crimson, then dyeing it with carthamus, and, lastly, yellow, without heat.

Black.—Logwood and green copperas are commonly used; but the colour is improved by first boiling the article in a decoction of galls and alder bark. If previously dyed blue or brown, by means of walnut peels, it will be still better.

Orange.—Carthamus; *Cinnamon* by logwood, Brazil-wood, and fustic, mixed together.

Brown.—Walnut peels, or the bark of birch, or yellow, red, and black.

Olives are made from blue, red, and brown, and by giving a greater shade of red, the slated and lavender greys are made.

Sage, Slate, and Lead Greys are made from the red and black.

Purples are made of red and blue.

The most elegant varieties of colour are produced by Mademoiselle Storey's Dyeing Balls, although they are expensive for common use.

To Re-dye, or Change the Colour.

SOMETIMES, when garments have been well cleaned, more dyeing

stuff must be added, which will afford the intended colours; and sometimes the colour already on the cloth must be discharged, and the article re-dyed.

Every colour will dye black, whether, blue, yellow, red, or brown, and black will always dye black again. All colours will take the same colour again which they already possess; and blues can be made green or black; green may be made brown, and brown green, and any colour on re-dyeing will take a darker tint than at first. Yellows, browns, and blues, are not easily discharged; maroons, reds of some kinds, olives, &c. may be discharged. For maroons, a small quantity of roche-alum may be boiled in a copper, and, when it is dissolved, put in the goods, keep them boiling, and probably, in a few minutes, enough of it will be discharged to take the colour intended. Olives, greys, &c. are discharged by putting into the water two or three table-spoonsful, more or less, of oil of vitriol; then put in the garment and boil, and it will become white. Alum, pearl-ash, or soap, will discharge green to a yellow, which may be boiled off with soap. Spirits of salts, in very small quantity, will discharge most colours. A black may be dyed maroon, claret, green, or a dark brown; but green is the principal colour into which black is changed.

To dye a Silk Shawl scarlet.

WASH the shawl quite clean with white soap in boiling water; then dissolve half an ounce of Spanish arnatto in hot water, and handle the shawl through this for a quarter of an hour, and next rinse it in clean water. In the meantime, dissolve a piece of alum, the size of a horse-bean, in warm water, and let the shawl remain in this half an hour; take it out, and rinse it in clear water. Then boil a quarter of an ounce of cochineal for twenty minutes, dip it out of the copper into a pan, and let the shawl remain in this from twenty minutes to half an hour, which will make it a full blood red. Then take out the shawl, and add to the liquor in the pan a quart more of that out of the copper, and about half a small wine-glassful of the solution of tin; when cold, rinse it slightly out in spring water.

To dye Silk Stockings.

WASH the stockings clean in soap and water, and then rinse them in hot water; if they be not perfectly clean, cut half an ounce of white soap in thin slices, and put it into a saucepan half full of boiling water; when the soap is dissolved, let the water cool, put in the stockings, and simmer for twenty minutes; take them out, and rinse in hot water. In the interim, pour three table-spoonsful of archil into a wash-hand basin half full of hot water, put the stockings in this dye-water, and when of the half-violet or lilac shade, take them from the dye-water, and slightly rinse them in cold. When dry, hang them up in a close room, or a box in which sulphur is burnt; when they are evenly bleached to the

shade required of flesh-colour, take them down, and finish by rubbing the right side with a clean flannel. Some persons calender them afterwards.—Another method is, to use pink-saucer instead of archil, in which case the stockings do not require to be sulphured.

To dye Silk Stockings black.

STEEP them a day or two in black liquor before they are put into the black-silk dye. To finish and black them, they must be put on wooden legs, and rubbed with flannel moistened with olive oil. Each pair will require at least half a table-spoonful of oil, and half an hour's rubbing.

To dye Straw and Chip Bonnets black.

BOIL them in strong logwood liquor three or four hours, occasionally adding copperas, and taking the bonnets out to cool in the air, and this must be continued for some hours. Let the bonnets remain in the liquor all night, and the next morning take them out, dry them in the air, and brush them with a soft brush. Lastly, rub them inside and out with a sponge moistened with oil, and then send them to be blocked.

To dip rusty black Silk.

BOIL logwood, and, in half an hour, put in the silk, and let it simmer about the same time. Take it out, and dissolve a little blue vitriol and green copperas; cool the copper, let it simmer half an hour, and then dry the silk over a stick in the air.

To clean Straw Bonnets.

PUT a chafing dish, with some lighted charcoal, into a close room or large box; then strew on the hot coals an ounce or two of powdered brimstone, and let the bonnets hang in the room or box for some hours, when they remain to be blocked.

To clean Books.

INK-SPOTS may be removed from books or prints by a solution of oxalic acid, if carefully applied with a hair pencil. Spirits of salts should be avoided, as it discolours and rots the paper. To remove oil or grease, first soften the spot carefully by heat, and take up as much of the oil as blotting paper will absorb; after which, apply spirit of turpentine, with a hair pencil, to the spot on both sides until the turpentine unites with the oil, when they will come off with the brush. A brush or pencil dipped in spirits of wine, with half its quantity of ether, will soon restore the paper to its former whiteness.

MANAGEMENT OF FLOWERS IN ROOMS.

FEW flowers last longer than twenty-four hours in water; some may be revived by changing the water; but nearly all may be restored by being placed in *hot* water, deep enough to cover about one-third of the stem: by the time the water has become

cold, the flowers will have become reset and fresh; then cut off the end of the stems, and put them into cold water. A few grains of salt dropped into the water in which flowers are kept, likewise tends to preserve them from fading.

To preserve flowers throughout the winter, pluck them when half blown, and put them in a close-covered earthen vessel, dipping them, with the stalks downwards, in equal quantities of water and verjuice, mixed, sprinkled with a small portion of bay salt. The vessel must be kept closed, and in a warm place, and then, on the coldest day in winter, if the flowers are taken out, washed in fair water, and held before a gentle fire, they will open as if in their usual bloom.

To encourage the *flowering of bulbous roots*, take three ounces of nitre, one ounce of salt, half an ounce of potash, half an ounce of sugar, and dissolve them in one pint of rain-water. Keep the glasses near the fire, and change the water daily, each time putting in about half a teaspoonful of this mixture.

The time to put bulbous roots in glasses is from September to November, and the earliest ones will begin blowing about Christmas: the glasses should be *blue*, as that colour best suits the roots. Keep them in a place moderately warm, and near to the light: a parlour window is a very common place for them, but is often too warm, brings on the plants too early, and causes them to be weakly.

Flowers in water, and living plants in pots, greatly injure the purity of the air during the night. On this account they should never be kept in bed-rooms: there are instances of persons who have incautiously gone to sleep in a close room, in which there has been a large growing plant, having been found dead in the morning, as effectually as if there had been a charcoal stove in the room.

Artificial Flowers.

THESE elegancies are now much used for the decoration of rooms, tables, &c.; but however beautiful, have no odour, and are very expensive. A cheap substitute is to dip *natural flowers* in bloom in strong spirits of wine, for about twenty minutes. At first they will appear to have entirely faded; but, in drying, the colours will revive, and their fragrance be prolonged.

Gold and Silver Fish.

THE water with which these are supplied should *not* be boiled, as fish will not live in water deprived of its atmospheric air: on the same principle, the covers of the vases ought to be open catgut, and not muslin. The Thames water will be found better for this purpose than the New River. In the country, rain water is preferable; but in London, it is loaded with impurities.

Permanent Ink for Marking Linen.

TAKE a dram of lunar caustic, dissolve it in a glass mortar in

double its weight of pure water: this is the ink. In another glass vessel dissolve a dram of salt of tartar in $1\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of water; this is usually named the liquid pounce, with which the linen is wet previous to the application of the ink. The linen should be perfectly dry before it is written upon.

To take Ink out of Linen.

ESSENTIAL salts of lemon, or a little powdered salt of sorrel, to be bought at any chemist's, will answer the purpose. A readier way, perhaps, is to let fall one or two drops of spirits of salts on a large spot of ink, taking care to moisten the spot with, and to rinse it afterwards in, water. Bleaching liquid will remove stains of red port wine, or any vegetable stains, from white linen.

Simple Remedy for Hiccough.

TAKE about a tea-cup full of cold water at nine sips, and the sob will cease.

To prevent Chilblains.

TAKE a quantity of alum, make a strong solution of it in cold water, and bathe the parts with it night and morning. You may make it still stronger, by using an infusion of galls, or oak bark, instead of plain water. The water caught from oysters, while opening them, is also good.

Remedy for Chilblains.

DISSOLVE two drams of acetate of lead, in half a pint of cold water; add a glass of good brandy or rum: mix it till it becomes of an uniform white; dip linen cloths in it, and apply them to the parts, renewing them frequently during the day.

Infallible Corn Plaster.

TAKE 2 ounces of gum ammoniac, 2 ounces of yellow wax, 6 drams of verdigrise; melt them together and spread the composition on a bit of soft leather, or a piece of linen. Cut away as much of the corn as you can with a knife, before you apply the plaster, which must be renewed in a fortnight, if the corn is not by that time gone. Caustic is likewise very efficacious in removing corns. After bathing the foot (at bed-time,) till the corn becomes considerably softened, shave the substance down with a knife, but not so close as to occasion bleeding; then moisten the surface with spittle, and rub over it the lunar caustic, extending it a little beyond the edges of the corn, till it becomes gray and eventually black. A little raw cotton or lint should then be applied over the part, so as to keep it from the stocking. In about four or six days the part acted upon by the caustic will peel off, including every vestige of corn.

To remove a tight Ring from the Finger.

IF touched with mercury a ring may be broken by a gentle blow with a hammer.

As we stated at the commencement of this division of our work, the Lady's Maid will derive material benefit from attention to the preceding instructions for adding to the elegant comforts of the dressing-room, and increasing her knowledge of the best means of combining fashion and ornament with real utility. Among the higher objects of her study should be unaffected neatness of dress and delicacy of manners, both of which qualities will recommend her to the notice of the truly great and good; whereas a fondness for dress, and too much confidence, will betray her by degrees into many improprieties and ill consequences, and thus lower her in the estimation of her employers. By constant intercourse with her superiors, she may improve herself, without imitating their taste and manners beyond the fitness of her situation. The latter is a dangerous extreme, and cannot be too carefully avoided. To conclude, there is no member of an establishment who has better or more frequent opportunities of self-recommendation than has a Lady's Maid, by her correct character and constant attention to the wants and wishes of her mistress.

As this little work is intended to comprise all descriptions of duties, we hope these observations will not be considered ill-timed or out of place: they are applicable to every female, but to none more than to the highly-respectable class to whom they are here offered.

THE NURSERY.

THE early care and management of children, is a trust of too much importance to be entirely omitted by us; although it is not our intention to offer the following hints to the Nurse as a complete set of instructions for her guidance. Parents and medical men are frequently of very different opinions on the management of infants; and, in some cases, advice to a Nurse might probably lead to unpleasant consequences; still, there are a few points which every Nurse is expected to understand; and, to explain these in as few words as clearness will allow, is the object of this division of the present work.

Early Care of Infants.

AMONG the first precautions are the following:—

Every symptom of approaching disease should be watched and reported to the parents or medical attendant of the family; and, in this respect nothing should be concealed or deferred till remedies are too late.

In the daily washings, the state of the skin should be examined and noticed, as well as the tongue, and the appetite, and spirits; and, above all things, all chances of accident, or juvenile mischief, should be guarded against and removed.

Windows should be fenced with bars, or the lower sashes nailed down; knives and sharp instruments should be kept out of reach; scalding water and dangerous ingredients secured from access; ponds and rivers fenced in; ladders removed; and fireplaces guarded by well-fastened wire fenders.

The water for washing the infant, the first month after its birth, should be tepid; its being quite cold is improper, except in very warm weather. It should be free from brandy, or any ardent spirit, which nurses are generally accustomed to use: pure water only should be allowed, as spirits have quite the opposite effect of producing warmth. An infant should never be allowed to get chilled before it is washed.

No part of the management of the infant can produce the same good effect, as its having a due portion of sleep: this is in compliance with Nature's laws. Infants should never be laid down on their backs after going to sleep; the superfluous quantity of saliva in the mouth, while cutting the teeth, is so considerably increased, that it cannot be discharged when they are in that si-

tuation, but must necessarily fall into the stomach so as to cause disease. The best plan is to lay them down on their side alternately.

The frequent use of soothing medicines, as American Soothing Syrup, Godfrey's Cordial, or Dalby's Carminative, should be guarded against. Opium, in every form, weakens the infant, and brings on the most distressing diseases.

The Nursery-maid ought to be of a lively and cheerful disposition; perfectly good tempered, and clean and neat in her habits and person. Children of irritable dispositions, are often difficult to soothe; they are easily disturbed, and are prone to cry violently; and there is no means of preventing this disposition, but by strengthening the general health. Wrong management is the occasion of much misery to infants and young children, who have no other mode of expressing themselves, than by fretting and crying. An even temper is an important feature in the character of the nurse:—good sense plainly telling us, that those who cannot govern themselves are very unfit to govern youth, or have the care of young children.

The sleeping-room of the nursery should be spacious, dry, airy, and not suffered to be inhabited in the day-time. No servants should sleep in the same room. Ventilating the nursery, is of great importance; but the admission of the external air, when the children are in the apartment, must be regulated by the age, constitution, and situation of the child; the season of the year, and state of the weather. In this climate, a fire in the sleeping-room is essentially necessary in winter, as fire purifies the air; and, as a damp room is unhealthy, so must a room without fire be in a moist climate like ours. The body should never be chilled; although it is recommended not to be kept in an overheated state, still certain warmth nourishes and comforts the human frame. Clothing that will afford a comfortable degree of warmth, and rooms of moderate temperature, are the great means of promoting health. Exercise in the open air, causes the most agreeable warmth, and its beneficial effect prevents children from crowding round the fire. Rubbing the hands and arms, and legs and feet of children, when they feel chilly, is likewise advisable.

Chimney-boards should never be allowed in nurseries; the plan of closing the chimney, being very detrimental to health.

The mode of nursing infants and young children, varies: those who are about them, must discriminate what best suits their different dispositions. Throwing up an infant high is always attended with danger; exposes the brain to injury, and likewise the bowels, and other inward parts, to severe and sometimes fatal derangement. To set a child upright, before it is two months old, is hurtful; it should be held in rather a reclining position, and, as it grows older, it will increase in strength, and be capable of sitting upright. "Few persons," observes the benevolent

authoress of the *Good Nurse**, "who undertake the care of children are aware at this age of the importance of holding them properly: but on this the beauty of the form, in a great measure, depends. The best plan is, after smoothing the dress, by laying the child on the knee; for that purpose, it should be placed on the left arm of the nurse, near the wrist, the arm being in such a position as to keep the thumb uppermost; then the fore-finger of the right hand is to be placed on one side, and the thumb on the other side of the child's waist, and the hand to be left hollow on the stomach: the right arm should be used by† the nurse alternately. The infant will, in this position, sit light, without suffering from undue pressure on any part of the body or limbs; and enjoy moderate exercise, and spring with delight as the nurse moves it up and down to some cheerful tune. Mischief must result from the infant being made to sit *over* the arm, resting upon its thighs, with the heavy hand of the nurse pressing on its chest and stomach, compressing the lungs, from the child naturally bending forward to counteract the weight *over* the arm. This awkward and unhealthy position is liable to cause curvature of the back, bend the thighs, and prevent the chest from expanding."

Perhaps we cannot better conclude these few hints for the nursery, than by the following summary of some excellent instructions published a few months since, by an eminent London physician*:

The food of the infant should be adapted to its age and growth: while it is without teeth it should live upon its mother's milk; when it has four teeth, it may be weaned and fed on milk, with a little bread; as the number of teeth increases, the solid part of its food should be increased; and, when it has all its teeth, it may be allowed animal food and not before: the quantity of its food should be attended to as much as the quality; children require no change of food to stimulate their appetites. Air and exercise cannot be secured to them too liberally; cleanliness and frequent washing are essential to their comfort: they should be clothed in flannel, and their clothes should fit them so loosely as not to produce the slightest effect of pressure.

FOOD OF CHILDREN.

OPINIONS are very various as to the best food for children, and their consideration would occupy too much space and time without settling the disputed points. We shall, therefore, only give a few of the most approved methods of this branch of nursery-

* This work has received the commendation of Sir Henry Hallford, Sir Astley Cooper, and Drs. Babington, Paris, and Lister. A more valuable present for a young mother or nurse can hardly be found.

† See a valuable paper on *Infants*, in the *Companion to the Almanac* for 1829.

management, to which we shall subjoin a few *Family Remedies*, as more in place here than in any other portion of the work.

Arrow-Root.

IN no article of diet have greater impositions been practised in this country, both with regard to imitation, adulteration, and price, than in arrow-root. The flour of potatoes has very generally been sold for it, or used to adulterate it. The colour of the potato is more white than that of the best arrow-root of the West Indies, and, with boiling water, it forms a good jelly, but in twelve hours it becomes nearly as thin as milk, and apt to turn sour. Hence, the potato flour is an unhealthy article of diet for infants and invalids. The arrow-root of Antigua appears to be superior to that of Jamaica. The jelly it forms with boiling water continues firm three or four days, and does not become sour for several days.

Of this arrow-root, there are two or three qualities, which depend on the number of washings it has had for bleaching it. When well washed with good water, it is nearly as white as the potato starch; but, by much washing its glutinous quality is diminished, and it is consequently rendered less nutritious. The second quality, which is equally pure, although not so white, affords the strongest jelly, and, therefore, as a food for children, should be preferred.—*Dr. Reece, in the Gazette of Health.*

Potato flour may be known from arrow-root flour by rubbing a little of it between the finger and thumb, when it will be observed, that the potato flour is softer to the *touch*, and more shining to the *sight*, than that from the arrow-root. The mucilage or jelly formed with boiling water is, in both cases, alike, though some good women make serious charges against one or the other, namely, that they "*turn to water.*" This effect does not take place unless sugar is put to the solution; for, although water has a great affection for starch, it likes sugar better, and, if left alone, will gradually steal away to the latter.

Rice Pudding

MAY be considered the most simple and wholesome pudding that is made. If boiled, the best mode of making it is to take a teacupful of rice; after washing it, boil it for twenty minutes in full-sized saucepan, with plenty of water; then pour it into sieve, shaking it in order to get rid of the water. Stone a handful of the best raisins, chop them in pieces, and mix them well with the rice; then put it in a clean cloth, which should be kept for that pudding only, as the rice should appear perfectly white. The cloth should be loosely tied, in order to leave room for the rice to swell; let it boil half an hour, putting it into boiling water. It should be eaten with warm milk and finely powdered sugar, white sugar being lightest on the stomach. Rice simply boiled in milk for half an hour, then sweetened, and baked without either eggs or butter, is a good pudding for invalids or children. It

may also be boiled in milk made rather stiff: when cold, put to it a couple of eggs well beat, then tie it up in a cloth, and boil it half an hour. These wholesome puddings cannot offend the stomach. Rice boiled, as for curry, (*see Cook, page 81.*) is a good standing dish to make part of the dinner daily, and is much more healthy than eating too many potatoes.—*Good Nurse.*

Flour Pudding, (from the same valuable work,) to be made light, should only have the whites of the eggs put in, and milk sufficient to make it the thickness of a custard; a pint of milk takes one hour's boiling; the eggs should be well beaten.*

Well-boiled *apple pudding* is recommended, but stone-fruit puddings are not good for children.

Toast and Water.

THE following is a good receipt for making toast and water;—Take a slice of fine and stale loaf bread, cut very thin (as thin as toast is ever cut) and let it be carefully toasted on both sides until it be completely brown all over, but nowise blackened or burnt in any way. Put this into a common deep stone or china jug, and pour over it from the tea-kettle, as much clean boiling water as you wish to make into drink. Much depends on the water being actually in a boiling state. Cover the jug with a saucer or plate, and let the drink cool until it be quite cold, it is then fit to be used. The fresher made the better, and of course the more agreeable.—*London Physician.*

REMEDIES.

THE following will be found very useful in *the Nursery*. They are safe and simple, as we do not recommend tampering with the health of children, or interfering with the business of the family apothecary.

For Diarrhœa, or Violent Looseness of Infants and Weakly People.
FILL a tea-cup with fine dry flour, press it *well* down, and cover it with a buttered cloth, tying it very tight and close; boil it three hours, when it will become a hard mass and turn out of the cup. When cold, grate a tea or a dessert spoonful of it into weak peppermint water for children, for adults in a glass of port wine, when wanted. It may be taken three or four times a day. The mass or lump will keep good for many weeks in a dry place.

Bleeding at the Nose.

IN cases of obstinate bleeding at the nose, blow a little gum arabic powder up the nostrils by means of a quill, which will immediately stop the discharge.

* For a cheap *Nursery Cake*, see *Housekeeper*, page 36.

Hiccough.

TAKE about a tea-cupful of cold water at nine sips, and the sobbing will cease. Or procure the following mixture at the chemist's; ether, three drams; solution of subcarbonate of potass, three drams; tincture of Columbo, three drams; camphorated mixture, six ounces. Mix, and take three table-spoonsful every two or three hours.—*Gazette of Health.*

Recent Burns and Scalds.

BY several experiments, it appears that spirit of turpentine is the best application that can be applied to a recent scald or burn. In order to ascertain if this application really merited the character given it by Mr. Kentish, for removing the effects of boiling water or fire on the skin, a respectable surgeon in London immersed a finger of each hand in boiling water for exactly the same length of time. To one he applied the spirit of turpentine, and to the other rectified spirit of wine. The one to which the latter was applied soon blistered and became very painful, while the other to which the former was applied, did not blister nor become painful, and the inflammation soon subsided.

Wheat flour is, however, more beneficial than any other ready application to burns and scalds; it allays inflammation and pain, and effects a cure by incrusting on the wound, and uniting with the discharge.

Bruises.

PROVIDED the skin is not broken, rub the part with opodeldoc, or liniment of soap from the druggists. To cure a bruise in the eye, take conserve of roses, or a bruised apple; put it into fine cambric, and apply it to the eye, when the bruise will soon disappear.

Sting of Wasps.

THE best remedy for the sting of wasps and bees is to apply to the part affected common salt moistened with water or a little *eau de luce*.

Chilblains.

THE following embrocation for chilblains is much recommended:—Take of vinegar and proof spirit, of each half a pint, alum 2 drams. Mix. To be applied every night and morning.

Preservative against Contagion.

A PHYSICIAN to a fever institution, of considerable experience and chemical knowledge, observes, "Although I am of opinion that the typhus fever is not contagious, but produced by a certain condition of the atmosphere on unhealthy constitutions, or habits predisposed to disease, I am satisfied that such constitutions may be secured against the influence of the atmosphere or effluvia from the diseased, by smelling occasionally, and carrying about them a handkerchief sprinkled with a solution of camphor

in the pure pyrolignic acid. By impregnating the air of the room of the sick with this acid, (by sprinkling it over the cover of the bed and the floor,) the immediate attendants and inhabitants of the house will also be secured against the fever; and the inhalation of the air, thus medicated, I have found to prove more beneficial in restoring the patient to health, than medicine taken into the stomach."—The following is the doctor's prescription for making the solution:—Rub a dram of camphor, with half an ounce of alcohol, in a glass of water, and then add five ounces of the pure pyrolignic acid. The price of a pint bottle of the solution being only four shillings and sixpence, a quantity sufficient for thirty families.

Or chlorate of lime, a newly discovered preventive against infection, may be bought at the druggists.

A useful work recommends the following method:—The only certain means of purifying the air of a chamber which is actually occupied by a sick person, is by changing it in such a manner that the patient shall not be directly exposed to the draughts or currents.

For purifying the air of chambers in which persons have been confined with contagious diseases, attend carefully to the following directions: "Close all the windows and doors of the room intended to be purified, except the one by which you propose to retreat, and make up the aperture of the chimney or fire-place, except for about an inch or two at the bottom. Having put three table-spoonsful of common salt, rubbed fine, into a shallow dish, place it upon the floor of the apartment, if with a few hot cinders beneath it the better; and then pour at once, upon the salt a quarter of a pint of strong oil of vitriol; retire, and close the room for forty-eight hours. Immediately the vitriol is poured upon the salt, a sharp vapour rises, which is extremely unpleasant to breathe, and very destructive to metals. It is on this account that every person should leave the room, and that all the iron and brass furniture should be previously removed. This vapour continues forming for many hours, and diffusing itself completely through all parts of the room, effectually destroys the matter on which the infection depends: at the expiration of about forty-eight hours, the room may be entered, the doors and windows thrown open, and a fire made in the chimney, in order that the apartment may be perfectly ventilated. The above quantity of salt, &c. is quite sufficient for a chamber of the usual size; for a much larger room, double the quantity, divided into two vessels, should be used.

The readiest means of changing the air of an apartment is, by lighting a fire in it, and then throwing open the door and windows this will set the air in motion, by a current up the chimney.

Worms.

WORMS taken when the stomach is supposed to be most empty, is a

popular remedy in many parts of the country, for worms; but is afterwards attended with serious consequences. At Stockford, about two years since, two children lost their lives in consequence of their father having given each a glass of gin to destroy worms, with which they were afflicted. They were soon attacked with convulsions after taking the remedy, and, notwithstanding medical assistance was speedily procured, they terminated in death.

Corns.

MR. COOPER, in his *Dictionary of Surgery*, gives the following recipe as infallible for the cure of corns:—Take two ounces of gum ammoniac, two ounces of yellow wax, six drams of verdigrise, melt them together, and spread the composition on a piece of soft leather or linen; cut away as much of the corn as you can with a knife before you apply the plaster, which must be renewed in a fortnight, if the corn is not by that time gone.

Brown Caudle.

BOIL four spoonsful of oatmeal, a blade or two of mace, and a piece of lemon peel, in two quarts of water, for about a quarter of an hour; taking care that it does not boil over. Then strain, and add a quart of good ale that is not bitter. Sweeten it to the palate, and add half a pint of white wine. When no white wine is used the caudle should consist of one half of ale.

White Caudle.

MAKE the gruel as above, and strain through a sieve, but put no ale to it. When to be used, sweeten according to taste, grate in some nutmeg, and add a little white wine; juice of lemon is sometimes added.

Saline Draught.

DISSOLVE twenty grains of carbonate of potass in a table-spoonful of lemon juice, and three table-spoonsful of water, to which add a small quantity of lump sugar; this draught is very serviceable in sore throats, &c.

Tamarind Water.

THIS fruit very much resembles the nature of prunes, but is more acid, and is a very useful ingredient of the lenitive electuary. It is found of the highest use in a sore throat, as a powerful cleanser; and, put into boiling water until moderately cold, is a delightful drink to persons parched under the heat of fever, and in the lowest state of putrid fever.

THE HOUSEMAID.

THE household work of a family will be found to afford almost constant employment for the Housemaid ; since her labours extend to nearly every apartment, as well as to her occasionally assisting the lady's maid and laundress. Upon her exertions depend the cleanliness and good order of the house, furniture, and bedding, the care of which forms her principal duties. The routine of this business will generally be understood by a girl in the first quarter of her service, and consequently need not be explained here. It includes cleaning and scouring in nearly all their varieties, and especially the healthy state of the bed-rooms ; the most approved methods for preserving which it will be our aim to present to the reader in one general arrangement.

In large families, there are usually two or more Housemaids ; and, to the upper or under Housemaid, these instructions will be found proportionally useful.

MANAGEMENT OF BEDROOMS.

To ensure cleanliness in bed-rooms, which is the great preservative of health, all bed-furniture, counterpanes, blankets, and pillows, should, at least once or twice a year, be washed ; and beds and mattresses beat, carded, cleaned, and re-made, the purity of feathers, wool, hair, &c. employed for the mattresses or cushions, being very important.

Close and press-bedsteads are very injurious, especially to young people and invalids ; but, when their use is unavoidable, the bed-clothes should be displaced every morning, and allowed to remain a short time before they are shut up. Dr. Kitchiner recommends, that the bedstead should not be placed near a wall, but stand free on all its sides, and, if possible, in the middle of the chamber, which is of consequence to those who tremble during a thunder-storm. " We know from experience," says the doctor, " that a flash of lightning, should it unfortunately strike a building, or enter through any of the windows, uniformly

takes its direction along the walls, without injuring the furniture in the centre of a room."

To ensure ventilation, which is the great preservative of health, fire-places in bed-rooms should not be stopped up with chimney-boards. The windows should be thrown up for some hours every day, to carry off the effluvia from the bed-clothes, and which should be assisted to escape by the bed being shaken up, and the clothes spread about, in which state the longer they remain, the better.

This is the reverse of the usual practice of *making the bed*, as it is called, in the morning, and tucking it up close, as if with the determination of preventing any purification from taking place. Attention to this direction, with regard to airing the bed-clothes and bed after being slept in, is of the greatest importance to persons of weak health. Instances have been known in which restlessness, and an inability to find refreshment from sleep, would come on in such individuals when the linen of their beds had been unchanged for eight or ten days. In one case, a gentleman of a very irritable habit, who suffered from excessive perspiration during the night, and who had taken much medicine without relief, observed, that, for two or three nights after he had fresh sheets put upon his bed, he had no sweating; and that, after that time, he never awoke but that he was literally swimming, and that the sweats seemed to increase with the length of time he slept in the same sheets. By not permitting him to sleep in the same sheets or night-clothes more than twice without their being washed, he instantly lost this debilitating affliction.

Flowers in water, or living plants, should not be kept in bed-rooms, as they greatly injure the purity of the air during the night.—See *Lady's Maid*, page 115.

Unpleasant Smells

FROM water-closets, &c. may be modified by the application of lime-water and soap-suds: quick lime will destroy the offensive smell of a night-chair or water-closet.

To prevent the Freezing of Water in Pipes.

IF the ball-cock be tied up, during the frost, the freezing of pipes will often be prevented. Where water is in the pipes, if each cock is left a little dripping, the circulation of the water will likewise prevent the pipes from being frozen.

Warming Beds.

SCATTER on the coals, in the pan, a little common salt, which will correct the unhealthy sulphureous vapour of the coals, and prevent their suffocating smell.

To destroy Bugs.

THERE are scores of methods of keeping away or destroying these

unpleasant vermin; but the following are among the most effectual:—

Brush the parts of the bedstead and wall in which they lodge with oil obtained from coal, sold under the name of Petroleum oil, at about sixpence a quart. The brush should be well charged with it, that it may run into the cracks, &c. The oil is very clear. For mahogany bedsteads, it may be coloured with the alkanet root. This oil is a powerful poison to all vermin; and such is the dislike they have to its odour, that they desert the place that has been brushed over with it. Being very inflammable, it should not be applied by candle-light.

Or, dissolve half an ounce of corrosive sublimate in a quarter of an ounce of spirits of salts, which mix with one quart of spirits of turpentine. Stir them well together, and dip a brush in the mixture, with which wash those parts where bugs are supposed to resort.—A decoction of bitter apple, made by boiling six-penny-worth in a pint of water, will also prevent their increase.

Or, make a strong decoction of red pepper, when ripe, and apply it with a common paint brush to the joints of the bedstead, wainscoting, &c. where these insects usually resort, and it will speedily kill or expel them.

Great annoyance has been caused by a new species of bug, imported in pine timber from Canada, in North America; but some builders have destroyed them by *steaming* the planks before using them, by which means not only the bugs but their eggs have been got rid off. *Steaming bedsteads*, or pouring boiling water in the joints, is now universally adopted for destroying bugs.

Many newly-built houses swarm with bugs imported in the timber as we have described, but were all the planks steamed, this nuisance would be destroyed.

Damp Walls.

To prevent damp from exuding from the walls of apartments, first dry them thoroughly, and then varnish them with the following—to be procured at any oil-shop. Mix with one pint of linseed oil, about one ounce and a half of ground litharge, and two ounces of finely-powdered rosin. Apply this in successive coats, which, after the fifth time, will form a varnish on the wall so hard and compact as to exclude moisture.

Damp Beds.

To detect dampness, let the bed be first warmed, and immediately the warming-pan is taken out, put between the sheets a clear glass goblet, end uppermost; after it has been in that situation a few minutes, examine it; if found dry, and not tarnished with drops of wet, for there will often appear a slight steam, the bed is safe; but if drops of wet or damp adhere to the inside of the glass, it is a certain sign of a damp bed.

CLEANING.

To cleanse Feathers of their Animal Oil.

A LADY (Mrs. Richardson) has received a premium of twenty guineas from the Society of Arts, for the following recipe for cleaning feathers:—Take for every gallon of clean water, one pound of quick lime, mix them well together, and, when the undissolved lime is precipitated in fine powder, pour off the clear lime-water for use. Put the feathers to be cleaned in another tub, and add to them a quantity of the clear lime-water, sufficient to cover the feathers about three inches, when well immersed and stirred about therein. The feathers, when thoroughly moistened, will sink down, and should remain in the lime-water three or four days; after which, the foul liquor should be separated from them by laying them in a sieve. The feathers should be afterwards well washed in clean water, and dried upon nets, the meshes of which may be about the fineness of cabbage-nets. The feathers must be from time to time shaken on the nets, and as they dry will fall through the meshes, and are to be collected for use. The admission of air will be serviceable in the drying; the whole process will be completed in about three weeks. After being prepared as above mentioned, they will only require beating, to get rid of the dust, previous to use.

To wash imitation Wainscot.

WASH first with cold water and a clean flannel, and then with sour porter; after which, it is not to be wiped.

To clean Japan-work.

To remove grease from japan candlesticks and trays, let the water be just warm enough to melt it; then wipe them with a cloth, and if they look smeared, sprinkle a little flour upon them, and wipe it clean off. Wax candle should not be burned in them, as the wax cannot be taken off without injuring the japan.

To clean Stone Stairs, Pavements, &c.

BOIL together half a pint of size, and the same quantity of stone-blue water, with two table-spoonsful of whitening, and two balls of pipe-clay, and about two quarts of water. Wash the stone with a flannel, slightly wetted in this mixture, and, when dry, rub it off with flannel and a brush.

To clean Marble.

TAKE a bullock's gall, a gill of soap lees, half a gill of turpentine, and make it into a paste with pipe-clay; then apply it to the marble, and let it dry a day or two; then rub it off, and, if not clean, repeat the application. Or, beat pumice-stone to an impalpable powder, and mix it up with verjuice; let it stand for two hours, then dip into it a sponge, and rub the marble, wash it with a linen cloth and fresh water, and dry it with clean linen rags. The latter will also serve for alabaster.

To take Iron Stains out of Marble.

MIX an equal quantity of spirit of vitriol and lemon juice; wet the spots, and, in a few minutes, rub with soft linen till they disappear.

To clean Cast-iron, and black Hearths.

BOIL about a quarter of a pound of the best blacklead with a pint of small beer, and a bit of soap the size of a walnut. When melted, dip in a painter's brush, and wet the grate, having first brushed off all soot and dust; then take a hard brush, and rub it till of a beautiful brightness. The lump Cumberland lead, used without wetting, likewise gives an excellent polish to stove-grates.

To Clean Carpets.

BEAT the carpet well, then stretch it out and cleanse it with a hard brush, dipped in soft water, in which bran has being boiled. Whilst wet, rub the carpet over with fuller's earth, laying it in the sun to dry, and repeating the process two or three times. Then beat the carpet until the fuller's earth be quite out; next rub it with a soft brush dipped in alum water, and lastly dry it in the shade, when the colours will appear bright and new.

Potatoes for cleaning.

THE coarse pulp of potatoes is useful for cleaning worsted or woollen curtains, tapestry, carpets, or other coarse goods. The liquor cleanses the finer kinds of silk, without injury to the texture or colours. It is also useful in cleaning oil-paintings, or soiled furniture. Dirty painted wainscoting is also effectually cleansed by wetting a sponge in the liquid, and rubbing it with a little fine sand over the wainscot.

Oil Cloths

UGHT never to be wetted, if it can possibly be avoided; but merely to be rubbed with a flannel, and polished, like a table, with a moderately hard brush.

Paper-hangings.

CUT into eight pieces a stale quartern loaf, and having blown off with bellows all the dust from the paper, take one of the pieces of bread, and begin at the top of the room, holding the crust in the hand, and wiping lightly downwards with the crumb, about half a yard at each stroke, till the upper part of the paper is completely cleaned all round; then go again with a similar sweeping stroke downwards, always commencing each successive course a little higher than the upper stroke had extended, till the bottom be finished. Great caution must be used not to rub the paper hard, nor to attempt cleaning it the cross or horizontal way. The dirty surface of the bread must be from time to time cut away, and the pieces renewed as often as necessary.

To remove Grease or Oil from Boards.

DROP spirit of turpentine on the spot, and rub it hard with your

finger; this will dissolve the grease and make it mix with the soap and water when the room is scoured. Or mix fuller's earth and soaplees, and rub them on the boards. Let the mixture dry, and then scour it off with strong soft soap and sand. It should be put on hot, by heating the lees.

To Clean Gilt Picture Frames.

THE only method of preventing flies from staining the gilding, is to cover the frames with strips of tissue paper, or gauze. Linen takes off the gilding and deadens its brightness: it should therefore never be used for wiping it; but fly-stains or other soil may be removed by gently wiping with cotton dipped in sweet oil.

To Clean Paint.

FULLER'S earth is the cheapest and most useful article for this purpose; and on wood not painted, it forms an excellent substitute for soap. Where extreme nicety is required, mix one pound of soft soap, two ounces of pearl-ash, one pint of sand, and one pint of table beer, in a pipkin, over a slow fire. Put a small quantity in flannel, rubbing it on the wainscot; wash it off with warm water, and dry thoroughly with a linen cloth. Another method is by grating potatoes to a very fine pulp, using four to every quart of water; the whole must be well stirred, and then suffered to settle, when the liquor may be poured off, and a sponge dipped in it for use. The well-known composition called Oil of Tartar, in the proportion of a pint to a pail of water will clean wainscots and floors even better than soap mixtures.

To Restore the Blackness of Old Leather Chairs, &c.

MANY families, especially in the country, possess chairs, settees, &c., covered with black leather; these impaired by long use may be restored nearly to their original good colour and gloss by the following easy and approved process:—Take two yolks of newly laid eggs, and the white of one; let these be well beaten up, and then shaken in a glass vessel or jug to become like a thick oil; dissolve in about a table-spoonful or less of gin an ordinary tea lump of loaf sugar; make this thick with ivory black, well worked up with a bit of stick; mix with the eggs for use. Let this be laid on as blacking ordinarily is for shoes; after a few minutes polish with a soft new or very clean brush till completely dry, and, shining, let it remain a day to harden. The same process answers admirably for ladies' cordovan or gentlemen's dress shoes, but with the following addition for protecting the stockings from soil. Let the white or glair of eggs be shaken in a large glass phial until it becomes a perfect oil, brush over the inner edges of the shoes with it, and when completely dry it will prevent all soiling from the leather. This requires to be repeated.

Ink or other Stains from Mahogany.

RUB ON with a cork a little spirits of salts till the stains disappear,

and then wash off with cold water. Be careful in using the spirit as it will burn whatever it touches.

China and Glass.

THE best material for cleansing either porcelain or glass is Fuller's earth beaten into a fine powder, and carefully freed from all rough or hard particles.

Looking Glasses.

REMOVE the fly-stains and other soil by a damp rag ; then polish with a woollen cloth and powder blue.

To give a gloss to Oak Wainscot.

IF greasy, wash it with warm beer ; then boil two quarts of strong beer, a bit of bees'-wax the size of a walnut, and a large spoonful of sugar ; wet it all over with a large brush, and when dry rub it till bright.

POLISHING.

To Clean and Polish Rusty Steel.

OIL the rusty parts of the steel, and let it remain oiled two or three days ; then wipe it dry with clean rags, and polish with flour-emery, pumice-stone powdered, or unslacked lime.

To preserve polished Iron-work from Rust.

MIX some copal varnish with as much olive oil as will make it greasy, to which add nearly as much spirit of turpentine as of varnish. Rust may be removed from grates or fire-irons by a mixture of tripoli with half its quantity of sulphur, laid on with a piece of leather ; or emery and oil will answer the same purpose. Brass ornaments, when not gilt or lacquered, may be cleansed in the same way.

To take the Black off bright Bars.

RUB them well with some of the following mixture, on woollen ; when the dirt is removed, wipe them clean, and polish with glass-paper.

Boil slowly one pound of soft soap in two quarts of water to one. Of this jelly, take three or four spoonful, and mix to a consistence with emery, No. 3.

To clean Brass and Copper.

RUB it slightly over with a bit of flannel dipped in sweet oil ; next, rub it hard with another bit dipped in finely-powdered rotten-stone ; then make it clean with a soft linen cloth, and finish by polishing it with a plate leather.

To give a fine colour to Brass.

BEAT sal ammoniac into a fine powder, then moisten it with water, and rub it on the ornaments, which must be heated over charcoal, and rubbed dry with bran and whitening. Or wash the brass work with roche alum boiled in strong ley, in the propor-

tion of an ounce to a pint; when dry, rub the brass with fine tripoli.

Lighting Fires.

THE following observations on the advantages of employing *charcoal* to light fires are worthy of the attention of the housemaid.

When a fire is already kindled, in order to light another fire with charcoal, you have only to lay three or four pieces of it between the bars of the grate; and having then laid a few bits of fresh coal upon the bottom of the grate in which the second fire is to be made, to lay the kindled pieces of charcoal upon them, only taking care that the live or burning parts be placed against each other. These may then be covered either with embers or with pieces of fresh pit coal, and upon blowing them with the common hand bellows, the heat of the charcoal will be greatly increased, and instantly set fire to the fresh coal, and thus a brisk fire will presently be made. On the contrary, in lighting a fire by the help of the ordinary fire-wood, we must patiently wait a considerable time before venturing to blow it, unless we would either extinguish it or blow it entirely out of the grate.

In the above manner, fires, which are principally of wood logs, are lighted in France, the charcoal keeping fire so much longer than small wood, and its flame being increased by blowing. Thus, it is surprising how much is done with two or three pieces of charcoal and a pair of bellows; and this method will be found very convenient for speedily lighting fires in bed and dressing rooms.

THE LAUNDRYMAID.

THE business of the Laundress is almost exclusively confined to the washing and getting-up of the family linen. It is consequently a situation of great trust and responsibility, although few instructions can be given beyond those already too well understood to need description. A few receipts for the preservation and restoration of linen, and for fine washing, will, nevertheless, be found very useful.

Washing Machine.

IN these days of mechanical invention, it is not at all surprising to find an attempt made to introduce machinery in the Laundry. The machine for washing consists of a cylinder, in which the linen is enclosed, and constantly turned round. All that is required is to rub the linen with soap the night previous, and then the cylinder ought to move so rapidly as not to whirl it completely round, but that it should be heard to fall at every half turning; and if moved at a proper rate, each change of linen will be washed in less than half an hour, without rubbing, but with the addition of potash, which may be now used of a greater strength than when washing by the hand. The linen is then rinsed, and a little hand-washing applied where necessary. Boiling is then requisite; after which the linen is drained on a tray full of holes over a reservoir, which receives the soapy water for further use. The process of wringing is also shortened and improved, by placing the linen in a square box of strong sacking, kept open by iron rings, and shut up in a cast-iron box, with a sliding plate forced against the end of the bag by a rack and pinion, and turned by a winch. By this process the clothes are squeezed much drier than by the common method; and the pressure upon all parts being uniform, less injury is done to the texture of the linen.—*Practical Domestic Economy.*

Although we give this description of the machine, we do not strongly recommend it, as this is a point better left to the decision of employers. Among the various methods of washing in different countries, that adopted in France is not the least curious. Great part of the washing in Paris is done by women, in large covered barges or boats, on the river Seine. To free

the articles from dirt, they dip them *in the river*, and beat them with large wooden pats, not unlike peels. We suspect they do not use much soap, for so fond are they of employing chemical preparations, that cotton stockings, with this washing, soon become rotten, and fall to pieces, but are highly bleached.

Hard and Soft Water.

It is pretty generally known that hard water requires much more soap in use than rain water, and is consequently not so well adapted for washing. Hard water will not, therefore, be used by choice: it will always be necessary to boil it before use, which will generally be found sufficiently efficacious: even exposure to the air will sometimes qualify hard water for washing. In both cases the water ought to be carefully poured off from the sediment. In some cases, however, neither of these means will succeed; it is then advisable to use common wood ashes from the kitchen grate, or soda, or pearl-ashes; but we recommend the trial of the first method before the others are resorted to. If the soda or pearl-ash be added to the water twenty-four hours before it is used, it will answer the same purpose, and some time may be saved.

In some few cases the following information may be serviceable:—To *wash in Sea water*, take a strong solution of soda or potash, with an equal weight of china clay; mix them into a thick paste, one pound of which is sufficient to soften four gallons of sea water.

Soap

Is one of the most ingenious of all manufactures; but, from the great quantity used in household affairs, is an expensive article in a family: its economy is therefore a very desirable object, and many probable substitutes are worth trial.

The hardest soap is always the best, since soap is made soft by too much tallow: it is the soda in it which gives soap its cleansing quality, and which makes it dissolve in water; whereas tallow serves to moderate the sharpness of the soda, and to prevent its injuring the hands of those who use it. Resin likewise makes the soap stronger, and enables the manufacturer to sell it cheaper. Common fish oil, when its price permits, is also used in yellow soap; but this sometimes causes much waste. Potash is used in making soft soap, and is boiled with fish or other animal oil, till the materials are united. For coarse purposes, soft soap saves nearly one-half; and, as an economical hint for hard soap, we suggest that a saving of nearly one-third may be effected, by cutting it in pieces of about a pound weight each, and keeping it moderately dry. If the quantity necessary for one year is first laid in, it ought to be filled up every six months.

Among the *substitutes for soap* we recommend the following:—Put any quantity of pearl-ash into a large jar, covered from the dust, in a few days it will become a liquid, which must be

diluted with double its quantity of soft water, with its equal quantity of new slaked lime. Boil it half an hour, frequently stirring it; adding as much more hot water, and drawing off the liquor, when the residuum may be boiled afresh, until it ceases to taste acrid. Much soap and labour may likewise be saved by dissolving alum and chalk in bran-water, in which the linen ought to be boiled, and then well rinsed out.

Two ounces of pearl-ash to a pound and a half of soap will make a considerable saving.

Much soap and manual labour may also be saved by dissolving alum and chalk in bran-water, in which the linen ought to be boiled, then well rinsed out, and bleached as usual.

Soap is but little used in the getting-up of muslins and chintzes, which it is better to treat in the oriental manner—that is, to wash them in plain water, and then boil them in *conjee*, or

Rice Water.

It is used thus:—Boil a pound of rice in five quarts of water, and when cool enough, wash in this, using the rice for soap. Have another quantity ready, but strain the rice from this, and use it with warm water, keeping the rice-water strained off for a third washing, which at the same time stiffens the chintz, and brightens the colours.

Bleaching.

WHEN linen is soiled and discoloured by town-washing, or by age, or lying-by out of use, the best materials are the natural verdure of the ground, with the dew and wind of heaven. In some cases, however, a more speedy mode may be desired, in which case a little extra skill is requisite.

The linen must first be washed in a ley, formed in the proportion of one pound of common soda to a gallon of soft water, in a boiling state, where it must be for twelve hours, and then boiled for half an hour in the same liquid; after which, it must be washed in a mixture of common bleaching powder, in the proportion of a pound to a gallon, which must be well shaken in a stone jar for three days, then allowed to settle; and being drawn off clear, the linen must be steeped in it for thirty-six hours, and then washed in the usual manner: this will take out all but ink-stains.

For discoloured linen or muslin, grass or sea-side bleaching is always best; but in town, mix a pound of oxymuriate of lime (or bleaching powder) with six quarts of soft water, and put a portion of this into the tub where the articles are steeping.

To Remove Spots, Stains, &c.

MUSLIN, when stained by wine, will be best restored by rubbing with soft soap and common whitening before washing; after which it must be kept wet, and exposed to the sun and air. To remove grease, moisten it with a little pearl-ash and water,

rubbing the spot between the fingers till it becomes soapy, when it may be washed out. If the spots are of long standing, or of oil paint, use a little spirits of turpentine, and wash out as before.

To take out Mildew.

TAKE soap, and rub it well; then scrape some fine chalk, and rub that also in the linen; lay it on the grass; as it dries, wet it a little, and it will quickly disappear.

To remove Spots of Grease.

MOISTEN them with a few drops of strong solution of potash; rub the spot between the fingers, so that the grease be mixed with it, when a little water will wash out the spot. To remove spots of wax, moisten them repeatedly with spirits of wine, when the wax will become dry and brittle, and easily brush off. If the spots are of long standing, a few drops of turpentine should be rubbed in, and then washed out with soap and water. Oil paint may also be removed by the same means.

The foregoing methods are for linens, cottons, and woollens; but silk requires another process, which will be found at page 109.

To remove Iron-moulds, &c.

TAKE a small quantity of salt of sorrel finely powdered, apply it to the spot, drop some hot water on, and rub it in, upon a pewter plate over a stove, when a little warm water will shortly wash all out.

Ink spots on linen may be taken out by melting part of a mould candle, and dipping the spot in it before the linen is put into the washing-tub.

To wash White Lace.

TACK the lace slightly in a thin cloth dipped in cold water; then let it lie in a strong lather for one day; change the water, and leave it in a second lather all night. Then put into a saucepan a quarter of a cake of white wax, six lumps of sugar, two teaspoonsful of liquid starch, and a quart of soft water, in which boil the lace for ten minutes; then throw it into cold water, and iron it when nearly dry.

To restore Scorched Linen.

To a quart of vinegar, put the juice of six large onions, about one ounce of soap rasped down, a quarter of a pound of fuller's earth, one ounce of lime, and one ounce of pearl-ash. Boil the whole until it is pretty thick, and lay some of it on the scorched part, suffering it to dry. On repeating this for one or two washings, the mark will be removed from the linen without any damage.

To wash Flannels, &c., and prevent their Shrinking.

TAKE half the weight of soda that there is of soap; boil them with water, allowing a gallon to every pound of soap, and use it

when perfectly cold. Wet the flannels in cold water, then wash them in fresh cold water, with some of the boiled mixture amongst it; wash them in this, changing the water till they become perfectly clean; then rinse them well in cold water, and dry them in the shade. Worsted stockings washed in this manner will be made quite clean; but particular care must be taken to wet them in clean cold water previous to washing them in the cold suds. Blankets should be washed in this way also, and when nearly dry, frequently shaken to raise the pile, and to make them soft.

To Scour Flannels or Woollens.

Cut a half a pound of yellow soap in thin slices, and pour on it enough boiling water to dissolve the soap, and make it the consistence of oil. Cover the articles about two inches with water, such as the hand can bear, and add a lump of American pearl-ash, and about a third of the soap solution. Beat them till no head or lather rises on the water: throw away the dirty water, and proceed as before with hotter water without pearl-ash.

To scour thick Cotton Counterpanes.

Cut a pound of mottled soap in thin slices, and put it into a pan with a quarter of an ounce of potash. Pour a pail of boiling water on it, and let it stand till dissolved. Then pour hot and cold water into a scouring-tub, with a bowl of the solution. Put in the counterpane, beat it well, turn it often, give it a second liquor as before, and then rinse it in cold water. Then put three teaspoonsful of liquid-blue into a thin liquor; stir it, and put in the counterpane; beat it about five minutes, and dry it in the air.

THE *Laundry Maid* may with advantage consult the several instructions for the getting-up and management of Fine Linen, receipts for Dyeing, &c., which are included in the duties of the *Lady's Maid* (pages 109 to 114). Such articles as are directed to be used in them, and are not generally kept in the house, may be purchased of the oilman or druggist; and only such of these are introduced as may be used with perfect safety. Spirits of salts, vitriol, and other acids, should be kept from the skin

THE DAIRYMAID.

THE management of the dairy, poultry-yard, and bake-house, forms the business of this very useful member of an establishment. Her duties are very numerous—as milking the cows; making butter, cheese, &c.; feeding, picking, and preparing poultry for the cook; and making all the bread of the family: occasionally, too, she makes sausages, collars and cures meat, tongues, hams, &c. the instructions for which we have attached to “The House-keeper,” as being more frequently her duties. The Dairymaid may, therefore, consult this information at page 12. Almost every county in Great Britain has its peculiar management of the dairy and poultry, with the best methods of making the butter and cheese of that county. The hints which we have to offer on these subjects will, therefore, be rather of a general than special description, although a few of them will direct the reader to the best methods of certain counties which are celebrated for their products in this branch of domestic economy.

THE DAIRY.

IN no department is cleanliness more important than in the dairy. The floor, flagged or paved with proper tiles, should be kept very clean, and cold water frequently thrown over every part of it. The sun and hot air should be carefully excluded by means of shutters. The windows, when open, and, indeed, the lattices generally, should only admit air and light, all dirt and dust being carefully excluded. Glass may certainly be used; but gauze, or oiled paper, within the lattice, will be found best. By this means, the temperature of the dairy may, in some seasons, be regulated. The temperature most favourable to the separation of the cream from the milk, will be about fifty-five degrees of the thermometer.* Care should also be taken that the walls are well

* The *thermometer*, though not so well known as the barometer or weather-glass, is equally simple. It consists of a fine glass tube, usually filled with quicksilver, which rises according to the heat of the apartment. The “degrees” of heat, as they are called, are known by figures marked beside the tube, and when the quicksilver rises to fifty-five degrees, it is

white-washed; and, if the size of the dairy will permit, it is better to have shelves, of table-height, arranged all around it. If the floor is on a slight slope, with a small grating, it will be found very convenient, since no water ought to be allowed to remain in any hole in the floor-tiling. Meat hung in a dairy will also spoil milk, and the cheese-presses should invariably be placed in another apartment. An important point, but which rests with those engaged in building the dairy, is to ensure it a good supply of water; and, if the inequality of the ground permits, this may be done by a pipe from a natural spring, with a small reservoir, as a basin or tub, and stop-cock, in the manner that baths are supplied.

The vessels used for milk, were formerly of wood, or glazed earthenware; those of lead have also been, of late years, in much request, under the idea that they keep the milk cooler, but they may, by accident, become prejudicial to the health. Both wooden and lead vessels require much cleaning:—they should be scoured with salt or Calais sand. Milk-dishes of cast-iron have also been manufactured, and of metallic utensils, these are least objectionable. But as modern dairies are usually built with great taste, so as to be ornamental as well as useful, the interior is not unfrequently fitted up with white *marble* milk-pans or flats.* We ought not to forget to recommend the excellent milk-pans manufactured by Messrs. Wedgwood, which have their name, and the word "Milk," imprinted at their back, so as to prevent their being used for any other purpose than for containing milk.

A milk-dairy should have two apartments—one for the milk, the other for scalding and cleaning the different utensils. An ice-house near the building is very advantageous, as a small quantity of ice, placed when necessary in the milk-room, would soon lower the temperature to any degree that might be required. If the cold in winter should be too great, a barrel of hot water,

the desired point. It should be hung against the wall, always in one place, but not in a current of air. A *cream-gauge* is also a very useful appendage to a dairy. This is a glass tube, of about one inch in diameter, and ten inches long; on its outside is a scale three inches long, and each inch is divided into ten equal parts. The scale commences exactly at the height of ten inches from the bottom of the tube; it is numbered, and counts downwards. Being filled, up to ten inches high, with new milk, of a proper temperature, it is set by in the dairy for twelve hours, in which time the cream will all of it have risen to the top of the tube, if the cow be a proper one from which to make butter.

* Some dairies, built in the cottage style, are extremely handsome. We remember seeing a very pretty one lately erected at the Deepdene, near Dorking, the seat of Thomas Hope, Esq. The milk flats are of white marble, the walls of fine plaster, the floor of clear white stone, the windows of stained glass, with shifting blinds or shutters, and the whole exterior is one of the most tasteful buildings on that beautiful estate.

close stopped, or a few hot bricks, should be placed on the floor or table of the milk-room; a chafing-dish, with burning coals, should never be used.*

Management of Cows.

THE cows should be milked at a regular and early hour, rather in the house than in the field; three times a day, at least, in summer—early in the morning, at noon, and just before night-fall. Their udders should be *perfectly emptied*, else the quantity given will be diminished. When you go to the cow, take with you *cold water* and a sponge, and wash each cow's udder; bathe it well with cold water, both in winter and summer, as that braces them. But, if any cow has sore teats, let them be soaked in warm water twice a day, and either dressed with soft ointment, or bathed with spirits and water. In either case, the milk should be given to the pigs.

When the milk is brought into the dairy, it should be strained and emptied into clean pans, immediately, in *winter*, but not till cool, in *summer*. Suffer no one to milk the cows but yourself, as much depends on their being *dripped quite clean*, particularly after a calf is taken away.

The quantity of milk given by cows, will be different according to their breed, health, pasturage, the length of time from calving, and other circumstances. Change of pasturage will tend to increase the quantity. We believe the average produce per cow, in the dairies of England, to be rather less than five pounds per week for forty weeks. Another writer says, "It may be laid down as a pretty general rule, that eighteen pounds of milk will yield one pound of butter, and that this is the produce of a single cow per day; some, however, will furnish twice, or even thrice, this quantity. The best age for a milk cow, is between four and ten. When old, she will give more milk, but of an inferior quality."† It is absolutely necessary that the cows should be kept feeding whilst you are milking them. Upon the authority of an ingenious native of Switzerland, we find it stated, that "Morning's milk commonly yields some hundredths more cream than the evening's. That milked at noon furnishes the least; it would, therefore, be of advantage, in making butter and cheese, to employ the morning's milk, and keep the evening's for domestic purposes." He also says, from experiment, that "milk drawn from the left side of a cow's udder is the richest."

The choice of cows is, of course, an important point connected

* On the banks of the Lake of Lucerne, and at the foot of Mount Pilato, in Switzerland, are little wooden huts (except the back wall of stone) used as *cold caves*. The temperature of these caves has been as low as thirty-one degrees in the month of July, when milk could be kept here for three weeks, meat for a month, and cherries for twelve months. In one hut, snow has been preserved a whole summer.

† Practice of Cookery, 1829.

with their productiveness. The Alderney breed* are very valuable, and their milk is so rich, that the average of their annual butter may be reckoned at upwards of two hundred weight, and, as milch cattle, they fetch high prices. Of black cattle, the Holderness, or Dutch, (perhaps from their coming up from that district of Lincolnshire which bears the name of Holland,) and the long-horned Lancashire, are in general preferred: the polled or Galloway cows are excellent milkers, and the Suffolk duns and Ayrshire cows are also much esteemed. The Alderney cattle are recommended for *butter*, and the Lancashire for *cheese*. The very worst of the Lancashire will yield four gallons of milk per day, and some of them half as much more.†

The food of cows next deserves notice. In winter, this may be of two kinds, either dry or green: of dry food, straw and hay are almost the only kinds used; the most profitable of green food, are sainfoin, parsnips, carrots, cabbages, and turnips: from one to two hundred pounds a-day of cabbages or turnips will be consumed by a middle-sized cow; and of carrots, the allowance is two pecks per day for each cow. Artificial food, however, sometimes gives the butter an unpleasant taste; but this may be guarded against by putting a piece of saltpetre, the size of a nutmeg, in each vessel which may be large enough to hold as much cream as will make six pounds of butter. Parsnips are the least objectionable, but turnips rank last. On mangle-wurtzel, the opinions are too divided for us to collect. By means of stall-feeding with green crops, a cow can be kept in milk not only a month longer in autumn than by the common modes, but even through the whole winter season. When green juicy food cannot be procured, give the cows fodder either boiled or steeped in warm water; and, for a few weeks before calving, they should have every night a little hay, or a somewhat greater allowance of green food.

For making cheese, the cows should calve from Lady-day to May, that the large quantity of milk may come into use about the same time; and one or two should calve in August or September, for a supply in winter. On the day of calving, the cows should be kept in; and, immediately after, give them a handful or two

* Alderney is a small British island, containing only one village. It is high, rugged, and encompassed by dangerous reefs, and the islanders have very little intercourse with the rest of the world. From this place, the Alderney breed of cows originally was brought.

† Mr. Lawrence, the author of several useful books on cattle, horses, &c. says, he has heard of "Twenty, and even twenty-two pounds of butter made from the milk of one long-horned cow in seven days; but I have never been fortunate enough to obtain one that would produce more than twelve pounds per week, although I have had a Yorkshire cow which milked seven gallons per day, yet never made five pounds of butter in one week. On the average, three gallons of good milk make one pound of butter."

of meal mixed with warm water. For a fortnight after calving, they should have, with their green food, a little hay or chopped straw, with some ground or crushed oats, put into their stalls in small quantities: a little salt also improves the quality, and increases the quantity, of milk. Although the entire care of cows does not belong to the dairymaid, it may be useful here to state, that when cattle are what is termed *hoven*, they will be entirely relieved by a spoonful of hartshorn in water being forced down the animal's throat.

When a calf is to be reared, it should be taken from the cow in a week at farthest: it should be taken in the morning, and kept without food till the next morning, when, being hungry, it will drink without difficulty; but if taken from the cow in less than a week, it will not be easy to make it take milk in a pan. Skimmed milk and fresh whey, lukewarm, should be given twice a day, or, if milk runs short, smooth gruel and milk will do.

During the absence of the family, or when much cream is not wanted, a careful dairymaid will provide for a winter-store; and a correct account of the produce of each week, the butter she pots, the poultry reared, and the weekly consumption, &c. should be entered in a book provided for that purpose.

BUTTER

Is so important an article of food, that we must devote a page or two to its management.*

In producing good butter, more depends on the management than on the quality of the cow, or the richness of its food. For large quantities of butter, the horizontal or barrel churn is the best; the upright or pump churn being well adapted for making butter from the produce of a few cows only. From the last drawn half of the milk, if allowed to stand till it is somewhat sourish, superior cream will be obtained, nearly as abundantly as if the whole were set apart for producing cream. Sweet cream requires four times as much churning as sour. From twelve to twenty hours in summer, and twice as long in winter, should elapse before the milk is skimmed, after it is put into the pans; in summer, this should be done in the morning before the dairy becomes warm. The cream should be kept in a jar in the coolest part of the dairy, stirred often, and shifted every morning into a clean and well-scalded vessel. In summer, you should churn three times a week, or twice a week at least. In winter, the churn ought to be chilled with cold water before the cream is put into it, as well as whilst churning; and, in winter, the churn should be steeped some time in warm water before churning.

* It has been calculated, that the annual consumption of butter in London, is not less than 50,000 tons; of which Cambridge and Suffolk furnish 50,000 firkins, each containing fifty-six pounds. The money paid annually for milk is supposed to be 1,250,000*l*.

When the butter is come, pour off the butter-milk, and put the butter in a fresh-scalded pan, or tubs, which have afterwards been in cold water. Pour water on it, and let it become rather hard before you work it; then change the water, and beat it with flat boards till no taste of butter-milk remain, and the water (which must be often changed,) is colourless. Then work some salt into it, weigh, and make it into forms; and throw them into an earthen pan with cold water. Butter requires more working in hot than cold weather. Butter is used in many ways for garnishing. This is usually done with box-wood moulds in the form of fir cones, small pine-apples, shells, figures of swans, or in little tufts, coral branches, &c. which may be bought at the turner's.

Salting Butter.

IN salting butter for winter use, great improvement arises from mixing one ounce of crude sal ammoniac and two ounces of saltpetre, finely powdered with one peck of salt. A small quantity of this mixture will give a more agreeable flavour than common salt alone.

Good butter may also be ensured in winter, by washing and beating it free of butter milk, and working it up quickly, allowing a scanty half-ounce of powdered saltpetre, and the same of the following mixture to each pound: take four ounces of lump sugar, and a quarter of an ounce of saltpetre; beat them well together, and having worked up the butter, pack it for use in stone jars, which are much better than tubs. It should be as closely packed as possible, so as to preserve it from the air; the butter near the joints of tubs, open to the air, is always the most rancid. The butter should then stand, at least, a fortnight, when it will have a rich marrowy flavour, and may be kept for years. Some recommend the butter to be kept covered with a quart of brine.

On the Continent, butter is kept sweet for a considerable time by melting it while fresh over a very slow fire, removing the scum as it rises, and salting it. It is then strained through a cloth, and cooled in ice or spring water. The taste of rancid butter may be corrected by the same means, or the following method:—The quantity of butter proposed to be used, either for toasts or melting, must be put into a bowl filled with boiling water, and when the butter is melted, skim it quite off; by this method it is so separated from any gross particles, that it may require a small addition of salt, which is to be put into the cold water that is made use of in melting butter for sauce; and though the butter is oiled by hot water, it becomes a fine cream in the boiling for sauce.

To choose Salt Butter.

TASTE a piece of the outside next the tub; if that is good, and free from rankness, you may be certain the middle is; but the centre is often excellent when the sides are half spoiled; and

those who sell it, knowing this, always give you a taste out of the middle. Butter-gaugers have a long augur which they thrust through the whole tub, and as they find it uniform, or of two or three different qualities, mark the cask 1, 2, 3.—*Dr. Kitchiner.*

To keep Milk and Cream.

IN hot weather scald the new milk very gently without boiling, as on a hot hearth, or in a wide brass kettle of water, large enough to receive the pan: then set it by in the dish or pan in which it is done. This is the Devonshire method. Cream already skimmed may be kept twenty-four hours if scalded without sugar; and by adding to it as much powdered lump sugar as shall make it pretty sweet, it will keep two days in a cool place. A spoonful of scraped wild hoseradish put into each dish of milk will likewise preserve it sweet for several days.

CHEESE.

IN no respect do the counties of England differ more than in the produce of cheese. Indeed almost every one of them has its variety, and its manufacture. Cheshire, Gloucester, Derby, Cheddar, and North Wiltshire, are those in general use. Delicious cheeses are likewise made in Bedfordshire; and Stilton and Bath belong to the luxuries of the table. On the contrary, some parts of England produce very poor cheese; as the thin cheese made in the wilds of Sussex, and a miserable sort called Isle of Wight Rock, made in the island of that name. All we shall attempt is a general method of making cheese, and a few hints for imitations of various kinds.

To prepare Rennet,

To turn the milk, take out the stomach of a calf as soon as killed, and scour it inside and out with salt, after it is cleared of the curd always found in it. Let it drain a few hours; then sew it up with two handfuls of salt in it, or stretch it on a stick well salted; or keep it in the salt wet, and soak a bit, which will do over and over again by fresh water.

To make Cheese.

SKIM-MILK cheese can never be good; and at least, one half of the milk used should be fresh from the cow; or if cold, it should be warmed till it equals the heat of new; if too hot, the cheese will be tough. Put in sufficient rennet to turn it, and cover it over. Let it stand till completely turned; then strike the curd down repeatedly with the skimming-dish, and let it separate, still covering it. Then break the curd, and gather it with the hands very gently towards the side of the tub, letting the whey pass through the fingers, till it is cleared, and lading it off as it collects. Put the vat on a ladder over the tub, and fill it with curd by the skimmer, pressing it close, and finally leaving it

two inches above the edge. Before the vat is filled, the cheese cloth must be laid at the bottom; and when full, drawn smooth over on all sides. It may either be salted while in the tub after the whey is out, or when in the vat. Put a board beneath and above the vat, and place it in the press: in two hours turn it out and put a fresh cheese cloth; press it again for eight or nine hours; then salt it all over, and turn it again in the vat, and let it stand in the press fourteen or sixteen hours; observing to put the cheese last made undermost. Before putting them the last time into the vat, pare the edges if they do not look smooth. The vat should have holes at the sides and at bottom to let all the whey pass through. Put on clean boards, and clean and scald them. We are indebted for this receipt, in part to Mrs. Rundell's excellent "*Domestic Cookery*" book.

Cheshire Cheese.

IN an excellent account of the mode of making Cheshire cheese, obtained from manufacturers in the county, we find that "if the milk be set together very warm, the curd will be firm; in this case, the usual method is to take a common case-knife and cut it crossways in lines about an inch apart, about the depth of the knife's blade. The whey rising through these cuts is of a fine pale green colour. The cheese-maker and two assistants then break the curd, the former with a skimming-dish in one hand, with which he breaks every part as the others catch it, and continue to raise the curd from the bottom. When the curd is broken uniformly small, it is left covered with a cloth an hour to settle. If the milk has been set cool together, the curd will be much more tender, and the whey will not be so green, but rather of a milky appearance."

Double Gloucester.

STRAIN the milk immediately from the cows into a large tub: first put into it cake arnatto, (one ounce to about a fifty pound cheese,) by tying it up in muslin and shaking it till the milk is tinged to the colour you wish. Then add sufficient rennet to coagulate or curdle; let it stand till the curd is quite formed, when it may be cut or broken with a knife, and the whey taken out with a skimming-dish. Next cut the curd into pieces of an inch square, put it in a cloth into a large wooden drainer with a cover, upon which place half a hundred weight, so as to press the curd moderately, and set before a good fire. In fifteen or twenty minutes take the curd out, and cut it rather smaller, and press it as before. Then take it out again, and cut it as small as bird's meat, in a tub, where it is to be salted. It is then put into a cloth of thin gauze, and put into a chessel or chess, set it before a good fire for twelve or fifteen hours with the weight on it, and then put it into the press, taking it out occasionally and giving dry cloths, till the cloths come out quite dry, when it will be pressed enough. But it is perhaps an advantage to allow the

cheese to remain two days or upwards. If the last cloth is of finer texture and dipped in warm water, wringing it before putting it on the cheese, the skin will be firmer. The cheese being taken out of the press, should be laid on a tolerably dry floor, or shelves; they ought at first to be turned daily and rubbed with a dry cloth; after becoming firm, then being turned and wiped twice a week will be sufficient.

Stilton.

To the new milk of the cheese-making morning, add the cream from that of the evening before, together with the rennet, watching the full separation of the curd, which must be removed from the whey without breaking, and placed in a sieve until of such a consistence as to bear being lifted up and placed in a hoop that will receive it without much pressure. The cheese as it dries will shrink, and must therefore be placed from time to time in a tighter hoop, and turned daily, until it acquires the proper consistence for use or keeping.

Rich Cream Cheese.

Dr. HUNTER, of Edinburgh, gives the following receipt for making a rich cream cheese without rennet:—Take any quantity of cream, and put it into a wet cloth. Tie it up, and hang it in a cool place for seven or eight days. Then take it from the cloth, and put it into a mould (in another cloth,) with a weight upon it for two or three days longer. Turn it twice a day, and it will be fit for use.

Rush Cream Cheese.

TAKE a quart of fresh cream, and a pint of warm new milk, a bit of sugar, and a little rennet. Set near the fire till the curd comes; fill a vat made in the form of a brick, of wheat straw or rushes sewed together. Rest the vat on a square of straw or rushed sewed flat, and cover it with another square; the vat being open at top and bottom. Next day take it out, turn daily till dry, from one board to another; cover them with nettles, or clean dock leaves, and put between two pewter plates to ripen.

Adulterations of Cheese, &c.

IT is well known that the fine bright red colour of some Gloucester cheese is given by red lead. Arnatto, or "cheese colouring," is prepared from the seeds of an Indian tree, and when obtained genuine is not poisonous, but harmless, especially in the small quantity used for cheese.

Cheese should be kept in a cool but not damp cellar, and it should be turned and brushed once or twice a week; for if it becomes damp or mouldy, it will soon spoil. The rich *blue mould* may be produced by brushing the cheese with a hard brush, frequently dipped in whey, and when nearly dry, rubbed over with a cloth on which fresh butter had been spread, this washing, rubbing and turning to be repeated till the blue coat appears. Rubbing

the shelves, &c. of a cheese-room or cellar with elder leaves will drive away insects.

The addition of a pound of good fresh-made butter will enrich the cheese made on poor land. A few cheeses thus made, when the weather is moderately warm, and the cows are in full feed, will be advantageous for the parlour table.

Foreign cheeses, as Parmesan, Gruyere, or Swiss, Neufchatel and others, may be purchased at the Italian warehouses, and are often introduced in desserts, made-dishes, &c. Grated Parmesan is a fine addition to certain soups.

POULTRY.

ALTHOUGH we have not room for a treatise on the management of poultry, we shall attempt in a small space, a few useful hints on rearing, fattening, &c. which will be very serviceable to the Dairymaid.

Fowls.—The best age for setting a hen is from two to five years. Hens sit twenty days; those are usually preferred which have tufts of feathers on their heads. Hens should lay some time before you set them, which should be done from February to May. A hen-house should be large and high, and frequently cleaned out, to keep away vermin; wormwood and rue should be planted near their houses. The pip of fowls is occasioned by drinking dirty water, or eating filthy food. The symptom is a white thin scale on the tongue, pull the scale off with your nail, and rub the tongue with salt.

The chickens first hatched, are to be taken from the hen, and secured in a basket of wool or soft hay, and kept in a moderate heat, if the weather be cold, near the fire. They will require no food for twenty-four hours. The whole brood being hatched, place the hen under a coop abroad upon a dry spot, and, if possible, not within reach of another hen; nor near young fowls.

The first food should be split grits, afterwards tail wheat, all watery food, soaked bread, or potatoes, being improper. Eggs boiled hard, or curd chopped small, is very suitable as first food. Their water should be pure and often renewed, and there are pans made in such forms that the chickens may drink without getting into the water; a basin in the middle of a pan of water will answer the end, the water running round it. Coop the brood only two or three days, but they may be confined as occasion requires. They should not be let out in the morning whilst the dew lies upon the ground, nor be suffered to range over wet grass nor in rainy weather.

The best method of breeding fowls is constant high keep; their flesh will then be more juicy and finer flavoured, and they will be always ready for the table, except in the moulting season, which is in autumn for the old, and spring for the young poultry. A cock and two hens having as much as they choose to

eat, will consume one quarter of a peck of barley in a week. Corn, before given to fowls, should be crushed and soaked in water, which will make it go further and help digestion. To make the hens lay all through the winter, mix powdered oyster-shells and slate with their food. The lime in the oyster-shells is necessary to form the shells of the eggs, and the slate improves their quality and flavour. Nettle-tops going to seed, and dried, and mixed with broken hemp-seed and pollard in barley-meal, and given in two or three pellets daily in the autumn, will make hens lay during the winter.

We say but little of *Hatching Chickens by Steam*, although this plan is adopted in some poultry establishments. It is done by placing them in the same heat as beneath the hen, and the apparatus is very simple. Still, as little more has been done than mere experiment, a full description may pardonably be omitted.

Fowls or chickens may be fattened in four or five days by feeding them three times daily with rice boiled in milk, always fresh, as sourness prevents them from fattening. Give them clean water, or the milk of the rice to drink. By this method the flesh will have a clear whiteness which no other food gives. No food should be given for sixteen hours before poultry be killed. Others recommend the rice to be ground and made into a paste with milk and sweetened; the drink to be beer, and the food to be given in small quantities.

Ducks generally begin to lay in February. Their eggs should be daily taken away, except one, till they seem inclined to sit; then leave them and see that there are enough.

Geese.—The largest are best, as are likewise the white and grey. The pied and dark are not so good.

Turkeys, when young, are very tender. As soon as hatched, put three peppercorns down their throat. Curds, green cheese-parings cut small, and bread and milk with chopped wormwood are their food; and their drink milk and water. Twelve eggs are enough to put under a turkey; and when she is about to lay, lock her up till she has laid every morning. They usually begin to lay in March, and sit in April. Fatten them with soddened oats or barley the first fortnight; and the last fortnight, give them as above, and rice boiled in milk twice a day.* Pea Fowls should be fed as turkeys

Guinea Hens' eggs should be put under common hens: the fowls should be kept warm, and fed with rice milk and bread soaked

* We hardly know how to find words for our indignation at the cruelty of *picking Turkeys alive* to make them tender, which is often done in France. A celebrated writer says, "the man that can do this, or order it to be done, ought to be skinned alive himself. He who can deliberately inflict torture upon an animal, in order to heighten the pleasure his palate is to receive in eating it, is an abuser of the authority which God has given him, and is indeed a tyrant in his heart."

in it; and two peppercorns should be put down their throats when hatched.

Pigeons' proper food is beans, tares, and white peas; they are also fond of salt, which is good for them. When the backs and breasts are scabby, take a quarter of a pound of bay salt and as much common salt; one pound of fennel, one pound of dill, and as much cummin seed, and one ounce of assafoetida: mix all with a little wheaten flour and fine worked clay, and bake in earthen pots in an oven. When cold, put them in the dove-cote, and the pigeons will eat and be cured.

Rabbits—Their best food is the shortest and sweetest hay.

Hints for Fattening.

TURNIPS, cut in small pieces like dice, but much smaller, and put into a trough of water, are much recommended for this purpose. With this food alone, six geese, each when lean, weighing only nine pounds, actually gained twenty pounds each in about three weeks' fattening.

A little antimony, thrown amongst the food of pigs, twice or thrice a week, during the last weeks of their fattening, will promote that operation considerably.

The seeds of the sunflower are excellent food for poultry. It is only necessary to cut off the heads of the plant when ripe, tie them in bunches, and hang them in a dry situation. They not only fatten the poultry, but greatly increase their eggs. They are also capital food for sheep and pigs, and for pheasants.

Grains are cheap fattening for geese and turkeys; but they should be boiled afresh. Other cheap articles are oatmeal and treacle, boiled oats, ground malt, barley meal, and milk.

Indian Corn is excellent food for pigs, a pig having been known to gain, while feeding on it, fifteen stone in six weeks and three days.

Hatching Eggs.

THE full period of sitting by the hen in this country is 21 days; in warm climates it is a day or two less. The swan sits 42 days; parrot, 40; goose, 30; duck, 30; pigeon, 18; canary, 14. The length of life is said to bear some relation to the length of the different periods of incubation. So quick is the produce of pigeons, that in the course of four years, 14,760 may come from a single pair; and in the same period of time, 1,274,840 from a pair of rabbits.

To preserve Eggs fresh.

FILL a small cask with fresh-laid eggs, and cover them with thick lime-water. A little common water must occasionally be added, to prevent the lime from growing too hard. When taken out for use, the eggs should be washed in cold water.

A more simple method is to rub the egg with butter, as soon as it is taken from the nest. By either of these methods

eggs will keep fresh several months. March is the best time to store them.

BREAD.

ECONOMY in Bread and Flour is so important a point in the management of the Bakehouse, that we consider the following hints too valuable to be omitted.

The methods of making bread are too various for us to enumerate. Besides, the only receipts to our purpose are such as are adapted for a family. The following will be found very excellent:—

Put half a bushel of good flour into a trough, or kneading-tub; mix with it between four and five quarts of warm water, and a pint and a half of good yeast; put it into the flour, and stir it with your hands till it becomes tough. Let it rise about an hour and twenty minutes, or less if it rises fast; then, before it falls, add four quarts more of warm water, and half a pound of salt; work it well, and cover it with a cloth. Put the fire then into the oven, and by the time it is warm enough, the dough will be ready. Make the loaves about five pounds each; sweep out the oven very clean and quick, and put in the bread; shut it up close, and two and a half hours will bake it. In summer the water should be milk-warm, in winter a little more, and in frosty weather as hot as you can well bear your hand in, but not scalding, or the whole will be spoiled.

MR. COBBETT'S plan is, we believe, considered very good, and is as follows:—Put a bushel of flour into a trough; make a deep hole in the middle of the heap, and stir in a pint of good yeast, with as much milk-warm water. Then work a spoon round the edges of this body of moisture, so as to bring into it by degrees flour enough to make a thin batter, which must be well stirred for a minute or two. Throw a handful of flour over the surface of this batter, and cover the whole with a folded cloth, to keep it warm. Set it by the fire, regulating the distance by the state of the weather and season of the year. When cracks appear in the flour, form the whole mass into dough thus:—Strew six ounces of salt over the heap; and then, beginning round the hole containing the batter, work the flour into the batter, pouring in milk-warm soft water or milk as it is wanted. When the whole mass is moistened, knead it well, that the fermented paste may be duly mixed with the whole mass. Mould the loaves; let them rise for twenty minutes, and put them into the oven, which should be previously heated. If the loaves be about the quartern size, the whole will be baked in two hours; but, as Mr. Cobbett familiarly observes, “they usually take down the lid and look at the bread, in order to see how it is going on.”

Another Method.

THE common family way of making Bread is thus given by Dr. Kitchiner, who devoted considerable inquiry into this branch of domestic economy:—To half a bushel of flour add six ounces of salt, a pint of yeast, and six quarts of water that has boiled. In warm weather put the water in nearly cold; but in winter, when the weather is very cold, let it be as warm as the hand can be borne in it without causing pain; and in temperate weather, observe a mean between the two extremes. Then put the flour into a kneading-trough, or other vessel, and make a hole in the middle of the flour; put the water into it, to which add the yeast and salt; stir them together, and mix up the flour with it, till the dough becomes of a very thick consistence. Cover the whole up warm, to ferment and rise, particularly in cold weather. This is called setting the sponge, and on a due management of this part of the business depends the goodness of the bread. After letting it lie a proper time in this state—an hour and a half, more or less, according to the weather—knead it well together, and then lay the whole thick at one end of the kneading-trough, and let it lie some time covered up. Having prepared the oven, make the bread into eight loaves, and place them in as expeditiously as possible. The proof of its being well fermented and baked will appear on putting a slice into water: if it is good bread, it will dissolve entirely into a pap in the course of a few hours, without rendering the water thick.

Another.

PUT a quarter of flour and an ounce of salt into a large wooden or earthen bowl, or a small tub; make a hole in the middle of it, and mix half a tea-cupful of yeast with a pint and a quarter of lukewarm water; pour this mixture gradually into the hole in the flour, mixing part of the flour with it by the hand, till it becomes a thick batter. Sprinkle it lightly over with flour, cover it with a clean cloth, and let it stand near the fire for an hour and a half; then knead it with the rest of the flour, and cover it over again with the cloth till it begins to rise, which will be in half an hour, or an hour, depending on the weather; make it up in two loaves, and put it into a quick oven; it will take about an hour and a half baking.

Excellent Bread.—By a Lady.

TAKE 7 lbs. of best flour, to which add 3 lbs. of potatoes, having first well washed, pared, and boiled them, so that they are ready to break; then strain off the water, leaving them in the vessel over the fire to dry; this will take about five minutes, then mash them fine, and as expeditiously as possible, that they may not get cold. While the potatoes are quite warm rub them well into the flour with a spoonful or more of salt; this part must be very well attended to. When thoroughly mixed, have ready a quart of water, about as warm as milk, to which add three large spoonsful of thick yeast, stirring them well together. Put

this liquor to the potatoes and flour, a little at a time, mixing and working it with the hands until formed into a dough, which must be done without the least lump whatever. After the dough is formed it should remain four hours, before it be baked.

French Breaa

INCLUDES all varieties of fine bread baked with milk, eggs, and butter. To half a peck of the finest flour put a quart of lukewarm milk, a little salt, a quarter of a pound of melted butter, and half a pint of bleached yeast. Whisk the liquids together, and add two or three beat eggs; mix the flour with this, handling it as little as possible; let the dough rise, and mould the bread into rolls, cakes, &c. Bake on tins, in a quick oven, and rasp the loaves.

The following is another method:—If a peck of the very finest quality of wheaten flour is to be made into French rolls, a small quantity of it is to be mixed with as much warm water as will convert it into dough: in the water a handful of salt should have been previously dissolved. About a pint of distillers' yeast, or if this cannot be obtained, ale-brewers' yeast, which has been washed with some cold water to remove the bitterness, is to be well worked into the dough. This is to be set by in a warm place to ferment. Meanwhile all the rest of the flour is to be mixed with as much warm milk as will form a sponge. Half a pound of butter, melted at the lowest possible degree of heat, is to be poured on, along with six eggs; and the whole is to be hastily mixed up together, along with the sponge, provided that it has sufficiently fermented, and is sufficiently swollen. After the mixture, let the dough be left in a warm place; and when it has risen sufficiently, let it be divided, shaped into rolls, and baked in a moderately-heated oven. The oven should, as in all other cases, have been perfectly heated before the bread is put in; and the heat should be equal throughout, however difficult this may be to effect with some ill-constructed ovens.

It may be useful to know, that if flour is new, after a wet season, sal-ammoniac dissolved in warm water, and mixed with the dough when stiff, will make the bread quite light, which would otherwise be very heavy. The quantity of sal ammoniac required is one ounce to fourteen pounds of flour; and it is quite safe, as this article is used very extensively in making light biscuits.

The weight of bread is considerably increased by using bran-water in kneading the dough. Three pounds of bran, boiled for an hour, is the proportion for twenty-eight pounds of flour. The water being strained through a hair sieve, the bran need not be lost, but mixed up with dry food for poultry.

To make Yeast.

BOIL one pound of good flour, a quarter of a pound of brown

sugar, and a little salt, in two gallons of water for an hour; when milk-warm, bottle it and cork it close. It will be fit for use in twenty-four hours. One pint of this will make eighteen pounds of bread.

To preserve Yeast.

WHEN the yeast is taken from new beer, it must be put into a clean linen bag, and be laid in a vessel half full of dry sifted wood-ashes; the whole is then to be covered to the thickness of three or four inches with similar ashes, and be pressed together; in this situation, the barm should remain for a day, or longer, if it be necessary, when the ashes will absorb all the moisture, and the yeast acquire the consistence of a thick paste. It must now be formed into small lumps, or balls, dried in a moderate heat, and kept in bags, in an airy, dry place; when any barm is wanted, a few of such balls may be dissolved in warm water, or, which is preferable, in beer, and they will answer every purpose of fermentation.—Another method is to beat it up with a whisk until it appears thin and even; then spread it in thin coats upon plates, coating each other over again as they dry, until about half an inch in thickness, when they may be taken off the plates, broken into small pieces, and kept for use in bottles closely stopped.

To keep Cabbages fresh.

WHEN the cabbages are cut, leave about two or three inches of the stalk, the pith of which is to be hollowed out, taking care not to cut or bruise the rind; tie the cabbages up by their stalks and then fill the hollow with water. By repeating this daily, they may be kept for several months.

THE BUTLER.

THE situation of *the Butler*, like that of *the Housekeeper*, is one of great trust and considerable importance in the good management and consequent comfort of an establishment. Besides the respect to which the Butler is entitled, as the principal of the male servants,* and the confidence he enjoys from his employer, he is not unfrequently received at the tables of highly respectable tradesmen, and thereby gains a station in society which is often advantageously employed in establishing himself as a member of the same class. Indeed, few stations present such opportunities for a man's advancement as those which a Butler may command by industry, integrity, and economy in early life; and this advancement, as the fruit of honourable conduct, will bear comparison with any other advantages of improved fortune and condition in society.

Among the most important of the Butler's duties, are what is generally termed CELLARAGE, or the management of the *wine and beer cellars*; the arrangement of *the table*; and the business of *the side-board and side-table*; the care of the *plate*; and the payment of all bills for wine, spirits, ale, malt, coals, &c. and all such bills as are not in the housekeeper's or kitchen department, are entrusted to the Butler. In this business, he is assisted by the *under-butler*, or, where an under-butler is not kept, by the footman; and, where a Butler is not kept, the cellars are chiefly under the superintendence of the master, who occasionally hires a cellarman, and requires the assistance of the footman. This routine may be said to include the principal business of the indoor *male servants*,—subject to the difference in the number and style of the family and living. Our present object is, however,

* As our little volume is purely practical, we have purposely omitted the "Land and House Steward," whose business is too much governed by circumstances to form part of these pages, important as his services are in every large establishment.

The duties of a Butler are of high antiquity; for the wealthy Greeks had their Butlers, or inspectors of the wine, whose business it was to watch the movements of the table, and see that all the guests were properly supplied.

simply to point out the principal duties of *the Butler*, without distinguishing such as belong to the under-butler—a plan which we have thought prudent to adopt throughout the arrangement of this work. First among these is

THE WINE CELLAR.

THE best and most perfect cellar is that where the thermometer is always between fifty-four and sixty-four degrees of heat by the scale of Fahrenheit. If the entrance should look towards the south, it is absolutely necessary to change it, and carry it to the north. Too much air is very injurious; and, in proportion as the heat of the atmosphere, after winter, increases, a certain number of the holes that admit air should be stopped, because the air of a cellar should always correspond with the atmosphere. On the contrary, during winter, the external air should be admitted, to diminish the heat of the cellar. Attention to these rules will preserve the wine, and prevent its being injured while in the casks.

A good wine-cellar should be at a proper distance from the passage of carts and carriages, and, in short, apart from all motion which will affect the wine.* A cellar can hardly be too dry; moisture not only moulding and rotting the casks, but giving a mouldy taste to the liquor they contain. Experience has proved in France, that wines preserved in vast tuns, built into the stone walls of good cellars, increase in spirit every year. The floor of the cellar should be well covered with saw-dust, which must not be suffered to get too dry and dusty, but must be occasionally changed; lest, when bottling or racking wine, some of the old dust should fly into it. In some vaults it is necessary, during winter, to have a stove or chafing dish, to keep up the proper warmth. In the summer, it is best to keep them as cool as possible. The thermometer should be fixed in that part of the vault where the wines for bottling are kept, endeavouring to have it as low as "temperate." In summer, wash the cellar out weekly to keep it cool, and free from mustiness: in winter, sweep it clean every ten days at least.†

Cleaning and sweetening Casks.

IF a cask, after the contents are drunk out, be well stopped to keep out the air, and the lees be suffered to remain in it till you want to use it again, it will only be necessary to scald it well, taking care, before you fill it, that the hoops are well driven.

* A good cellar ought to be several fathoms under ground, opening towards the north, and out of the way of streets, roads, workshops, sewers, currents of water, water-closets, wood-cellars, &c. and vaulted. *From the French.*

† From "The Vintner's Guide," by a Practical Man. Fourth Edition 1829.

But should the air get into an empty cask, it will become musty; and, notwithstanding scalding, will remain so: the surest way is, to take out the head of the cask, that it may be shaved, then burn it a little, and scald it for use. If this cannot be done conveniently, get some quick-lime, put about three pounds into a barrel, and, in the same proportion for other casks; put to it about ten gallons of cold water, bung it up, shake it about for some time, and afterwards scald it well; or, in place of lime, you may *match* it well, and scald it. *Steaming* casks is another effectual method, and thousands are in this way sweetened by the London brewers.

Another Method.

MIX half a pint of the sulphuric acid (not the diluted) in an open vessel with a quart of water, and whilst warm, put it into the cask, and roll it about in such a manner that the whole internal surface may be exposed to its action. The following day add about 1 lb. of chalk, and bung it up for three or four days, when it may be washed out with boiling water. By this process a very musty cask may be rendered sweet. For sweetening musty bottles, it will be only necessary to rinse the inside with the diluted sulphuric acid in the proportions mentioned above. The addition of chalk, if it were immediately corked, would burst the bottle; and if a cask be old, it would be advisable to let some of the air escape before bunging it.

Where wine is intended to be kept in casks for some years, they should be painted with a coat of linseed oil and ochre, sprinkling over it, whilst wet, some very fine sand, adding a second coat of oil and sand, which forms a complete stony encrustation against damp and dry rot.

To prepare a Match.

MELT some brimstone, and dip into it a bit of coarse linen cloth, or brown paper, of which, when wanted, take a piece about an inch broad, and five inches long, and set fire to it, putting it into the bung-hole, with one end fastened under the bung, which must be driven in very tight; let it remain so for a few hours.

A Filtering-bag,

OR sleeve, is very necessary in fining wines, and is made of a yard of flannel, not too fine or closely-wrought, laid sloping, so as to have the bottom of it very narrow, and the top as broad as the stuff will allow, well sewed up the side, and the upper part of the bag folded about a broad wooden hoop, and well fastened to it; then, boring the hoop in three or four places, it may be fastened to a cord. A ready way of fining dregs of wine, &c. is to put some powdered alabaster into the liquor, or sprinkle the same on the bag, so as nearly to stop up its pores.

MANAGEMENT OF WINES.

WITHOUT entering into all the varieties of wines, further than in the subjoined note,* we shall proceed, at once, to a few of the best methods of managing wine in wood and bottle.

Changes in Wines.

ACIDITY.—The acidity, or the pricked taste of wines, is a fault which, perhaps, ought never to be corrected, as, in this case, the wine is generally spoiled. This nevertheless is done, and sometimes to a considerable extent. Acidity arising from tartarous acid, or even from malic acid, if that really be the acid in wines which is not tartarous, may be a virtue and a quality; as it is very remarkably in Hock. But it is often thought otherwise, even when

* *Wines, where produced.*

WINES of Champagne.—Ay, Epernay, Hautvillier, Sillery, &c.—The varieties of pink Champagne are either tinged by the husk of the grape, or by a colouring matter composed of elderberry juice and cream of tartar.

Wines of Burgundy.—Romané, Conti, Clos Vougeot, and Chambertin. White Burgundy, from Mont Rachet, la Perriere, and Chablis.

Wines of Dauphiné, the Lonnais, and Avignon. Hermitage from Tain on the banks of the Rhone, about seven miles from Lyons.

Wines of Languedoc.—Frontignan, Lunel, and Beziers.

Wines of Rousillon.—Rivesaltes, (two leagues east of Perpignan) and Salces. These are sweet or muscadine wines.

Gascony and Guienne.—The vineyards of the Bordelais, are those of Medoc, Graves, Palus, and Vignes Blanches, which furnish the prime wines. Medoc comprehends the vineyards of Lafitte and Latout, Leoville, Chateau Margaux, and Rausan.

Claret.—To each hogshead of genuine Bordeaux wine, there are four gallons of Benicarlo, half a gallon of stum wine, and a small quantity of Hermitage added, which mixture undergoes a slight fermentation, and is then exported under the name of claret. Sometimes to that intended for England, a small quantity of raspberry brandy is added.

St. Bris, Carbonnieux, Sauterne, Barsac, and Preinac, are white wines of Guienne and Gascony.

Spanish wines.—Sherry, Alicant, and Malaga.—The grapes for the sherry are placed in the vats with a layer of burned gypsum on the surface, and are trodden by peasants wearing wooden shoes. Sometimes bitter almonds are infused while the wine is in the vat, to give it a nutty flavour.

Tintilla, or Tinta di Rota, is a red wine of Andalusia.

Rhenish Wines.—The best are—Schoss Johannis Berger, Steinberger, and Hocheim.

Tokay, from Hungary.

Italian Wines.—Ligustico, a Genoese wine like Champagne; Aleatico, a Tuscan wine. In the Papal States, the muscadel wines of Albano and Montefiascone. Lachryma Christi is a Neapolitan wine; Marsalla, a Silician wine.

Malmsey and Sercial, from Madeira; Constantia, from the Cape of Good Hope.

it is the natural property of the wine, arising from its own native acid, and after a correct fermentation. In this case, means are applied to remedy it, as a disease in the wine. In the manufacture of Sherry (*See the opposite Note*) lime is used to prevent it, and this is also applied in other cases, where tartar is in excess, as the tartrate of lime is insoluble, and can be fined down and separated by racking. It has been the fashion to use lead, metallic lead, for this purpose; and, in France, it was formerly used largely in the wines consumed in Paris. It was then discovered, and the act made penal; and, if not abandoned entirely, it is less used at present every where. That this is a poisonous substance, is too well known. But that has been overrated in this particular case. The tartrate of lead, like that of lime, is insoluble; so that, after the lead had done its duty, it was discharged by racking and fining. Had this not been the case, all Paris, at the time we speak of, must have been poisoned. Yet it is a substance that ought not to be used; because, in an acid wine, ascendent from fermentation, it might produce either white lead, or else sugar of lead; both of them poisons, if in different degrees.

For the acidity of wine, from the commencement of the acetous fermentation, there is no proper remedy. It may be checked, if taken in time, as it would be prevented, by careful sulphuring. Here lead is highly pernicious; and it need scarcely be said, that to add sugar of lead, as has been done from ignorance and fraud united, is to add a poison without even obtaining a remedy. Chalk and lime may be used with impunity. Yet neither can these, and far less alkalies, be used to such an extent as to cure the disease; as they unite to the other acids, and also decompose and destroy the wine. To prevent it as far as possible, when commenced, a low temperature, and careful exclusion from the air, are necessary. But it must be remembered, that air will find access, not merely through cork, but through sealing-wax, and, indeed, through all rosins also; and thus there can be no complete security; the best being that of placing the bottles on their sides, so that the fluid itself becomes its own cork. The Italian practice of using oil is thus far safer; but it is balanced by its various inconveniences.* (*See also page 166.*)

Ropiness frequently occurs in wines that have undergone an incomplete fermentation, or, in sweet wines, that have been bottled too soon. It shows itself by a milky or flaky sediment, and by the oily appearance of the liquor when poured out; and arises from a partial combination of the mucilaginous, extractive, and saccharine principles of the wine. *Sourness* is caused by the conversion of the spirit into acetic acid.

Weak wines, which generally contain an excess of mucilaginous matter, and do not well bear the repeated clarifyings necessary for overcoming it, are the most liable to spoil. *Strong wines*,

* Supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica.

on the contrary, when imperfectly fined, or otherwise unskilfully managed, are more disposed to *turn sour*. This change is indicated by a dry greenish substance on the top of the liquor, which is called *flowers* of the wine, which then becomes turbid; flakes are formed near the surface, which subside into a viscous sediment, and the spirit disappears, and is replaced by acetic acid.

Wine is known to be most liable to turn sour in spring and autumn, from the frequent changes of temperature, in those seasons, renewing the fermentation: lees, and other impurities, likewise increase the acidity. Hence the utility of decanting it into clean vessels before each equinox, and of fining it after each racking, if not sufficiently clear. This is particularly necessary in all the weaker wines. Those which will not bear complete clarifying, are most liable to spoil; but too frequent fining is apt to impair the flavour and body of the liquor.

Racking, Forcing, and Clearing.

WINES on the fret should be racked; and if their own lees indicates decay, they should be racked on the sound lees of another wine of similar, but stronger quality, to protract their decline. If this be done at an early period, it may renovate the sick wine; on these occasions, giving the sick wine a cooler place, will retard its progress to acidity. If convenient, such wines should be forced and bottled. Previous to bottling, or rather at the forcing, give it one, two, or three table-spoonsful of calcined gypsum, finely pulverized. This will check its tendency to acidity, without injuring the colour of the red wine, and without retarding its coating to the bottle, which it rather promotes. The proper forcing for red wines is, the whites of ten or twelve eggs, beat up with one or two tea-spoonsful of salt per hogshead, and well worked into the wine with a forcing rod. The gypsum should be first boiled in a little water.

Hazel chips are also a harmless, and generally efficacious remedy; but, where it is required to be cleared more speedily, try powdered gypsum or alabaster, stirring it up with the wine, which, after settling, must be drawn off into a fresh cask.

If wine in the wood turns *musty* or sour, put a quantity of clean wheat in a linen bag, and hang it in the cask. In a short time the wine will be fined, and may be drawn off the lees into a clean cask.

Colouring and Flavouring.

RED colours are obtained from the beet-root, logwood, or elder berries; and all shades of yellow may be produced by burnt sugar, which likewise gives a pleasant bitterness.

Flavouring may be produced by elder flowers, cowslips, clove-pinks, &c. Half an ounce of orris root shavings to twenty gallons of wine, will give it a perfume, or, as it is called, a *bouquet*. The orris root should be tied up in a bag, and suspended from the bung-hole, so as to be easily removed when required.

When wines have what is called the *tournure*, they acquire a

disagreeable taste and smell; lose their red colour, and assume a dark violet hue. In this case, to restore their natural colour and flavour, if the disease be not of long standing, it is only necessary to add a small quantity of tartaric acid.

Many wines have so little flavour naturally, that they can scarcely be considered to possess any. There are few, indeed, that possess this quality in any great degree; and, of these flavours, a large proportion is bad. Wines so highly perfumed by nature, as Hermitage and Burgundy, are rare; indeed, these are almost the only examples; and, after them, we may consider the finest Clarets, and then the finest of the Rhine wines. The sweet wines which possess it are well known; and these also are but a small part of the total number in this class; being almost limited to Paxarete and the Muscat wines, among which Rivesaltes stands first. Constantia has rather a taste than a flavour; and what the ordinary sweet Spanish wines possess is rather bad than good; though, like the taste of Sherry, and Porter, and Olives, they may become agreeable by habit.

Excepting these cases, and a few among the Italian wines, which we cannot afford room to detail, many of the flavours found in wines are communicated by art; and this forms part of the business of the manufacturer and merchant. Much of this is a secret, but some of the substances used for this purpose are known. The taste of Greece is now, as it was in ancient times, to perfume its wines with turpentine—the *vina picata* of the ancients; and this is effected by putting turpentine or rosin into the casks. In Britain, our chivalrous and baronial ancestors perfumed their wines with every strange ingredient that can be imagined; but that was the age of spicery and perfumes; and he who eat cinnamon with his pork, might drink ambergris in his wine.

The flavour of Madeira is nothing; but that which we know is given by means of bitter almonds, and, we believe, of sweet almonds also; and the same practice is followed for the wines of Saint Lucar. That which is called the *borrachio* taste in wine is for the most part that of the tar with which the seams are secured. In Sherry, the flavour seems produced by the destruction of the acid, the consequence of the lime used, and possibly by some other action of that substance on the fruit. One of the most common ingredients used for flavouring wines is oak chips; and from this the wretched Lisbon wines acquire the little taste they have. Orris root is also a common ingredient: and the high flavoured wine of Johannisberg is imitated by a proportion of rose-water. The orris root gives a very agreeable flavour, and is used in France; and there, also, it is the custom to use raspberries, and other highly perfumed fruits. A very agreeable flavour is also said to be produced by wormwood. The flowers of the vine itself are also used for the same purpose, their smell much resembling that of our mignonette. This last is an ancient practice in Egypt.

The method of gaining this end, requires some delicacy and attention. In particular, care is taken that it be not overdone. As the full fermentation would destroy the more volatile flavours, these substances are only introduced towards its decline. In Madeira, the nut cake is put into the cask. Flowers are suspended in a net or cloth, either in the fluid or the vacant part of the cask, and thus a small quantity of raspberries communicate a very considerable flavour.*

Drawing off.

BEFORE wine is drawn off into a fresh cask, dip a rag into melted brimstone, and insert it as far as the centre of the cask by means of a wire, stopping up the bung-hole after the paper is set on fire.

Briskness of Wines.—Champagne.

THIS property relates almost exclusively to the wines of Champagne, and it is one that may err in excess or defect. It is generally known that it is the produce of an unfinished fermentation, and, therefore, a due degree of it must depend mainly on the proper management of this process. It is secured by bottling at the proper season, March, and before the fermentation is exhausted; and, if in danger of excess, it is restrained or diminished by racking, or decanting, and sulphuring. But it happens not unfrequently that it fails altogether; either from accident in the management, or a bad season; from faults in the fruit, or fermentation carried too far, or a weak wine exhausting itself unexpectedly. In this case, the remedy is to introduce sugar, not only into the casks, but into the bottles. In the first case, the fermentation is renewed, and the wine may thus become legitimate and good. In the other, the effect is far different, and not good; and hence it is, that all the very sweet Champagne wines are bad or indifferent. These are, in fact, a mixture of wine and sugar, rather than proper wine. And, in this case, the effect of the sugar is, not to produce a new fermentation, but to disengage the carbonic acid of the wine; as a salt, or any other soluble substance, would do, by a superior affinity. To gain this end, the solid sugar is corked up in the bottle; so that the disengaged gas is retained under the pressure of the cork, ready to fly out whenever that is removed. Thus Champagne, which has been destroyed by age, is rendered, at once, both sweet and effervescent; and this, however convenient a secret it may be to the possessor, is but a fraud, and a very common one too.†

To preserve Wine in Draught.

IN France and Italy wine is preserved in draught for a considerable time, by the following simple means:—Pour into a cask a flask of fine olive oil, which will spread, in a thin layer, upon the surface of the wine, hinder the evaporation of its spirituous part, and prevents its turning sour.

* Supp. Ency. Brit.

† Ibid.

Mellowing.

A VERY simple method of ripening wine has been practised by a wine-merchant of Havre, for some time past, with great success. Instead of corking the bottles in the ordinary manner, he places over the mouth of each a piece of bladder or parchment. By this means the wine acquires in a few weeks only, those qualities which in the ordinary way it takes many years to acquire.

Maturation and Age.

IN the manufacture of wine, the formation of alcohol is the last, and the essential phenomenon; and it is plain how this must depend on the quantity of sugar, on the goodness of the fruit, on the due apportioning of the leaven, and on the management of the process.

Thus, when all the necessary circumstances are present, the process goes on till the produce is pure wine, or a compound of alcohol, water, acid, colour, vegetable extract, and sugar. For although the two latter are said to be destroyed, there is almost always a minute portion of both remaining; the former rendered very sensible in some wines, by the skinny matter which they deposit on the sides of the bottles. In a similar manner, it happens, that a portion of sugar continues attached to the wine for a long time, though it is not always sensible except to a fine taste. Thus it is perceptible in claret, and even in Madeira, which are among the driest of our wines. It is often very sensible in Port; and when in excess is commonly a mark of the bad wine. In the first stages of the fermentation, the sugar is never thoroughly decomposed. If that were the case, indeed, the process would stop, or it would proceed to vinegar. Farther fermentation, that slower species which takes place in the casks, tends farther to diminish it; but, still a portion remains, even when it has been bottled.

It is the gradual conversion of this sugar, the chief operation that goes on in bottled wines which is the cause of the change which these undergo. This process often requires many years for its completion: that is the case in the clarets of Chateau Margaux, and other Bourdeaux wines; and the same process indeed takes place, to a greater or less degree, in Madeira and the other strong wines. In these cases, it is a cause of improvement; the wine becoming more perfect under this last tedious fermentation; in others, however, it is mischievous: and hence the destruction of many wines. Thus, Champagne is destroyed, and often very quickly: thus, Burgundy also is easily ruined; and thus, even our Port is not a very durable wine, though the destruction is here accelerated by the intermixture of brandy used in this particular manufacture. Age, which thus meliorates one wine, destroys another, independently of that loss of flavour which occurs in some of the more delicate; though this also is the result of the slow fermentation under review. In the sweet wines, the

same process tends constantly to diminish that sweetness: and hence, the comparatively dry qualities of ancient Malmsey and of Paxarete under the same circumstances. In this class of wines also, the flavour is injured by the same process, or by age: and hence, though age may confer merit as well as honour on Malmsey and Malaga, and generally on the sweet Spanish and Greek wines which have little flavour, by diminishing their lusciousness: it destroys or injures the highly perfumed wines of Frontignan, which can scarcely be drunk too new.

By the same considerations we can account for the benefit which Madeira wines receives in a hot climate, or in a hot cellar. The effect of the heat, and, in the case of a sea voyage, united to the agitation, whose action was considered before, is that of accelerating the imperceptible fermentation, and thus ripening the wine sooner than would have happened in a low temperature and at rest. But it is a mistake to imagine, that this is peculiar to Madeira, or that it is the only wine which can be benefited by this treatment. It is the same for all the Spanish wines, for Sherry and for Port, and it is also true of the better and safer wines of France, of those of Hermitage and the Bordelais. Claret becomes drinkable in a much shorter time in a warm than in a cold cellar; and that is equally true of many more of these wines. But that which some will bear others will not; and thus many of the wines of France, so far from admitting a high temperature, can scarcely be preserved even in a low one. As to Port, it is a useful piece of knowledge to be aware, that it may speedily be rendered aged by heat. And in this case it deposits its colour, and assumes the marks of old wine to the eye as well as to the palate. One year will thus do that for Port which might have required five or six; but the period of its entire duration is consequently shortened, as might be expected. The effect of heat is indeed such in this case as is suspected by few. In America it is a well known practice to boil Madeira, or to heat it to the boiling temperature, and the effect is that of rendering it good and old wine, when previously harsh and new. The same practice is applicable to Port. If newly bottled wine be exposed to the sun, it begins shortly to deposit, and improves in flavour; and even the rawest wine of this kind may, by heating it in hot water, be caused, in the course of a day, to assume the quality which it would have had after many years of keeping. It is so far from being injurious, as might be imagined, that it is a valuable secret; and, as we believe, one that is but little known to those whose interest it is to give the complexion of old wine to new, and who generally effect this purpose in a fraudulent manner, by putting it into foul and crusted bottles.*

Bottling.

DRY, clear, and cold weather should be selected for bottling. If

* Supp. Ency. Brit.

the liquor should not be sufficiently fine, draw off a quart, in which dissolve isinglass, in the proportion of half an ounce to twenty gallons. It should then be poured in at the bung-hole, and in about three weeks the whole will be found sufficiently clarified for bottling.

The bottles should be clean, sweet, and dry, and the corks sound and good; fill the bottles up into the neck, so that the liquor very nearly touches the cork when driven in, taking care that it does not actually touch, or the bottle will burst, as it is desirable that as little air as possible should be retained in the bottle; soak the corks in boiling water previous to using them, and they will fit more securely; pack the bottles on their sides in dry sand, in preference to sawdust, as it prevents the access of air more effectually, and also secures the contents from acquiring the flavour of turpentine or mustiness, from saw-dust or straw, which frequently penetrates through the straw.*

Corked wine is much objected to; and to guard against this, dip the corks in a composition of white wax, melted with half its quantity of beef suet, and repeat the dipping till they are saturated.

Washing bottles, though generally the work of an assistant to the Butler, requires great care, as the following well-authenticated fact will prove:—

It is well known that bottles in which wine has been kept are usually cleaned by means of shot, which, by its rolling motion, detaches the crust from the sides of the bottles. This practice, which is generally pursued by wine-merchants, may give rise to serious consequences, as is evident from the following case:—A gentleman, who had never in his life experienced a day's illness, and who was constantly in the habit of drinking half a bottle of Madeira wine after dinner, was taken ill, in the course of the evening, with a severe pain in the stomach and bowels, which gradually yielded, within twelve hours, to the remedies prescribed by his medical adviser. The day following he drank the remainder of the same bottle of wine which was left the preceding day, and within two hours afterwards he was again seized with a violent colic, head-ache, shiverings, and great pain over the whole body. His apothecary becoming suspicious that the wine he had taken might be the cause of the disease, ordered the bottle from which the wine had been decanted to be brought to him, with a view that he might examine the dregs, if any were left. The bottle happening to slip out of the hand of the servant, disclosed a row of shot wedged forcibly into the angular bent-up circumference of it. On examining the beads of shot, they crumbled into dust, the outer crust (defended by a coat of black lead, with which the shot is glazed) being alone left unacted on, whilst the remainder of the metal was dissolved. The wine, therefore, had become contaminated with lead and arsenic the

* Vintner's Guide, by a Practical Man, 1829.

shot being a compound of these metals, which, no doubt, had produced the mischief.

Pricked Wines.

To recover these, get a fresh emptied Port pipe, and rack half the wine into it; then take a match of five inches long, and an inch-and-a-half broad for each pipe, and set fire to them, putting them into the bung-hole, with one end made fast by driving in the bung very tight, after which roll them well about, and on the following day rack them both into one, adding half a pound of oyster-shell powder, and a quarter of a pound of bay salt, together with a pint of tartarized spirit of wine. Then stir it well with a staff, drive in the bung tight, and let it remain three or four weeks. Then get another fresh emptied pipe, (or the old one, after matching it again,) and rack off the wine from the lees; filter them, and add to the rest. If the wine be then sound, take a hogshead of new wine, mix them well together, with two gallons of brandy, a quart of colouring, and two ounces of cochineal. This will make three hogsheads of good wine; after which fine it for bottling, and when it has been six weeks in bottle, it will be fit for use.

The use of an alkaline salt, or, still better, of fresh slacked lime; will immediately correct all acidity in wine! *

To recover pricked wine in bottles, draw the corks and add to each bottle a tea-spoonful of salt of tartar; re-cork them, and in a few days they will be fit for use.

Port Wine,

WHEN poor and thin, should be thus managed:—If your wine be sound, but wanting in body, colour, and flavour, draw out thirty or forty gallons, and return the same quantity of young and rich wines, such as are generally brought to this country for that purpose, to a can of which put a quart of colouring, with a bottle of wine or brandy, in which half an ounce of powdered cochineal has been previously mixed. Whisk it well together, and put it into the cask, stirring it well about with a staff; and if not bright in about a week or ten days, fine it for use; previous to which, put a gallon of good brandy. If Port wines are short of body, put a gallon or two of brandy, a quart or two at a time, into each pipe.

To fine a pipe of Port, beat the whites and shells of twenty fresh eggs in a pail with a whisk, till it becomes a thick froth, then add a little wine, and whisk it up again. If the pipe is full, take out four or five gallons of the wine, to make room for the finings; then stir it well about, after which put in the finings, stirring it well again for five minutes. Afterwards return the wine to the pipe, leaving the bung out for a few hours, that the froth may fall. Bung it well up, and in eight or ten days it will be

* Vintner's Guide.

fine and fit for bottling. If the weather be warmer than temperate, add a pint of fresh water sand, or marble powder to the finings. White Port is a very stubborn wine; and requires to be fined and racked two or three times before it will become soft and pleasant.

Sherry.

To fine it, draw off one gallon from the butt; dissolve two ounces isinglass to a jelly, then add the whites of ten eggs with the shells, and one ounce of alum boiled in a pint of water; whisk the same for a considerable time, rummage the wine well, and return the wine to the cask. When the wine wants that softness of taste peculiar to good sherry, take white sugar-candy or honey, six pounds for a butt, and also two pounds of Jordan almonds, and one pound of bitter almonds pounded; then draw off some sherry from the cask, and add enough of any other soft pleasant white wine to temper the hot taste of the sherry. Or, if it be new and fiery, rack it off into a sweet cask, adding five gallons of mellow Lisbon, which will make it drink mild; and, to give it a head, mix a quart of honey with a can of the wine, and put into the cask when racking. Sherry should always be fined, as that improves it greatly.

Madeira

REQUIRES age, and should be kept warmer than Port, and when bottled, it should be packed, and put into the warmest bins. If the Madeira wants strength, body, or flavour, add a little French brandy; and when not fine, dissolve two ounces of isinglass to a butt, whisk it up with a quart of new milk, and stir it well. When Madeira has a pinkish hue, it has been adulterated with Teneriffe, as the genuine colour of pure Madeira is much paler than sherry.

Bucellas,

BY fining and racking may be much improved. Fine it as Madeira, except that if you do not wish it very pale, you must not use milk. This is a very tender wine; a little brandy should be added to it, for if kept in a warm place it will be liable to become foul. When bottled, it should be packed in dry sand, in a temperate place.

Claret.

IN order to give the Bordeaux wines some resemblance to those wines of Spain and Portugal which are used in England, to render them of the taste preferred here, from the effect of long habit, the majority of the Bordeaux wine-merchants who trade with England, are obliged to *work them*, or mix them with other wines, as *hermitage*; which gives fire to the claret, but renders it dry when old, turns it of a red brick colour, and causes a deposit of sediment, when it has been some time in bottle. When by this admixture, a working or fretting results, they take some mineral crystal, reduce it to powder, and put an ounce into

each barrel, beat up with a proper quantity of isinglass, and rack off the wine about fifteen days after, when it has got clear, and has entirely ceased to work. To give odour (*bouquet*) to the wine, they put two drams of orris root powder into a fine rag, and let it hang about fifteen days in the cask, when it is taken out; or the powder is put into the barrel beat up with fining, and fifteen days after it may be racked off. Two ounces of raspberry brandy are sometimes added to each cask, fifteen days after which, the apparent maturity of the wine is incruited by the peculiar odour which the mixture gives it.*

Damsons or sloes, stewed with some of the wine, and sugar, cochineal, and turnsole are used to colour claret.

To improve claret that drinks *foul*, rack the wine from the dregs on some fresh lees of its own kind, and then add a dozen new pippins pared and with the cores out, and stir the wine well. This not only takes away the foulness, but also gives the wine an agreeable flavour.

Here we may hint at a mode of ripening claret, even in bottle, which is very much practised in France, and may be practised here without injury to the health; though we are certainly far from recommending the practice to the venders of wine, however it may be adopted in private cellars. The process is to operate upon wine perhaps only a year in bottle. Draw the corks, and pour about a glassful out of each, re-corking them tightly; then place the wine, thus drawn, in an oven, suffering it, at the end of an hour or two to cool gradually. Draw the corks again, and fill up the bottles, which must be carefully replaced in the cellar; and in a day or two the wine will have every appearance of being ten years old.

To make Claret or Port Wine Rougher.

PUT two quarts of claret or port to a gallon of sloes; bake them in a gentle oven till they become soft: then pour off the liquor, and squeeze out the rest. A pint of this will be sufficient for thirty or forty gallons.

To improve White Wine.

IF the wine has an unpleasant taste, rack one half off, and to the remaining half add a gallon of new milk, a handful of bay salt, and as much rice; after which beat them well together with a staff for half an hour; then fill up the cask, and when you have rolled it about well, stillage it, and in a few days it will be much improved. If the wine has become foul, and lost its colour; for a butt or pipe, put a gallon of milk into the cask, and stir it well about with a staff; then set the bung upwards, and when it has settled well, put in three ounces of isinglass, made into a jelly, with a quarter of a pound of loaf sugar powdered; stir it well

* Abridged from a work on 'the wines of Bourdeaux,' by M. Paquierre, a retired wine-broker.

about, and on the following day bung it up ; in a few days more it will be fine, and have a good colour.

Teneriffe, or Vidonia.

TENERIFFE may be so managed as to resemble Madeira, by subduing its acrimonious qualities. This may be done by mixing one-fourth part of good sherry with the Teneriffe, which will make it mellow, and give it the Madeira flavour. The addition of half a pound of bitter almonds and two pounds of sugar candy, the former bruised, and the latter dissolved to the proportion of every forty gallons, will render the flavour truly admirable.—*Vintner's Guide.*

Lisbon.

THERE are two kinds of this wine, the mild and the dry ; but if you have either of them, by the help of other wines you may make the other. Thus, if the Lisbons are all dry, take out of the pipe thirty-five or forty gallons, and put in the same quantity of Calcavella ; stir it about well and this will make a pipe of good mild Lisbon. But, if the wine be all mild, take out the same quantity as before mentioned, and fill up the pipe with Malaga sherry, stirring it about as the other, and you will have a good dry Lisbon wine.

The same kind of fining used for Vidonia will answer for Lisbon, or you may fine it with the whites and shells of sixteen eggs, and a handful of salt ; beat them together to a froth, and mix with them a little of the wine ; then pour it into the pipe, stir it about, and let it have vent for three days ; after which bung it up, and in a few days it will be fine ; Lisbon, when bottled, should be packed in sawdust or dry sand, in a temperate place.

Malmsey Madeira, &c.

SHOULD be chosen when it is full, pleasant, fine, and of a good colour. In fining, proceed as in the Madeira ; or, take twenty fresh eggs, beat the whites and shells together, and manage it as you do other finings.

Tent should be managed as Malmsey, and fined with sixteen or twenty fresh eggs, and a quart or three pints of skim milk ; in managing which proceed as you do in other finings.

Hock and Vin de Grave should be strengthened with good brandy, and fined, if necessary, with eggs.

ADULTERATION OF WINES.

THESE are too numerous for us to detect or specify. There are, however, many tests for adulterated wine, some of which are sufficiently simple for practice, although few Butlers have much leisure or inclination for the inquiry.

Lead is by no means unfrequently used for adulterating or mellowing wine, as it is called. Lead, when dissolved in acids, has the property of sweetening them. The ancients knew that

this metal rendered harsh wine milder, but it was not universally known that it was poisonous. According to Pliny, the Greeks and Romans proved the quality of their wines by dipping a plate of lead in them. The late Mr. Parkes, the chemist, mentions a treatise on the management of wines, printed so lately as 1783, which directs the use of lead in order to preserve them from acidity. Some of our wine-merchants, probably in consequence of this direction, may have contaminated their wines with lead, without suspecting that they were distributing a slow poison to their customers. Dr. Johnstone, in his *Essay on Poisons*, observes that "Lead in its metallic state, like all the other metals, is probably inert; but is so easily acted upon by the weakest acids and alkalies that it cannot be taken even in this form without the most imminent danger."*

Methods of detecting adulteration of wines by lead are easy of application, and the following will be found effectual:—Equal parts of oyster shells and sulphur may be heated together, kept in a white heat for fifteen minutes, and when cold, mixed with an equal quantity of cream of tartar; these are put into a strong bottle with common water to boil for an hour; and then decanted into ounce phials, adding twenty drops of muriatic acid, (spirits of salts) to each. This liquor precipitates the least quantities of lead, copper, &c. from wines in a very perceptible black deposit.

Sugar of lead may sometimes be detected in wine, by adding to it a few drops of Harrogate water, when the wine will become blackish, if lead has been used to correct acidity.

The most frequent adulteration of Port wine is with alum, in order to give it astringency when mixed with lighter bodied wines. The process to detect this is simple. Take some fresh prepared lime-water, mix the suspected wine with it in equal proportion; allow the mixture to stand about a day; then, if the wine be genuine, a number of crystals will be found deposited at the bottom of the vessel; if alum is in the wine there will be no crystals, but a slimy and muddy precipitate. The lime water need not be very strong.

* Whilst on the poison of lead it may be noticed that a person may satisfy himself of the insalubrious nature of leaden cisterns to hold water for culinary purposes, by examining the internal surface of such vessels; for if the water has stood in them several days undisturbed, a small white coating will be observed just at the upper edge of the water. On every fresh addition of water this coating is washed off; and if there be the slightest degree of acidity in the vessel, this coating will be dissolved in the water, and thus an insidious poison will be conveyed into the stomach. Although the care of water cisterns be not the precise business of the Butler, we mention the above fact in connexion with the adulteration of wines by lead, in the hope that he may be induced to examine the inside of the cisterns occasionally, and thus prevent serious mischief, by means which might not so readily occur to the female branches of the establishment.

Another method is to drop some solution of salt of tartar into the wine, when, if alum be present, there will be a violet-coloured precipitate, or, at least, cloudiness; which will vanish again, if a few drops of spirits of salts are added to the mixture.

Colouring corks, and forming artificial crusts on bottles, and putting new wine into old casks or bottles, belong to the tricks of trade. Dry-rot is very advantageous to wine-merchants, as it soon covers the bottles with a mouldy appearance, and consumes the external parts of the corks, so that with a trifling operation on the bottles after they are filled, and then deposited in cellars pretty strongly affected with the dry-rot, they can send out wine as having been in bottles seven or eight years, before it has, in fact, been there as many months.

Improved Method of Making Raisin Wine.

THE manufacture of Raisin Wine, in common with those made from British fruits, usually belongs to the *Housekeeper*; and with this view we have given a good receipt for *Raisin Wine* at page 59 of the present work. Since the sheet which contains it has been printed off, we have obtained the following improved method from the *Transactions of the Society of Arts* for the year 1829. The receipt is from the pen of Mr. Arthur Aikin, Secretary to the Society; and its importance will explain the space it here occupies:—

“ I have for some years been in the habit of making for use in my own family, a light dry raisin wine; I have also noted down, with more or less minuteness, the progress and result of several of these experiments; and I beg leave now to offer them to the Society, in the hope that thereby some additional light may be thrown on a very important branch of domestic economy.

“ It appeared to me, from some previous comparative trials with black currants, and with others of our native fruits, that none of them are so well adapted to make light dry wines, as the better kinds of raisins: a farther advantage attends the use of this latter fruit, that the wine may be made at the season when the temperature is most favourable to the due progress of fermentation.

“ The raisin which I have been most in the habit of using, and which I prefer, is the Muscatel. It is imported in boxes, containing about twenty pounds; and, when new, is in common use as a table fruit. In this state it would doubtless make a wine of excellent quality; but its price prohibits its employment for this purpose. In those which remain unsold for about a year, the rich pulp of the recent raisin becomes mixed with sugary concretions, which render it less acceptable at the dessert; and the price of such fruit, being from tenpence to a shilling a pound, brings it within the reach of the domestic wine-maker.

“ That matter, whatever it be, which, through the process of fermentation, converts a solution of sugar into vinous liquor, exists in raisins in sufficient abundance to change into wine a greater quantity of sugar than the fruit itself contains; and I have found it advantageous, both as regards the price and quality of the product, to add to any given quantity of raisins from one-tenth to one-third of their weight of sugar. In order,

nowever, to avoid tainting the wine with the peculiar flavour of cane sugar, I use good loaf, at the average price of ten pence or eleven pence a pound.

“In my early experiments, I poured hot water on the raisins, and allowed them to remain therein twelve hours, more or less; by this time the raisins were plumped up, and I pressed them between fluted wooden rollers, in order to break their skins, and press out the juice. This process, however, by no means succeeded to my wish; the rollers were clogged and strained by the fruit which adhered to them; and many of the raisins, by reason of the toughness of their skins, passed through the rollers entire. I therefore adopted the plan of having the raisins chopped (without previous maceration) on the same kind of tray, and with the same kind of chopper, as is used in making minced meat; and I have had no reason to vary from this method, except that, of late, I have directed the raisins to be chopped finer than they were at first. Previous to the raisins being chopped, the stalks are separated for a use that will be mentioned hereafter.

“I have tried several proportions of ingredients; but those from which I have obtained the best results, are three pounds of raisins and one pound of sugar to an ale-gallon of water.

“I prepare the must, sometimes by mashing, sometimes by maceration.

“The mashing is performed in the following manner:—The chopped raisins being put into an open tub, or an earthenware pan, I pour on them hot water, in the proportion of about a quart to four pounds of fruit. My object, in this first mash, is to extract the greater part of the saccharine mucilage, as little altered as possible; I therefore heat the water no higher than about one hundred and twenty degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer; the water and fruit are mixed; and after standing for about a quarter of an hour, the whole is stirred together as accurately as possible by hand, taking care to break down all the lumps; and, in a few minutes afterwards, is placed on a sieve over a tub, where it drains for a short time; the husks are then lightly pressed by hand, and are returned to the mash-tub.

“The second mash is made exactly in the same manner as the first; and the husks, after pressing, are returned again to the mash-tub.

“They will now be found to have lost the whole of their clamminess, though they are still sweet; I therefore conclude that the saccharine mucilage is now for the most part extracted, and my principal object in the subsequent mashes is to dissolve out the tartar. For this purpose, the water of the third mash is put on at the heat of one hundred and fifty or one hundred and sixty degrees, and is conducted in the same manner as the former. The liquor thus obtained is considerably acidulous, having the flavour of the raisins, and but little sweetness. Three-fourths of the mash being now made, it is tasted, in order to ascertain whether it is sufficiently astringent; and, according to the intended astringency of the wine, I either altogether reject the stalks, or use the whole or a part of them. If a somewhat astringent wine is intended, the last mash is thus prepared:—I pour boiling water on the stalks, in a separate tub, and after they have been macerated for about a quarter of an hour, I put the liquor on the husks, and mix them well with it; in a quarter of an hour more, the liquor is put on the sieve, and the husks are well squeezed by hand.

“While the last mash is preparing I transfer the liquor of the first

three mashes into the fermenting tun, and dissolve the sugar in it; I then add as much of the last mash as is requisite to bring the must to the due proportions—viz. one ale-gallon of must to three pounds of fruit and one pound of sugar. The time occupied by the above processes is four or five hours; and the temperature of the must, when put into the fermenting tun, is usually about seventy degrees.

“If the weather is warm, and apparently more likely to become hotter than colder, I pour the must into the fermenting tun, with as little agitation as possible; but if it is cool, and not likely to get warmer, I dash each pailful against the sides of the tun, pouring it in from as great a height as I can conveniently reach; by this means, it is more mixed with atmospheric air; and liquor thus treated will often begin to ferment in less than twelve hours. If the must is at the temperature of seventy degrees, fermentation begins in from twelve to thirty-six hours, according as it is treated; and the scum which rises is sometimes taken off every day, and sometimes allowed to remain till the liquor is about to be removed from the fermenting tun. If the fermentation is languid, I keep on the cover of the tun, and stir the scum daily into the liquor; if too rapid, I take off the cover, and remove the scum as it rises.

“The liquor is now vinous, but sweet; and, after carefully skimming it, I transfer it to glass carboys, containing about six or seven gallons, or to stoneware barrels, of the same size.* I insert in the bungs glass tubes of safety; and, on the second day, pour into them about an inch of quicksilver, to exclude the air. The cement that I use for covering the bungs, is a mixture of wax and resin.

“Carbonic acid continues to bubble through the quicksilver in the safety-tube for some weeks, after which it ceases, but the column of quicksilver in the exterior leg of the syphon is always higher than that in the interior leg. I have never seen a single instance of the outer air passing into the carboy.

“I think the wine ought to remain an entire summer in the barrel or carboy, in order that the fermentation may proceed so far as almost entirely to decompose the sugar; and as my usual times of wine-making are April and October, that made in the former month is bottled in the March following; and that made in October is bottled about the end of September, or a week or two later, according to circumstances.

“I never fine the wine, being of opinion that the light dry wine, which it is my aim to produce, would be materially injured by being deprived of its tannin, through the action of isinglass, or of any similar substance.

“At the time of bottling, I have seldom observed the wine to have any very sensible flavour—meaning by flavour, that compound sensation of smell and taste which characterizes the finer kinds of wines; but after remaining for a year in bottle, a flavour resembling elder flowers is strongly developed, mingled, generally, in a slight degree, with that of prussic acid.

“As soon as the wine begins to run turbid from the carboy, I pass the whole of what remains through a filter; but though I am careful that

* As barrels of stoneware are always more or less porous, they should be warmed thoroughly before a fire, and be rubbed over with a mixture of bees' wax and turpentine (about one part of turpentine to three of bees' wax.) When this coating is grown cold, it should be well rubbed in with a hard brush.

the wine, when bottled, should be clear, though not bright, there is always more or less of flocculent matter deposited, which requires the bottles to be set upright in the bin, and to be decanted with care.

“The wine, when first decanted, is often of a very pale yellow colour, especially if high flavoured; but in an hour or two it deepens more or less, and at length acquires a tint like that of Bucellas, the prussic acid flavour at the same time disappearing.

“Instead of mashing, as above described, I have sometimes pursued a still more simple way—that of maceration; by mixing in the fermenting tun the usual proportions of chopped raisins and sugar with cold water, and leaving the raisins in the liquor during the whole of the first fermentation. By this method I obtain a higher-coloured wine; but the fermentation being generally slower, and consequently longer, it is destitute of that Frontignac, or elder-flower flavour, which it generally acquires when treated according to the first process; and is apt to get a less agreeable flavour from the husks of the raisins. Sometimes, however, the method succeeds very well; and the elder-flower flavour not being pleasant to many persons, such wine is more generally acceptable than the former.

“In May, 1827, I made some wine in the way last described. The materials were put together on the 3rd day of the month, the temperature of the liquor and of the cellar being fifty-six degrees. On the 5th, at night, fermentation had just begun, the temperature of the liquor and cellar being fifty-seven degrees. On the 7th, the liquor was at fifty-eight degrees. From that time to the 19th the fermentation went on, though languidly, the temperature of the liquor varying from fifty-seven to fifty-eight and a half degrees; and that of the cellar from fifty-five to fifty-seven degrees. From the 19th to the 24th, the weather became warm, the temperature of the cellar rose to fifty-nine degrees, and that of the liquor to sixty-one degrees. It had now been twenty-one days under fermentation; and therefore, though it was still rather too sweet, I put it into carboys, and bottled it about half a year afterwards. This wine is now (December, 1828) strong, dark-coloured, for white wine, but still rather sweet, and tastes too much of the husks.”

Iceing Wines.

IN the country, ice, for this and other purposes, is kept in a building termed an ice-house, the management of which will be found in the business of *the Gardener*. In large town houses, ice is likewise preserved in wells; in others, it is obtained from the fishmongers or confectioners; but, where the country residence is not far distant, ice is sometimes sent from thence to the town mansion, in which case the following receipt may be useful.

Fill a barrel of any size with ice, and place it in one so much larger, that a space of from two to three inches be left all round. Fill this space with charcoal, thickly heaped and pressed; cover the mouth of the barrel with six inches of the same substance; and, placing a layer of straw over the whole, bury the treasure in the cellar. Next winter, you have only to renew the charcoal at the mouth of the barrel; the rest of the apparatus will last for many years.

Of the various apparatus for producing artificial cold for freezing wine, we believe one invented by Richard Walker, Esq. of Oxford, to be entitled to all the patronage it has received. Under this gentleman's directions three distinct kinds of apparatus have been manufactured: one for *freezing water* in the hottest weather; another, for *icing wine*; and the third for *freezing cream*. Other apparatus have been manufactured by Mr. Paterson, late of Bridge Street, Blackfriars. They are commonly known as, "*Paterson's Ice Pails*." Mr. Walker's apparatus for wine, is very simple. He merely proposes to add the following portion of freezing powder to each pint of water, in which the decanter of wine is to be placed up to the neck within a cup or can surrounded with water in a tin covered pail. The freezing powder is made as follows:—To each pint of water, take three ounces of powdered nitre, and three ounces of powdered sal ammoniac, and Glauber salts in powder, four ounces and a half; the whole to be dissolved in the water. Care should be taken that the surface of the wine is rather below the surface of the freezing mixture. The apparatus for freezing cream is not quite so plain, but much more so than is generally imagined: both are on purely scientific principles, yet so simplified that half an hour's pains will enable any reasonable person thoroughly to understand them.

A few observations and hints on the process of *icing*, generally, will be found in the *confectionary* department of the House-keeper's duties.

The icing of wines is too simple to need any instruction from us. By icing Champagne wines before they are used, the tendency to effervesce is in some degree repressed, or only allowed to operate to such an extent as may be compatible with the more perfect flavour that we desire to find in them; but when they are kept cool, this precaution is unnecessary. Sillery Champagne is usually drunk iced.*

Thus, Champagne gains strength by the cold; but it is disputed whether any but common wines should be iced, and said, that even they would be better if merely cooled with water, which, the same authority thinks, "always gives sufficient coolness to wine, even at the hottest temperature of the dog-days. But it is not only that we should avoid icing wines that are choice; every different kind requires a different degree of cold and warmth. Thus Claret, coming immediately out of the cellar, has not that soft and delicious flavour which gives it its peculiar value. The bottle should be placed, before drinking, where it may obtain warmth. In winter, wine-drinkers always place it before the fire; but Burgundy should be drunk fresh from the cellar."

* Dr. Henderson's History of Wines.

* * Connected with this subject, it may not be unamusing to mention the King's magnificent wine-cooler, manufactured by Messrs. Rundell and Bridge, of Ludgate Hill. It is of superbly chased silver, and so large that it will contain two full-grown persons, who may seat themselves in this elegant article of furniture without suffering the slightest inconvenience.

Before we close our instructions relative to wines and the wine-cellar, a few more observations on their management, &c. will not be out of place.

With regard to the purchase of wine, Dr. Kitchiner, who aspired to some experience on the subject, says, "If you are particular about the *quality* of your wine, the less you ask about the price the better—if you are not, bargain as hard as you please. With this caution, and with another, which is not to keep wine *too long*,* the most fastidious wine-drinker may be pleased."

Our next hints relate to the cellar of an amateur, and though the choice of wines be not left to the Butler, these facts will be useful to him in their management. There are only some particular wines which ought to be laid in, in large quantities. Several others may be amassed in sufficient number of bottles to last for years. Burgundy and Champagne will keep but a very few years, and should always be drunk as soon as they are ripe, for they spoil very rapidly. Burgundy turns sour, and Champagne becomes thick. In general, it is most difficult to preserve white wines; never more should be laid in than what are sure to be for immediate use. Claret, wines from the south, and Spanish wines, will keep, and ought to be kept, long, because their age is their chief merit. Of these, it is right to have some pipes in store; and those which contain new wine, should be concealed by those which are fit to drink, that they may not be broached till they have been, in a manner, forgotten; and, after this wine has been thus laid by in bottles, it will come to table (the Port of

* The rage for superannuated wine is one of the most ridiculous, vulgar errors of modern epicurism. The *bees' wing*, *thick crust*, *top of strength*, &c. which wine-fanciers consider the beauty of their tawny favourite, "fine old Port," are proofs of the wine losing some of its best qualities. "Wines bottled in good order, may be fit to drink in *six months*, (especially if bottled in October,) but they are not in perfection before *twelve*. From that to *two years*, they continue so, but it would be improper to keep them longer." This last opinion is from the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, a work of the highest authority, especially on subjects of domestic economy. Strange as it may appear, at Bremen, there is a wine-cellar called *the store*; where five hogsheads of Rhenish wine have been preserved since 1625. These five hogsheads cost about 50*l*. Had this sum been put out to compound interest, each hogshead would now be worth above one thousand millions of money; a bottle of this precious wine would cost about 908,311*l*., and a single glass about 113,492*l*.

Oporto especially,) with a triple coat of crust, with the corks blackened and half consumed by time.

In placing wines in the cellar, Spanish, the sweet wines especially, such as Malaga and Rota, should be standing upright. Heat brings them to perfection, and they should be placed on shelves, as the coldness of the cellar hinders their ripening.

A few notes on the qualities of wines introduced at good tables, and this division must conclude. Some light French wines, with some common ones from Spain and Portugal, particularly the white wine of the latter country, known amongst us as Lisbon, if very good, may be sometimes introduced with success; but it is not a favourite with connoisseurs. Men of large fortunes give among their French wines, *Vin de Beaume*, the best kind of Claret, and often pink Champagne, with that safe and delightful beverage *Vin de Grave*. The custom, during the last century, was always to take, after soup, a glass of some sweet wine; but now the experienced wine-drinker takes either a glass of good old Madeira, or of Teneriffe. Common wines are only served with the roast meat, such as Sherry, &c. and, if French, the *Vin de Beaume* is drunk at the second course. The third course is exhilarated by Hermitage, Cote-roti, and Champagne. After dinner, old Port, Muscadel, or Malmsey Madeira, Cyprus wine, and Tokay; this last high-priced and powerful wine is served in very small glasses.

Portuguese and Spanish Wines.

NAMES.	QUALITIES.
<i>Red Port</i>	{ Deep purple; rough; bitter sweet; spirituous.
<i>White Bucellas</i>	{ Pale straw; delicate flavour.
Carcavellos	{ Amber colour; sweet.
Sherry-Amontillado	{ Deep amber colour; nutty and aromatic.
Paxarate	{ Amber colour; sweet and aromatic.
Malaga.....	{ Amber colour; flavour delicate, rich, sweet, and luscious.
<i>Red Tent</i>	{ Purple; sweet; flavour strong and spicy.

French.

Champagnes: (*White*.)

Sillery	{ Still, of amber colour.
Ay, Hautvilliers, Epernay, Dizy, Avenay, Avise, Oger, Pierry, Closet, Lemesnil, Cramant, Menil	{ Brisk or sparkling; delicate flavour, and aroma; slightly acidulous; but some are still, or, at most, simply creaming; generally paler than Sillery.

French (continued.)

NAMES.	QUALITIES.
<i>Champagnes: (Red.)</i>	
Verzy.	
Verzenay, Mailly, Bouzy, St. Basle, Chamery, Écueil, Villedemange	} Good colour and body, and a high agreeable flavour.
<i>White.</i> —Arbois, Pupillin, Chablis	} Inferior to Champagne, but resembling it in some qualities.
<i>Red.</i> —Burgundy.	
Romanée Conti, Clos-Vougeot, Chambertin, Richbourg, Romanée de St. Vivant, Tâche, St. George	} Beautiful, rich, purple colour; exquisite flavour, with a full body, yet delicate and light.
Volnay, Pomard, Corton, Vosne, Nuits, Beaume, Chamboll, Morey, &c.	} Excellent wines, but inferior to the former.
<i>White.</i> —Burgundy.	
Mont Rachet	High perfumed, and nutty flavour.
Also, fourteen other varieties,	Rich, high-flavoured.
<i>Red.</i> —Hermitage	} Dark purple colour; flavour exquisite, and raspberry perfume.
<i>White.</i> —Hermitage, Vin de Paille, Cote Rotie	Amber colour, sweet, luscious. Resembling Hermitage, but weaker.
<i>Red.</i> —Tavel, Chuzlan, &c.	} Bright rose colour; flavour aromatic and delicious.
St. Laurence, St. Joseph, St. George	} Inferior.
<i>White.</i> —St. Peray, St. Jean.	Sprightly; violet flavour.
Frontignan	Luscious, flavour grape.
Lunel	} Bright yellow colour; less luscious than Frontignan.
<i>Red.</i> —Roussillon	} Great body and colour; tawny when old.
<i>White.</i> —Roussillon, Rivesaltes ..	} Bright golden colour; fragrant aroma and quince flavour.
<i>Red.</i> —Claret.	
Lafitte, Latour, Chateau Margaux, Rauzan	} Deep purple; delicate flavour; violet perfume.
<i>Graves:</i> —Haut Brion, Haut Talence, &c.	} Resembling better sorts of Burgundy, but rougher.
Gorce, Larose, Longueville, &c.	} Light; of good flavour.
St. Emilion, Canon	} Harsh; odour of burning sealing-wax.
<i>White.</i> —Claret.	
Preignac, Beaumes, &c.	Secondary quality.
St. Nessaus, Sance, &c.	Sweet.
Barsac*	Amber colour; full; clove aroma.
Sauterne	Amber colour; sweetish.

* Are distinguished by their strength and their flavour in good years; they are generally lively and sparkling, and unite, with these good qualities, a great deal of mellowness. Russia, and all the north, consume

<i>German.</i>	
NAMES.	QUALITIES.
<i>White.—Rhenish.</i>	
Johannisberger (1728)	High flavour, and perfume.
Steinberg	Strongest of Rhine wines; sweetish.
Rudesheimer (1811)	Like the former.
<i>Red. Rhenish.</i>	
Hock *	Light, acidulous.
Moselle †	} Light, pleasant flavour, high aroma.
<i>Hungarian.</i>	
Tokay	} Brownish - yellow, when new; } greenish, when old.
<i>Italian and Sicilian.</i>	
Etna, or Syracuse	} Light, pleasant flavour.
Marsala	
<i>Madeira and Canary Islands.</i>	
Madeira	} Strong, rich flavour, fragrant, and agreeably pungent.
——— (West India.)	
——— Malmsey	Luscious.
Sercial	Full body, rich aromatic flavour.
Teneriffe	Approaching Madeira.
<i>Cape. †</i>	
Constantia	Rich, sweet, aromatic.

The last Table, although not comprehending all the varieties of wines—for they would occupy many pages—will be found of essential service to the young Butler, in aiding his judgment of the excellence of wines, as the previous information will assist him in their management. More on the subject is not compatible with our design.

them; so does England. The first growths in High Barsac, are Coutet, Madame de Filhot; after come Bineau, or Roborel, Perrot, Dumirail, Veuve Dubos, Dubos, Mercier, and Saluces de Laborde. All these wines differ in price, fifteen to twenty francs. The qualities inferior to them are in great number, and differ in price from fifty and even one hundred francs per tun below the above-mentioned. They may be put in bottle after four or five years, where they improve; but, if they pass ten or twelve years, they grow hard and dry.

* The only veritable Hock is from the vineyard of Hockheim, which contains 32,000 vines, and produces twelve large casks of wine annually at about 150*l.*

† In 1829, the finest Moselle was sold at one halfpenny a bottle.

‡ The principal commerce at the Cape is wine; but, unfortunately, more attention is paid to quantity than quality, except on the farms which yield Constantia. The principal objection to Cape wines, is their disagreeable, earthy flavour, which arises from the sub-soil of the vineyards being of *clay*. They are likewise mixed with Cape brandy, sulphuric acid, &c. Notwithstanding all these advantages, observes an intelligent traveller, Cape wine is generally sold in England under the names, and at the prices, of Madeira, Sherry, Teneriffe, Stein, Pontac, and above all, Hock.

Bottle Cement.

TAKE half a pound of black resin; the same quantity of common red sealing-wax; and a small piece of bees' wax: melt them in an earthen pot, and, just before the mixture boils up, stir it with a tallow candle. It should then be removed from the fire, and the bottles dipped into the mixture till it is cold.

Adulterated Spirits.

AQUA-FORTIS, or oil of vitriol, may easily be detected by dropping into a glass of the suspected spirit, a bit of chalk about half the size of a pea. If spurious, the liquid will become like milk; but, if genuine, the chalk will lie undissolved at the bottom.

Malt Spirits.

THE flavour of malt spirits may be highly improved by putting three quarters of an ounce of finely-powdered charcoal, and four ounces and a half of ground rice into a quart of spirits, and letting it stand fifteen days, frequently stirring it; then let the liquor be strained, and it will be found equal in flavour to brandy.

THE BEER CELLAR.

WITHOUT stopping to inquire to whom in the establishment belongs the business of *Brewing* for the family, or to decide upon the *Utensils* best calculated for that purpose, we shall merely aim at a few leading facts of importance, endeavouring to confine ourselves to such as are not generally known. The mode of brewing Ale and Beer, and consequently the quality, differ in every age and country; and even in the same nation, the ale of one district has little resemblance to that of another. No general set of instructions relative to Brewing can therefore be expected; but the following facts, from the best authorities on the art, will be found very useful.

BREWING AND MANAGEMENT OF BEER.

OCTOBER or November is accounted the best season for brewing, because the six winter months are most favourable to the keeping of ale newly brewed. When it has passed three months, it runs less risk of acidity during the succeeding summer, in the case of its continuing in the casks.

Water.

RIVER water, especially that which comes from marshy grounds, is seldom to be chosen. There is a variety of opinions respecting the use of *hard* or of *soft* water. Hard water is equally productive in malting, and so far from its being deleterious, it is believed to be a preservative of the beer.

Hops.

THE finer flavoured and light-coloured hops are in sacks of comparatively fine cloth, called *pockets*; the strong-flavoured and high-coloured hops are put into coarser *bags*. One of the best modes of preserving hops is to bury them among the dry malt; still the fine flavour will not exist above a twelvemonth, and beyond that time they become old hops; a year or two longer, and the bitter itself disappears; and the whole becomes little better than chaff.

Finings.

A POUND of good isinglass will make about twelve gallons of this preparation. It should be pulled to pieces, and put into a tub, with as much vinegar as will cover it, or the same quantity of sour beer. As the whole thickens, there should be more beer added to it, of less acidity. Stir the solution briskly till it is of the consistence of thin treacle. Then whisk it through a hair sieve, or squeeze it through a coarse linen cloth. Use from a pint to a quart per barrel, according to the thickness of the beer; this should be thinned with some of the beer to be purified and, whisked up till it froths. Then pour it in the cask, stirring it briskly; bung it down immediately, and the beer will be pure in twenty-four hours, provided it has been in a proper condition to receive the finings. To discover whether beer is in this state, draw off a little into a pint or half-pint bottle, and add to it about half a teaspoonful of the finings. Shake it up, and let it remain still. If the beer be in a proper state to fine, in a few minutes the isinglass, collecting the feculencies into large fleecy masses, will subside to the bottom. If the beer be not in a proper state (which is the case as long as the fermentation continues, or an after-fret prevails), the bulk of the finings will soon be at the bottom, leaving the beer neither pure nor foul, except at the top, where it will be a little transparent.

Salt.

PRIVATE Gentlemen who pride themselves on their *home-brewed*, throw in about a pound per barrel into the casks, with the view of flavour.

To exclude the atmospheric air, by covering the surface of the liquid, is a great point; and for this purpose brewers put a handful of half-boiled hops impregnated with wort, into the bung-hole of each cask, previous to stowing it in the cellar.

Marble-dust and oyster-shells are used to counteract acidity; but they give the beer a new, bitterish taste. Egg-shells and whole eggs are likewise sometimes used for the same purpose.

Racking.

IF ale be racked off from its lees, about three or four days from cleansing, and you add to every barrel three pints or two quarts of hops, after having boiled in the first wort, and (when the heat of the

air is low) whilst they are warm, it will much assist the liveliness and purity of the ale, and render it less liable to disorder in removing from cellar to cellar; but the hops then give rankness to the flavour, and racking does not preserve the ale. In this practice, the casks should be quite full, and bunged down close, venting only if the cask be in danger. But if the ale be not racked, the casks should not be bunged down so long as the head of the ale can be kept up by repeated fillings; for otherwise there would be a circle of yeast formed round the inside of the bung-hole, which would be in part washed off amongst the ale on removal, and tend to make it foul.

Racking Keeping Ale.

HOWEVER racked, ale often grows flat. This may be remedied by adding about two quarts of hops to a barrel; but a better mode is to add a sixth to a fourth part of new ale taken from the the gyle-tun, in a state proper for cleansing. In either case the cask should be filled, and stopped down close. A quart of good wort, filtered, and added to a barrel of mild ale, which was flat, but also pure, has in a very short time produced all the liveliness of bottled ale.

Small Beer

Is generally boiled at once about an hour, or an hour and a half, according to the season, or the time required to keep it; and long boiling prevents its fermenting so freely as it otherwise would do. When made after mild strong ale, there are generally sufficient hops; and after keeping ale, the quantity is often too much. About a pound of yeast per barrel will be sufficient for fermentation.

Another receipt is to boil four pounds of coarse brown sugar and three ounces of hops in ten gallons of water, in a covered furnace, for three quarters of an hour; ferment the strained liquor with yeast in the usual manner. After being kept a week or ten days, it will be fit for use.

To correct Flat or Stale Beer.

TAKE out of a hogshead three gallons, and add to it four pounds of honey; boil them half an hour, taking off the scum; pour it back into the hogshead, and stir well together; bung it down close, a slight fermentation will ensue, and the beer will drink brisk. If the beer is becoming stale, add to the fining about half a pound of fresh slaked lime to a butt, stirring it well, and leave the bung out a few hours, having first drawn out five or six gallons, to be returned when you bung it down, still leaving the spile-peg out as long as any air escapes.

Ripening beer by any chemical means is at best a hazardous experiment; but where it is particularly desired, the proportion of twenty drops of spirits of salts to a gallon of beer or ale, will take off the newness, as well as correct it when it is either too

stale or eager. To keep beer *on draught* for any time, take the proportion of one pint of ground malt to every twenty gallons of beer; hang it in a linen bag within the cask, and lower it as the beer is consumed. Ropiness, without sourness, may be remedied by a spoonful of mustard mixed in a small quantity of the beer, and poured into the cask. Pounded chalk and burnt oyster-shells suspended in a linen bag, will restore *sour* beer in a few hours; and salt of tartar, or carbonate of soda, will produce immediate effect at table.

Bottling.

To prevent the bursting of the bottles from a new fermentation, when beer is to be bottled, it is usually exposed for a time to the atmosphere, by loosening the bung, in order to *flatten* it; that is to set free the fixed air which it then contains. In bottling, the top and middle of the hogshead are the strongest, and will sooner rise in the bottles than the bottom. When you begin to bottle a vessel of any liquor, be sure not to leave it till all is completed, otherwise it will have different tastes. If not *flattened* in the cask, let it stand in the bottles till the next day before you cork it.

The method employed in the metropolis by some venders of bottled beer, to render it what they term ripe, is merely adding to each bottle three or four drops of yeast, and a lump of sugar, of the size of a large nutmeg. In the course of twenty-four hours, by this addition, stale or flat beer is rendered most agreeably brisk. In consequence of the fermentative process that takes place in it, a small deposit is formed, and on this account the bottles should be kept in an erect position. By this means white wine may also be rendered brisk.

In frosty weather, shut up all the lights or windows of the cellar, and cover them close with straw or dung, so as to keep the wine, beer, &c. in a proper and temperate state.

Practical Rules for Bottling Ales.

THE first question to be considered is, whether the ale is in proper order for bottling? If on drawing out the vent-peg of the cask the liquor spurts up with force, it is a proof that the fermentation is still too active to render it safe to bottle. The best way of proceeding in this case will be to fill up the bottles, and to leave them uncorked for twenty-four hours. Should they have lost by frothing over, or should the froth have subsided in the bottles, they are to be filled up within two inches of the corks; the corks are then to be driven home, and the bottles are to be laid on their sides. The use of laying them on their sides is in order to soak the corks and swell them, so that they may fit perfectly tight, and thus totally prevent the escape of carbonic acid; for it is to the presence of this gas that the briskness is attributable. It is also possible that when the bottles lie on their sides they offer less obstruction to the last feeble efforts of fermenta-

tion than if they stood in the high column which an upright posture would produce.

In this state the drink becomes *up* in the bottle, as it is termed. If it be strong, it remains quiet; if weak, it begins to burst the bottles; and as soon as notice of this kind is given by one bottle, all the rest should be set standing up: this will prevent further bursting. In winter the bottles must be kept moderately warm: in summer, cold.

But if on drawing the vent-peg from the cask the liquor appears quite still, its taste should be examined. If it is still a little saccharine, and has a little briskness, it is just in order for bottling; and the bottles, when filled, need not be left uncorked for any length of time. If the drink appears vapid and acidulous, it is totally unfit for bottling.

Home-brewed ales made in small quantity, and in cold of winter, do not succeed well for bottling. The temperature is apt to fall in the tun before the attenuation is completed; the yeast then subsides; the drink is drawn off into the bottles, and being now destitute of yeast, scarcely any fermentation continues. There is little alcohol formed, and hence the drink does not keep. All this would be prevented, if the heat of the tun were kept up by artificial means, until a good attenuation had been obtained.—*Donovan's Domestic Economy.*

*Hints on Malt Liquors.**

A PHYSICIAN of eminence observes, that there can be no doubt of the highly-nutritive and wholesome qualities of *good home-brewed beer*—by some styled liquid bread; and it is much to be regretted that so few families in this kingdom now even brew their own beer, but are contented to put up with the half-fermented, adulterated wash found in public-houses, or with the no less adulterated and impure drink called porter.

Strong ale, continues he, is undoubtedly the most nutritive of all malt liquors; but being digested with greater difficulty than the other sorts, it cannot with propriety be taken but by those who are strong, and who use much active exercise. The best ale is made from fine pale malt, and with hops of the finest quality. It should sparkle in the glass, but the smaller the bubbles the better.

The midland counties of England have generally been famed for their malt liquors. That of Burton is foremost; but those of Nottingham and Birmingham also find their way into the Lon-

* We have purposely omitted descriptions or recommendations of any patent, or other peculiar apparatus for private brewing—not on account of their want of merit, but from their great number, and to avoid partiality. Treatises on *Brewing* are equally numerous, and have been omitted for the same reasons; but we may mention that much practical information may be found in the "*Art of Brewing*," published in the year 1829, by the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge.

don market. Dorchester is of equal celebrity; and excellent ale is brewed at Worcester: indeed, any sort of country ale is preferred to what is usually manufactured under that name in the metropolis. Private brewing is, however, more general in the districts above mentioned than in other quarters of the island.

CIDER.

To fine and improve the flavour of one hogshead of Cider or Perry, take a gallon of good French brandy, with half an ounce of cochineal, one pound of alum, and three pounds of sugar candy; bruise them in a mortar, and infuse them in the brandy for a day or two; then mix the whole with the cider, and stop it close for five or six months. After which, if fine, bottle it off.

Cider and Perry, when bottled in hot weather, should be left for a day or two uncorked, that it may get flat; but if too flat in the cask, and soon wanted for use, put into each bottle a small lump of sugar candy, four or five sun raisins, or a small piece of raw beef. Cider should be well corked and wired, and packed upright in a cool place. A few bottles may always be kept in a warmer place to ripen, and be ready for use.

Mr. Cobbett, in his *English Gardener*, tells us of a person in America, who placed several hogsheads of cider out of doors: the frost turned to ice the upper contents, and a tap drew off from the bottom the part which was not frozen. This was the spirituous part, and was as strong as the very strongest beer that can be made. The top part, when thawed, was weak cider.

Mr. Donovan, in his valuable *Treatise on Domestic Economy*, just quoted, observes that it is possible to make cider in small quantities of as good a quality as is procurable in the cider counties. The superabundant apples of a moderately large garden, he adds, may be economically converted to this use, and without much trouble, as follows:—

A tub is to be procured, made of strong staves; the bottom is to be much thicker than usual, and the edge of it must be at least half-inch thick, where it is let into the chimb; the iron hoops must be strong, especially the two lower ones on the chimb. This tub is to answer the purposes of a crushing-trough: it must sustain the strokes of a heavy pounder, and hence the necessity of its being made as strong as possible. The diameter of the bottom of the tub should be only eighteen inches; its height about the same.

The next article is the pounder. This is to be made of any hard wood. Its shape may be easily conceived, by imagining a cone about the size of an ordinary loaf of sugar, with a handle, proceeding from its apex, of about four feet in length. The base of the cone should be perfectly flat. The press which will be found most convenient is the common square clothes press.

For making *Perry*, the pear should not be quite ripe; and the admixture of some crabs will add much to the sprightliness of the taste. *Perry* is generally considered inferior to cider: it is thought by some to resemble champagne more than gooseberry wine does; and it is said, when of the best quality, to have been at times sold instead of champagne. The produce of pears is greater than that of apples.

It will save some subsequent trouble, if, in the pressing out the juice, the action of the press be applied gradually, and very slowly increased. In this way the juice at first running muddy, will at length come off perfectly transparent.

The luscious, sweet cider, such as is generally sold at inns, or is to be found in the cellars of merchants, has generally been adulterated, and mixed with we know not what, to render it agreeable to the palate. The best cider, however, is the natural produce of apples, such as the farmers of Herefordshire keep for the entertainment of their friends, which they call rough and stout, in opposition to the soft and luscious sorts that are made to adapt themselves to the taste. Such home-made cider, we are sure, is genuine.

To make Vinegar from Sugar.

GET an iron-bound cask, to be extremely tight, and paint it. Put one pound of the coarsest brown sugar to a gallon of water; boil it from half an hour to an hour, and skim it well all the time. Put it into the above cask, either hot or cold, and add to it a pound and a half of toasted bread, well soaked in about a quart of barm or yeast. Stop the cask—not tight, or cover it with a piece of thin tin plate, and place it on a stand out of doors, in the hottest place in the sun you can find. Make it in March, and let it remain out in all weathers till the end of summer. It is perfectly good in twelve months. You may use it out of the cask, or rack it off into jars or a cask if you like; but when fit to use, it must be kept remarkably well and tight stopped. It is best to brew two casks at starting.

Vinegar from Poor Wine.

IN France vinegar is made from poor wine; and it is considered purer than any other kind, and is generally stronger than the vinegar of this country. The following is stated to be the French method:—

They take two large casks, within each of which they put at the bottom a trevet, which must be one foot high, and as large as the size of the cask permits. On this trevet they put vine twigs, whereon they lay a substance called rape, with which they fill both vessels within half a foot of the top. This rape is nothing but the wood or stalks of the clusters of grapes, dried and freed from the fruit. The trevet and the vine branches are put at the bottom of the casks only to keep the rape from settling at the bottom: it is this rape which alone heats and sours the wine.

The two vessels being almost quite filled with the rape, one of them is filled up with wine, and the other only half full for the time; and every day they draw by a cock half the wine that is in the full vessel, therewith quite to fill up the other that is but half full, observing interchangeable turns of filling and unfilling the vessels. Ordinarily, at the end of two or three days, the half-filled vessel begins to heat, and this heat augments for several days successively, continuing to do so till the vinegar is perfectly made; and the workmen know that the vinegar is made by the ceasing of the heat. In summer it is a work of fifteen days; in winter it proceeds more slowly, and that according to the degree of cold weather.

When the weather is hottest, the wine must be drawn twice a day, to put it out of one vessel into the other. It is only the half-filled cask that heats; and as soon as they have done filling up, its heat is choked and stopped for the time, and the other cask, which is unfilled, begins to heat. The full vessel is quite open at the top, but a wooden cover is put on the vessel that is but half full. The best wine makes the best vinegar; but yet they make good vinegar of wine that is turned.

The wine in changing leaves a certain grease, which sticks partly to the sides of the cask (and that they take care to remove clean away), partly to the rape, so that if they cleanse not the rape from it almost every year once, the wine turns into a whitish liquor, which is neither wine nor vinegar. At the time when they pour the wine out of one vessel into the other, a scum arises on the top of the vessel, which must be carefully taken away. In the casks which have never served for this purpose before, the vinegar is made more slowly than in such as have been used.

As soon as the rape is separated from its grapes, which is done immediately after vintage, it is carefully put up into barrels, lest it take air, and heat itself, and be spoiled. Rape will serve a year, more or less, provided care be taken to clear away every morning with a piece of linen the grease that is on the sides of the vessel, and with a little broom that which swims on the top of the liquor. The rape may be freed from its grease with water, rubbing it between the hands.*

Probably vinegar might be made in this country on a plan similar to the foregoing.

Foul Air in Cellars.

WHEN entering a cellar badly ventilated, advance a candle upon the end of a long rod previously. If the candle continues to burn brightly, there is no danger; but if the flame sickens or expires, no person ought to enter until artificial ventilation has taken place; which may be done by means of a pair of common bellows, fitted with a long tin or leathern tube, which will quickly supply atmospheric air.

* Philosophical Transactions.

Soda and Seltzer Waters.

SODA WATER, and all summer beverages, should be kept in ice, or in a very cold place, else their effect will be entirely lost.

Dr. Paris thinks the fashionable custom of drinking soda water during or immediately after dinner, a pregnant source of indigestion. Upon the qualities of soda water he likewise observes, "In all the waters we have obtained from fountains in London, and other places, under the name of "Soda Water" and "Double Soda Water," we have not been able to discover any soda. It is common water mechanically supersaturated with fixed air, which, on being disengaged and rarified in the stomach, may, as Dr. Paris observes, so over-distend the organ as to interrupt digestion, or diminish the powers of the digestive organs. When acid prevails in the stomach, which is generally the case the day after too free an indulgence in wine, true soda water, taken two or three hours before dinner, or an hour before breakfast, not only neutralizes the acid, but the fixed air, which is disengaged, allays the irritation, and even, by distending the organ, invigorates the muscular coat and nerves. As the quantity of soda, in the true soda water, is much too small to neutralize the acid, it is a good practice to add fifteen or twenty grains of the carbonate of soda, finely powdered, to each bottle, which may be done by pouring the contents of a bottle on it in a large glass.

Of all the soda water we have examined, we have found that made by Mr. Johnson (of Greek-street, Soho) to contain the greatest quantity of soda.

Ginger Beer Powder.

TAKE of carbonate of soda 1 sc., Jamaica ginger, finely powdered, 4 grs., sugar from 2 sc. to 1 dr. Mix them well together in a marble mortar. This quantity is to be added to a teacupful of water in a large goblet, and briskly stirred; then dissolve 18 grs. of the tartaric acid in a wine-glassful of water, and mix with the solution of carbonate of soda, when a considerable effervescence will ensue. The carbonate of soda should be first well rubbed with the sugar and ginger, otherwise it will not readily dissolve in cold water.

Portable Lemonade.

TAKE half an ounce of tartaric acid, three ounces of loaf sugar, and half a dram of essence of lemon. Pound the tartaric acid and sugar very finely in a marble mortar, and gradually pour the essence on the mixture. Mix the whole, very well, and paper it up for use in twelve separate parcels, each of which, when mixed with a tumbler of water, will make a very pleasant and refreshing draught. A tea-spoonful of carbonate of soda added to each glass will cause it to effervesce.

Fine Punch.

TAKE half a dozen ripe, sound, and fresh lemons, and two Seville oranges; rub off the yellow rinds of three or four of the

lemons with lumps of fine loaf sugar; putting each lump into the bowl, as soon as it is sufficiently saturated with the grated rind. Then thinly pare the other lemons and Seville orange, and put these rinds also into the bowl; to which, adding plenty of sugar, pour a very small quantity of boiling water, and immediately press the juice of nearly all the fruit, followed by a little more hot water. Mix the whole thoroughly with the punch ladle. The sherbet being thus prepared, to make it into genuine British punch, spirit should be added, in the proportion of a bottle of Jamaica rum to every pint of the finest Cogniac brandy. The above quantity of fruit, with a pound and a half of sugar, will make enough for a bowl that may contain two gallons; the strength or weakness must be suited to the general inclination of the company. Pine-apple rum, and capillaire syrup, may be used if convenient.

Glasgow Punch.

THE following receipt is from "Peter's Letters to his Kinsfolk," a work descriptive of Scottish manners:—

"The sugar being melted with a little cold water, the artist squeezed about a dozen lemons through a wooden strainer, and then poured in water enough almost to fill the bowl. In this state, the liquor goes by the name of sherbet, and a few connoisseurs were requested to give their opinion of it—for, in the mixing of the sherbet lies, according to the Glasgow creed, at least one half of the whole battle. This being approved, the rum was added to the beverage, I suppose, in something about the proportion of one to seven. Last of all, the maker cut a few limes, and running each section rapidly round the rim of his bowl, squeezed in enough of this more delicate acid to flavour the whole composition."

Mixing a Salad.

THIS is a point of proficiency which it is easy to attain with care. The main point is, to incorporate the several articles required for the sauce, and to serve up at table as fresh as possible.

The herbs should be "morning gathered," and they will be much refreshed by lying an hour or two in spring water. Careful picking, and washing, and drying in a cloth, in the kitchen, are also very important, and the due proportion of each herb requires attention.

The sauce may be thus prepared:—Boil two eggs for ten or twelve minutes, and then put them in cold water for a few minutes, so that the yolks may become quite cold and hard. Rub them through a coarse sieve with a wooden spoon, and mix them with a table-spoonful of water, or cream, and then add two table-spoonfuls of fine flax oil, or melted butter; mix, and add, by degrees, a tea-spoonful of salt, and the same quantity of mustard; mix till smooth, when incorporate with the other ingredients about three table-spoonfuls of vinegar; then pour this sauce down the side of the salad bowl, but do not stir up the salad till

wanted to be eaten: garnish the top of the salad with the white of the eggs cut in slices.

The herbs and ingredients for a salad, and its mixture or sauce, are very various. John Evelyn, an early writer on English gardens, mentions seventy-two herbs "proper and fit to make sallet with;" and the great Lord Bacon wrote on those matters like a true philosopher. Indian cress has lately been introduced for salads in France, and in salads generally we are perhaps excelled by the French. They use a greater variety of herbs than we do, and substitute flavoured vinegars, in the making of which the Italian warehousemen of Paris pride themselves very highly. English salads contain fewer ingredients, and are more simple: cayenne, and a spoonful of soy, or essence of anchovies, makes a savoury addition to a salad. On this point, it would not be serviceable to lay down any rule, since so much depends upon the peculiar taste of those for whom the salad is prepared.

Too much care cannot well be taken in washing the salad herbs, or in seeing that they are properly cleansed from all filth, weeds, &c. Watercresses especially require great circumspection. The spawn of water animals, at certain seasons, is found attached to cresses, and a dangerous plant grows mixed with them in springs and streams; when not in flower, it so much resembles the cress as not easily to be distinguished, except by a botanist. Watercresses are of a deep green, and sometimes spotted with brown, and the extremities of the leaves are more brown, especially the last leaves, which are in pairs larger than the others, and undulated at their edges. This dangerous plant, or *water-parsnip*, as it is called, is of a uniform green, the ends of its leaves are longer and narrower, rather pointed ends, and toothed, or jagged at the edges. The best method of knowing them well is, to examine them in July, when the flowers are expanded, and when they may be thoroughly distinguished.

For directions for mixing a lobster salad, and salad sauce, see *Cook*, page 93.

To purify Water by Charcoal.

NOTHING has been found so effectual for preserving water sweet, as charring the insides of the casks well before they are filled. When the water becomes impure and offensive, from ignorance of the preservative effect produced on it by charring the casks previous to their being filled, it may be rendered perfectly sweet by putting a little fresh charcoal in powder into the cask, or by filtering it through fresh burnt and coarsely pulverized charcoal.

To remove fixed Glass Stoppers.

PASS a piece of woollen list once round the neck of the bottle, and let the two ends be taken by two different persons; then, the bottle being held firm, if the persons draw the list alternately towards them, the friction upon the neck of the bottle will soon warm it so much as to enlarge the glass and allow the ready re-

moval of the stopper. Others recommend the old plan of warming the neck, either by a hot coal or a flame. Or, if the stopper of the bottle is broken off, so that no hold of it can be taken, the bottle should, after being warmed, be enveloped in a cloth, so as to have the neck free, and then be struck at the bottom by the hand. Generally, the first blow will make the stopper fly out, but sometimes several successive blows are required.

If all these methods fail, we recommend the decanter or bottle to be taken to the glass-cutter; for many a valuable decanter has been broken by impatiently attempting to remove the fixed stopper.

Cleaning Bottles.

To clean bottles infected with bad smells, put into the bottles some pieces of blotting or brown paper; fill them with water; shake the bottles strongly; leave them a day or two in this state; when, finding them more or less affected, repeat the process, and afterwards rinse them with pure water.

Cement for broken Glass, China, &c.

OF the many receipts for uniting broken china, glass, &c. the following are the most approved:—

To an ounce of mastic, add as much spirits of wine as will dissolve it. Soak an ounce of isinglass in water until quite soft, then dissolve it in pure rum or brandy, until it forms a strong glue, to which add a quarter of an ounce of gum ammoniac, well rubbed and mixed. Put the mixtures together in an earthen vessel over a gentle heat; when well united, the mixture may be put in a phial, and kept well stopped. When wanted for use, the bottle must be set in warm water; when the china or glass articles must also be warmed, and the cement applied to the fractures.

The glare of an egg well beaten with quick lime, and a small quantity of very old cheese, also form an excellent cement; the juice of garlic will frequently answer the same purpose.

Or, to half a pint of vinegar, add the same quantity of milk; separate the curd, and mix the whey with the whites of five eggs; beat it well together, and sift into it a sufficient quantity of quicklime, to convert it to the consistency of a thick paste. Broken vessels, mended with this cement, never afterwards separate, for it resists the action of both fire and water.

Another method, which, if it fail, will only be the loss of a little time, is as follows:—Take the whitish substance, with a slimy and gelatinous appearance, which is discharged from large snails found in gardens and woods, and smear the edges of the broken vessel with the slime; then tie the vessel together, and leave it for two or three days, when it is said that it will be cemented together. This snail slime has been known to cement two pieces of flint so strongly as to bear dashing on a pavement without the junction being disturbed, although the flint broke into fragments by fresh fractures.

PLATE.

THE care of the plate is entrusted to the Butler, who is assisted in cleaning the several articles by the Under Butler, or Footman.

The articles chiefly used for cleaning silver are prepared hartshorn, or prepared chalk, tully powder, and quicksilver. Rouge is likewise much used by silversmiths, but this often consists of one of the first mentioned articles merely coloured with rose-pink.

Quicksilver is not recommended for plate. It gives a speedy polish, but the silver cleaned with powder in which it is contained, soon tarnishes. There is a more unpleasant consequence attendant on its use, for it has been known to render silver so brittle as to cause it to break when let fall.*

When quicksilver is used, it is generally mixed with whitening or hartshorn powder. Rubbed with the latter and a little turpentine, quicksilver soon becomes "killed." It is likewise killed by mixing with zinc, as in the following receipt:

Melt an ounce of zinc in an iron ladle, and put to it two ounces of quicksilver; turn the mixture out on paper, pound it very fine, and then mix it with two pounds of the best whitening carefully dried and sifted.

Another method is to boil four ounces of hartshorn balls in a gallon of water. While on the fire, put as much plate (well cleaned from grease or dirt) into it as the vessel will hold; after it has boiled a short time, take out the articles, drain them over the saucepan, dry them before the fire, and rub them bright with leather. Clean linen rags boiled in the above, when dry, give a beautiful polish to the plate merely by rubbing it with them. Indeed, few articles need be boiled as above unless they are in constant use, as forks, spoons, &c.

These rags are likewise very serviceable for cleaning brass locks, finger-plates of doors, &c.

For plate-cleaning, especially for small articles, no brush will produce so fine a polish as the hand. Prepared chalk, or fine whitening in larger balls than the common sort, mixed into a thin paste with spirits of wine, will perfectly recover the silver if tarnished. Brushes should be of different hardness, those for plain surfaces being soft, and others for chased or frosted work, as edges, crests, prongs of forks, &c. should be harder; so as to prevent any of the powder remaining in the fine work. Dry wash-leather is the best for finishing.

* Golden articles are likewise much injured from contact with quicksilver and mercurial preparations. Instances have been known of gold rings bursting on the fingers of persons using mercury or handling quicksilver. A short time since we read in the Ennis newspaper of a genuine sovereign having been dipped in quicksilver and partly silvered over; the silver was afterwards removed by aquafortis, but the sovereign on being pressed with the finger and thumb obliquely against a table, snapped in two like a piece of rotten stick.

Plated articles, as might be expected, are more troublesome to keep clean than those which are of silver. Spirits of wine is best calculated for them; but, in no case, whether plated on copper or steel should they be long left damp or dirty, the coating of silver being so thin as not to prevent their speedily becoming cankered or rusted.

MANAGEMENT OF THE TABLE.

Breakfast.

SIMPLE as instructions for the meals of the day may appear, it will be acknowledged that in all matters connected with their management, elegance and economy combined will materially contribute to the comfort of a family, and the credit of those to whom the arrangement of the table is entrusted.

“At breakfast,” observes Ude, “every thing should be neat and simple, since the ladies breakfast in a simple negligé.” He also recommends varieties of rolls, differing from each other as much in form as in taste. On the side-table there should be some cold dishes, as fowls, pheasants, partridges, tongue, ham, cold patés, &c. “Few persons,” continues he, “are displeased at seeing a slight sprinkling of hot dishes, as mutton kidneys, à la brochette; new laid eggs, eggs and bacon, broiled cutlets, lark à la minute, deviled fowl, &c. in fact, all that is generally considered as constituting a *dejeuné à la fourchette*, observing that the hot meats ought not to be served till the guests are at table. Tea, (*green* and *black*) separately, coffee, and chocolate should also be served.” Good coffee is seldom met with, but strict attention to the instructions, at page 66, will ensure it. For expedition’s sake, he recommends making coffee by a filtering biggin, to be bought at Messrs. Bennington’s, in Jermyn-Street. He directs one cup of dry for every two of liquid coffee. The water should be poured, when boiling, into the biggin, on the coffee, wetting it equally so that it may be properly infused: when it has passed through, the bottom of the biggin should be placed in a vessel of boiling water, which will keep the coffee hot. When there are many persons to serve, the biggin should be filled several times, adding fresh coffee each time. Coffee can never be made too strong, and may always be diluted with boiled milk, cream, or water.

It would be superfluous to mention all the articles which may be advantageously introduced at the breakfast-table. Kippered salmon and other cured fish, are favourite adjuncts; and a *Dejeuné à la Francaise* includes light wine.*

Luncheon

USUALLY consists of cold meats, as patés, fowls, pheasants, par-

* The present king of France, who is upwards of 72 years of age, has his breakfast at eight o’clock, which includes a bottle of wine.

tridges, ham, veal, brawn, &c. part of which should be placed on a side-table. Mutton cutlets broiled, or a small dish of hash should be the hot dishes on the table. White wines, as bucellas, sherry, &c. and occasionally, malt liquors are served with this refectation.

Dinner.

A DINNER-TABLE should not be more than three-and-a-half feet in width; what will spread handsomely on such a table, will appear scanty on a table that is five feet in width.

In the arrangement of large dinners there has lately been much novelty introduced: the dinners given at the houses of some noblemen during the season of 1829 having been served in the style termed *à la Russe*, which consists of the dessert being placed on the table at the same time with the first course, forming together four lines of dishes; after the second course is removed, the dessert, which had been previously arranged next the plateau or candelabras in the centre, is now drawn forward, and then occupies the place of the second course. By this method much bustle is avoided during the repast, especially where a large company is assembled, and it has been found decidedly a very superior plan; the appearance of the table is also extremely elegant. On these occasions, the large joints are usually carved at the side-table, and the entrées, as well as the second-course dishes, are handed round.

Dr. Granville, in his recently published travels to St. Petersburg, gives a description of one of these dinners in that city. He doubts whether any other national cookery can boast of a greater variety of sauces or dishes than the Russian. These are presented to the guests by the *maitre d'hotel* and his assistants, already carved at the side-tables, and one after the other, with the pleasing attention of whispering into your ears the name of each dish. One comes and another goes, and a servant follows, with a decanter in each hand. The first commends to your attention a little *vareniky*; the second, finding that you have already before you a dish of *stachy* brings round the *rastingay*, or oblong pastry to eat with it. He of the bottles thinks it high time to remind you of such cordial beverages as champagne, burgundy, lafitte, paxarete, vin du commandeur, du johannisberg, de la comète, and so on until you know not which wine to take.

Wines and Dessert.

THE management of wines and fitting them for the table, has already been explained. The *order of taking wine at dinner* is a point that would involve too much romantic investigation for a matter of fact work like the present. Besides, fashion is too arbitrary on these matters to allow us to lay down any rule on the subject. We have, however, met with a few observations which will certainly be interesting to the Butler, especially as they bear upon some points of his duties.

The red, wines observes an epicurean wine-drinker, should always precede the white, except in the case of a French dinner, when Chablis, Sauterne, or Barsac should be drunk with oysters. The Burgundies should follow—the purple Chambertin, or odorous Romanée. A single glass of Champagne or Hock, or any other white wine may then intervene between the Cote Roti and Hermitage, and last should come the cool and sweet-scented Claret. With the creams and ices should come the Malaga, Rivesaltes, or Grenache, nor with these will Sherry or Madeira harmonize ill. Last of all should Champagne boil up in argent foam, and be sanctified by an offering of Cyprus wine,* or Tokay, poured from a glass so small that you might fancy it formed of diamond.—(See page 177.)

Wine-devils, when wanted, consist of the broiled legs and gizzards of poultry, &c. *Anchovy Toast* consists of anchovies beat in a mortar, with fresh butter, to a paste, and highly seasoned with Cayenne, currie powder, mustard, &c. *Deviled Biscuit* is the above paste spread on a biscuit, seasoned, and warmed in a Dutch-oven. A brace of woodcocks rather under-roasted, and dished up very highly over a spirit-lamp, make a very fine devil.

Iceing wines and the making of ice creams have been already explained. (See pages 174 and 42.) Wafers are sometimes served with ice.

The varieties of fruit for desserts have likewise been spoken of, (see page 12.) In their display in the dishes and stands, and in placing them on table, there is room for considerable taste on the part of the Butler, and the table is not a little improved by the introduction of elegant plate; as the icepails, spoons, knives, forks, grape scissors, crackers, &c.

In all seasons a fine dessert may be produced, even without the extravagant luxuries of forced strawberries and grapes, &c. Almonds should be blanched, and raisins of the best muscadel sort, be in picked bunches. Sugared or iced chestnuts are delicious in French desserts, as are likewise stewed prunes. A confectionary *centre*, as a shape cake, &c. is pretty enough. Dates are little eaten, but are sometimes introduced for variety. Med-

* *Vin de Chypre* sold as Cyprus wine at the leading restaurateurs in Paris, at the rate of two or three francs per glass, is a mere imitation made as follows:—To ten quarts of the syrup of elderberries add eighty pints of water. Press the berries gently, and add two ounces of ginger and one ounce of cloves. Then boil altogether for an hour. After skimming it well, pour it into a vessel, and add one pound and a half of bruised grapes, which are to be left in it until the wine has acquired a fine colour.

The following is stated to be a chemical analysis of a bottle of a cheap commodity, sold under the denomination of Port wine: Spirits of wine, three ounces; cider, fourteen ounces; sugar, one and a half ounce; alum, two scruples; tartaric acid, one scruple; strong decoction of log-wood, four ounces.—*Mechanics' Magazine*.

ars and Norfolk biffins, French dried apples, preserved pears, pickled Tours plums, and orange and lemon chips, are nice winter dishes.

Fresh-gathered fruit should be carefully handled, or unpacked, so as not to take off the bloom. Calcined magnesia is much used by gardeners to restore the bloom of plums, grapes, &c. but requires to be dusted over the fruit with great care. The pineapple, (the culture of which has been brought to such perfection in this country,*) makes a magnificent centre. The crown should be removed from table by handling it with a napkin. It is not generally known that pines may be kept for a considerable time by twisting off their crowns, which are often suffered to remain and live upon the fruit till they have sucked out all the goodness.

The choice of fruit would occupy too much space; but we may hint, from good authority, (the *Pomological Magazine*,) that, among apples, the golden reinette is one of our best winter fruits, keeping well till March, and retaining its beauty, along with its fine aromatic, sub-acid flavour, till the very last. The old nonpareil is perhaps the most general favourite with persons of every taste, on account of its peculiar, agreeable, brisk flavour, and the length of time it keeps. The foreman's crew apple is one of the best table apples we have, combining the excellence of the old golden pippen and nonpareil.

In dishing up grapes, the taste of the Butler must be displayed according to the kinds and size of the bunches; placing the largest in the centre, and others round it, so as to form a handsome figure. Between dishing up, and setting on table, keep them in a cool place.

Plums are to be treated on the same general principles as grapes. No fruit requires so much care in handling as the plum, but in none is the bloom more easily restored. For this purpose we have already stated magnesia to be the best powder; but instructions on this head will be found in a valuable paper, "On the Art of ornamenting, blooming, preserving, and packing Fruits," copied from Mr. Loudon's valuable *Gardener's Magazine*, and to be found under "the Gardener." It is worth while to direct the Butler's attention to this paper, since, in the event of fruit being damaged in its carriage from the country, and there being no gardener kept in town, the Butler may restore some of the natural beauty of the fruit by artificial means. London fruiterers will tell you, that yellow grapes sometimes have their bloom restored by being fumigated with sulphur, and that some fruiterers, of little repute, are in the habit of supplying a bloom to plums by dusting them over with the common powder

* The largest pine ever grown in this kingdom, was cut from the hothouse of John Edwards, Esq., of Rheola, Glamorganshire, and was presented to his Majesty, at Windsor. It weighed fourteen pounds twelve ounces, avoirdupois, was twelve inches and a half high, exclusive of the crown, and twenty-six inches in circumference.

blue used by laundresses. The last operation is, in general, so clumsily performed, that it may readily be detected.

It is generally known, that filberts, and sometimes almonds, walnuts, and other nuts, are fumigated with sulphur, by which means their uniformity of colour, and glossiness of surface, is much improved. In performing this operation, paper or rags are dipped in melted brimstone, and are then burned in an oven or close vessel till it is filled with smoke; the burning materials are then withdrawn, and the articles to be bleached introduced, the vessel or oven closed on them, and left till the smoke is condensed; or, in other words, till all the particles of sulphur floating in it are deposited on whatever comes in their way.

The management of an *epergne*, or *plateau*, presents an opportunity for the Butler to display his taste; and, as these splendid ornaments of the table usually consist of beautiful forms, ornamented with richly chased work and designs of great classic beauty, it should be his aim so to place the stand as to show these parts to the greatest advantage. The glass pans, &c. with which the silver-work is intermixed should be in brilliant order, and the effect will then be uncommonly striking. All glass on table should likewise have a highly burnished appearance, so as to harmonize with the dazzling richness of the lustre pendent from the ceiling.

Plain water is generally used for finger-glasses; where rose-water is preferred, care should be taken in procuring it fresh, and of fine perfume. Soda and seltzer waters should be kept in ice, and not in the dining-room.

Coffee, Tea, &c.

SHOULD be handed round on silver. The French custom is to drink coffee after dinner, without cream or milk; and, in this country, it is left to the option of the company, the coffee, cream, and sugar, being separately served on the same salver.

Making *tea* usually belongs to the housekeeper; we mean on occasions of large parties, to which the previous hints chiefly refer. There is, however, considerable art in this point; and Dr. Kitchiner, one of the most ingenious persons of his day, took much pains on the subject. His observations on tea-making are therefore worthy of record; although they might have been more in place among the instructions to the Housekeeper, following the hints on the choice and purchase of tea.

“ It has been long observed, that the infusion of tea made in silver, or polished metal tea-pots, is stronger than that which is produced in black, or other kinds of earthenware pots. This is explained on the principle, that polished surfaces retain heat much better than dark, rough surfaces, and that, consequently, the caloric being confined in the former case, must act more powerfully than in the latter.

“ It is further certain, that the silver or metal pot, when filled

a second time, produces worse tea than the earthenware vessel; and that it is advisable to use the earthenware pot, unless a silver or metal one can be procured sufficiently large to contain at once all that may be required. These facts are readily explained by considering, that the action of heat retained by the silver vessel so far exhausts the herb as to leave very little soluble substance for a second infusion; whereas the reduced temperature of the water in the earthenware pot, by extracting only a small proportion at first, leaves some soluble matter for the action of a subsequent infusion.

“The reason for pouring boiling water into the tea-pot before the infusion of the tea is made, is, that the vessel being previously warm, may abstract less heat from the mixture, and thus admit a more powerful action. Neither is it difficult to explain the fact why the infusion of tea is stronger if only a small quantity of boiling water be first used, and more be added some time afterwards; for if we consider that only the water immediately in contact with the herb can act upon it, and that it cools very rapidly, especially in earthenware vessels, it is clear that the effect will be greater where the heat is kept up by additions of boiling water, than where the vessel is filled at once, and the fluid suffered gradually to cool.

“When the infusion has once been completed, it is found that any further addition of the herb only affords a very small increase in the strength, the water having cooled much below the boiling point, and, consequently, acting very slightly.”—*Housekeeper's Oracle*.

Suppers

COMPRISE too much of the decoration of the table to allow us to be otherwise than brief upon them. A few valuable and economical hints on rout suppers, will be found at page 68.

Refreshments at large parties, include such a variety of articles, as to prevent our even enumerating them. (*See page 65.*)

These few hints upon the management of the table, are not offered as a perfect system, neither do they aim at the minor points of laying a table, as placing the cloth so that the arms, crests, or other patterns, may appear even; the good condition of the plate, castors, &c. They aim rather at higher points, and are intended as part of what may almost be called the *accomplishment* of a well-set table.

COALS.

As the purchase of coals is usually entrusted to the Butler, we subjoin information upon a few of the most important points.

The first point is the quality, there being a great choice in the London market; amounting to upwards of sixty species, from the mere bituminous or pitchy slate, up to the brilliant cannel coal. For common use in London, however, the best of the sea-

coal is recommended, which is generally supposed to be from the Wall's-end colliery: this comes by the Newcastle ships, and contains a sufficient quantity of bitumen mixed with purer materials than any other species, thus affording heat, and possessing durability.

We need not urge the advantages of purchasing coals with ready money, as they must be sufficiently obvious in this as well as in every other department of domestic management. There is, however, another consideration, which is not only to buy with ready money, but to buy at proper seasons; for there is, with every article, a cheap season and a dear season, and with none more than coals; insomuch, that the master of a family who fills his coal-cellar in the middle of summer, rather than the beginning of winter, will find it filled at half the expense it otherwise would cost him. In dealing with an honest coal merchant, there can be no reason to expect fraud; yet there may be tricks on the part of his people, or of the lighterman, which must be guarded against in respect to measure. To illustrate this, it will be sufficient to state, that coals measured into a lighter may be wonderfully increased in quantity, by a little management. What is called "a room" of coals in a lighter, is calculated to contain five chaldrons and a quarter, and ought to fill no more than sixty-eight sacks precisely; yet, out of this quantity, ninety sacks may be produced with a little ingenuity: and the only way to prevent it is, to pass the coals from "the room" to a *measure*, and *thence* into the sack.

The high price of coals has been thus explained in Parliament. Lord Londonderry, a great owner of coal mines in the north, has stated, that coals cost at the mouth of the pit from sixteen to eighteen shillings per chaldron, and that the cost of bringing them to London is ten shillings more; and that thus the difference between the price paid by the consumer, which is at least fifty shillings, and that at which the coals arrive at London is, at the lowest computation, twenty-two shillings. The difference, his lordship stated, arises from the government duties, and the city dues of various kinds. The Government duty is six shillings a chaldron, having been reduced from nine a few years back. The City dues are stated to be one of sixpence, and one of fourpence; but as these cannot make the difference, there must be something *in the trade*, besides the duties and dues, to account for it. It is quite clear, that the difference cannot arise from a confederation in the retail trade—for, if that were so, some one not in the coal trade would have started long ago selling coals at a fair profit, and thence have either ruined all the coal-merchants, or brought them down to his prices.—All these considerations will be interesting to any person engaged in the purchase of coals.

The price of coals fluctuates with their quality, the quantity brought to market, and the quickness of the demand for them.

In long frosts, especially if accompanied with strong easterly winds, they sometimes rise, in the winter months, to five and six pounds per chaldron; they are cheapest in the months of May and June.

If you buy five chaldrons, you will have three sacks given in: let some person see that the right number of sacks is brought, and that they are properly filled.

Advertising coal-dealers frequently offer to deliver to house-keepers, thirteen sacks of the best coals for less money than twelve sacks are sold to the merchants at the Coal Exchange; but this may be accounted for by variations of quality, price, and measure. Such is the trick of quality, that, in weighing different kinds of coal, there has been found the surprising difference of thirty pounds in the weight of two sacks which were equally filled.

* * The annual quantity of coal shipped in the rivers Tyne and Wear, is stated at upwards of three million tons. A cubic yard of coal weighs nearly one ton; and the number of tons contained in a bed of coal one square mile in extent, and one yard in thickness, is about four millions. The number and extent of all the principal coal-beds in Northumberland and Durham is known; and, it has been calculated, that the coal in these counties will last three hundred and sixty years.

The waste of coal at the pit's mouth, may be stated at one-sixth of the quantity sold, and that left in the mines at one-third. Mr. Holmes, in his "Treatise on Coal Mines," states the waste of small coal at the pit's mouth to be one-fourth of the whole.

It cannot be deemed uninteresting to inquire, what are the repositories of coal that can supply the metropolis and the southern counties, when no more can be obtained from the Tyne and the Wear. The only coal-fields of any extent on the eastern side of England, between London and Durham, are those of Derbyshire, and those in the west riding of Yorkshire. The Derbyshire coal-field is not of sufficient magnitude to supply, for any long period, more than is required for home consumption, and that of the adjacent counties. There are many valuable beds of coal in the western part of the west riding of Yorkshire, which are yet unwrought; but the time is not very distant when they must be put in requisition, to supply the vast demand of that populous manufacturing county, which at present consumes nearly all the produce of its own coal mines. In the midland counties, Staffordshire possesses the nearest coal districts to the metropolis, of any great extent; but such is the immense daily consumption of coal in the iron-furnaces and founderies, that it is generally believed this will be the first of our own coal-fields that will be exhausted. The thirty feet bed of coal in the Dudley coal-field is of limited extent; and, in the present mode of working it, more than two-thirds of the coal is wasted, and left in the mine.

If we look to Whitehaven or Lancashire, or to any of the minor coal-fields in the west of England, we can derive little hope of their being able to supply London and the southern counties with coal, after the import of coal fails from Northumberland and Durham. We may thus anticipate a period, not very remote, when all the English mines of coal and ironstone will be exhausted; and, were we disposed to indulge in gloomy forebodings, we might draw a melancholy picture of our starving and declining population.

Fortunately, however, we have, in South Wales, adjoining the Bristol Channel, an almost exhaustless supply of coal and ironstone, which are yet nearly unwrought. It has been stated, that this coal-field extends over about twelve hundred square miles, and that there are twenty-three beds of workable coal, the total average thickness of which is ninety-five feet, and the quantity contained in each acre is 100,000 tons, or 65,000,000 tons per square mile. If from this we deduct one half for waste and for the minor extent of the upper beds, we shall have a clear supply of coal, equal to 32,000,000 tons per square mile. Now if we admit that the five million tons of coal from the Northumberland and Durham mines is equal to nearly one-third of the total consumption of coals in England, each square mile of the Welsh coal-field would yield coals for two years consumption; and as there are from one thousand to twelve hundred square miles in this coal-field, it would supply England with fuel for two thousand years, after all our English coal-mines are worked out.

It is true, that a considerable part of the coal in South Wales is of an inferior quality, and is not at present burnt for domestic use; but in proportion as coal becomes scarce, improved methods of burning it will assuredly be discovered, to prevent any sulphureous fumes from entering apartments, and also to economise the consumption of fuel in all our manufacturing processes.

These facts, though not immediately connected with the Butler's duties, will be entertaining in leisure, as they gratify rational curiosity respecting one of the greatest comforts of life—a cheerful fireside.

Charcoal is commonly sold at five shillings per sack. It is much used in kitchens for stewing-stoves, and fires for frying and broiling.

Coke is sometimes used, and makes a fine clear fire. It may be interesting to know that a pound of coke produces nearly as much heat as a pound of coal; but we must remember that a pound of coal gives only three quarters of a pound of coke, although the latter is more bulky than the former.

THE Butler's duties now draw to a close, and we hope little need be said to recommend all the points we have touched upon to his notice.

By way of adding a page or two which must possess attraction for the Butler as well as for every member of the household, we conclude with the description of a well-kept country residence, extracted from the *Gardeners' Magazine*. The house has been visited by the Editor, Mr. Loudon, and the close details he has given of its interior will at once convince the reader of the high gratification, which a well-managed house affords to every visiter, and how much credit it reflects on every one of the establishment. The residence here described is not what is commonly termed a "show-house" of magnificent pictures, sculpture, and splendid furniture; but it is a paragon of neatness and good order which cannot be surpassed, or too highly commended

WHITMORE LODGE, NEAR SUNNING HILL.

The seat of Robert Mangles, Esq.

THIS place is very highly kept. Mr. Mangles has a very marked taste for symmetry in architecture, and for order and contrivance in interior arrangement; fitting up, as the upholsterer terms it, and finishing and furnishing; and he is happy in finding the counterpart of his own tastes in Mrs. Mangles. The interior of the house, therefore, it may easily be conceived, is a perfect museum of contrivances, excellent furniture, and rare, precious, or curious articles. We have examined every corner of the house, from the cellar to the bed-rooms, and shall shortly enumerate a few things from recollection.

Cellar. The bins divided by slate, to save room. The French portable ice vessel, found to preserve the ice for a number of days after it is taken from the ice-house.

Kitchen. The walls lined with Dutch tiles, which, being glazed, do not retain the dust, and they are always clean. The cook said they rendered the place too hot. Instead of charcoal stoves for compound cookery, one immense cast-iron plate is heated on the principle of a common hot-house flue, by a common coal fire below. Steaming-closet and oven very perfect. Cistern behind the fire, which, by communicating-pipes, heats a bath. Ventilation opening near the floor, and near the ceiling, and through wire grating to exclude flies.

Out-house. Knife-cleaning machine. Wheel-brush for brushing shoes, and the common description of clothes.

China closet. Very complete collection; the walls covered with paper, in imitation of Dutch tiles.

Entrance-hall and garden-front saloon. Sunk panels in the floor, for the large mats, six feet square, to allow the doors opening over them. A raised bed for flowers in the centre of the garden saloon, with stone curb. A large recess in the wall, enclosed with brass wire, serves as an aviary for canary birds; the birds pass through small unobtrusive openings on one side of the recess to their eating and drinking place, so that no husks or seeds are ever seen from the saloon. Shutters double, and curiously contrived both for warmth and security. In the flower-bed was a collection of handsome balsams, the pots covered with green moss.

Mr. Mangles' dressing-room and business-room. Clothes-press admirably arranged; the drawers containing the different parts of dress, named and numbered. Complete system of housekeeping books; letters and copying machine; engraved forms of bankers' checks; with the family arms, view of the house, &c.

Breakfast-room. The walls covered with brown moreen, bordered, by gimp, with cable cord in the angles. Egyptian fire-irons, ornaments, tables, &c., from the late sale at White Knights, of the Duke of Marlborough's rarities. Frames to mirror, doors, &c. of bird's eye maple, and corresponding patterns.

Dining-room. Slips of lead, three-sided, and covered with oil cloth, laid along the skirting on the carpet, to prevent the chairs from being pushed too near to the wall. Contrivance for receiving the dinner hot, direct from the kitchen, as at Arundel Castle, and said to be also at Dreg-horn Castle, near Edinburgh. Large bay window for the dessert table during the summer season.

Drawing-room. The whole of the light admitted from a bay of three large windows. Bird-cage, with an under-story, in which the bird descends through a small opening, by a trap-ladder to its eating-place, so that no husks of seeds are ever exposed to view. Flower-stand, in which cut flowers are kept in moist sand. Set of musicians in Dresden china, numerous other articles of vertu, &c. &c.

Staircase, &c., heated by a Brussels stove, which is of iron, cased inside with fire-stone, very handsome and effective.

Bed-rooms. Three sorts of blinds are in use; the best kind seems to be that in which the cloth is rolled up by pulling a string which coils up and unrolls in a groove on the end of the roller. The end of the string hangs loose.

What is particularly deserving of imitation in this house is the admission of light into all the rooms, not by rows of windows, but by bays or large windows without any cross lights, so that the light always comes in masses, and thus sets off all forms to advantage. There is not a room in the house with two windows, nor a door with a display of locks, nobs, handles, and other fastenings, as if in a house of enjoyment, the security of person or property were a matter of constant consideration. The view of the pleasure-ground from the dining-room displays a plain lawn, ornamented with shrubs and trees, but without flowers; that from the breakfast-room the same view, but introducing an inviting portion of extreme distance; that from the drawing-room, a lawn highly enriched with baskets of flowers of different shapes, grouped so as to exhibit handsome combinations; a large one being directly in front, two irregular ones at each side along the walk, and a smaller regular one placed beyond the first at some little distance. The bordering of these figures is of cast-iron basket work.

THE VALET.

THE qualifications for a Valet are of such a description as almost to amount to accomplishments. He is expected to possess a competent knowledge of the habits and customs of polite life, and to be thoroughly acquainted with etiquette and forms of fashion.

His especial business is to attend to the personal accommodation of his master ; to take care of his entire wardrobe , and to attend to the general business of the dressing-room. He usually travels with his master ; and, as travelling on the continent has become very general, since the peace, we shall endeavour to give some requisite information on this head.

Our first portion of instructions relates to

THE DRESSING ROOM.

Management of Razors and Shaving.

THIS is a point upon which many persons are remarkably nice. A single glance at the cutlers' and dressing-case makers in the metropolis, will satisfy any person on the truth of this observation ; and among not the least ingenious of the inventions with which these shops are stocked, is a case containing seven finely-tempered razors, viz. one for each day in the week, with the name of the respective day on the back of the blade. A few persons of inventive turn of mind have profited by the nicety of gentlemen respecting razors, and some have even realized fortunes by peculiar manufacture, &c. Mr Packwood, who lived in Fleet-street, a few years since, even wrote a treatise on razors, under the title of *Packwoodiana*, and, we believe, he turned his ingenuity to good account. At this moment too, we frequently read in the newspapers an advertisement of a pamphlet published and sold at the west end of the town, on the *Art of managing a Razor*, of which, says the writer, many editions have been disposed of. Neither is the subject a very trifling one, if we consider the misery of an ill-conditioned razor, and the *luxury* of an instrument of opposite character.

Without going into all the varieties of inventions which have been put forth to improve or facilitate the operation of shaving, we shall only give a few methods of keeping razors in good order.*

* They who have visited Sheffield, and inspected the workshops there, need not be told that five-hundred persons are constantly employed in the

Every razor strop has its own peculiar directions. A good method is to keep it moderately moist with a drop or two of sweet oil; a little crocus and a few drops of sweet oil rubbed well in with a glass bottle, will give the razor a fine edge.

Much time, patience, and considerable pain may likewise be saved by keeping the hone in a proper state. This can only be done by frequently moistening it with oil, and laying it up in a place where it will not readily become dry. Rubbing the hone previous to use with soap instead of oil, gives a keenness and fineness to the edge that is very agreeable.

Among razor strops, we notice that some profess to have magnetic properties, which must, of course, have a good effect on the steel. One of the best strops in use is, "Estcourt's Criterion." Among the latest novelties in this way, we have read of a strop invented by M. Perrot, we believe, of Paris, and thus described in a French Journal; the name of the new invention being *Euthegone*. From the flexibility of leather, a round edge is given to the blade, for which reason paper is used in the new strop. Two kinds of very fine paper have been manufactured purposely, with fine and homogeneous pulp, mixed in one case with fine emery, and in the other with very fine rouge. These papers are then steeped in melted tallow, afterwards pressed to give them a smooth surface, and then cut into bands, and mounted on pieces of wood properly shaped. Each strop has therefore two faces, one gray, on which the razor may be rendered very sharp, and the other red, which, polishing the edge, renders it extremely smooth. The razor must be laid very flat upon these strops—they improve by a few days use. When ineffectual from age, the surface should be rubbed with a very smooth piece of pumice, or with a little pumice-powder on marble or ground glass: being then wiped with a piece of cloth, they are brought to their first state.

The principle of this improvement has been adopted by a London cutler, and he has manufactured a strop with two hard sides, and without a cushion, which is found to answer well.

Gentlemen who shave themselves, usually strop their own razors immediately after the operation, whilst the metal is yet warm, which is the best way: but if it be left to the valet to do, the razor must be dipped in warm water and wiped dry with a clean cloth or rag; then laying it flat on the strop, draw it diagonally, from the heel to the point, the whole length of the strop, turning the elbow in and out every time the razor is turned;

manufacture of razors; and that knives, razors, &c. may be seen produced from the raw material in a few minutes. In the manufacture of a razor, it proceeds through a dozen hands; but it is afterwards submitted to a process of grinding, by which the concavity is perfected, and the fine edge produced. They are made from 1s. per dozen to 20s. per razor, in which last the handle is valued at 16s. 6d.

half a dozen or half a score strokes backwards and forwards, as often as it is used, will keep it in good order for a considerable time. Good razors are made concave, or hollow, between the back and the edge, on both sides, for the greater security in shaving, and for the purpose of giving them a better edge in setting or stropping.

For Sharpening Razors.—By a French Chemist.

TAKE of the oxyde of tin levigated, vulgarly termed prepared putty, 1 oz., saturated solution of oxalic acid, a sufficient quantity to form a paste. This composition is to be rubbed over the strop, and when dry a little water may be added. The oxalic acid having a great attraction for iron, a little friction with this powder gives a fine edge even to a blunt razor.

To those who in their lips, or after shaving, are affected by frosty air, it may be grateful information that the solution of nitre in soft water will take off every unpleasant sensation—and, instead of the shining and parchment-like appearance consequent on greasy applications, produce the most delicate softness and abate all swelling. It should be premised, that where much roughness and soreness prevail, the first application usually excites pain, which, however, soon subsides. Such as are averse from a little suffering, may, at first, use a little spermaceti ointment, at night, and the next morning, and afterwards frequently wash the parts affected with the solution of nitre.

Shaving Soaps are nearly as various as the quality of razors. Naples Soap, Transparent Soap, and soaps made by Rigge, and Davidson, are much patronized.

Naples Soap

Is sold at the rate of sixteen shillings per pound, or one shilling per ounce, so that an attempt to imitate it may be worthy of place here.

Take of fresh ley, strong enough to bear an egg, one pound; put to it lamb suet (previously well cleansed from skins, &c. by rose water,) a quarter of a pound, and two ounces of sweet olive oil. Simmer these over the fire in a well-glazed pot until they be pretty near the consistence of Naples soap; then turn the mixture out into a flat pan, which set on the leads or roof of a house exposed to the heat of the sun for fifty days. The pan must be covered with a bell glass, such as the gardeners use, and the mixture must be stirred well once a day, during the whole of this time. In about six weeks or two months, the operator will have a most excellent ground for Naples soap, which only requires perfuming in the following manner, to render it equal to the foreign. Take of the oil of rhodium one dram; spirit of ambergris, two drams and a half; mix well together, and then put the compound into the pan of soap. Stir the whole well, and incorporate the perfumes with the soap, on a marble slab by means

of a muller. Put up into small jars. If kept for twelve months, this soap will be very fine.

Transparent Soap,

WHEN well made, and not coloured, should have the appearance of white sugar candy. Any person can make it by putting into a thin glass phial half a piece of Windsor soap cut into shavings, half filling the phial with spirits of wine, and placing it near the fire till the soap is dissolved. This mixture put to cool in a mould gives transparent soap.

Loss of Hair.

ON restoring the hair, there are a few opinions at page 103 of the present volume. Scalps are now made to fit the head with such nicety, by means of steel springs, &c.—as to deceive even the wearer's intimate friends.

Oils, as Russia, or Macassar, give a fine rich gloss to the hair on full dress occasions; and a fragrant extract is manufactured by Rigge, for cleaning the hair; which we have heard spoken of in good terms.

Boiling Water.

A VERY neat and complete apparatus has lately been contrived for boiling a small quantity of water *à la minute*, and consequently very serviceable in chambers. In a small tin tray are placed two vessels of about the capacity of a pint each; in one is a cylinder over a lamp; the other is simply a pan, into the lower part of which runs a close funnel like the extinguisher of a candle. Into the cylinder is put a small measure of spirits of wine; the lamp below is trimmed with the same; and from the upper vessel a curved tube is brought to point horizontally upon the flame. As the spirit is heated, the gas issues from this tube as if it were a blow pipe, and a jet of flame is propelled with the force of a furnace into the funnel of the opposite vessel. By this ready and easy process, water or any other liquid is warmed in two or three minutes, and eggs boiled in less than five.

This little apparatus might be used for boiling water for shaving in summer; or for preparing gruel, &c. in the chamber of the invalid.

THE WARDROBE.

SEVERAL receipts at pages 108 and 109, as those for removing stains, iron-mould, &c. may be consulted with advantage, and therefore need not be repeated here.

To remove Grease Spots.

TAKE the yolk of an egg and put a little of it on the spot, then place over it a piece of white linen, and wet it with boiling water; rub the linen with the hand, and repeat the process three or four times, at each time applying fresh boiling water; the linen is to be then removed, and the part thus treated is to be washed with clean cold water.—*From the French.*

To remove Spots from Cloth.

THE soldiers in garrison at Mauberge have, for some time past, for the purpose of removing stains from their clothes, made use of a water composed from the following receipt:—Pour a quart of warm water into a glazed earthen pan, and add a small quantity of white soap, and an ounce of powder of kali of Alicant; when this is thoroughly dissolved, add two spoonfuls of ox gall, and a little essence of lavender; let the whole be well stirred, and strained through a linen cloth, and kept in a bottle. In making use of it, a small quantity is to be placed with care on the spot, which is to be rubbed with a small brush, then washed with warm water, so as to remove all vestiges of the liquor applied, which might injure the cloth if allowed to remain.—*From the French.*

To revive Faded Black Cloth.

HAVING cleaned it well, boil two or three ounces of logwood for half an hour. Dip the cloth in warm water, and squeeze it dry; then put it into the copper, and boil half an hour. Take it out, and add a small piece of copperas, and boil it another half hour. Hang it in the air for an hour or two, then rinse it in two or three cold waters, dry it, and let it be regularly brushed with a soft brush, over which a drop or two of olive oil has been rubbed.

To dry-clean Cloth.

DIP a brush in warm gall, apply it to the greasy places, and rinse it off in cold water; dry by the fire, then lay the coat flat, strew damp sand over it, and with a brush beat the sand into the cloth; then brush it out with a hard brush, and the sand will bring away the dirt. Rub a drop of oil of olives over a soft brush, to brighten the colours.

To make Breeches Balls.

MIX half a pound of Bath brick, one pound of pipe-clay, two ounces of pumice stone powder, and three ounces of ox-gall; colour them with yellow ochre, umber, Irish slate, &c. to the desired shade.

Scouring Balls.

MIX one pound of pipe-clay, two ounces of fuller's earth, two ounces of whitening, and a quarter of a pint of ox-gall. Or, moisten, dried, and finely powdered fuller's earth with lemon juice, and add a small quantity of pearlash. Mix them well together, and form into balls, and dry in the sun. When to be used, first moisten the spot on the clothes with water, then rub it with the ball, and let the spot dry in the sun; after having washed it with pure water, the spot will disappear.

To clean Leather.

THE white of an egg applied to a spot of grease on leather, and dried in the sun, will effectually answer this purpose. Or, take of French yellow ochre, one pound; sweet oil, a dessert spoonful. Mix well together, so that the oil may not be seen: then

take of pipe-clay, one pound; starch, a quarter of a pound. Mix with boiling water, when cold, lay it on the leather; and rub and brush it well when dry.

To Clean Gloves.

WASH them in soap and water till the dirt is out, then stretch them on wooden hands, or pull them out in their proper shape. Do not wring them, as that puts them out of form, and makes them shrink; put them one upon another and press the water out. Then rub the following mixture over the outside of the gloves. If wanted quite yellow, take yellow ochre; if quite white, pipe-clay; if between the two, mix a little of each together. Mix the colour with beer or vinegar.

Let them dry gradually, not too near the fire, nor in too hot a sun; when they are about half dried, rub them well and stretch them out to keep them from shrinking and to soften them. When they are well rubbed and dried, take a small cane and beat them; then brush them; when this is done, iron them rather warm with a piece of paper over them, but do not let the iron be too hot.

To clean Gold Lace and Embroidery.

FOR this purpose alkaline liquors are not to be used; for while they clean the gold they corrode the silk, and change or discharge its colour. Soap also alters the shade, and even the species of certain colours. But, spirit of wine may be used without any danger of its injuring either colour or quality; and, in many cases, proves, as effectual for restoring the lustre of gold, as the corrosive detergents. But, though spirit of wine is the most innocent material employed for this purpose, it is not in all cases proper. The golden covering may be in some parts worn off; or the base metal, with which it has been alloyed, may be corroded by the air, so as to leave the particles of gold disunited; while the silver underneath, tarnished to a yellow hue, may continue a tolerable colour to the whole: it is then apparent that the removal of the tarnish would be prejudicial, and make the lace or embroidery less like gold than it was before.

To clean Gilt Buckles, Chains, &c.

DIP a soft brush in water, rub a little soap on it, and brush the article for a minute or two, then wash it clean, wipe it; place it near the fire till dry, and brush it with burnt bread finely powdered.

Boots and Shoes

To be properly cleaned, should be on trees and lasts. Various receipts for blacking will be found among the instructions to the Footman, and receipts for boot-tops among the hints to the Groom.

As many gentlemen have tender feet, it may be worth while to say a word or two respecting shoes for persons so inconvenienced. A few years since a shoe-maker obtained some reputation for manufacturing shoes so as not to produce corns. Dr. Kitchener says the only way to secure well-fitting shoes is to have a plaster

cast made of the foot with the corns and other protuberances. Many shoe-makers will what they call "fit up" a last with leather, &c. raised according to these excrescences, and then get a last made of the precise shape.

Among the inventions of the day we may notice leather-cloth boots and shoes, also called *pannus corium*. They consist of a cloth saturated with a composition, so as to be glossy, to resemble dressed leather, and to be water-proof. The composition is of bees' wax, Indian rubber, or gum, resin, ivory black, and lamp black, melted together and brushed over the cloth like varnish, in two separate coats. The inventers state that boots and shoes of this material will last longer than leather, and will not be liable to crack. We do not pretend to add our testimony.

Kangaroo-leather is often used for shoes for tender feet.

To Clean Books and Prints.

THE worm and moths are inveterate spoilers of books. They are attracted by the paste used in the binding, but where alum is used in the paste the vermin are not so numerous. Russia leather will keep them away, and as all libraries now contain Russia bindings, the evil is lessened. Still, there is little protection for boarded books, except a few Russia shavings.

Ink spots may be removed from books or prints, by citric or oxalic acid dissolved in water, and carefully applied with a hair pencil.

Cleaning or restoring prints had better be left to a professed artist in those matters; but oil or grease may be removed by carefully softening the spot by heat, and taking up as much of the oil as blotting-paper with the heated blade of a knife over it will absorb; after which apply spirit of turpentine with a hair pencil, and the original whiteness of the paper may be restored by spirits of wine with half its quantity of ether.

Alabaster figures may be cleaned, with great care, by an excellent receipt *at page 111*.

Collectors of articles of taste and *vertu* not unfrequently require the services of their valet, in cleaning or restoring some of their nic-nacks. It may, therefore, be useful to direct the attention of the reader to several receipts for cements to unite broken china, &c. *at page 191*; these will be found very useful to the collectors of antiques.

Varnishing pictures is a favourite amusement with some gentlemen. For this purpose mastic varnish is much used, and may be made in a superior manner as follows:—Pick the hardest and clearest of the gum mastic, rejecting all the soft and oily tears; bruise it on a stone; then get pure turpentine, entirely free from oil or grease, and put some of each in a bottle, when the gum may be dissolved without heat, by half an hour's shaking in the hand; it must then be strained and put into another bottle, and placed for two or three weeks where the light of the sun can strike it, which will cause a precipitation, and render the var-

nish transparent as water. It is now to be poured off, and put by for use. About six ounces of mastic are enough for a pint of turpentine. The varnish should always be laid on with as much dispatch as possible, keeping it alive, as the artists term it, and floating after the brush. It should be laid on the picture with a soft, flat, camel's hair brush, as it is called, but which, however, is made of the hair from the squirrel's tail.

Soda Water and Seidlitz Powders.

THESE are portable and convenient forms for making either of the above beverages.

For a glass of *Soda Water*, take thirty grains of carbonate of soda in fine powder, and put it into a tumbler half filled with spring water; in another glass, also half filled with water, put twenty-five grains of tartaric, or citric acid, in powder: then mix the contents of the two tumblers, and drink during the effervescence.

Ginger Beer may be similarly made. The imitation, we do not think so successful; but the receipt, as well as one for portable lemonade, will be found at page 88.

The *Seidlitz Powders* usually preferred are those made by Savory and Moore, of New Bond street, who are the proprietors of a patent for them. They are much recommended as an effervescent and cooling aperient, and are better than any thing we know of for correcting acidity of stomach, or some of the unpleasant effects of free indulgence and late hours. Dr. Paris states the Seidlitz Powders to consist of Rochelle salt, carbonate of soda, and tartaric acid; but a French chemist thinks the following an improvement:—Take of sulphate of magnesia, (Epsom salts) in fine powder two drams; carbonate of soda, two scruples: mix carefully and mark it, powder No. 1. Tartaric acid, in fine powder, and mark, paper No. 2. Mix in two glasses as directed for soda water.

The best method of purchasing these powders is in broad-mouthed bottles with glass stoppers, labelled. You soon become familiar with the quantity, or, we think, the chemists sell a small measure with bottles of the powders. All occupy but little room in a portmantéau, and are extremely useful in travelling.

As the stoppers of these bottles and others in dressing-cases sometimes become fixed, we add the means of removing them: surround the neck with a cloth taken out of warm water—or, by immersing the bottle in the water up to the neck: the binding ring is thus heated and expanded sooner than the stopper, and so becomes slack or loose upon it. (*See also page 190.*)

Cleaning the Teeth.

WE have already given a few hints on preserving the teeth, (*see page 104.*)

A curious discovery has lately been made, that the accumulation on the teeth termed tartar, is occasioned by animalculæ,

which produce decay and tooth-ache. The purified acid of the crab-apple will immediately destroy them: the teeth should be brushed with this juice mixed with rose-water, every morning, and afterwards cleaned with areca nut charcoal.

Varnish for Straw or Chip Hats.

POWDER half an ounce of the best black sealing-wax, and dissolve the same in two ounces of rectified spirits of wine. Lay it on warm with a soft hair brush before the fire or in the sun.

TRAVELLING.

SINCE the peace of 1815, travelling on the Continent has become so general among persons of fortune, that a Valet is at the present day expected to possess a certain share of information for the comfort and accommodation of the family—as the routine of passports, certain travelling requisites, and some knowledge of the modes of travelling in the respective countries. For obtaining information on these points, and indeed on every subject connected with the convenience of the traveller, we cannot do better than recommend the Valet to purchase a copy of Mrs. Starke's "Information and Directions for Travellers on the Continent," containing about 600 closely printed pages, as the lady states in her preface, of "all the information necessary for travellers on the Continent of Europe and the Island of Sicily. The volume is portable, and will cost 12s., whereas in one journey it may be the means of saving the traveller many pounds.*

We subjoin information upon a few of the points above mentioned.

Passports.

BEFORE proceeding on the route to Paris, it is absolutely necessary to procure a passport. To obtain this, apply at the office of the French ambassador, No. 51, Portland Place, (the office in Weymouth Street) between the hours of twelve and four. The applicant need only signify his wish, and leave his name

* The present is the Sixth Edition of the work; for which we learn that Mrs. Starke made an expensive journey with a view to render the book as perfect as possible.

We may here observe, that to be able to speak French will be found a first-rate recommendation for a Valet; and, although a knowledge of foreign languages may not have formed part of the reader's education, he may, by application, and the facilities which are afforded him by excellent books for the purpose, soon become sufficiently acquainted with the French and Italian languages to make himself understood. A few lessons, a grammar, and dictionary are all that are necessary at first; and there are several works particularly adapted for travellers when they have acquired the rudiments of the language. Among these we recommend Madame Genlis' *Manuel du Voyageur*, consisting of conversational phrases, models of letters, &c. This book may be had in six languages, printed together, or in English, French, and Italian, of Mr. Leigh, 18, Strand.

If he is certain of his intended route to Paris, it may somewhat facilitate the attainment of his object, if he mentions this ; but except under circumstances of much suspicion, this is of little consequence. If he call at the office on the following day, between one and three, he will obtain the passport without expense, signed by the ambassador. He need not make a *personal* application on the first day, but on the second it is absolutely necessary, as he must sign his name to the passport in the presence of the secretary.

If the traveller should omit to obtain a passport till he reaches Dover, or Brighton, or Southampton, he may procure one from the French consul at any of those places, on the first application, but it will then cost him ten shillings.

It is perfectly unnecessary to apply for a passport at the Foreign Office, as was formerly the case ; the passport of the French ambassador being quite sufficient.

Should the traveller wish to go through Belgium, or Holland before he goes to Paris, he may procure a passport by addressing a letter to his excellency the ambassador of the Netherlands, No. 1, Bryanstone Square, signed by a respectable housekeeper to whom he may be known ; the passport will then be granted on the following day, free of expense. The office is open from eleven to three.

The traveller's passport will be demanded at every fortified town and examined by the officer on duty. If the traveller wish to stop for some days on his journey, the master of the hotel will put before him a ruled paper, with the following heads, which he must fill up, and sign his name at the bottom, viz. name, place of abode, profession, where going, age, &c. This paper is sent to the office of police.

On arriving at Paris, the passport must be presented at the office of police, where it will be exchanged for another.

We do not give the forms necessary for persons proceeding further than Paris ; since the book just mentioned may be consulted for that purpose.

Some information respecting the *Duties on Carriages, Horses, &c.* will be useful :—Every English carriage with four wheels, on being landed in France, pays a duty of 10 shillings in the 100*l.* value ; but it is not necessary to give in the *intrinsic value* ; they are generally entered at from 50*l.* to 150*l.* Besides this, the owner will be required to deposit one third of whatever value he may put upon it, unless it be too much under the real value, and in that case it would be seized. A memorandum of the deposit will be given him at the Custom House, and if the carriage leaves France within two years, about three-fourths of the money will be returned to him. But, at the close of the first year he must send a notice to the Custom House, where the deposit was made, that his carriage is still in France, or he will perhaps have some difficulty in obtaining his deposit. If the carriage remains

more than two years the whole sum is forfeited. If the traveller leaves France by a different route, he must get the memorandum signed at the last Custom House on the frontier, and then send it to the Custom House, where the deposit was made, and order the money to be remitted through his banker. He may, however, recover the deposit at any other port in France where he re-embarks the carriage.

A gig, or any other two-wheeled carriage, pays the same duties.

On leaving England, the duty on a horse is 2*l.* 2*s.* besides the 10*s.* in the 100*l.* according to its value. On arriving in France, the duty is 15 francs for a horse, and 5 francs for a pony.

Books, plate, linen, and household furniture, pay 10*s.* in the 100*l.* according to the value.

Each horse exported from France pays a duty of 15 francs.

New harness, carpets, and cutlery wares are prohibited in France.

Travelling by post is recommended in France, as the arrangements for posting are simple, and usually well attended to. The whole of it is completely in the hands of Government. There is no competition on the road, and they who arrive first are uniformly first accommodated.

A book is published, containing every route through France, &c., alphabetically arranged; the precise distance of every place; and the sum to be paid to the postmaster and postilion. All are mentioned in the book referred to, which the traveller may consult at any post-house, as the postmaster is compelled to keep a copy. The distances are calculated by posts, each of which consists of two leagues, and is equal to about four English miles and two-thirds.

The regular charge by authority is one franc and 50 cents. per post for each horse, and 15 sous to the postilion.

Mrs. Starke advises the English traveller to procure recommendations to men of respectability, instead of trusting to couriers and *valets-de-place*, who are in the habit of obtaining long-established perquisites, which they deem a right. Thus, if a *valet-de-place* hire you lodgings, he receives from the landlord a certain stipend during your stay, which sum is added to the rent; if he hire your carriage, he receives a certain sum from the job-man, &c.

A second-hand carriage, in good condition, is preferable to a new one, for travelling on the continent.

Every trunk ought to have a cradle: that is some flat pieces of oak, in length the same as the inside of the trunk, about two inches and a half wide, nearly half an inch thick, and cross-barred by, and quilted into, the kind of material used for saddle-girths, a distance of three inches being left between each piece of wood. This cradle should be strapped very tight upon the top of the

trunk (after it has been packed), by means of straps and buckles fastened to its bottom: and thus the contents can never be moved, by jolts, from the situation in which they were originally placed. Every trunk should have an outside cover of strong sail-cloth painted.

We conclude with a few more instructions from Mrs. Starke's valuable work.

Ten drops of essential oil of lavender, distributed about a bed, will drive away fleas; and five drops of sulphuric acid, put into a large decanter of bad water, will make the noxious particles deposit themselves at the bottom, and render the water wholesome; twenty drops of diluted vitriolic acid produces the same effect. After the vitriolic acid has been put into the water, it should stand two hours; and then three parts of the water should be poured into another decanter, and the rest thrown away.

Persons who get wetted through should take off their clothes as soon as possible, rub themselves with *Eau de Cologne*, and then put on dry warm linen.

Travellers should never fail, before they enter an inn upon the continent, to make a strict bargain with the landlord relative to their expenses; and bargains of every description should be made in the currency of the country, and without the intervention of an occasional servant. It is especially needful to observe this rule in treating with the proprietors and drivers of carriages.

The most profitable money travellers can take from London to Paris and Northern Italy, is Napoleons, as they pass current for their full value in both countries; neither does any loss accrue from carrying them into Southern Italy.

Steam-packets run daily, weather permitting, from their moorings off the Tower of London to Calais, in about twelve hours; and likewise from Calais to London in about the same time. Carriages, horses, and luggage, conveyed by steam-packets, are shipped and re-landed free of expense. The packets run, weather permitting, between the first week in April and the last in November.

Travellers charged with *sealed* letters should not expose them to the view of Custom House officers.

“ Travelling ” Medicines.

CHANGES of temperature, at certain seasons of the year, often produce that violent disorder of the bile *cholera morbus*, for which Dr. Kitchiner recommends two of the following pills:—

Take of powdered rhubarb two drams; syrup, one dram; oil of carraway, ten drops. Mix, and divide into forty pills.

But in the case of anything disagreeing with the stomach, dissolve a tea-spoonful of Epsom salts in half a pint of as warm water as you can drink, and repeat the dose every half hour till it operates.

In some persons, the change of food, &c. occasionally produces acidity of the stomach, a very distressing diarrhœa, &c.: the remedy for which is—

Compound powder of kino, one dram; compound powder of chalk, half an ounce. Mix, and divide into six powders, one of which may be taken once or twice a day, in a tea-spoonful of brandy and three table-spoonful of water.

These medicines which are very simple and mild in their operation, may be procured at any chemist's shop, for a trifling sum.

It will scarcely be expected that we should enumerate all the qualifications for a Valet, which, as we stated at the outset of his duties, may almost be termed accomplishments.

The Valet's personal attendance upon "his gentleman" will, perhaps, cause some few subjects to be confided to him, which, it need not be observed, he must hold sacred. This is one of his most important duties; and thus to enjoy the confidence of a superior, renders it at the same time one of the most gratifying. At the best, a violation of this faith, if upon matters of little import, will but gratify idle curiosity, and answer no good end. In this way, much of the scandal of high life is bandied about, at length finds its way into print, and forms by no means a very enviable feature in the literature of the present day.

A Valet is expected to possess a thorough knowledge of the forms appertaining to polite life, as precedence, introductions, &c. Heraldry will form one of his accomplishments; and though life and society are somewhat changed since Lord Chesterfield wrote, he will do well to read the *Letters* of that polished nobleman to *his Son*. Self-possession and ease of manners he will find to be great points of recommendation; and the devotion of leisure time to mental improvement will confer upon him a distinction, which, properly directed, cannot fail to raise him in the estimation of his superiors.

THE COACHMAN.

IN families, where only one Coachman is kept, his duties generally include a portion of the stable business, as well as the care of the carriage. Without separating these duties, by classing them under "the head Coachman" and the "second Coachman," we shall proceed to such instructions as relate to the care of the carriage, reserving the routine of the *Stable business* for "the Groom," although the latter concerns the Coachman almost as much as the Groom.

In no instance are sobriety and steady conduct, and their good consequences, more to be encouraged than in the character of the Coachman. Care in driving his horses so as to preserve his own family and not injure other passengers on horse or foot, that he may not involve his master in law-suits, and wound the feelings of those he is driving, is of the utmost consequence. It is his business to have the carriage kept in repair; to advise and assist in the purchase of horses, and in this delicate business protect the interest of his employer. Much depends on his zeal, as to the annual expenditure of a carriage, with reference to the coach-maker, the horse-dealer, and the farrier.

Sieur Sollysell, who wrote a book, called "the Complete Horseman," about one hundred years ago, says that "a Coachman should be skilful, nimble, hardy, and honest, should love horses, and have a desire to perform all his work well. When a master findeth a lad with these qualities, he should not easily part with him; for this merchandize, although clownish, is hard enough to be found."

The nature of the Coachman's employment may be said to subject him to frequent trials of temper. Experience will, however, be his best proof against the numerous vexations which occur to all who are concerned in the business of driving. At large parties in the metropolis, where many hundred carriages frequently assemble, accidents often occur from the pique and obstinacy of the drivers; although the superintendence of the vehicles is usually confided to a police officer, whose business it is to maintain order, and see that each coachman attends to the regulations of the night.

Perhaps nothing in London is better managed than the carriage regulations at the Italian Opera House and the Theatres; but in all these cases, unless the provisions made by the police for the purpose were fully observed by the Coachmen, nothing but damage to the carriages, and, probably, loss of life would be among the serious consequences.

We subjoin a few hints respecting what may be termed the

CARE OF THE CARRIAGE.

Cleaning.

FIRST wash the carriage part and wheels with a mop and a water brush. The back straps and straps of the springs are to be blackened, and, in short, all the parts that are of leather, are to be blackened in the same way as the harness; the brass or other ornaments being first cleaned. The wheels and bed of the carriage are next to be greased or oiled and the linchpins securely put in. The inside of the coach is then to be brushed, the glasses cleaned, and the lamps cleaned and trimmed.

Coach Boxes.

EVERY coachman should see that his coach-box is strongly and safely fixed on, and frequently examine the bolts, rivets, &c. Similar attention should be given to the rumble, especially before a journey. For want of this precaution, many serious accidents have happened.

Braces.

THE *braces*, or leathers by which the body of a carriage is hung or checked, should be occasionally shifted from their bearing, as that part on which the weight rests, is not moistened by grease, and the brace thus becomes dry and cracks. If changed a little about once a month, they will, however, last considerably longer.

Old Wheels.

WHEN new wheels are put on to old carriages, the old wheels are the perquisite of the coachman, if he has been in his master's service as long as the wheels have. In exchange for new ones, the usual allowance for old wheels is about two guineas per set.*

Stains on Carriages.

STAINS will often appear on the panels where the rain has run for any length of time; these may, however, be removed by rubbing the panels with sweet oil on soft baize, or with the palm of a dry, soft, hand. A soft skin will likewise increase the lustre of common varnished bodies.

For Coach Wheels, &c.

MIX one pound of hog's lard with half a pound of black lead;

* Dr. Kitchiner's "Traveller's Oracle," a very useful book for any young Coachman.

stirring them well together over a slow fire. If the ankles and bushes of the wheels be true, a carriage may safely be run one hundred or one hundred and fifty miles, with once using this composition. The celebrated *Anti Attrition* is little more than lard and black lead.

Getting the Carriage Ready.

DR. KITCHINER has, in his "Traveller's Oracle," laid down the duties of a Coachman with much precision. Among his instructions, the following merit especial attention:—

Five minutes before the carriage is "brought round," the windows should be opened, for nothing is so offensive as confined air.

In making calls, if not otherwise directed, the Coachman may conclude he is to drive towards home.

A Coachman is expected to get the carriage ready within twenty minutes notice; and always to have his harness and carriage clean and ready to put to; and to be at the door five minutes before the time he is ordered. Punctuality is a Coachman's first qualification.

Hackney Coaches.

BY an act of parliament made in the reign of George I., Drivers of hackney coaches are to give way to gentlemen's carriages, under a penalty of 10s.

Accidents and Repairs.

IN cases of accident by one carriage running against another, it is customary for the repairs to be done by the coachmaker of the party who is in fault.

Dunghills

HAVE been proved to be very injurious to the health of those persons who reside near them: but this effect may be prevented by sprinkling over them a small quantity of powdered lime.

HARNESS.

THE harness having been washed from the wet dirt, and clean sponged over-night, after the return of the carriage, and being now dry, is first brushed with a dry, hard brush, and the brass ornaments cleaned.

Ornaments.

TAKE half a pint of turpentine; a quarter of a pound of rotten stone; a quarter of a pound of charcoal, finely powdered, and half a pint of droppings of sweet oil. Mix them, and apply the paste with leather, and polish it off with powdered charcoal.

A strong mixture of oxalic acid and water is also much used for cleaning brass ornaments.

To give them a fine colour, beat sal ammoniac into a fine powder, and then moisten it with water, rubbing it on the ornaments,

which must be heated over charcoal, and rubbed dry with bran and whitening.

Or, wash the brass work with roche alum boiled in strong ley, in the proportion of an ounce to a pint; when dry, it must be rubbed with fine tripoli. Either of these processes will give to brass the brilliancy of gold.

Black Dye.

THE colour of harness that has become rusty or brown by wear, may be restored to a fine black after the dirt has been sponged and brushed off, by using the following mixture: viz.

Boil logwood chips in three quarts of soft water, to which add three ounces of nutgalls finely powdered, and one ounce of alum: simmer the whole together for half an hour, and it will be fit for use.

Blacking.

RECEIPTS for liquid blacking will be found under the Footman's instructions. The following is, however, much used for harness:

Melt two ounces of mutton suet with six ounces of bees' wax; then add one ounce of indigo finely powdered; six ounces of sugar candy dissolved in a little water, and two ounces of soft soap. Mix, and simmer over the fire, when add a gill of turpentine. Lay it on the harness with a sponge, and then polish it.

Neats-foot oil is used to make harness supple. The best is to be had at the curriers' or tripe-dealers'; that sold by the oilmen being seldom genuine, but a mixture of melted tallow with common oil.

To render Leather Water-proof.

WARM and mix well equal quantities of mutton suet and bees' wax; applying it, whilst hot, to the sole and seams of the boot or shoe. Or,

Take a quart of linseed oil, to which add one ounce of rosin, and three ounces of red lead, or litharge; boiling the mixture until it will stick to the finger when cooled. To this mixture, when cold, add, one-and-a-half pint or one quart, if necessary, of spirits of turpentine, stirring it up until of the consistence of sweet oil. Let it stand for a day: then pour off the clear liquid. add one ounce of lamp black and one ounce of Prussian blue, first well rubbed together in linseed oil. Give the boots or shoes repeated coatings till complete: or,

A pint of boiled neats-foot oil; half a pound of mutton suet; six ounces of bees' wax; and four ounces of rosin. Melt these over a slow fire; and both the upper leather and soles of the boots and shoes, when quite new and clean, should be warmed and rubbed with this composition till the leather is saturated.

We have not, in the course of this little work, recommended to the reader any article, patent or otherwise, unless our own experience has tested its value. We may therefore, with some

confidence, introduce to his notice "Hunt's Waterproof Composition." The patentee informs us, that for the above invention we are indebted to the scientific researches of Baron Charles Wetterstedz, the brother of one of the ministers of state to the court of Sweden, by whom it was employed to prevent the infection of the plague, by means of absorption through the pores of the soles of boots and shoes; but he accidentally discovered that it rendered them waterproof during a thaw in Sweden, when his boots, being prepared with this composition, resisted the snow-water, and remained perfectly dry, whilst the boots of other persons were saturated, and resembled tripe. Mr. Scott, an experienced engineer, has experimented upon leather prepared with Mr. Hunt's Composition, and found it "impervious to moisture at all degrees of pressure that leather will bear." The best tannage becomes saturated at from ten to fourteen pounds upon the inch, whilst that prepared with the Composition, was not penetrated at one hundred and eighty pounds upon the inch.

The custom of pouring spirits in the boots or shoes, when the feet have got wet, with a view to prevent the effects of cold, is a practice which (though very common) is founded in prejudice and misconception, and often proves fatal, by bringing on inflammation and consequent obstruction in the bowels. This practice is adopted upon the supposition, that because spirits, when swallowed, excite a universal warmth, and restore the circulation in the extremities, they must do the same when applied to the extremities themselves. But the reverse happens. Spirits, when evaporating, produce cold; and the lighter, or more spirituous the fluid, the more quickly it evaporates, and the greater is the cold produced. This may be proved by a very simple experiment. If one hand be wetted with spirit, and the other with water, and both are held up to dry in the air, the hand wetted with spirit will feel infinitely colder than the other. Whatever danger, therefore, arises from cold or damp feet, it is generally enhanced by the practice alluded to. If such a remedy is to be at all employed, it ought undoubtedly to be taken into the stomach.

Night-work.

NIGHT-WORK, as late hours with the carriage is commonly termed, is, at the best of time, rather prejudicial to the health than otherwise; but the evil is considerably increased by habitual drinking of spirits, which will lead to the worst consequences, or to the loss of health and character.

Rheumatism, which the witty Lord Chesterfield called the coachman and chairman's complaint, as distinguished from gout, or the gentleman's disease, is a frequent companion of those who are constantly exposed to sudden changes of heat and cold. A good box-coat, and the ordinary precautions against the season, will not suffice to keep off the rheumatism in some

weather; but the following receipts will much assist in that effect:—

The Chelsea Pensioner's Recipe for Gout and Rheumatism.

TAKE of honey 2 pounds, clarified by a slow fire down to 1 pound; flour of sulphur, 2 ounces; cream of tartar, 1 ounce; Jamaica ginger, powdered, $\frac{1}{2}$ an ounce; one nutmeg grated. For rheumatism, add of gum guaiacum, powdered, 1 dram. Mix the ingredients well together. The dose is two tea-spoonsful at bed time, and early in a morning, in a tumbler of hot water. But the dose must of course be regulated by the constitution of the patient. A low diet should be observed.

In addition to this receipt, is the following

Embrocation

To be applied to the afflicted limbs three times a day:—Mix together an ounce and a half of sal volatile, and half an ounce of laudanum. Steer's opodeldoc and Whitehead's essence of mustard, are more expensive, but less efficacious remedies.

Our instructions to the Coachman are brief, on account of our transferring the whole of the stable business, and the management of horses to "the Groom."

The care of a carriage is a more important branch of service than we have room to point out; there being so many little matters requisite to produce what is called "a fine turn out." The carriage, horses, and harness, should all be well cleaned, and in good condition, not forgetting the ornaments, mouldings, mountings, and plate-glass windows. The liveries of the Coachman and Footman should also be well brushed, and the hammer-cloth* free from dust and dirt. The points of etiquette or precedence in driving should be studiously observed; the ranks should never be broken, but the regulations made at large parties should be carefully attended to. A good Coachman will take a pride in these matters; and, to say the truth, a well-kept equipage is comparatively creditable to the master and servant.

Dr. Kitchiner has noted a few points of the Coachman's duty in the following attractive form:—

Fifteen things which (Mr. Jarvis says) a good Coachman won't do.

1. HE will not gratify a greedy innkeeper, hackneyman, hay farmer, coachmaker, saddler, or other tradesman, at the expense of his employer; but, in laying out his master's money, will be as careful as if it was his own.

* When coaches were first introduced, our frugal forefathers used to load the carriage with provisions for the family, when they came to London. The *hamper*, covered with a cloth, was a convenient repository, and a seat for the Coachman. This was afterwards converted into a box. Hammer-cloth is, therefore, probably a corruption of *hamper-cloth*.

2. *He will not* leave his master to the care of the waiter, and his horses to the hostler, and think only of himself; but take care and attend to both, and be particularly careful that his horses are well dressed, well fed, and well littered, and that their shoes, saddles, &c. are in proper condition to continue their journey.

3. *He will not*, in disagreeable weather, urge the hostler to say the roads are bad, in order to detain him till the weather is better, or to go round a particular way.

4. *He will not* recommend strong beer to his horses, or brandy to their heels, in order to gratify a thirsty palate, at the expense of his own head, and his master's pocket.

5. *He will not* contrive to have a horse's shoe loose, or drive in a stone to make him halt, in order to shorten or delay a day's journey; or advise his master to stop under pretence of the horses being faint and weak.

6. *He will not* recommend particular inns out of favour to the landlord or the hostler, or with a view of getting an extraordinary dram for such recommendation.

7. *He will not*, if he is employed to purchase hay or straw, &c. trot up and down the market till he has found *the cheapest*, and then charge it to his master as *the dearest*.

8. *He will not*, when leading his master's horse from one part of the country to another, suffer it to be hard ridden, either to oblige an old acquaintance, or to put half a crown into his own pocket.

9. *He will not*, when sent alone to any distance, go round or out of his way to see an old friend, and then, to fetch up the time, gallop his horse till he can scarce stand upon his legs.

10. *He will not*, when airing his horses, play tricks with them, gallop them against other horses for a pint and a pipe, or leap them over places that may stake them or spoil them.

11. *He will not*, to save his attendance in the stable, fill the rack to the top with hay, and the manger to the brim with oats, so as to occasion either being wasted; nor, to save his trouble, let the dirty litter stand under a horse the whole day.

12. *He will not*, when he is to carry his master's great coat in a strap behind him, wrap his own coat up in it, or leave his master's coat outwards to get wet, in case it should rain.

13. *He will not*, when he comes to an inn, after a hard day's journey, in cold and dirty weather, leave his horses to a stable boy, to splash them up to their bellies in water, in order to wash them; suffer them to drink their fill, and then gallop them full speed a mile to warm them, whilst he is indulging himself with purl and hot pot by the kitchen fire, although "Some grooms are quite as curious in providing good cheer for themselves as they are for their horses," says the *Sieur Sollysell*, in his *Complete Horseman*, fol. p. 110, 1717.

14. *He will not*, if his horse drops a shoe, gallop him as hard as he can to the next smith, to the danger of his feet, but will travel on gently.

15. *He will not*, if he wants to spend an hour at an ale-house, go out with an old girth or stirrup leather in his hands, under pretence of getting it mended.

Extraordinary Coachmen.

IN the records of the year 1829, we meet with the following memoranda of the deaths of three of the most remarkable Coachmen of their day, which, as occurring within the short space of six

months, and relating to persons of exemplary character, may not be uninteresting or unserviceable in this place.

The first death took place in January, in the alms houses, endowed for the relief of old servants, at Ludford, in Herefordshire; the name, John Griffin; age, eighty-seven. He had formerly been Coachman to Sir F. Charlton, and, in his latter days, his great boast was, that he had eclipsed all his rival charioteers belonging to the noblemen and gentlemen in the neighbourhood, by taking the family coach in *six days* to London, which no one else could accomplish under *seven*!

In February, died, at Brighton, Mr. W. Bradford, aged ninety-six. He started the first coach from Brighton to London.

In April, died Mr. W. Bromley, aged sixty-six. This respectable old servant of the public had driven the Rockingham coach for forty-seven years; the average yearly space traversed by him, as a driver, was 17,478 miles, and the whole length of his course 821,250 miles, equal to four times the circumference of the globe!

Savage Dogs

SHOULD invariably be kept tied up or confined, lest they should bite strangers coming to the coach-house, or stable-yard, on business; in which case an action at law would lie against the owner of the dog in question.

Instances of the serious consequences of persons neglecting to confine ferocious dogs occur almost weekly, and trials arising from such neglect are very common in our law courts. We could quote several; but the following, as being of very recent date, and serious result, will, we conclude, be exemplary enough:—

COURT OF COMMON PLEAS, *Wednesday, February 24, 1830.*
KEEPING FEROCIOUS DOGS.—*Sarch v. Blackburn.* This action was for the recovery of damages against the defendant for injury sustained by the plaintiff. In July last, he was passing the defendant's residence, in Whitechapel, in the day time, when a large dog ran out of his yard and bit him severely in the leg, so that he was obliged to go to the workhouse, where he was confined for a length of time from the effects of the accident, and had now only just recovered from the bite. The evidence adduced on the trial went to show that the defendant was guilty of great negligence in not having his dog better secured; and the jury found for the plaintiff—damages, seventy pounds.*

* Atlas Newspaper, Feb. 28, 1830

THE GROOM.

FOR reasons already stated, (*see page 217*) we shall endeavour to bring under this head all the information it will be in our power to include upon the management of horses, and the general good order of the stable. Before we enter into these practical matters, it may not be uninteresting to notice a few of the characteristics of that noble animal

THE HORSE.

BEAUTIFUL as is the horse, and associated so much with our pleasure and our profit, he has been the object of almost universal regard; and there are few persons who do not pretend to be somewhat competent judges of his form, qualities, and worth. From the nobleman to his numerous stud to the youngest helper in the stable, and not excluding even the mechanic, who scarcely crosses, or sits behind a horse once in a twelvemonth, there is scarcely a man who would not be offended if he were thought altogether ignorant of horseflesh. There is no subject on which he is so positive, there is no subject on which, generally, speaking, he is so deficient, and there are few horses, on some points of which these pretended and self-sufficient judges would not give a totally opposite opinion. Much time spent among horses, an acquired love of them, and a little sometimes possibly too dearly-bought experience, will soon give the young Groom some insight of those matters.

Perhaps the best enumeration of the varieties of the English horse is by Mr. Lawrence, a celebrated writer on sporting subjects.* His division is as follows:—

“The equine or horse genus in this country is derived and subderived into a number of species and varieties of quality and nomenclature.

For example: the *Racer* or *Running Horse*; the *Cocktail Racer*; the *Hunter*, *Hackney*, *Hack*, *Road Horse*, or *Chapman's*

* Treatise on Horses.

Horse; the *Cob*, the *Lady's*, or *Pad*; the *Coach* and *Chariot Horse*; *Gig Horse*; *Charger* or *Troop Horse*; the *Slow Draught* or *Cart* and *Dray Horse*.

A horse below thirteen hands high (four inches to a hand) is styled *Pony*; above that height and below fourteen, a *Galloway*.

The *Cob*, a denomination perhaps of twenty years' standing, refers to a truss, short-legged Nag, able to carry weights.

The *Pack Horse* has long since disappeared from among us, perhaps entirely by virtue of the great modern improvements in roads and carriages.

The *Cocktail*, a new term in the slang of the inferior turf, indicates a racer not thorough-bred.

The *Welter Horse*, a term of long standing, but of unknown derivation, points to either racer or hunter, master of the highest weight.

The designation thorough-bred* belongs to the racer of pure Arabian or barb Blood; and the term is likewise applicable to the horses of other nations of the south-east. A nag, in which the show of blood predominates, is styled *blood-like*, or a *blood-horse*.

The degrees of blood in an English horse are thus expressed: half-bred, three-parts, and seven eighths-bred; which last term, probably I supplied. The first or half-bred, the produce of a racer and a common mare, or, *vice-versa*, (the last cross not so frequent, nor deemed so successful,) the second of the racer and half-bred, and the third of the racer three-half-part-bred mare. This last may, and has raced capitally, as in the case of the Yorkshire black horse, Old Sampson, which, about fourscore years since, beat all England. Several other similar examples of successful seven-eighths-bred racers have occurred at different periods. Perhaps no instance has ever occurred of a three-part-bred horse saving his distance in running two miles with thorough-bred racers.

The conventional form of the horse as to the great essentials, may be held referable to every variety. For example—The head, should be lean *argutum caput*, neither long nor short, and set on

* Our thorough-bred horses are descended from pure Eastern blood, as is proved by the pedigree of Eclipse. The pedigree of Eclipse will likewise afford us another curious illustration of the uncertainty which attends thorough-bred horses. *Marisk* was sold at the sale of the Duke of Cumberland's stud for a mere trifle, and was suffered to run almost wild on the New Forest. He was afterwards purchased by the Earl of Abingdon, for one thousand guineas, and before his death fell considerably in value. *Squirt*, when the property of Sir Harry Harpur, was ordered to be shot, and while he was actually leading to the dog-kennel, he was spared at the intercession of one of Sir Harry's grooms; and neither *Bartlett's Childers*, nor *Snake*, was ever trained. On the side of the dam, *Spiletta* never started but once, and was beaten; and the *Godolphin Arabian* was purchased from a water-cart in Paris.—*Smith's Breeding for the Turf*.

with somewhat of a curve: the throppled loose and open; the neck not reversed (cockthropped,) but rather arched; the loins wide and substantial, more especially should the back be long; the tail not drooping, but nearly on a level with the spine; the hinder quarters well spread as a support to the loins, and as a security against the approach to each other of the pasterns in progression, whence results cutting them with the hoofs; the hinder legs should descend straight, laterally from the hocks, as a preventive to the defect styled *sicklehoughed*, or hammed; at the same time, the curve from the hock should be to the degree that the feet may be placed sufficiently forward to prop the loins, and that the horse may not be said to leave his legs behind him; the muscles of the thigh and fore arm should be solid and full, though some horses are heavy and overdone by nature in those parts. The horse of every description should not be leggy, and of the extreme; short legs are surely preferable. The cunior, or leg-bone, below the knee, should not be long, but of good substance; and the pasterns and feet of a size to accord with the size of the horse: the hoof dark, feet and frog tough, heel wide and open; the fore feet should stand perfectly level, the toe pointing forward in a right line, else the horse will knock, or "cut in the speed," however wide his chest: in plain terms, he will either strike and wound his pasterns or his legs immediately below his knees, or both; the feet standing even, the horse being equal to his work, will seldom, perhaps never, knock or cut, however near the hoof may approach; a full, clear azure eye.

A male horse has forty teeth, when he has completed his full number; the mare usually but thirty-six. They are divided into the cutting teeth or nippers, the *cuspidatæ* or tushes, and the molares or grinders. The age of a horse may be easily known by his teeth, under eight years of age, after which the usual marks wear out. A kind of third eye-lid is found in the horse, and called the *haw*, moistened with a pulpy substance or mucilage to take hold of the dust on the eye-ball and wipe it clean; so that the eye is hardly ever seen with any thing on it, though greatly exposed from its size and posture. Mares, in the language of jockeys, become aged at seven years, horses at eight years. They are both so called until twelve or fourteen years, after which there is a sinking in and about the loins that denotes old age.

Of the beauty, yet peculiarity of the form of Eclipse much has been said. The very great size, obliquity, and lowness of his shoulders were the objects of general remark—with the shortness of his fore-quarters, his ample and finely proportioned quarters, and the swelling muscles of his fore-arm and thigh. Of his speed, no correct estimate can be formed, for he never met with an opponent sufficiently fleet to put it to the test.

He was bred by the Duke of Cumberland, and sold at his death to Mr. Wildman, a sheep salesman, for seventy-five

guineas. Colonel O'Kelly purchased a share of him from Wildman. In the spring of the following year, when the reputation of this wonderful animal was at its height, O'Kelly wished to become sole owner of him, and bought the remaining share for one thousand pounds.

Eclipse was what is termed a thick-winded horse, and puffed and roared so as to be heard at a considerable distance. For this or some other cause, he was not brought on the turf until he was five years old.

O'Kelly, aware of his horse's powers, had backed him freely on his first race, in May 1769. This excited curiosity, or perhaps, roused suspicion, and some persons attempted to watch one of his trials. Mr. John Lawrence says, that "they were a little too late; but they found an old woman who gave them all the information they wanted. On inquiring whether she had seen a race, she replied, that she could not tell whether it was a race or not, but that she had just seen a horse with white legs running away at a monstrous rate, and another horse a great way behind, trying to run after him; but she was sure he never would catch the white-legged horse if he ran to the world's end."

The first heat was easily won, when O'Kelly, observing that he rider had been pulling at Eclipse during the whole of the race, offered a wager that he placed the horses in the next heat. This seemed a thing so highly improbable, that he immediately had bets to a large amount. Being called on to declare, he replied, "Eclipse first, and the rest no where!" The event justified his prediction: all others were distanced by Eclipse with the greatest ease; or, in the language of the turf, they had no place.

In the spring of the following year, he beat Mr. Wentworth's Bucephalus, who had never before been conquered. Two days afterwards, he distanced Mr. Strode's Pensioner, a very good horse; and, in the August of the same year, he won the great subscription at York. No horse daring to enter against him, he closed his short career of seventeen months, by walking over the Newmarket course for the king's plate, on October the 18th, 1770. He was never beaten, nor ever paid forfeit, and won for his owner more than twenty-five thousand pounds.

Eclipse produced the extraordinary number of three hundred and thirty-four winners, and these netted to their owners more than a hundred and sixty thousand pounds, exclusive of plates and cups. This fine animal died in 1789, at the age of twenty-five years.*

* *Childers*, the famous race-horse, moved eighty-two feet and a half in a second of time, or nearly *a mile a minute*: he ran round a course at Newmarket (about four miles) in six minutes and forty seconds. Others say, that he ran over another course (more than four miles) in seven minutes and a half. Racers usually run the four-mile Newmarket course

MANAGEMENT OF A HORSE.

FIRST, on entering the stable, give to each horse about a gallon of clean water in a clean bucket; then shake up the best litter, under the manger, sweep out each stall, and clean out the whole stable. Every Coachman and Groom feeds his own horses; † and, while feeding, he *dresses* them: thus each horse is first curried all over, with the currycomb, to loosen the dirt and dust on its skin; then brushed with a whalebone brush, to take the dust off; next, whisped with straw, to smooth and cleanse its coat; and again brushed with the brush and curry-comb, to take off what dust may remain; after which, the horse is whisped again with a damp lock of hay, and, finally, rubbed down with a woollen rubber, or a clean cloth. The horse is then turned round in the stall, and his head is next brushed well and whisped clean and smooth, with a damp lock of hay. His ears are then drawn through the hands, for several minutes, till made warm, and then the dust and filth are wiped from the insides of the ears with a damp sponge. The sponge after being washed clean, is then applied to the eyes, to cleanse them from dust, &c. The nostrils are also sponged, and the whole head is afterwards rubbed with a cloth, in the same manner as the body had previously been cleaned. The horse is then turned round into its proper situation, the head stall put on, and the dirt and filth are then washed away with a sponge from under the tail. The mane and tail are next cleaned and laid with a mane comb and water brush, used alternately with both hands; the head and body are again wiped over, and the body clothes are put on, and fastened with a surcingle.

The horse's heels should next be examined, the dirt picked out from the feet, and his heels washed with a water brush and plenty of water. If any horse has bad feet, they are then to be dressed and stuffed. Lastly, hay is shaken into the rack, and then the horse is considered as completely dressed.

Maxims on Horse Dealing. From a Book printed in the Year 1667.

“BY the Thrice Noble, High, and Puissant William Cavendish, Duke, Marquess, and Earl of Newcastle.

“Be not afraid of a horse who shews strength, spirit, and stomach; a horse having them cannot choose but be made a ready horse, if he be under the discipline of an understanding hand and knowing heels. When a horse doth not rebel, it shews weakness and faintness of spirit, and no courage. Where

in about seven minutes and three quarters, or eight minutes—or twenty-four feet at each stretch.

† Fourteen pounds of hay a day, or one hundred pounds per week, with three feeds of corn a day, is deemed sufficient for a horse that is not overworked.

nature is much wanting, it is hard for art to supply it. Trying is the only way to know horses. I told you that marks, colours, and elements, are nothing at all to know a horse by; they are but philosophical mountebanks that talk of such toys. Nay, shape is nothing to know the goodness of a horse by—the best philosophy is to try him; and you may be deceived then, if he be a young horse; colts alter extremely both in spirits and strength. What judgment can one give of a little boy, what kind of man he will prove? No more can one give a judgment of a colt, what kind of horse he will prove. Ride him, and try him; that is the best philosophy to know him by. A young horse of three years old is but a gristle. For any man that would have a horse of use in his ordinary occasions, or for journeys, or hunting, I would never buy a horse till the mark be out of his mouth, i. e. till he be seven years old; and if he be of sound wind, limb, and sight, he will then last you eight or nine years. A young horse will have as many diseases as a young child, and you will have to leave him with your host at some inn, and hire another horse for your occasion; and have your host's bill, and the farrier's, which will come to more than your horse is worth; and there's your young horse; but your hearty old horse shall never fail you."

A good Horse.

SHAKSPEARE thus enumerates the qualities of a good horse:—

- "Round hoofed, short-jointed, fetlock shag and long.
- "Broad breast, full eyes, small head, and nostrils wide.
- "High crest, short ears, straight legs, and passing strong.
- "Thin mane, thick tail, broad buttocks, and tender hide.

PURCHASING A HORSE.

THESE few practical directions to Purchasers of Horses will be found very useful and instructive, especially as they are by a sporting gentleman of considerable experience in such matters:

The Eyes.

EXAMINE the eyes when the horse to be purchased is at the stable-door, before he is brought out; the light coming upon them in that situation will enable you to discover any defect that may exist. Both eyes must be in an equal degree of light; and if they be not alike, one must be diseased. If both eyes be clear, and hazel round the pupil, and the pupil itself be blue, and free from any white specks termed *cataracts*—if it contract in the light, and enlarge when in the shade, you may conclude that the eyes are good. If the eye be blue round the pupil, or the pupil itself be at all affected with cataracts, and contract and enlarge as above, the eye is defective. Weeping, cloudy, dull-looking eyes, are unsound; and if the eye be at all diseased, do not purchase.

The Age

Is to be ascertained by examining the mouth. Yearlings and two-year olds are alike in mouth, and must be taken by general appearance. At three years old, the horse has four *horse teeth*, two above and two below, in front of the mouth, which supply the place of the sucking teeth. At four, he has eight horse teeth, four above and four below, having the corner teeth only sucking teeth. At five years old these are gone, and the *mouth is up*; that is, all the teeth are horse teeth, and the tusk is up on each side of the mouth. A dark mark, or hollow, is usually perceptible in all the teeth in the bottom jaw at just five years old; and the tusks are concave inwards. At six, the two middle teeth have quite lost this mark, and the tusk is higher up, and longer, and not so concave. At seven, the next two teeth have lost it, and the corner teeth only have the mark left in them. At eight it has grown out of these, and no mark is left at all. The tusks also become longer, and instead of being concave inwards, become convex; the horse is then *aged*. The mouths of horses vary materially: some have lost the mark in all, except the corner teeth, at five years old: others have the front teeth in the top jaw, projecting over the bottom teeth, at the same age; and sometimes horses at seven years old have the corner teeth, like those of a five-year-old. The appearance of the mouth in general will furnish some guide to the age, when the marks have disappeared. If the corner teeth do not appear long, and running to the front of the mouth; if they retain their square shape, and shut well together; if the tusks are not blunt, and have the least concavity in their inner surface, you may conclude that the horse is not very old. A concave tusk is the most certain sign of youth; and as mares have no tusk, they must be judged with reference to the corner teeth. The trickery of horse-dealing will, however, materially add to the difficulty of determining age by the teeth.

Every horse, upon attaining the full age of five (the earliest age at which he is fit to work), has the tusk completely up on each side of the mouth; but knavish dealers force the mouth by pulling out the sucking teeth, to make way for the horse teeth, and thus produce a five-year-old mouth, when the tusk will appear only just through the gums. In forced mouths the teeth are often irregular, and the growth of the tusk backward.

Both Jugular Veins

SHOULD be perfect, and the circulation through them be entirely free, as some horses, from ill-managed bleeding, and consequent inflammation, have what is termed *lost the vein*.

Position.

LET the horse, when brought out, be placed with his fore-legs up hill; then if his joints be at all *bent over*, or his legs shaken, you will best discover it. When the person showing the animal

places his fore-legs down hill, or continually pulls at the bit to make him shift his legs, you have reason to question the firmness of his joints.

Knees.

No marks should be visible in front of the knees. Marks are generally the consequence of his having been down; but, however occasioned, they are blemishes, and detract from the value of the horse. Next look inside the leg, just under the knee. If there be any scars, or the hair stick up, inside the leg, just under the knee, he cuts in his speed, or fast paces. Scars at the ancles, or the hair appear *brushed*, are also produced by cutting.

Legs.

THE legs should not be *tottering*, and incline forward, either at the knee or ankle; neither should the ankle joint be large in front. If the back sinews bow out behind, or feel thick, they have probably been injured. The legs should be flat, and not round, and should be *wiry* and hard. If one be larger than the other, it is an injured leg. A splent or bony excrescence on the shank is unimportant, unless it interfere with the suspensory ligament, or project so much as to be hit with the other leg going.

Feet.

“No foot no horse” is an old saying, and enjoins particular attention to the feet. One foot should not be less than the other neither should they be indented or hollow round the *crust*. The crust itself should not be brittle, and broken where the nails have been driven; nor should there exist in it any cracks or fissures. The heels should not be drawn together, and contracted; nor should the frog be small and ragged, nor discharge a fetid matter, which disease is called a *thrush*. The horn at the heels should be as high as the frog, for if lower, the heels will be liable to *corns*; and the sole should neither be flat nor convex.

Without going into an explanation of foot-lameness, it may be concluded that if the legs and feet be *smooth*—that is, free from the preceding defects, the fore-part of the horse may be relied on.

Hocks.

SEE that there be not any projection at the back of a joint called a *curb*; and that the inside of the joint down below is free from little knots, or bony excrescences, or *bone spavins*; tumour above is a *blood spavin*, and to be guarded against. These defects are best seen by looking down between the horse's fore-legs.

Enlargements on each side of the hock, which upon pressure fluctuate from the inside of the joint to the outside, are termed *thorough pins*, which are in fact *windgalls*, and often produce lameness.

Hoofs.

WHITE hoofs are very objectionable. Even in a wet soil and climate, they are more brittle, and more liable to accident and

lameness, than black ones, and, in the stony and more arid soils and climates, white hoofs do not stand nearly so well, and are much more liable to break and contract than those of a dark colour; and, in point of fact, horses having white legs and feet do not bring so much money as those of precisely the same description which have them not.

Hips.

BOTH hips should be of the same height.

Showing.

THE fairest method of showing is to run the horse down slowly on a rough, or stony descent, at the end of a halter, his head unsupported, and no whip near him. If he go boldly, with his knees bent, and his foot flat, and firm to the ground, without dropping his head, his soundness before may be calculated upon; and if, on running him up hill, he go with his hocks regularly together, and not dragging the toe, nor dropping from the hip, he is free from lameness. *Pottering* on the toe, and *feeling*, denotes that he is not sound.

The horse should be shown quietly, because, when he is agitated, a slight lameness may be overlooked; and always *see him ridden*, for many horses are pleasant to ride that are unpleasant to look at when ridden; and dealers cunningly put a purchaser upon their backs, when their riding is pleasanter in the feel than in the appearance.

Lameness.

ALL horses that are lame before, drop their heads when they throw their weight on to the sound leg; and those that are lame behind throw their heads up when the sound leg comes to the ground.

When a horse stands in the stable with a foot out under the manger, it is a certain sign that something exists uneasy to him, and unsoundness may be suspected.

Wind.

THERE are two kinds of diseases injurious to the wind: one is an affection of the windpipe, which creates *whistling* and *roaring*; the other, an affection of the lungs, which produces *broken wind*.

To detect *whistling*, go up to the animal in the stall, and taking fast hold of his head, flourish a stick about him suddenly, or strike him; if he groan, he is a *roarer*. But this method will not detect a mere *whistler*: the surest way, therefore, is to gallop the horse with a bridle tightly curbed, and at the same time agitate him as much as possible. If he make a wheezing noise, or blow with the same kind of sound as is produced by blowing upon a knife placed before one's mouth, he is not sound in his wind. Grasp the windpipe at the throat tightly, and then immediately let go the hold: the horse is sure to cough. If he cough *short and hacking*, the lungs are affected, and he is *broken winded*; but if the cough be long and shrill, the wind is good.

Be careful to leave hold of the windpipe the moment you have compressed it; for if you hold it long, the horse will cough shrill, even if he have perfect wind.

We could notice the injurious habits of horses; but for these we refer the reader to a little work entitled "Hints to Purchasers of Horses," or to any reputable work on the Horse.

MEDICINES, &c.

A SUFFICIENT knowledge of the veterinary art, for any Groom, may be obtained from one or two good books on the subject;* although we do not advise him to perplex himself with the disputes of veterinary surgeons; for among them, as elsewhere, "doctors differ." The present is not exactly a book for the above purpose; but our object would be incomplete, were we to omit a few receipts, and plain practical hints on some of the casualties to which horses are liable. Some Grooms and Coachmen have a perpetual fancy for physicking their horses, and thus frequently disturb the inside by over-doses of powerful medicine, when rest and comfort are more requisite. This applies to the too prevalent custom of physicking horses after a journey.

Wounds.

INJURIES on the joints or limbs, or superficial wounds, as they are called, from thorns, stubs, or other sharp bodies, sometimes are followed by a small discharge, which, if once stopped by a medicine of repelling or discutient quality, will generally produce great inflammation, with other bad symptoms, and much matter may be formed. In all such wounds, Mr. Hinds recommends emollient fomentations, with a poultice made of bread and milk, or oatmeal and strong beer grounds, kept on the part, as the most eligible methods of cure.

Wounds of the skin will generally be cured by the simple application of lint dipped in Friar's balsam.

All wounds, except gun-shot, should be washed out clean with warm water, and the parts bathed therewith, by the application of cloths; and, if a wound be deep, a syringe should be employed.

Saddle-galls.

WHEN swellings happen on the back or withers, from bruises of

* *White's Farriery* is too well known to be benefitted by our recommendation.

Mr. Lawrence has written some valuable works on the horse.

Mr. Osmer, veterinary surgeon, and many years shoeing smith in Blenheim Street, Bond Street, has written a "Treatise on the Horse, its Diseases, Lameness, and Improvement," which is now in its fifth edition, improved by Mr. J. Hinds, a skilful veterinary surgeon, who has also written a work called "The Groom's Oracle," and a larger work called "Veterinary Surgery."

the saddle, apply the following lotion twice a day, rubbing some of it on the swelling, and wetting some lint or tow therewith, to be bound on the part:—Take spirits of wine, four ounces; camphor, two drams; bole armenian, one dram; mix them well together.

Salts and Nitre.

EPSOM salts have gone into disuse in the veterinary practice, chiefly on account of the extremely large doses that are rendered necessary to procure purgation: viz. ten or twelve ounces. Mr. Hinds thinks this a cold and comfortless dose, for horses having any breeding in them, with tender insides, to say nothing of the quantity of the drench, or its nauseousness to the horse-palate. He recommends aloes as a much more eligible purge; and, if the salts are desirable, on account of operating on the kidneys, aloes, when combined with soap, is much more so, the potass of the soap operating upon the same viscus.

In the appendix to his valuable "Groom's Oracle," Mr. Hinds gives the following useful scale of proportions of doses of aloes, the Barbadoes kind being understood:—

For a delicate blood horse, four drams of aloes; the same, in strong exercise, five to six drams; robnut blood horse, five drams; the same, in strong exercise, six to seven drams; for the hunter, under the like circumstances, three-quarter bred, add one dram more; road horse, five to six drams; stage horse, on dry food, six to seven drams; wagon horse (having no green food,) eight to nine drams.

These proportions extend to every variety of bodily state, but the amount of all must be increased when the animal has been long inured to aloes.

The same gentleman recommends nitre in fevers, and relates a circumstance of a horse, mad with the staggers, breaking out of a stable belonging to a gunpowder-mill, and getting to a large cistern of water, in which so much nitre was dissolved that it was barely liquid. He drank several gallons, which operated powerfully as a diuretic, and he became immediately well without any other assistance. Some horses, as appears from this fact, are able to take any quantity of nitre, while others, from a difference of constitution, more especially when they eat grass, cannot take the smallest quantity without gripes or colic; therefore, begin with a small quantity (one ounce,) made into a ball with gum water, or syrup and meal, and, if the horse be not liable to colic, the dose may be increased according to the age and symptoms. Nitre is also good for the grease, or, as it is called, "melting the grease."

Nitre, sulphur, and antimony, finely powdered and mixed, if given in spring or autumn, improve the coat. A good method is to stir a table-spoonful of the above powder in with the corn.

But the Duke of Newcastle, in an old book, gives the following—

“ To make a Horse have a fine Coat.

“THERE are but these four things; viz. feeding well, clothing warmly, many sweats, and dressing well. For dressing, there are these things: the currycomb, which fetches out dust; the dusting cloth, that takes away the loose dust; the hard whisp, a little moistened, that takes out more dust yet from him; and the felt, little moistened, that takes out more dust from him afterwards; but the wet hand, which should be last, takes not only more dust, but a great deal of loose hair, which is much better than any of the former:—after this, a linen cloth to wipe them over, and then a woollen cloth, and so cloathe him up. But the best of all is the knife of heat, which is the scraper; for when he is hot, scraping of him gets all the sweat and moisture out of him, so that he is dry presently after, and all that wet would turn to dust, so there is so much labour saved. Besides, it gets abundance of hair from him, which the rest doth not; so that it is the most excellent thing I know, both to cool a horse, and to give him a good coat.”

Mild Physic Balls.

TAKE powdered Barbadoes aloes four drams; hard soap, two drams; oil of aniseed, twelve drops. Mix with syrup of buckthorn and liquorice powder, into one ball: give them oatmeal gruel before and after the ball.

Alterative Ball.

TAKE Barbadoes aloes, seven drams; Venice soap, four drams; twenty drops of oil of carraway. Mix as before, and divide into three balls, to be given on three successive days, unless the second operates. Give bran mashes, as often as the horse will take them.

Two stronger Balls.

TAKE from one ounce to one-and-a-half ounce of Barbadoes aloes; and two drams of jalap; then two drams of salt of tartar; and, to prevent griping, add one ounce of ginger powder: mix with soap and syrup into two balls. Mr. Hinds prefers mixing the jalap and aloes in a pipkin, in another vessel of water, over the fire, or to cast them, in which case he gives the ginger and salt of tartar in some warm ale. Balls should not be long kept made up, else they lose their active properties.

A Cordial Ball

Is serviceable after a long journey, and to restore the stomach. To make them, take three ounces each of aniseeds, carraway, and cummin seed; ginger, two ounces; oil of cloves, twenty drops; mix with syrup, and form into four balls.

Diuretic Balls.

TAKE one ounce powdered rosin, and the same of bruised juniper berries; three drams of hard soap; half an ounce of pre-

pared soda, mix and form into three balls with Barbadoes tar and liquorice powder; a little oil of juniper is sometimes added. One to be given daily.

For Worms.

TAKE one quart of new milk, and half a pound of honey; mix, and give this to the horse in the morning; let him fast after it an hour and a half, then give him a pint of salt and water, fasting after that, another hour. Repeat this treatment three or four successive mornings, which, with opened bowels, will kill all worms.—*Groom's Oracle*. Salt administered dry destroys worms. A case of a dog being cured of worms by a spoonful of salt, is reported in "The Farrier." In such cases, give it wrapped up in tissue paper. At Melton Constable, in Norfolk, the hounds of Sir Jacob Henry Ashley are retained in health by a table spoonful of salt given daily. The late Mr. Curwen, M.P. for Carlisle, gave six ounces of salt per day to his working horses, with the most beneficial results.

Opodeldoc.

TAKE of camphor, one ounce; hard soap, four ounces: oil of rosemary, half an ounce; spirits of wine, eight ounces. Cut the soap in shavings, and powder the camphor, by dropping spirit on it in a mortar; then put all into a bottle in a warm place, and shake occasionally. When the soap and camphor are dissolved, the opodeldoc is ready for use. This is an excellent application for strains, bruises, &c.

Inflammations of the Eyes.

IN common injuries of the eye, arising from a blow with a whip, from the collar getting into the eye, in ineffectual attempts of the horse to get loose, or any such cases, all that is necessary is to soothe the parts and mitigate the inflammation which follows by fomentation of warm water, or decoctions of any of the emollient herbs, Goulard's lotion, or any soothing or cooling remedy; by a continuation of which applications a speedy cure may be effected. It is necessary generally to examine the eye carefully, in order to ascertain whether or not the cause of the injury has been removed; for it sometimes happens, that a small particle, as a pile of chaff remains within the eyelids, which, by keeping up the irritation, produces much mischief to the eye. This must be removed.

In slight cases of injury to the eye, all that is required is to foment with hot water for the first day or two, and afterwards to bathe it with a weak solution of sugar of lead, or Goulard's extract of lead, one dram to eight ounces of water. In more serious injuries, the hot fomentations may be continued for a longer period; and, as some constitutional derangement, in such cases, commonly arises, it may be advisable to take away four or five quarts of blood, and give a mild dose of physic. When the

irritation of the eye has subsided, which often exists for several weeks, and there is an appearance of a slough still remaining on the eye, some gentle stimulant may be introduced, and not till then. To the lead wash, above recommended, half the quantity of sulphate of zinc may be added, and a few drops of the lotion introduced within the eyelids two or three times a day. Should this not succeed in exciting a sufficient degree of action in the absorbent vessels to remove the opacity, a little powdered alum or a small quantity of fine basket salt may be introduced twice a day; or, should this give too much irritation, a few drops of laudanum may be used twice or thrice a day: but all these applications require great caution.

The Film.

TAKE a little clean hog's lard on the end of your finger, rub it well into the animal's eye once a day, for three or four days, and the film will be removed effectively.

After a hard day's work

GIVE your horse about two gallons of gruel, made with a quart of oatmeal, half a gallon of ale, and about half a quartern of brandy, and the proper quantity of water. Wetted bran may be advantageously given to lean horses.

Travelling.

WHEN your horse comes in hot, loosen the girth, and let the saddle remain on for five minutes: never let him be hung by the bridle at the stable door, or his legs or feet be washed until he gets cold; but let him be walked about in the summer, and in the winter put immediately into the stable.

Horses prefer soft water; and it is best for them; if the water is very hard or brackish, place a little chalk in the pail some time previous to the horse's watering.

In travelling, after the principal feed, let your horse have not less than two hours rest, that his food may have time to digest.

Watering

GIVING horses cold water to drink when they are warm, sometimes produces serious consequences, as it checks the perspiration, and throws it back in upon the stomach, &c. The rough-belly proves how imprudently the horse has been permitted to drink while warm.

Cold washing the feet and legs at home, of horses just come off hard work, is nearly as dangerous, if they are not assiduously dry wiped.

The legs of hunters are bathed in warm water, and then rubbed and bandaged for the night.

The Horse-stinger.

THE larger dragon-flies are in England universally called *horse-stingers*, on the supposition that they have a propensity to sting

horses, and (it may be presumed) any other animal which may irritate them. But, *not one of the tribe is furnished with a sting.* They have, however, a pair of most formidable looking jaws, though even these are not strong enough to inflict injury upon any of the larger animals, and are only employed to crush a fly or to wing a moth or a butterfly.

To Clean Boot-tops

THERE are several methods ; but perhaps, none better than the following :

For *white* tops, dissolve one ounce of oxalic acid in a pint of soft water, and keep it in a bottle well corked ; dip a soft sponge into the mixture to clean the tops with, and if any spots refuse to disappear, rub them with a little fine Bath brick dust : sponge the tops afterwards with clean water. Take particular care always to have any mixtures or powders for boot-tops, labelled with the word POISON in large letters, as fatal accidents have arisen from oxalic acid being so like Epsom salts in appearance, as to be often taken for them in mistake.

For *brown* tops, take a pint of skimmed milk, half an ounce of spirits of salts, half an ounce of spirits of red lavender, one ounce of gum Arabic, and the juice of two lemons ; mix them well together, and keep them in a bottle closely corked ; rub the tops with a sponge, but use no brick-dust ; and when they are dry, polish them with a brush or piece of flannel.

Or, boil one quart of milk, to which add, when cold, one ounce of vitriol, one ounce of spirits of salts, and one ounce of spirits of red lavender. Stir them well together with half a pint of vinegar, and the white of an egg beat to a froth.

For receipts to make blacking, see instructions to the *Footman*.

Harness Preserver.

MR. HINDS, in the appendix in the *Groom's Oracle*, gives the following excellent receipt to make harness durable and pliable :

Take two quarts of neats-foot oil ; three pounds of Russian tallow ; five pounds of hog's lard ; six ounces of bees' wax ; simmer, and stir well, and when mixed, and the heat is nearly gone off, add one-and-a-half pint of spirits of turpentine, in which three ounces of India rubber has been dissolved.

New Horse Brush.

A PAMPHLET recently published in Paris recommends a new invention as a substitute for the twist of straw commonly used in dressing horses. The new brush is an imitation of the kaffah, or brush of the Arabs.

It is composed of a tissue of horse-hair, enfolding a pad of the same material, backed with thin iron plates, and covered with varnished leather. It is, moreover, furnished with a strap across

the width of the back as an ordinary brush. The web which covers the pad, which is equally flexible and strong, it is asserted, penetrates the hair, and to the hide of the animal better than any other instrument, and removes all dirt, dust, &c. however minute. The size is the same as that of the usual horse-brush; covers an equal portion of the surface at a time; clears out all the cavities in passing over them, and on this account accelerates the process of dressing.

MANAGEMENT OF THE STABLE.

IMPROPER stable management is a very frequent cause of contagion. The air which is necessary to respiration is changed and poisoned in its passage through the lungs, and a fresh supply is necessary for the support of life. That supply may be sufficient, barely to support life, but not to prevent the vitiated air from again and again passing to the lungs, and producing irritation and disease. The membrane of the nose, possessed of extreme sensibility for the purposes of smell, is easily irritated by this poison; and close and ill-ventilated stables oftenest witness the ravages of glanders. Professor Coleman relates a case, which proves the rapid and fatal agency of this cause:—"In the expedition to Quiberon, the horses had not been long on board the transports, before it became necessary to shut down the hatchways (we believe for a few hours only). The consequence of this was, that some of them were suffocated, and that all the rest were disembarked either glandered or farcied."

In a close stable, the air is not only poisoned by being repeatedly breathed, but there are other and more powerful sources of mischief. The dung and the urine are suffered to remain fermenting, and giving out injurious gases. In many dark and ill-managed stables, a portion of the dung may be swept away, but the urine lies for days at the bottom of the bed, the disgusting and putrifying nature of which is ill concealed by a little fresh straw, which a lazy horsekeeper scatters over the top.

The stables of the gentleman are generally kept hot enough, and far too hot, although in many of them a more rational mode of treatment is beginning to be adopted; but they are lofty and roomy, and the horses are not too much crowded together, and a most scrupulous regard is paid to cleanliness. Glanders seldom prevail there. The stables of the farmer are ill-managed and filthy enough, and the ordure and urine sometimes remain from week to week, until the horse lies on a perfect dunghill, while there is no declivity to drain away the moisture, nor any regular pavement to prevent it from soaking into the earth, nor any water to clean even the surface, but the only instrument of purification is an old stumped broom. Glanders seldom prevail there; for the same carelessness which permits the filth to accumulate, leaves many a cranny for the wind to enter, and sweep

away the deleterious fumes from this badly roofed and unceiled place.

The horse-dung, &c. contains an unusually large quantity of hartshorn; the litter is disposed most rapidly to ferment, and the gases extricated must be extremely prejudicial. The effect may, then, be easily imagined of the constant presence of those pungent fumes, and the irritation which they would cause.

Stable on Fire.

To bring a horse out of a stable on fire, throw the saddle or harness to which it has been accustomed over its back, blindfold it, and it will come out as tractably as usual. Mr. Hinds relates that he once saw a stable on fire, where none could look in at the door for smoke, though all were eager to withdraw the horses; when a fireman went down upon his knees, crept to a stall, and having fastened his jacket over the eyes of one of them, led him forth safe; whilst two others that remained immovably fixed to the spot were dreadfully burnt.

Glanders.

SUPPOSING that glanders have made their appearance in the stable, is there any danger after the infected horse has been removed or destroyed?—Certainly there is, but not to the extent that is commonly supposed. There is no necessity for pulling down the racks and mangers, or even the stable itself, as some have done. The poison resides not in the breath of the animal, but in the nasal discharge, and that can only reach certain parts of the stable; and if the mangers, and racks, and bales, and partitions, are first well scraped, and next scoured with soap and water, and then thoroughly washed with a solution of the chloride of lime (one pint of the chloride to a pailful of water), and the walls are lime-washed, and the head-gear burned, and the clothing baked and washed, and the pails new painted, and the iron-work exposed to a red heat, all danger will cease.

The tricks which some dealers resort to at fairs and markets, in order to conceal the existence of glanders, are most infamous, and should be visited with the severest penalty of the law. Having given the horse a brushing gallop, that he may thoroughly clear the nose, some of them blow powdered alum up the nostrils a little while before he is shewn; others use white vitriol; and although the horse may be sadly tortured, about which they care nothing, the discharge is for some hours stayed. Others roll up a pledget of tow, and introduce it into the nostril, sufficiently high to escape common observation. Both these tricks may be discovered by the uneasiness of the animal, and his repeated efforts to sneeze, as well as by his general appearance; and if the disease be far advanced, most assuredly by the red or raw appearance of the nose, and by the foul breath.*

* Farmer's Library—The Horse.

Infection.

IN common cases of infection, a stable may be cleansed or fumigated by placing a garden-pan, with salt in it, and pouring on the same oil of vitriol. The windows should be closed, and the person having poured out the vitriol, should quit the stable and shut the door, and the whole should remain closed for some time. All metal, as stirrups, harness, mountings, &c., should previously be removed from the stable.

Tests of Gunpowder.

GUNPOWDER, to be good, should be quick, strong, free from impurity, and not liable to attract moisture from the atmosphere. The general method of trying the purity of gunpowder, is by burning it on clean white paper: two or three small heaps are made near each other, and one of them is fired; if the smoke rises perpendicularly, and there be no feculent matter left on the paper, nor the other heaps fired, it is considered as evidence that the ingredients have been of a good quality, and well compounded. If, however, the other heaps are fired, the paper burnt, or a dirty residuum left, it may be supposed that the nitre was impure, that the charcoal was not completely pulverized, or the whole of them were not well incorporated.

To keep Guns, &c. from Rust.

MELT one pound of lard with half an ounce of camphor; then mix with it as much black lead as will make it of the colour of iron. If the fire-arms, &c. be rubbed with this mixture, left with it on twenty-four hours, and then dried with a linen cloth, they will keep clean many months.

Distemper in Dogs.

IT is an ascertained fact, that the inoculating of dogs with the cow-pox virus, is a preventive against that destructive canine malady, called the distemper. The inoculation has commonly been made about the root of the ear.

Salve for Wounds in Woolly Animals.

AN ounce of hog's lard, and four drams of powdered charcoal, well mixed as a pomatum, used for the wounds of wool-bearing animals, will produce a quick healing: it is also said to be efficacious in sores of a gangrenous nature.

To destroy Vermin on Cattle, and to cure the Mange.

PUT into an earthen vessel four ounces of flour of sulphur, and a pound weight of nut-oil; place the vessel upon a moderate fire, and stir the mixture with a piece of wood, until part of the flour of sulphur is dissolved, and the oil has acquired a reddish-brown colour; then remove it from off the fire, and, before it is entirely cold, add four ounces of oil of turpentine; then stir it again until

it is incorporated. When used, it is merely put upon the parts infected with a feather.

HORSE-RACING—NEWMARKET.

THE following table of the abbreviations used in designating the different courses at Newmarket, and the length of these courses, may not be unacceptable.

	<i>Abbrev.</i>	<i>Miles.</i>	<i>Furl.</i>	<i>Yds.</i>
The Beacon course - - - -	B.C.	4	1	138
Last three miles of ditto - -	L.T.M.	3	0	45
From the Ditch in - - - -	D.I.	2	0	97
From the turn of the lands in -	T.L.I.	0	5	184
Clermont course - - - -	C.C.	1	5	217
Across the Flat - - - -	A.F.	1	1	44
Two-year old course - - - -	T.Y.C.	0	5	136
Yearling course - - - -	Y.C.	0	2	147
Round course - - - -	R.C.	3	6	93
Ditch mile - - - -	D.M.	0	7	148
Abingdon mile - - - -	A.M.	0	7	211
Rowley mile - - - -	R.M.	1	0	1
Two middle miles of B.C. -	T.M.M.	1	7	115

A Distance is the length of two hundred and forty yards from the winning-post. In the gallery of the winning-post, and in a little gallery at the distance-post, are placed two men holding crimson flags. As soon as the first horse has passed the winning post, the man drops his flag; the other at the distance-post drops his at the same moment, and the horse which has not then passed that post is said to be distanced, and cannot start again for the same plate or prize.

A Feather-weight is the lightest weight that can be put on the back of a horse.

A Give and Take Plate is where horses carry weight according to their height. Fourteen hands are taken as the standard height, and the horse must carry nine stone, (the horseman's stone is fourteen pounds.) Seven pounds are taken from the weight for every inch below fourteen hands, and seven pounds added for every inch above fourteen hands. A few pounds additional weight is so serious an evil, that, it is said, seven pounds in a mile-race are equivalent to a distance.

A Post Match is for horses of a certain age, and the parties possess the privilege of bringing any horse of that age to the post.

A Produce Match is that between the produce of certain mares in foal at the time of the match, and to be decided when they arrive at a certain age specified.

THE FOOTMAN.

THE duties of the Footman include almost every description of household employment. It may, therefore, be presumed that each division of the present work will furnish him with some useful hints adapted to his particular business, and thus enable us to confine the pages immediately following to a few observations on his general services, and such various methods of CLEANING as especially belong to his department.

Perhaps it may be as well to make the above observations still clearer. Thus, from the instructions to the Housekeeper, the Footman may acquaint himself with the best methods of marketing, some portion of which business may be occasionally entrusted to him. He may be required to assist the Housekeeper in pickling and wine-making; in iceing cream, and mixing salads. Cookery affords him less opportunity for practice; but a few of the hints to the Lady's Maid, as the management of wardrobes, will be useful, if no Butler or Valet is kept in the family, and he has to attend upon the dressing-room. Several of the Housemaid's receipts, being chiefly methods of cleaning, will be particularly applicable. The Butler's receipts, however, are still more important to the Footman, inasmuch as he may look forward to becoming a Butler himself, as soon as experience may qualify him for the situation. On this account, he may read with advantage all the valuable information respecting the management of foreign wines, and the general business of the wine and beer cellars; as well as the hints for the management of the table, and the cleaning of plate. To the two last-mentioned branches, it is, indeed, necessary that he should be referred, as he may be called upon to assist the Butler, or officiate in his absence. The same observations will apply to the hints to the Valet; and, where neither Butler, Valet, nor under-butler is kept, it is expedient that the Footman should be acquainted with the subjects already described under these respective heads.

Personal attendance being one of the principal duties of the Footman, he is expected to appear always neat in his dress,

since this point will not only be creditable to himself but likewise to his master. His duties are of a very multifarious description, as our observations have already shown; and the only mode of fulfilling all of them is by regular division of time, and contriving to finish all *cleaning*, &c. in the early part of the day, so that they interfere not with his attendance on the family. For this purpose, he will find all the subsequent receipts very useful.

CLEANING.

UNDER this head are included many of the Footman's duties. We give a few receipts, but to avoid repetition, we refer him to previous divisions of this work, as pages 129 to 133.

For *Cleaning Plate*, see Butler, page 192.

To clean China or Glass.

THE best material is fuller's earth, beaten into a fine powder, and carefully cleared from all rough or hard particles.

Marble.

SPIRITS of salts, either pure or diluted, will be found efficacious: if used too strong, it will, however, take the polish off the marble; but this may be restored by a piece of felt, with powder of putty and water.

To clean Gloves without wetting.

LAY the gloves upon a clean board, make a mixture of dried fulling-earth and powdered alum, and pass them over on each side with a common stiff brush: then sweep it off, and sprinkle them well with dry bran and whitening, and dust them well; this, if they be not exceedingly greasy, will render them quite clean; but if they are much soiled, take out the grease with crumbs of toasted bread, and powder of burnt bone: then pass them over with a woollen cloth dipped in fulling earth or alum powder: and in this manner they can be cleaned without wetting, which frequently shrinks and spoils them.

To dye Gloves.

LEATHER gloves may be dyed to resemble York tan, Limerick, &c. by the following method:—Steep saffron in boiling soft water for about twelve hours: sow up the tops of the gloves, to prevent staining the insides, and then wet them with a sponge or soft brush dipped in the above liquid. The quantity of saffron must be varied according to the colour required.

If you wish to have your gloves quite yellow, take yellow ochre; if between the two, mix a little pipe-clay and ochre; if white, pipe-clay only; if dark, rotten stone and fuller's earth. Mix the colour you fix on with beer or vinegar, not water.

To take Grease Spots From Leather Breeches.

To two table-spoonsful of spirit of turpentine, put half an ounce

of mealy potatoes, add some of the best Durham mustard, with a little vinegar; let them dry, and when well rubbed, the spots will be entirely removed.

To take Stains out of Scarlet Cloth.

TAKE soap wort, bruise it, strain out the juice, and add to it a small quantity of black soap; wash the stains a few times with this liquor, suffering it to dry between whites, and in a day or two they will disappear.

White Coats

MAY be cleaned very easily: to clean them *dry*, mix together pounded pipe-clay and whitening, and tie them up in a piece of white cloth. Then put some bran on the coat, rub it well with the cloth which has the pipe-clay in it, having previously laid the coat on a table or board. When the coat is very dirty, it will require to be cleaned wet, for which purpose take some pipe-clay and whitening, a little fuller's earth, pounded together, and a little stone blue; mix them with some beer and vinegar, dip a brush into the mixture, and brush it well into the cloth the way of the nap, when it will soon look smooth and dry.

In cleaning livery box-coats of drab or white, it will be important not to touch the collars, cuffs, or linings, if they be red or other colour, as this mixture will soon change it. Grease may be removed from the collars, &c. by a hot iron, but scarlet will generally show the least soil. When the coat is quite dry, it should be rubbed to get out the whitening, and then beat on a horse to get out the dust. The coat should then be well brushed to restore the nap to its former state.

If the coat requires more than the above cleaning, the best way is to send it to a scourer's, where it will be renovated.

Useful Knife-board.

COVER a smooth board, free from knots, with thick buff leather, on which spread, about the thickness of a shilling, the following paste:—Emery, one part; crocus, three parts; mixed with lard or sweet oil. This composition not only gives a superior polish to knives, but improves their edges, which is not the case when brick-dust is used on a board.

A small oyster barrel filled with fine gravel, brick-dust, or sand, mixed with hay or moss, kept damp and well pressed down, should be kept for forks, the stains on which may be removed by running the prongs a few times into the above composition.

A patent machine for cleaning knives is sold in Pall Mall, and from its utility and ingenuity, appears to warrant our thus slightly noticing it; although we do not go so far as to recommend it for universal adoption. In very large families, such a machine might be in every respect desirable.

Cleaning Paper-work.

Papier-maché,* of which tea and snuffer trays are manufactured, requires careful cleaning. They are, in fact, nothing more than highly-varnished paper pulp, and, consequently, boiling water will make the varnish crack and peel off, and so brittle are they, that to let them fall would chip, or otherwise injure, or even break them. Soap and water, moderately warm, is best to remove grease spots, &c. and they may be polished with a little sweet oil and woollen cloth.

Looking-glasses, Windows, &c.

MOISTEN the glasses with a sponge slightly dipped in spirits of wine, and dust over the surface powder-blue, or fine whitening tied up in muslin; clean off with a soft cloth, and finish with an old silk handkerchief.

Rotten-stone mixed with water, is best calculated to give a fine polish to windows, but it should be quite free from grit or impurities.

Raw cotton will remove fly-soil from gilt or highly-varnished picture frames; they require cleaning with great care.

Water-bottles, Glasses, &c.

IT is a mistaken notion to imagine, that stout glasses, &c. will resist breaking by boiling water being poured in them. The thickness of glasses often leads to the venture, yet the truth is that thick glasses break thus much sooner than thinner glasses, because their substance prevents the heat quickly passing through them. For this reason, all glass vessels intended for strong heats and sudden changes, as flasks in distilleries, &c. are made very thin. This hint may be of service in choosing lamp-glasses, the thickest of which almost invariably crack by sudden heat.

Decanting cold wine into a vessel taken warm from before the fire, will often crack the decanter, just as would pouring hot water into a cold vessel.

CLEANING FURNITURE.

OIL, paste, and varnish, are used for this purpose. Almost every oilman has some composition which he recommends; but a great saving will be effected by mixing an article for yourself, which may easily be done.

* *Papier-maché* is made of cuttings of white or brown paper, boiled in water, and beaten in a mortar till they are reduced to a kind of paste, and then boiled with a solution of gum arabic, or of size, to give consistency to the paste, which is afterwards formed into different shapes by pressing it into oiled moulds. When dry, it is coated with a mixture of size and lamp-black, and afterwards varnished.

In Paris, a very economical mode of procuring the materials for *papier-maché* is now adopted:—the walls being diligently stripped of the posting-bills, which thus afford both paper and paste for the moulding of snuff-boxes, &c.

Oil.

WE heard, about ten years since, of a nobleman purchasing the following receipt for ten guineas :—

Take of cold-drawn linseed oil, one pint, into which put one ounce of powdered rose-pink; stir it well together, and add one ounce of alkanet root, beat in a mortar. Let the whole stand in a warm place for a few days, when the oil will be deeply coloured, and, the substances having settled, the oil may be poured off for use.

This is an excellent method of darkening new mahogany.

Paste

Is preferable, when you wish to keep the wood of a light colour. This may be made by scraping a quarter of a pound of bees' wax into half a pint of turpentine, and mixing with the same about a quarter of a pint of linseed oil. Bees' wax scraped, and set in a warm place, with turpentine enough to make it into a paste, will keep the wood still lighter.

German Polish.

WE have seen two or three receipts, but the following is the genuine method. The wood is prepared with pumice-stone rubbed flat, oiled, and then rubbed together till smooth. The only varnish then used is a solution of seed lac or shell lac in spirits of wine, the clearest grains of lac being for the lightest varnish. It is coloured red with Brazil wood, and yellow by turmeric root. It is applied with a rubber of five pieces of linen; the varnish is then put on with sponge, and, having soaked through the linen layers, a little linseed oil is added in the midst of the varnish, and the whole extent of the surface of the article to be polished, must be gone over at once with this rubber.

Before either of the preceding compositions is applied, the furniture should be cleaned with hot beer, and all ink or other stains removed. The ink will disappear on being touched with spirits of salts.

Varnishing.

WHEN wood, or other porous material, is to be varnished, it ought to be coated with some substance which will cause it to bear out; the pores may thus be completely filled, and much time and varnish saved. For mahogany, and some other woods, boiled linseed oil may be used, particularly if it is desirable to heighten the colour. Thin size, made from common glue, and that from isinglass, glare of eggs, gum-water, or gum tragacanth, are occasionally employed, the object in view being to prevent the absorption of the varnish by a coating of some substance not soluble in spirit. When linseed oil is used, it ought to be rubbed on sparingly, then wiped carefully off, and a day or two should be allowed for it to harden, before the varnish is put on.

Varnish for Furniture.

MELT one part of virgin's white wax, with eight parts of petro-

leum; lay a slight coat of this mixture on the wood with a fine brush while warm, the oil will then evaporate, and leave a thin coat of wax, which should afterwards be polished with a coarse woollen cloth.

To polish Brass Ornaments inlaid in Wood.

TAKE some tripoli, powdered very fine, and mix it with linseed oil. Dip in this a rubber of hat, with which polish the work until the desired effect is obtained.

If the work is ebony, or dark rose-wood, take some elder ashes powdered very fine, and apply it dry after you have done with the tripoli, and it will produce a superior polish.

The French mode of ornamenting with brass differs widely from ours; theirs being chiefly water-gilt (or-moulu), excepting the flutes of columns, &c. which are polished very highly with rotten-stone, and finished with fine elder ashes.

Brass Plates.

THE best method of cleaning brass plates on doors, &c. is to cut the size of the plate out of a large piece of paste-board, or mill-board, as the stationers call it, and place it against the door, so as not to rub off the paint in cleaning the edges of the plate. Rotten-stone, or crocus and sweet oil, are best adapted for the brass-work, but care should be taken not to leave any remaining in the letters, &c. than which nothing can look more slovenly.

LAMPS.

LAMPS are perhaps more used in private houses, at present, than at any former period. The sort most in use are the sinumbra, or shadowless. These are generally brass bronzed, and care should be taken not to spill the oil over them, as that causes the bronze to rub off sooner than it would by wear.

The finest sperm oil is burnt in these lamps. The best way to clean the inside of the ground glass shades, which sometimes become oiled, is with a little luke-warm soap and water; rub them very gently, and dry them with a soft cloth, or old silk handkerchief.

Lacked lamps should not be touched with any strong acid, as that will soon cause the lacker to come off. Crocus or rotten-stone is best for brass.

When lamps are foul inside, they should be cleaned with hot water and potash, well rinsed, and afterwards set by the fire to dry.

A very simple but effective precaution is employed in Paris, to prevent the breaking of lamp-glasses by the sudden application of heat. Before they are used, a glazier cuts or scratches the base of the glass with a diamond, and afterwards sudden heat may be applied without danger.

To make the oil in lamps last longer, and to remove the thick

smoke which is so disagreeable and hurtful to the lungs, dissolve in a glass of water as much salt as you can, and steep in it the wick, which must afterwards be dried. Pour into this water an equal quantity of oil, and then put them into a bottle and shake them, in order to mix them together; trim your lamp with this mixture, and the prepared wick.

Spirit Lamps are used for coffee-urns, venison dishes, &c. but unless the spirit of wine is good, it will not burn well.—The most common way of testing the strength of the spirit is to put a small quantity of gunpowder into a cup, and to pour a small portion of the spirit upon it, so as to moisten it; the spirit is then inflamed, and if, when burnt out, it fires the powder, the spirit is accounted good: this, however, is a very imperfect test, as a weak spirit may fire the powder, if but a small portion is dropped on it, the quantity of water which it contains not being sufficient to wet the powder throughout, whilst a stronger spirit, if applied in larger quantity, may leave a sufficient portion of water to prevent the combustion. The readiest method of determining the strength of spirit is to fill a large phial with it, and then to drop into it a small lump of potash, which has been heated very hot over the fire, to expel its moisture, and which has not afterwards been suffered to become cold; the phial is then to be well shaken, and if the lump remains dry, or nearly so, the alcohol is good; but, if any considerable portion of it is dissolved, it is unfit for use.

To make Blacking.

IVORY black two ounces; one tea-spoonful of oil of vitriol; one table-spoonful of sweet oil; and two ounces of brown sugar; mixed with half a pint of vinegar: or,

Ivory black and sugar candy, of each two ounces; sweet oil a table-spoonful; to be stirred gradually with a pint of vinegar cold.

American Receipt.

TAKE of plaster of Paris ground and sifted, two pounds four ounces; lamp black about nine ounces; barley malt, as used by brewers, eighteen ounces; olive oil one ounce. Steep the malt for some time in water almost boiling hot. Put the solution into a basin, stir into it the plaster and lamp black, and evaporate to the consistency of paste; then add the oil, the quantity of which may be increased by degrees. If ground plaster of Paris cannot be procured, its place may be supplied with potter's clay. This is undoubtedly the cheapest and finest blacking; it spreads evenly, dries and shines quickly on the leather by a slight friction of the brush, and has not the objection of burning the leather.

Italian Blacking.

TAKE one pound of ivory black; lamp black, half an ounce; olive oil, one ounce and a half; gum Arabic, half an ounce; green copperas, three-quarters of an ounce; and common vine-

gar, two quarts. Dissolve the gum in half an ounce of water, and mix the other articles with it in an open vessel, and when well blended, add gradually (briskly stirring the mixture) half an ounce of oil of vitriol: the composition, after standing two days, during which it should be stirred up a few times, will be fit for use.

Italian Blacking Paste.

TAKE ivory black, very finely ground, four ounces; treacle, four ounces; vinegar, three quarters of a pint; spermaceti oil, two drams; these will cost about $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ and will make a pint.

For *Boot Top Liquid* see page 239.

Street Nuisances.

ALMOST every winter the newspapers abound with accounts of gentlemen being fined, by the Police Magistrates, for the improper state of the pavement before their residences. To clear away this nuisance, or to see that it is removed, is generally the duty of the Footman, who may therefore profit by the following information:

According to the *Metropolis Street Act*, "the Commissioners of the Parochial Paving Boards are empowered to order the removal of any matter or thing which they consider a nuisance, on the complaint of any inhabitant." The non-removal of dirt, ice, or snow from the pavement before houses has often subjected the proprietor to a fine. A good servant will therefore remove such nuisances without waiting for his master's special orders.*

The terms of the *Metropolis Act* are as follow:—"Every occupier of any house, warehouse, &c., during the continuance of frost, or after or during the fall of snow, shall once in every day, before ten of the clock in the forenoon, cause the footway, all along the front, side, or back wall of such house, &c., to be swept and cleansed;" for each neglect of doing so to forfeit 10s.

To remove the smell of Paint.

THE unpleasant smell of new paint is best removed by time and atmospheric ventilation; but tubs of water placed in the apartment will act more rapidly—with this inconvenience, however, that the gloss of the paint will be destroyed.

Advantages of Early Rising.

THE difference of rising every morning at six and at eight, in the course of forty years, supposing a man to go to bed at the same time he otherwise would, amounts to twenty-nine thousand hours, or three years one hundred and twenty days; so that it is the same as if ten years of life (a weighty consideration) were added, in which we could command eight hours every day, for the cultivation of our minds, or the dispatch of business.

"Rise, light thy candle, see thy task begun,
Ere redd'ning streaks proclaim the distant sun."

* Common salt sprinkled on snow and ice will cause it to thaw quickly.

THE DINNER TABLE.

IN first-rate establishments, the cloth is laid by the Footman, as are the knives, forks, and glasses; but the Butler attends to the Plate, and sees that the several articles are rightly placed on the table.

The dinner-bell is first rung about a quarter of an hour before the dinner is placed on the table; and the second ringing of the bell announces that the dinner is "going up."

The order of taking up is, the first dish by the Butler, and the remainder of the fish and soups by the Under Butler and Footman. The several dishes, &c. are placed on table by the Butler, who removes the covers, which are next conveyed out of the room by the Under Butler and Footman.

Upon such occasions, the respective stations of the servants are observed with much attention: the Butler at the side-table, to serve the wines or beer, when called for; the Footman at the back of his master's chair; and the Lady's Footman behind his lady.

The Cook is apprized of the serving of the soups and fish by the Butler ringing the dining-room bell; the removes or first course are then got ready; the soup and fish are conveyed out of the room by the Footman, who likewise brings up the next course, which is placed upon the table with the same precision as were the soups and fish; the several dishes being placed on, and removed *from off the table*, by the Butler, and taken from him by the Footmen.

The Butler also sets on table the dessert and wines; but the finger-glasses, wine-glasses, and coolers, dessert-plates, forks, and spoons, are set on table by the Footman. The other plate of the dessert is set on by the Butler, who then takes his place behind his master's chair, and the Lady's Footman behind his lady's chair, both to hand the wines, &c.

Coffee is usually carried up to the dining-room by the Footman; but tea and coffee are served *in the drawing-room* by the Butler, and the toast, muffins, &c. by the Footman.

The lighting of the rooms is generally attended to by the Butler, the lights or lamps having previously been prepared by the Footman.

Among the other regular in-door duties of the Footman are taking up the supper-tray, and the night-candlesticks; and shutting up the dining-room and drawing-room floors of the house at the customary hour.

THE CARRIAGE.

ATTENDING the carriage is a duty that enjoins neatness of appearance, quickness, and some portion of good address; for, unless these points are attended to, no equipage will appear to advantage. Probably, this neatness of person is no where

better observed than in England, which must be attributed to the superior comforts which all servants enjoy in this country. St. James's-street on a drawing-room day contrasted with the King's Courtyard at Paris, will best prove the truth of this observation. In France the liveries are often more showy, but the wearers have not the cleanliness of English servants; and to say the truth, every part of the equipage or "turn out," as it is familiarly called, is worse managed than on this side of the channel. The handsomest equipages in France are those of the Duke of Orleans, whose town residence is in the Palais Royal at Paris. But the principal of the Duke's servants were originally from England, or had there become familiar with English stabling, &c., for the splendid style of the equipage would almost compare with that of any English nobleman. But the French taste is mending in these matters; for English carriages have for some time been very fashionable in France.*

Unnecessarily loud knocking at a street-door, is thought by some to give an air of style and consequence to an arrival—but the practice has been so often complained of, and carried to such extent, that the custom is somewhat abated.

On no occasion will the character and credit of a Footman be more evident, than in waiting with the carriage at large parties, theatres, and places of amusement. A servant who studies his duty to the family, will prefer the warm and comfortable waiting-room to the bad habit of lingering about the street-door or the portico of a theatre, where there is less chance of keeping circumspect than within doors. Drinking to keep the cold or wet out is sometimes carried to great excess, and brawls with other servants, breaking of ranks, and endangering the family generally follow. On all occasions it is a great point to call up the carriage in time, so that the company, lightly dressed, and just having left a hot room, may not be exposed to the ill effects of the night air.

The footman will soon become expert in letting down the steps, opening shutting the door, and taking his station behind the carriage.

Silk stockings for dress occasions are supplied by the family, as is an extra allowance in case of powder being worn. Liveries are found at the expense of the family, but shoes, linen, and washing are paid for by the Footman.

HINTS ON SELF-IMPROVEMENT.

BEFORE we close this division, we may observe that no situation admits of more opportunities for self-improvement than that of

* In the streets and drives of Paris it is no uncommon thing to see Footmen behind a carriage, upon dress occasions in unbrushed, slovenly trousers; and the liveries are sadly inferior to those of English servants. The Coachmen are slashing drivers, but, if possible, still more slovenly than the Footmen.

the Footman. He has much leisure time which cannot be better employed than in reading profitable books, by which we mean such as will amuse and at the same time instruct him, and thus open to him innumerable enjoyments, which must be quite unthought of by those whose education has been neglected in their earlier years. Thus, the pleasures of knowledge are equal to its advantages; for even the least informed of men is sensible of the superiority which knowledge gives one man over another. This is seen every hour of our lives. By industry and economy, many servants have secured an independence, or in some cases by legacies from their late masters to reward them for past integrity. They have probably by this means been enabled to settle themselves more advantageously in life, and on such changes, how many have regretted the hours they have mispent in the servants' hall; for, though it is never too late to acquire knowledge, yet, from various causes the older we are the greater difficulty have we in setting about it. In these times it is hardly necessary for us to point out any particular description of reading, since the world was never so well supplied with books, and books were never so full of useful reading, as at present. A few years since a novel, romance, the year's almanack, or a well-thumbed book of plays, were the general reading of those in the hall, and with Cards formed all its amusements. Books, however, are now so cheap, and good as they are cheap, that every servant who studies his own enjoyment will strive to possess a few volumes, which will often keep him out of bad habits and altogether render him a better informed and more useful member of society. But the advantages are so obvious, that it would be only wasting time to press them further, than in pleasant anecdote by way of example.

It is not so generally known as it ought to be among servants, that Mr. Dodsley, celebrated in the last century as a bookseller, and who lived on intimate terms with men of rank and genius, and was himself an author of no mean standing, owed all his success to his own exertions. The account of him is so encouraging that we subjoin it.

Robert Dodsley was born at Mansfield, in Nottinghamshire, in 1703, and was at an early age put apprentice to a stocking-maker at that place. His parents were very poor, and his education, consequently, of the scantiest description. He was in the first instance bound apprentice to a stocking weaver; but after some time he abandoned this employment, and having gone into service, became eventually footman to the honourable Mrs. Lowther, who, observing that he spent his *leisure hours in reading*, encouraged him in that pursuit. In this situation, having addressed a letter to Mr. Pope, he obtained the notice of that celebrated writer; and, under his management, was induced to publish, by subscription, a volume of poems, in the list of which were more than two hundred persons of high rank. He next

wrote a comedy, which Mr. Pope got represented on the stage, and its success was so great that the profits enabled the author to emerge from his humble situation, and to set up as a bookseller in Pall Mall. He next wrote the farce of "the King and the Miller of Mansfield,"* which was also successful. His difficulties were now over, and the way to independence was before him. By his prudence and steadiness he made his business in course of time, an extremely valuable one, and became at last one of the most eminent London publishers of his day. But he neither forgot in his prosperity the humble station from which he had risen, nor neglected the cultivation of those powers to which he owed his elevation. One day, when his friend Pope happened, in conversing with him, to mention a certain individual celebrated for the good table he kept, "I knew him well," said Dodsley, "*I was his servant.*" With all his attention to business, he found time for literature and authorship; and continued till nearly the close of his life to give to the world a succession of works, almost all of which enjoyed considerable popularity, and some of which may be said to have procured for him a durable name among the writers of his country. He first produced the Annual Register, which has been continued every year since with great success. His collection of maxims, too, in particular, entitled "the Economy of Human Life," is well known, and was so highly esteemed on its first appearance as to be suspected to have proceeded from the pen of the celebrated Lord Chesterfield. This was long a popular work, not only in England but in other countries; so much so, that there are enumerated about a dozen different translations of it in the French language alone. Dodsley died in 1764.

Holcroft, who wrote the play of "the Road to Ruin," and was an indefatigable man of genius, was once a stable-boy at Newmarket. Previous to this time his knowledge of books was confined to the Bible, and such old ballads as he met with by chance, on the walls of cottages and ale-houses. At Newmarket an acquaintance lent Holcroft "Gulliver's Travels," "the Whole Duty of Man," "Pilgrim's Progress," &c. His wages were but four pounds a-year, and he paid five shillings a-year to his singing master, and as much more for being taught arithmetic, and so intent was he on learning it, that for want of better apparatus, he often got an old nail, and cast up sums on the paling of the stableyard. Holcroft afterwards rose to be received among men of genius and fortune. This slight anecdote shows how much difficulty Holcroft had to contend with, and overcome; yet the facilities enjoyed by almost every Footman in London are, in comparison, a hundred fold.

* One of the branches of Dodsley is now living at Mansfield; and five or six miles distant it is said the incident took place on which Dodsley founded his pleasing drama of the above name.

THE GARDENER.

GARDENING is too important a subject for us to attempt to compress into a few pages, and therefore we shall not attempt what would only disappoint the reader.

Probably, during the last few years, science has done more for Gardening than for any other study connected with Domestic Improvement. Chemistry, or horticultural chemistry, as it is distinctively called, has added so many new and important facts, as to have raised Gardening into a science of the very first order. Old prejudices have thus been exploded, and Gardening has, in some countries, become an actual branch of education.*

Books have multiplied in proportion to the importance of the subject, and with a character and accuracy which it would be difficult to improve. In illustration of this fact, we need only mention that an *Encyclopædia* and *Magazine*† have been exclusively devoted to Gardening, and conducted upon a plan in every respect accordant with the advanced intelligence of the age.

We could enlarge upon these works, but scarcely do justice to their merits; which are practical, and so far experimental as to benefit practice, by pointing out and explaining the simplest methods of scientific improvement.

All we shall attempt is to give a few valuable hints, subject to some arrangement, and of such a description as are likely to prove useful *in every garden*. They contain information re-

* In Germany, Gardening actually forms a branch of education, just as does reading or writing. It is likewise customary for those who devote themselves to Gardening to serve an apprenticeship of three years in a royal garden. After that period is completed, they receive an indenture, elegantly written on parchment, with the head gardener's name, or sign and seal attached.

† *Encyclopædia of Gardening*; by J. C. Loudon, F. and S.H.S., &c. *Gardeners' Magazine*, and *Register of Rural and Domestic Improvement*. Conducted by the same gentleman, and published every two months.

specting certain operations which are conducive to a well-kept garden, while they occasionally attempt to throw a light upon a few points which have been involved in some doubt. They are from various sources, too numerous to specify, but it will add to their worth to state they are principally obtained from the successive volumes of Mr. Loudon's useful and important *Gardeners' Magazine*.

GENERAL BUSINESS.

*Alternation of Garden Crops.**

1. BROCCOLI, cabbage, cauliflower, and savoys; 2. common beans, French beans, and peas; 3. carrots, beets, and parsnips; 4. turnips, early potatoes, onions, leeks, eschalots, &c.; 5. celery, endive, lettuce, &c. &c.—It is found in practice that celery constitutes an excellent preparation for asparagus, onions, and cauliflowers. Turnips or potatoes are a good preparation for cabbages, or greens. Broccoli or cabbages are a proper preparation for beans or peas. Cauliflowers prepare well for onions, leeks, or turnips. Old asparagus land affords a good preparation for potatoes or carrots. The strawberry, currant, gooseberry, and raspberry, for the same. Turnips give a suitable preparation for celery or endive; and peas, when well manured, are a good preparation for spinach, &c.

Weeds and Manure.

THE common practice of burying weeds and vegetable matters, under the idea of their speedy conversion into manure, is altogether an absurdity, which has been lately proved by the experiments of an ingenious botanist. They do not enrich the soil, while they tend to choke it up; whereas, if they were burned, and their ashes collected, they would not only make excellent manure, but the earth would ultimately become clean from weeds.

Sir Humphry Davy characterizes soot as "a powerful manure, possessing ammoniacal salt, empyreumatic oil, and charcoal, which is capable of being rendered soluble by the action of oxygen, or pure vital air," all which component parts rank high as nutritious or stimulant manures. Dissolved in water, soot is very beneficial for horticultural purposes. It should be mixed in the proportion of about six quarts of soot to a hogshead of water. Asparagus, peas, and other vegetables, have been manured with it as effectually as with common dung; and it causes plants in pots, particularly pines, to assume a deep, healthy green, and grow strong and luxuriant.

* From a useful work by Mr. M'Intosh, head Gardener at Claremont, the seat of H. R. H. Prince Leopold, who is much attached to the study of botany.

Night-soil is one of the most beneficial manures, and it has been observed, that the more any animal approaches to man in the nature of its food, the more fertilizing is the manure it affords.

Horticulturists are much divided in their opinions respecting *salt as manure*, and experiments have afforded very different results. But Mr. Brande, a first rate chemist, thus reasonably accounts for such difference. "Salt," observes Mr. Brande, "has been very much extolled for a manure; I believe that a great deal more has been said of it than it deserves; it certainly destroys insects; but I do not believe what has been said of its value. We are not to infer, that because a manure is found to be useful on one soil in a certain climate, that it shall prove equally useful in others; experience must direct us in this particular."

As the question is one of considerable interest to Gardeners, we quote the following from a valuable paper by Mr. Johnson, in the *Gardeners' Magazine*.

I am indebted to my brother, Mr. George Johnson, for several important experiments in the kitchen-garden with salt: they were made with much care, and I can vouch for their correctness.

The following is a statement of the produce of the crops grown on the soil:—

Windsor Beans.

	Produce in Bushels per Acre.
Ex. 1. Soil without any manure - - - - -	135½
2. Soil dressed with twenty bushels of salt per acre a week before seed time - - - - -	217

Onions.

	Tons. cwt. qrs. lbs.
1. Soil manured with twenty bushels of salt, and ten tons of farm-yard manure - - - - -	3 12 3 12
2. Soil with twelve tons yard manure - - - - -	2 10 2 19

Carrots.

1. Soil with twenty bushels of salt, and twenty tons yard manure - - - - -	23 6 1 18
2. Soil with twenty tons yard manure - - - - -	22 18 0 26
3. Soil with twenty bushels of salt - - - - -	18 2 0 0
4. Soil without any manure - - - - -	13 4 0 0

Parsnips.

1. Yard manure twenty tons, salt twenty bushels	6 15 0 0
2. Yard manure twenty tons - - - - -	6 11 0 0

Early Potatoes.

	Bushels.
1. Soil without any manure - - - - -	308
2. Soil with twenty bushels of salt - - - - -	584

Mr. Hogg, an eminent florist of Paddington, observes upon the same subject, "From the few experiments I have tried with

salt as a garden manure, I am fully prepared to bear testimony to its usefulness: the idea that first suggested itself to my mind arose from contemplating the successful cultivation of hyacinths in Holland. I am also of opinion that the numerous bulbous tribe of amaryllises, especially those from the Cape of Good Hope, ixias, alliums, (which include onions, garlic, shalots, &c.) anemonies, various species of the lilly, antholyza, colchicum, crinum, cyclamens, narcissus, iris, gladiolus, ranunculus, scilla, and many others, should have either salt or sea-sand in the mould used for them. I invariably use salt as an ingredient in the compost for carnations; a plant which, like wheat, requires a substantial soil, and all the strength and heat of the summer to bring it to perfection.

A general rule is never to sow it with the seed. For potatoes, onions, carrots, and parsnips, from ten to twelve hundred weight per acre, laid on not nearer than one month before seed-time; and for garden-ground in general, fourteen or sixteen hundred weight per acre, to be laid on early in spring. Composts, one hundred weight per load. Its principal use, as assisting vegetation, is its property of absorbing moisture from the air, and retaining it in the soil; and also its use in destroying weeds and vermin.*

Laying-out Gardens.

IN the work of laying out great care ought to be taken with regard to straightness and distances, and particularly as to the squareness of every part. To make lines perpendicular, and perfectly so, is, indeed, no difficult matter when one knows how to do it; but one must know how to do it before one can do it at all. If the Gardener understand this much of geometry, he will do it without any difficulty. The four outside lines being laid down with perfect truth, it must be a bungling fellow indeed that cannot do the rest; but if they be only a little askew, you have a botch in your eye for the rest of your life, and a botch of your own making too.

Management of Town Gardens throughout the Year.

January.—In this month but little can be done; the walks should be swept, and the beds kept clean, so that all may have as neat an appearance as possible.

February.—Any rough work may be done in this month, but turf and gravel should not be laid till April; the turf of a London garden requires to be renewed every year. If frames or hand-glasses be admitted, dahlias and other fleshy-rooted plants may be potted, and sheltered from the cold till March or April.

March.—In the beginning of this month see that the ground be properly trenched, and prepared for planting. A good stock of annual seeds should be procured, and, about the 20th, sown in patches on ground which has been carefully dug and raked.

* Gardeners' Magazine.

If there be hand-glasses, &c., the tenderer sorts may be introduced. Mignonette, Virginian stock, Lobel's catchfly, poppy, larkspur, purple œnothera, snapdragon, lupines, and sweet peas, are good sorts for a town garden, among the hardy annuals; marvel of Peru, Love-lies-bleeding, prince's feather, and red zinnia, among the more tender.

April.—Where any trees or shrubs are wanted, this is the season of planting in London. Perennial flower roots may now be planted, such as St. John's wort, fraxinella, perennial sunflower, and dahlias, in the open ground. Attend to weeding and watering the seeds sown last month. Turf should now be laid, and gravel-walks made, picked, or rolled, as they require.

May.—Keep all things perfectly clean. Attend to your annuals, which will now require thinning and regular watering, and more seed may be sown for late blooming. Plant geraniums and all other ornamental plants, of which great choice may be had at Covent Garden market. A water-engine should be used, and will be found truly beneficial in washing the soot off the plants.

June.—The same directions apply to this month also. Watch and carefully pick off the plants all grubs and insects of every description, and destroy worms, snails, and slugs, by copious watering with lime water.

To *July, August, and September*, the directions for May will equally apply.

October.—The frost and soot now attack with deadly force every plant unfortunate enough to find itself in London. Cut off the leaves and stems as they become disfigured or perish. Take up the roots of dahlias, marvels of Peru, &c., and preserve them in dry sand.

November.—Trench the beds two spits deep, and leave the earth in as rough a state as possible, to be pulverized and sweetened by the action of the frost. This is essentially requisite, for the soot will otherwise render the earth sour, and of a fetid smell.

December.—Nothing to be done, unless it be contemplating and laying plans for your spring work.*

Artificial Compost.

A CORRESPONDENT of the Gardeners' Magazine has adopted the following method of obtaining artificial compost with much success:—In my melon-yard are four pits, eighteen feet square, and four feet and a half deep, each holding three wagon loads of bark. In the autumn I riddle over the bark, and with the riddled part refill two of them; the other two I refill with dead leaves, treading them down, and leaving them up-heaped, like a hay-stack. Upon New-year's Day, I prepare the bark-pits for forcing asparagus, radishes, rhubarb, and sea-kale, placing the glass over

* Correspondent Gardeners' Magazine.

the pits. On the 1st of February I level the leaves, add some compost soil, and place over these pits the glass lights, planting potatoes, rhubarb and kale. These crops being used by May-day, I again riddle the bark with a *coarse* sieve, and form a long ridge with the leaves, covering the same with what mould comes from the bark riddlings; and upon this ridge, with the bark mould and a trifle of cucumber compost, I obtain the finest cucumbers and vegetable marrow. The leaves, &c. of the melon and cucumber yard, are all turned together once or twice during the autumn and winter; and from this heap I am duly supplied with the very best compost for balsams, geraniums, capsicums, and many other green-house plants.

FRUIT.

Training, Pruning, &c.

MR. MAJOR, in his Treatise on Gardening, thinks it preferable to use shreds of cloth to any other mode that is practised for training trees, as they form harbours for insects through the winter, and afford a good opportunity for the insects and eggs of insects to be removed with the shreds, and destroyed with boiling water.

Wall and espalier trees often become naked for a foot or two on each side of the main stem, but by ringing the lateral branches, at six or eight inches in distance from the main stem, young shoots will be thrown out between the ring and the stem, which may be trained over the naked parts with pleasure.

The knife should be used as sparingly as possible: it is as injurious to trees as the lancet is to animal life. In proof of this, consider the common thorn, confined in a hedge, where it is annually clipped, and the shrub in its primitive growth.

In pruning, cut off from every shoot two-thirds of its length; the wood forms buds for the following year; as the tree gets crowded, or out of shape, take off a whole bow or branch with a saw. To cure cankering, take the trees up carefully, examine and prune both root and branch, and plant them again in similar fresh soil.

The precaution of flagging, paving, or gravelling, lest the roots get into bad soil and canker, is useless, since trees will never go into bad soil, if they have plenty of good to go into, any more than cattle will go into bad pasture, if they have plenty of a better quality.

The cause of the canker in trees is very similar to the cause of the scurvy in man; it is either a defect of the blood or blood-vessels; in trees it is generally the defect of the latter, as it is never the ascending sap which causes it, but always the descending sap, which is obstructed in its passage to the root. A wet autumn causes a superabundance of sap in the leaves, which being forced to return in an undigested state, the pores are too

contracted to admit it in a regular way, and it forces new channels in the bark. The first frosty night converts such streams into ice, and they become what Mr. Forsyth calls "small dots, as if made with the point of a pin." Midsummer pruning is a good preventive.

To cure canker in apple-trees, take fresh cow dung, quick-lime, and wood ashes, of each an equal quantity; to them add a little sulphur, with a sufficient quantity of urine to make it the consistence of paint; and, having mixed the whole well together, then, with a painter's brush, wash the trees well, taking care not to miss any of the parts which are affected.

If a tree throws out one or two very luxuriant shoots, while the others are quite weakly, it may be concluded that it has thrown out one or two extraordinary luxuriant roots the preceding season; the rambler may be sometimes found by digging under the tree; if not, the tree should be dug up, and it will be surely found.

Horse-dung, clay, sand, and the tar of coals, (which may be obtained at a very cheap rate of any gas company,) form a composition, which, when applied to the trunks and stems of fruit-trees, after being cleaned, prevents that spontaneous exudation, called gumming, which impoverishes trees.

In training Vines, it may be useful to know that the method adopted at Fontainebleau, where the famous grapes are produced that supply the Paris markets, consists in allowing the plants very little room to grow either with their branches or their roots, and in keeping the latter very near the surface of the ground; each vine is only allowed to occupy a space of about six feet, so that the walls are supplied by a multitude of plants, instead of by few, as with us.

Grafting Pears upon quince stocks, instead of upon their own species, increases the produce on the average as seven to six in favour of the quince. Pears grafted upon the quince have also the merit of not occupying so much space as others; but it is to be doubted whether they be as long lived. Pears grafted on medlar stocks have been found to become more juicy, and not inferior in flavour: they grow vigorously, fruit the second year, and bear abundantly. Some are much altered in appearance; the jargonelle remains nearly green when ripe, and is a much shorter fruit than when produced from a pear or quince stock.*

Scions.

THE best method of removing scions of fruit-trees from a distance, is to stick their lower ends into a turnip or potato, and then pack them in moss or hay; in this way they may be sent from England to America. On their arrival they should be half or three quarters buried in moderately moist soil in the shade, and kept there till the season of grafting. A great means of success in

* Transactions of the Horticultural Society.

performing the latter operation is to have the stock advanced somewhat beyond the scion; another means is to put a hood of paper over the graft, to guard it from the vicissitudes of the atmosphere, and in some degree to increase the temperature. In some nurseries, newly grafted dwarfs are earthed up to the top of the ball of clay, and the scion slightly protected by a little dry litter, fronds of fir-tree, or of fern.

Culture of the Tree Rose.

PROCURE and plant stocks in November; age is of less consequence than that they be free from knots. Free-growing roses should be planted on free-growing stocks. The most desirable heights are four feet, three feet, two feet six inches, two feet, one foot six inches, and one foot. Cut over the stock at an angle of fifty degrees, a quarter of an inch above the bud; if you cut at a greater distance, so as to produce a more slanting section, the wound will not heal so readily. Cover the wound immediately with loam or grafting clay, thus composed:—Five-eighths of black pitch, one-eighth of resin, one-eighth of tallow, and one-eighth of bees' wax; or one half of bees' wax, and one half of pitch; or one pound of white Burgundy pitch, a quarter of a pound of black pitch, a quarter of a pound of resin, a quarter of a pound of bees' wax, two ounces of tallow, one ounce of pounded mastic, and one ounce of saltpetre. Warm either of these mixtures in a small pipkin, and leave it to melt for three-quarters of an hour; when melted, and not too hot, dip the extreme point of each stock in it, so as to leave the thickness of two or three sheets of paper of mixture at the end; but if your stocks are planted, use a brush.

When the stocks begin to push in March, rub off all the buds but two, three, or more, well placed, close to the top, so as to indicate a handsome head. On the first of July, move off the thorns from the places in the young shoots, where you intend inserting buds. Bud from the beginning to the end of August, unless from severe drought the bark will not rise. To aid this, in dry seasons, water at the root for several days previous to commencing the operation. Prefer mornings and evenings, and avoid a drying northerly or easterly wind, which dries up all the tender parts exposed to it. The common mode of budding in England is called, by the French, budding *à l'œil dormant*; budding *à l'œil poussant* is practised at the end of May, sometimes with common roses, which it is desirable to increase as soon as possible, but more frequently with Chinese roses, Noisettes, Banksias, and the like. Of course, it is the autumnal bud and bark which are taken.

Budding may be performed on the body of the stock, especially when the bark is not very hard. Not one bud in ten ought to fail. In general, two are enough for a tree. The ligatures may be removed, in most seasons, after a month, but in hot weather not for six weeks at least.

Tree roses are pruned in the first week of March; "leave couple of buds on every shoot of last year's growth, or three, at most, upon a very strong one. If the tree be not pruned at all, it will lose its shape entirely in a single year, afford little or no bloom the next, and eventually straggle to death." Cut about the thickness of a sixpence above the bud, and, at an angle of forty-five degrees, i. e. so as to form such a slant as would be made by dividing a square from angle to angle. "Cutting out old wood should always take place where it can," the desirable point being to keep young shoots direct from the old head, or from two or three strong branches. "This principle well applied, will always keep the trees in bounds; but as this requires judgment, and cannot well be explained in writing, take a lesson upon the subject, the first convenient opportunity, from a scientific gardener."

In planting out tree roses, they never look well in a clump; and, therefore, single plants, or some sort of line, is preferable; or you may place different heights in succession, so as to look like a sloping bank. A three feet standard is in good keeping with the head it carries, and is the proper height in confined situations; distant from the eye, the height may be greater.

To graft the rose, collect scions in March, stick them in a lump of clay one inch deep; press the clay firmly to them; then put the lump of clay in a potful of earth, leaving the shoots out, and cutting off their points, if any are growing, to prevent exhaustion; and set them in any shed or out-house, neither very dry nor very damp, for three weeks. The object of laying by the scions thus is, that the stock may be the forwardest. Graft in the cleft manner. "In the event of your having neglected to procure stocks, the operation of grafting [or budding] may be performed equally well upon plants in a neighbouring hedge, and those which succeed can be transferred to the garden at leisure." The great enemies to the rose are the Aphides; the readiest method to remove which is, to brush them off with a common painter's brush.*

M. Vibert, nurseryman of St. Denis, near Paris, recommends watering the plants; even the stocks for budding on should be kept well watered, to ensure strength of roots. The month of June is the proper time for budding, provided the weather is not too dry; cloudy weather, and on mornings and evenings, are the most suitable times of the day for that operation. M. Vibert advises a summer regulation of the shoots, by disbudding, pinching off the tops of over-luxuriant shoots of the stocks, as well as of the worked plants. Even the footstalks of the faded flowers, he says, should be cut off, as a means of encouraging the general growth of the plant. Stopping the shoots, from which the buds are in-

* Abridged from "*Practical Instructions for the Formation and Culture of the Tree Rose*," in the *Gardeners' Magazine*.

tended to be taken, strengthens the bud, and is a good practice, especially with such sorts as the Provins. Frequent watering greatly assists the striking of layers. Shade the more delicate sorts, or keep them in northern aspects.

One of the most recent discoveries in the culture of roses, is, that by planting a large onion by the side of the rose-tree, in such a manner as it shall touch the root of the latter, the odour of the rose will be materially increased. This fact has been explained by the discovery that the onion contains much ammonia, which is congenial to the growth of the tree.

Sowing.

THE time at which any ground may be raked with the greatest facility, is a good criterion to judge when it is most fit for sowing. In general, if clay does not predominate in its constitution, a soil rakes best just after it has been turned up with the spade. If clay does predominate, it usually rakes with most facility after it has been dug two or three days, and then immediately after a gentle rain. But it is certain, that the sooner seed is sown after the soil is dug for its reception, the earlier it germinates. In the droughts of summer, water is often required to newly-sown beds. This application must be continued; for if the soil is only moistened at the time of sowing, it induces the projection of the radicle, which, in very parching weather, and in clayey-cutting soil, withers away, and the crop is consequently lost from the want of a continued supply of moisture.

Every seed has a particular depth below the surface, at which it germinates most vigorously, as securing to it the most appropriate degree of moisture, of oxygen gas, and of warmth. From a quarter of an inch to two inches below the surface, appears to be the limits for the seeds of plants usually the objects of cultivation; these, however, must vary for the same seeds in different grounds and countries. It must be least in aluminous soils, and dry climates.*

Plants, &c.

It has often been proved, that plants may be kept all the winter in pits, without the aid of artificial heat of any description; but well covered up every night, aired in fine days, and never over-watered.

To flower Mignonette during Winter and Spring.

To flower in November, sow August the 10th. To flower in the end of January, and throughout February, sow August the 25th. To flower in March, April, and May, sow September the 5th. Sow in forty-eight-sized pots, with their bottoms safely drained in a compost of two-fourths mellow loam, one-fourth leaf mould, and one-fourth clean sand. Plunge in frames within a foot of

* Gardeners' Magazine.

the glass, give the frame a good elevation, and thin the plants out to six or seven in a pot. Give all the air possible, when not frosty, but mat up well in severe weather. It is advisable to stop the middle shoot from the two latter sowings. At all times, except when flowering, give water with caution.

Dahliahs, (now Georginas.)

A GOOD criterion for planting this root, is about the time for planting early potatoes for a first crop, but no sooner. They grow well in a rich light soil of almost any kind. In dividing the root, it is advisable to have, at least, two eyes to each plant, cutting through the neck or crown; the spring should be chosen for dividing them, although some do it on taking them up in autumn. Those who possess a hot-house should put each part into a pot of six or eight inches in diameter, with some good rich mould, so that the crown may just appear at the top of the pot; then place them in the green-house, where they will soon make good plants; and when all danger from frost is over, they may be turned out into holes prepared for them.

VEGETABLES, FRUITS, &c.

Culture of Celery.

MR. KNIGHT, president of the Horticultural Society, has found that by keeping the ground in which celery was planted constantly wet, it grew by the middle of September to the height of five feet, and its quality was in proportion to its size. Mr. K. also recommends planting at greater distances than is usually the case, and covering the beds, into which the young seedlings are first removed, with half-rotten dung, overspread to the depth of about two inches with mould; under which circumstances, whenever the plants are removed, the dung will adhere tenaciously to their roots, and it will not be necessary to deprive the plants of any part of their leaves. Mr. Wedgewood also states, that good celery may be readily obtained by transplanting seedling plants that have remained in the seed bed till they had acquired a considerable size.

Potatoes.

PERHAPS there is no species of culture which varies more than that of the potato, the most important of all esculent vegetables. Mr. C. Hale Jessop, nurseryman of Cheltenham, recommends the following method:—Double-dig the ground, and, without manuring, plant the potatoes, whole, two feet apart each way. When the plants rise, hoe and draw the earth up to them, moulding entirely round each plant, by which mode all have room to swell and bring their tubers to perfection. The soil is not much exhausted by this practice, and the potatoes are easily got at so as to mould them up, even in their last stage of growth. Next pick off the blossoms, a practice which has been proved by Mr. Knight to add to the produce one ton per acre.

A very successful method has likewise been practised during the last twenty years, by a Mr. Tindall. He plants in October, protects with litter during the winter, and shelter the tops with branches of evergreens, stuck in on each side of the rows, as in sticking peas, in spring. They appeared about the 10th of March; about the beginning of April the ground was forked about them, as it had been much soddened during winter by the snow and rain; it was also watered at this time. The young potatoes might be discovered at the roots as large as the largest marrowfat peas; and on the 4th of June, good potatoes were dug. Cut sets are apt to rot in winter, but this is easily remedied by planting small potatoes whole.

The only way to prevent the *curl*, observes another writer, is to renew occasionally from seed. The long kidney potato flourishes best in a strong soil; the large yam, in a stiff loam; the American early, in a light rich mould; and the Irish round in fresh newly-turned up land. The best manure for the flavour of the potato, is the rotten leaves of beech, sycamore, and willow. Well-screened coal-ashes, with the ashes of wood and weeds, and a mixture of loose horse litter, will render a strong, stiff, clayey soil, fit for producing abundant crops. The writer cuts his sets about the middle of February, and places them in a box of coal-ashes and sand. When they have shot an inch in length, he plants them in drills three inches deep, one foot between set and set, and three feet between the drills.*

In the north of Lancashire they put the potatoes in a room or other convenient warm place, about February 2; cover them with a woollen cloth for about a month, then take it off, thus they make the sprouts much stronger. Towards the end of March, the potatoes are set, covering the sprouts about two inches deep. If the sprouts be about two inches long, when set, the potatoes will be ready in seven or eight weeks afterwards.

A gentleman who had a green-house, adopted the following plan. He placed the potatoes in the green-house in the mould, or peat earth early in February, and kept them well moistened with water; he planted them in the open air about the end of March, on a warm border, leaving about half an inch of the points of the sprouts above the ground, and covered them up at night with matting. By this plan he had new potatoes about the beginning of May. It is very material to get the potatoes well sprouted before they are planted.

Potatoes at the depth of one foot in the ground, produce shoots near the end of spring; at two feet they appear in the middle of summer; at three feet they are very short, and never come to the surface; and between three and five feet they cease to vegetate. In consequence of observing these effects, several parcels of potatoes were buried three feet and a half, and were not removed

* Transactions of the Durham Horticultural Society.

until after an interval of one or two years, when they were found without any shoots, and possessing their original freshness, firmness, goodness, and taste.*

The *everlasting* root is ever ready to afford a supply of early potatoes, from one end of the year to the other: they are left undisturbed, except when a dish is wanted; they are not deeply embedded, but soon discovered on stirring the surface mould. The flower is somewhat different from that of the common potato. They should be planted about the latter end of May; if planted sooner, they come in too early. Before frost sets in, the bed is covered with litter. They are taken up at Christmas, as fine new potatoes, and are either suffered to remain undisturbed, or perhaps, what is still better, the potatoes are completely forked up as they are wanted; and the smallest, being separated, are set apart for seed, under a heap or hillock, to be replanted towards the close of the succeeding May. The smallest sprig of this potato will grow.†

Rhubarb.

THE use of this article in the kitchen, within the last few years, has increased to a very great extent, and has induced many gardeners in the neighbourhood of London to turn their attention to its improvement, whence have resulted several new varieties, among which may be particularly noticed, Wilmot's Early Red, Radford's Giant, Dutley's Goliath, and Myatt's Seedling. The first is an early variety for forcing; the others are large and well flavoured, and equally desirable and advantageous, giving a large supply of fine stalks for the table.

A good method of forcing rhubarb is to sow the seed on a rich moist border in the beginning of April. Thin the young plants during the summer; in the end of October, carefully transplant them into forcing pots, five or six in each pot. Place them in a northern aspect, to recover the effect of their removal from the seed-bed, and, in a month, they will be fit for forcing.‡

Artichokes.

THE gardeners in the south of France increase the size of artichokes by splitting the stem into four at the base of the receptacle, and introducing two small sticks in the form of a cross. This operation should not be made until the stem has attained the height it ought to have.

DESTRUCTION OF VERMIN, &c.

Insects on Trees.

MR. JOHNSON, of Great Totham, of considerable experience in Gardening, is of opinion that smearing trees with oil, to destroy

* Gardeners' Magazine.

† Ibid

‡ Trans. Hort. Soc.

insects on them, injures the vegetation, and is not a certain remedy. He recommends scrubbing the trunks and branches of the trees every second year, with a hard brush dipped in strong brine of common salt. This effectually destroys insects of all kinds, and moss; and the stimulating influence of the application and friction is very beneficial.

Another gentleman, John Braddick, Esq., mixes one pound of flour of brimstone in three gallons of gas liquor, adding soft soap to make the liquid adhesive. The mixture is made over a fire in March, and the trees completely washed about the same time.

Red Spider in Hot-houses, &c.

TAKE half a pound of flour of sulphur, kill it with a little milk, add half a peck of hot lime and two small balls of whitening, and mix it well with water until it attains the thickness of whitewash, when it is fit for use. Then with a brush wash the flues and every part of the house, which is of brick, with this mixture. The general practice is to wash the houses with this mixture in the month of February or March; but, should they require a second washing, which is seldom the case, they may be done at any time when the fires are on, with the greatest safety, only using it sparingly for five or six feet from the furnaces.

Caterpillars.

BURN the branches of the vine; put the ashes to soak for three or four days in water, and with which water the plants infested.

To destroy the green caterpillar on mignonette, or any other sort of caterpillar, slug, or worm, put some unslaked lime into a pail of water, let it stand half an hour to settle, and then pour the water on the mignonette, which will not be injured.

Preserving Plants from the Caterpillar.

AN experiment has been tried for three years to preserve gooseberry plants from the ravages of the caterpillar, by brushing the stems with a soft brush dipped in common train or fish oil, about the time of their first appearance, or at any time when infested which appears to destroy, or greatly annoy them. It also much improves the growth and productiveness of the tree the following year, and clears it of moss.

Snails.

SPRINKLE common salt over the ground infested by snails, which will almost immediately destroy them.

Slugs among Cauliflower, &c.

ARE effectually destroyed by spreading well-cut chaff round young plants under hand glasses, and some round the outside of the glasses. The slugs, in their attempts to reach the plant, become enveloped in the chaff, which prevents their moving.

Ants on Peach Trees

ARE not the cause but effect of injury. Before the ants become troublesome the trees are infested with the Aphis, *puceron*, which produce what is commonly called honey-dew, and which is their excrement, to which the ants resort for food. To destroy the Aphis, frequently syringe the trees with water mixed with a strong decoction of potato haulm and elder leaves, which is found to be most effectual. As a bait for the ants, use the refuse part of melons, sent from the table of the family; when this is not to be had, turnips cut and rubbed over with honey, by which thousands may be taken.

To prevent worms from injuring the trunks of peach-trees, heap a quantity of clay or compost round the roots, mixed with a little lime, marsh, or mud, while they are in the wood, that they may be suffocated before the fly escape.

Wash for Aphides.

BOIL in six or eight parts of water, two parts of quicklime, and one part flour of sulphur, for a quarter of an hour; then strain through a hair sieve; when it is ready for use. It should be always well shaken before it is used.

Mole Crickets.

PLACE fresh sods or turves on the beds or borders of the garden where any traces of the insect are seen. These turves, being well watered over night, attract the insects to hide under them, where they may be easily caught in the morning. This scheme persisted in, will soon rid any place infested with them, especially during the months of April, May and June.

American Blight.

SPIRITS of turpentine and lime water are recommended by a writer in the *Gardeners' Magazine*, for destroying the American blight on fruit trees.

Crows.

THOSE who wish to get rid of crows, and have spirit to enforce their wishes, may do it with less trouble during the hatching month than in any other period of the year. After the female begins to sit, if they are frightened away only a day and night or two from the rookeries, the eggs to which they will again betake themselves, will not produce; and thus the young brood will be checked, and the dam weakened by sitting on her rotten eggs an indefinite time.

One method of destroying numbers of crows, is to place barley steeped in a solution of arsenic, on the newly taken out dunghills, and they will eat it unwittingly, with avidity, and thereby pay the forfeit of their lives for their temerity; but this mode can only be successfully practised in winter, for it will not entice them in seed time and harvest. Scarecrows are useless after they have stood long enough to be recognised. Gunpowder is the

only source of terror to crows, and to apply it in the most effectual way is yet a desideratum. To station a man constantly with a gun becomes expensive; and, besides, he cannot be out early enough in the morning in summer to effect this purpose.

Moles and Mice.

THE French method is to procure a number of worms, killed, and powdered with pulverized nux vomica; the whole is to be mixed, and left for twenty-four hours. The mole tracts are then to be opened, and one, two, or three of these worms placed in every hole.

Another method is to take a quarter of a pound of maize, one ounce of verdigrise, three ounces of quicklime, twelve craw fish, a quarter of an ounce of oil of aspic (lavender.) Pound and mix all well together into a paste, to which add a little river water; make up pills about the size of a nut, and lay them on the passages of the moles and mice.

To prevent Birds taking Seeds out of the Ground.

MIX together one pound of gas tar, a quarter of a pound of brown spirits of tar, a quarter of a pound of grease; into this dip some shoemaker's thread or twine, and draw it several times over the newly sown beds, supported a few inches from the earth on the tops of sticks.

To prevent Swallows Building in Window Corners.

If the places where they usually build be rubbed with oil or soft soap, it appears from recent experiments, that swallows will not only soon desist from attempting to build the nests in the unctuous surface, but refrain from doing so long after the oily or soapy matter has been carried off.

Tobacco Water.

It will require not less than a pound of the leaves to a gallon of water to make good tobacco water; and in order to obtain the whole of the virtue of the tobacco, it will be proper to let the water be poured over the leaves in a boiling state. The liquid may remain covered up a few hours, or till wanted for use. Before it is used the leaves must be taken out, taking care to have the whole water squeezed from them. Any quantity that is necessary may be made at a time, as it will be no worse for keeping, especially if kept air-tight.

MANAGEMENT OF AN ICE-WELL.

To obtain a good ice-well, you should choose a spot looking towards the north, the soil either sand, gravel, or chalk, wherein you can easily build a well which will drain itself, the water soaking into the soil by a waste well made under the other. An ice-well should be larger round than it is deep, for it is a common error to imagine, that the deeper a well is, the better; on the

contrary we know, that the water naturally runs toward the depth, and, drawing towards the wells, penetrates through the brick-work, and produces a humidity that melts the ice. To avoid this, a good well should be built with double walls, at the distance of eighteen inches or two feet apart, and the interval between filled up with ashes, or any other matter of an absorbent quality. The well must be built with a domed top (like a soup tureen), and a hole in the centre left to receive the ice. Over the dome of brick-work there should be a covering of earth, at least six feet in thickness, upon which a plantation may be formed, to keep off the sun's rays: the hole in the centre of the dome should have a neck (like a large chimney-pot), secured with a strong cover of iron, running up through the superincumbent earth three or four feet, and should be kept always well covered with soil, and turfed over, as soon as the well is filled, to prevent any access of air in that direction. At the side of the well, upon a line with the bottom of the dome, an entrance must be made to take out the ice: it should consist of a porch with double doors, the outer of which must be covered with straw, or thatched, and every crevice in both doors stopped up, and made as air-tight as possible. A dry time ought to be chosen for filling the well; the ice should be broken as small as possible, in order that it may re-unite in the interior; and three or four men should be employed in levelling and pounding it, till the well is filled to the very top; if a long frost ensues, it should be filled up from time to time, as the ice first introduced will diminish considerably in bulk as it forms itself into a compact mass, by freezing in the well. When the ice is taken out, every precaution should be adopted to prevent the rush of a volume of air into the well upon the opening of the doors. At first, the ice must be taken out as it comes to hand, until the mass sinks to a level with the door; but afterwards, by means of a ladder, it must be taken from the sides of the well, all round quite down to the bottom, leaving the centre to the last, which will be found solid and compact even in the midst of summer: if, on the contrary, the ice is first taken away from the middle, you disturb the body, and the air which introduces itself will destroy more than you consume. The first object, it must be always recollected, in preserving the ice in a well, is to keep it dry; and if, unfortunately, the well is placed in a soil that will not permit it to drain itself, a pump must be fixed on the outside to draw off the water accumulated in the waste well.*

To keep Ice for two or three Years.

WHEN the water pools are frozen to a sufficient thickness, say one or two inches, break the ice in pieces, and draw it off the water with iron hooks. Before throwing it into the ice-house, break it in small pieces, about the size of common road metal.

* Jarrin's Italian Confectioner.

Then carry it into the house, where it should be pounded almost to powder. Lay the bottom and the sides of the house with wheat straw, three or four inches thick. After there are about two feet of ice thus pounded, take ten pounds of salt, and dissolve it in ten gallons of boiling water. Pour it on the ice through a common garden watering-pot; thus going on regularly every two feet, watering, and laying the sides with straw till the house is filled, finishing with a double quantity of the salt water. After it has been in eight days, and when it has subsided, fill up closely with small bundles of straw, to exclude all air as far as possible.

Mr. Hemptinne, of Brussels, has shown, that ice, for summer use, should be taken from the river on a very cold day, and be exposed on the following night to the open air, till its temperature is in equilibrio with the cold of the atmosphere. It should then be placed in the ice-house about six o'clock in the morning, when the air becomes warmer. In order to prove the advantage of this method, he supposes that two ice-houses have been filled with ice, one with ice at 32 degrees, and the other with ice at 14 degrees. When a sixth part of the ice at 32 degrees is melted, the ice at 14 degrees will be untouched, but its temperature will have risen to 32 degrees. One-sixth part of the whole, therefore, has been saved by laying it up at a low temperature.

MANAGEMENT OF BEES.

MANY treatises have been written upon this very interesting branch of rural economy; and by these researches much of the intelligence and ingenuity of Bees has been revealed to admiring man. The facts which we are about to present to the Gardener, however, relate to their management, rather than to their natural history*; and we proceed accordingly, with a few of the most important points:

Houses.

THE best situation is a little to the west of the south; for the sun shining into the mouth of the hive too early, calls the bee abroad

* The average number of a hive, or swarm, is from fifteen to twenty thousand bees. Nineteen thousand four hundred and ninety-nine are neuters or working bees, five hundred are drones, and the remaining *one* is the queen or mother! Every living thing, from man down to an ephemeral insect, pursues the bee to its destruction for the sake of the honey that is deposited in its cell, or secreted in its honey-bag. To obtain that which the bee is carrying to its hive, numerous birds and insects are on the watch, and an incredible number of bees fall victims, in consequence, to their enemies. Independently of this, there are the changes in the weather, such as high winds, sudden showers, hot sunshine; and then there is the liability to fall into rivers, besides a hundred other dangers to which bees are exposed.—For a variety of information on this subject, see a volume entitled, “*Insect Architecture*,” published by the *Society for the Diffusion of Knowledge*.

before the cold steam is exhaled from the flowers, and the vernal juice turned into honey; but in this situation the sun will reach the front of your house about nine o'clock. The front of the house should lean a little inwards, that the mouth of the hive may fit close to the mouth made in the boards, which should be three inches long in summer, and one in winter, and about one-fourth of an inch high, the better to keep out cold and the bevering moths, which you may often see about the latter end of August (when the working of the bees begin to decline), standing at the mouth of the hive, bevering their wings as if just flying in among the bees: there they lay their eggs, and with the wind of their wings fan them within the hive; and the warmth of the bees hatches them, to their own ruin. In October every stock should be examined, and all the maggots brushed out to prevent danger, for the grub or maggot forms a chrysalis so strong, that the bees cannot displace them, and in the spring they creep out of their little sepulchres, and spin a thin web before them, as they march up into the hive among the combs; and the bees, endeavouring to dislodge them, are entangled in the web, and there die; and thus, for the want of a little trouble, many stocks are destroyed. To cleanse the hive of these maggots, it must be turned up, and the dust and vermin picked out, and then gently set down in its place. If your bees are well, and in a condition to stand the winter, and have a mother with them, they will sting, otherwise not unless you hurt them; however, a yard and a half of Scotch gauze sewed round the brim of your hat, and then tied round the waist, having holes for your arms, will completely secure your face. The hive should also be brushed on the outside very clean, and washed all over with a sponge dipped in brine made with clean salt; a small quantity of lime and hair, made fine, should be put round the bottom, and the hives be covered with hay or haybands; for straw may contain some corn, which may attract the mice, who may gnaw the hives.*

An American work† has the following observations on the interior of the hives:—

“It has been the custom, from the earliest ages, to rub the inside of the hive with a handful of salt and clover, or some other grass or sweet-scented herb, previously to the swarm's being put in the hive. We have seen no advantage in this; on the contrary, it gives a great deal of unnecessary labour to the bees, as they will be compelled to remove every particle of foreign matter from the hive before they begin to work. A clean, cool hive, free from any peculiar smell or mustiness, will be acceptable to the bees; and the more closely the hive is joined together, the less labour will the insect have, whose first care is to stop up every crevice, that light and air may be excluded. We must

* From a valuable paper in *Gill's Technological Repository*.
Farmer's Manual.

not omit to reprehend, as utterly useless, the vile practice of making an astounding noise, with tin pans and kettles, when the bees are swarming. It may have originated in some ancient superstition, or it may have been the signal to call aid from the fields, to assist in the hiving. If harmless, it is unnecessary; and every thing that tends to encumber the management of bees should be avoided."

In the *Gardeners' Magazine*, we find, from a correspondent at Lancaster the following easy and ingenious mode of managing bees, and taking their honey without killing them:—A common straw hive is used in the first place, by having two doorways instead of one; the first, in the front, to serve as the common entrance; the second, at the side or back thereof, which must be stopped with moss or soft paper till it is wanted. When the hive is filled with comb, have a box one foot square inside, made of stout yellow deal, having a glazed window and outside shutter fixed thereto, to see the bees at work; this, having a doorway of the same size as that of the closed one of the hive, is placed close thereto, the moss or paper stopping being first removed. The bees will soon begin to work, and, if a good season, fill the box also, at which time it may be taken away. In doing this, run with it to some house, and allow the bees it contains to return home. The queen seldom goes into the box, but, if by chance, she should be there, the box must be carried back to the hive, and she and her companions drummed out, by gently tapping the box. In doing this, a bee-dress is necessary.*

Food.

THE American black willow and the red maple, are the first trees that are visited by bees. They are fond of the crocus, which is the earliest of our bulbous roots. The stercorary and piggery are next resorted to by these insects, and the extract absorbed from them must be used as a tonic. Blossoms of all kinds, excepting those of the red clover and the honeysuckle, are excellent food; and the bees especially profit by the increased attention bestowed at present on the cultivation of the peach-tree in some

* T. A. Knight, Esq. the ingenious President of the Horticultural Society, lately made an interesting communication to the Royal Society, describing the precaution taken by a swarm of bees, in reconnoitering the situation where they intend to establish their new colony, or swarm from the parent hive. The bees do not go out in a considerable body, but they succeed each other in going and returning, until the whole of the swarm have apparently made good the survey, after which the whole body depart in a mass. If, by any chance, a large portion of a swarm take their departure without the queen-bee, they never proceed to take up their ulterior quarters without her majesty's presence. The result of Mr. Knight's observations tends to prove, that all the operations of a swarm of bees are dictated by previous concert, and the most systematic arrangement.

parts of America. They not only drink the nectar, and abstract the pollen of the flower, but they appropriate the peach itself. Twenty or thirty bees have been known to devour a peach in half an hour; that is, they carried the juices of it to their cells. Strawberry blossoms, mignonette, wild and garden thyme, herbs of all kinds, apple, plum, cherry, and, above all, raspberry blossoms and white clover, are delicious food for them, and a thriving orchard and apiary fitly go together.

Dr. Barton, in the fifth volume of the "American Philosophical Transactions," speaks of several plants that yield a poisonous syrup, of which the bees partake without injury, but which has been fatal to man. He has enumerated some of these plants, which ought to be destroyed wherever they are seen—namely, dwarf laurel, great laurel, kalmia latifolia, broad-leaved moorwort, Pennsylvania mountain-laurel, wild honeysuckle (the bees cannot get much of this), and the stramonium or Jamestown-weed.

Improved Hives.

THESE are manufactured by several ingenious persons, and are too numerous for us to describe. One of them, "The Imperial Hive," sold by Messrs. Lawes, of Regent-street, is extremely simple, and, we believe, extensively used. Directions and descriptions are usually printed, and to be had of the inventors; and the humane principle of taking the honey without destroying the bees (which distinguishes all these improvements), will long continue to recommend them to public attention.

The following easy method of taking the honey without destroying the bees, is generally practised in France:—In the dusk of the evening, when the bees are quietly lodged, approach the hive, and turn it gently over. Having steadily placed it in a small pit, previously dug to receive it, with its bottom upwards, cover it with a clean new hive, with a few sticks across the inside of it. Having carefully adjusted the mouth of each hive to the other, so that no aperture remains between them, take a small stick, and beat gently round the sides of the lower hive for about ten minutes, in which time the bees will leave their cells in the lower hive, ascend, and adhere to the upper one. Then gently lift the new hive, with all its little tenants, and place it on the stand from which the other hive was taken.

To keep Large Hives for Winter.

They must not be more than three years old, and well stocked with bees. A hive for preserving should weigh from thirty to forty pounds. Place them in October where they are to remain, observing the usual precautions against vermin, or winds; and giving them, if possible, a distance of six or eight yards asunder, that they may not rob each other. Set the hive after sunset. Plaster the edges firmly round with plaster lime, except the entrance. Fit a piece of hard wood to the aperture; cut two holes

a quarter of an inch square, and fix the board as a door with plaster lime. Cover the hive with drawn straw tied together at the top; and fix it with straw ropes around. Cut the straw a quarter of an inch below the board, for a few lengths may attract vermin. Once in four or five weeks raise the hive from the board after sunset. Scrape the board clean, and sweep away dead bees. Observe when turning them up if they move their wings; if not, bring them into a warmer situation, free from noise, and the light excluded. Keep them there till the extreme rigour of the season is past, and then return them to their old situation after sunset.

Sunshine in snow is destructive to bees if they get out. Put a plating of twiss across the holes to give air, and yet confine the inmates. Never confine them more than eight or ten days, and except in snow in the sunshine, their own sagacity will direct when it is safe to go out. It is absolutely necessary for their health to go in and out in tolerably mild weather.

Mr. Cobbett's Plan.

THE best hives are those made of clean, unblighted rye-straw. A swarm should always be put into a new hive, and the sticks should be new that are put into the hive for the bees to work on. Over the hive there should be a cap of thatch, made also of clean rye-straw; and it should not only be new when first put on the hive, but a new one should be made to supply the place of the former one every three or four months; for when the straw begins to get rotten, as it soon does, insects breed in it, its smell is bad, and its effect on the bees is dangerous.

The hives should be placed on a bench, the legs of which mice and rats cannot creep up. Tin round the legs is the best; but even this will not keep down ants, which are mortal enemies of bees. To keep these away, if they infest the hive, take a green stick, and twist it round in the shape of a ring, to lay on the ground round the leg of the bench, and at a few inches from it, and cover this stick with tar. This will keep away the ants.

Besides the hive and the cap, there should be a sort of shed, with top, back, and ends, to give additional protection in winter; though, in summer, hives may be kept too hot, and in that case the bees become sickly, and the produce light. The situation of the hive is to face the south-east; or, at any rate, to be sheltered from the north and the west: from the north always, and from the west in winter. If it be a very dry season in summer, it contributes greatly to the success of the bees to place clear water near their home, in a thing that they can conveniently drink out of; for, if they have to go a great way for drink, they have not much time for work.

It is supposed that bees live only one year; at any rate, it is best never to keep the same stall or family over two years, except it be wanted to increase the number of hives. The swarm

of this summer should always be taken in the autumn of next year. It is whimsical to save the bees, when the honey is taken. They must be fed; and if saved, they will die of old age before the next fall; and though young ones will supply the place of the dead, this is nothing like a good swarm put up during the summer.

The main things in keeping bees are to keep away insects, mice, and birds, and especially a little bird called the bee-bird; and to keep all clean and fresh as to the hives and coverings. Never put a swarm into an old hive. If wasps or hornets annoy you, watch them home in the day-time, and in the night kill them by fires or by boiling water. Fowls should not go where bees are, for they eat them.

To extract Wax from Bee Combs.

HAVE on the fire an open vessel of boiling water, and standing by the fire an open vessel of cold water; put the comb, close tied in a canvass bag, into boiling water, and repeatedly squeeze it down with a stick or large wooden spoon. The wax will come through the bag, and swim on the surface of the water; skim it off, and put it in the vessel of cold water. By repeatedly squeezing the bag and skimming, every particle of wax will be obtained. When congealed on the cold water it may be taken off, again melted, and cast into moulds of any convenient shape for sale.

Both wax and honey may be bleached perfectly white by steam, or by exposure to a humid atmosphere. In frosty weather the operation is rapid. It is by bleaching in frosty weather, Dr. Bright (*Travels in Hungary*) tells us, that the Jews bleach common honey to such a degree of whiteness, as to sell it for Kowno honey, which is exclusively made from lime-tree blossoms.

PRIZE FRUITS.

AMONG florists and growers of prize fruits, manual decoration is in many cases of equal importance with successful growth: the petals of the carnation require to be dressed on a card; the cucumber to be straightened, and the plum powdered with artificial bloom. Mr. Gauven, an intelligent gardener, at Millbrook, near Southampton, who has had ten years experience, and received nearly 100*l.* in prizes for show fruits, has written an ingenious paper upon what he calls "The Art of ornamenting, showing, preserving, and packing Cucumbers, Grapes, Plums, and other fruits, whose principal beauty consists in their delicate bloom." This paper is so valuable a contribution to one of the highest points of Gardening, that we abridge and extract the most important portion:—

To secure a delicate bloom to the cucumber, it must be protected, from the period of its blossoming, from the drip of the lights, and from the damp of the soil, by two pieces of glass about four inches wide, and from

eight to twelve inches long; the one placed under the fruit, and the other supported on pegs over it; both having a fall of half an inch to one end, to carry off any drip or condensed dew.

To procure great length, small girth, and "the straightness of a gun barrel" to the cucumber, instead of supporting the upper piece of glass on pegs, lay on the under piece of glass along side the incipient cucumber, two pieces of wood about the length you suppose the fruit may grow to, about two inches square, and with the upper inner angle of each piece bevelled off. The use of these pieces of wood is, to increase the solar heat by reflection in the daytime, and, by close confinement during the night, to draw out the fruit considerably beyond its natural length. A fruit which in ordinary cases would run but eight or ten inches in length, may, by this process, be extended to ten or twelve inches. This species of elongation, however, is attended with small prickles, placed at greater distances than is desirable in a handsome fruit. Abundance of heat and air will lessen this evil; and it may be cured artificially, by inserting prickles in the manner to be afterwards described.

To ensure shape, size, prickles, and bloom, the foliage of the plant must be kept moderately thin. The same sort of cucumber grown under a crowd of leaves, and grown in a free circulation of air exposed to sunshine, will be as different in appearance as the fruits of two distinct varieties. In watering the plants, never wet the fruit. Before cutting the fruit, see that they are perfectly straight, at least a day previously; for, though warped fruit may be straightened after they are cut, this operation is much better performed when they are on the plant.

In straightening warped fruit after they are cut, it is necessary to keep them in a cool dry place, and totally excluded from change of air. Among the different means recommended for straightening, some bury them in a case in earth, others keep them in a damp cellar, and some few immerse them in dry sand. Mr. Gauen never found any other care necessary, than to keep them in their show-box, in a cool dry room.

Mr. Gauen's mode of straightening cucumbers is as follows:—"Take a flat board, half an inch thick, four inches broad, and the length of your fruit; bore holes, at intervals of half an inch, across the board, and within one inch of each end. Provide two strips, the length of the board, one half inch wide, and one fourth inch thick; place one strip on edge, supported by a peg placed in one of the holes outside the strip that is on edge, and put the board under the growing fruit, with the two ends of the arc formed by the crooked fruit against the upright strip; place a bit of cotton wool or moss between each end of the fruit and the upright strip, to prevent bruising. Then take the other strip, and bring it within a peg placed at one end, with a bit of wool or moss placed against the outer arc of the crooked fruit as before. Proceed to straighten the fruit, with one hand straining it by the strip (keeping the whole steady with the other) towards the fixed upright strip, so as to bring it in a straight direction, and fix another peg. In ordinary cases, you may make them perfectly straight at the first operation, but in some of the most difficult it requires two or three. A fruit may be straightened at any period of its growth, but it requires to be left one night after the operation, to prevent its returning to crookedness."

In the performance of this operation, the bloom will have been injured, but this may be restored by the blooming process.

In order to restore the bloom to fruit, the following articles are ne-

cessary : A box with slides, a common powder-puff, and a few ounces of finely calcined and perfectly dry magnesia. The box may be of any size, according to the quantity of the fruit which it is proposed to subject to the blooming process at one time. One is sold by Mr. Eddy twenty inches long, eighteen inches deep, and thirteen inches wide. The sides and bottom are fixed, but the top, which fits on tightly by means of a surrounding moulding, lifts off.

Whenever a leash of cucumbers are to have their bloom repaired, all that is necessary is to place them on the wire slide of the box ; and, having charged the puff with powdered magnesia, rendered as fine as possible by passing it through gauze, to apply it to the hole, and, while working it with one hand, to turn round the brush cylinder with the other.

After a few strokes, the box will be filled with a fine cloud of powder, the grosser particles of which will fall to the bottom, while the finer will be deposited on every part of the fruit. Two or three applications of the puff, at intervals of an hour, will in general be sufficient ; but to have the bloom in the highest degree of delicacy, the fruit should remain all night in the box. In the intervals of working the puff, the plug is inserted in the puff-hole.

Cucumbers so bloomed may be packed and sent to any distance, without the slightest injury, by the following process :—Procure a box one inch longer than the fruit to be packed, two and a half inches deep, and six inches in width. Provide a few strips similar to those used in the operation of straightening, and pack the cucumbers with them upon a false bottom, prepared with holes at each end for the pegs. Any quantity of fruit may be safely sent in one box, by extending its size, packing the fruit, tier upon tier, on false bottoms, and keeping each fruit apart by strips and pegs.

Where prickles are to be added to cucumbers, it ought to be done before the bloom is given.

“ To dish up a leash (three, as in greyhounds) of cucumbers for show,” moss or cotton wool is generally laid in the bottom of the dish, and over that a cucumber leaf, and the fruit. The latter must show “ as perfect a match as possible, in the three fruit, in length, size, arrangement of prickle, and bloom.”

For the carriage of cucumbers to the show, most gardeners use a box consisting of two tiers, with three cells in each, the cells lined with green baize, and capable of being contracted or distended at pleasure, by means of string fastenings ; but Mr. Gauen prefers the mode of packing already described, by which fruit of the most delicate bloom may be carried with perfect safety in any conveyance, on springs, for hundreds of miles.

To preserve the bloom on the grape, complete the thinning of the berries when they have swelled to half their size, and be careful not to dash water violently against them, or subject them to a current of steam. Abundance of light and air are favourable for the production of bloom the most powerful sun will not injure it, nor a moderate degree of shade. When grapes with delicate bloom are gathered, they should be placed in a basket of well threshed moss, taking care not to bruise any of the berries, because their juice not only deprives other berries of their bloom, but renders it extremely difficult to restore that bloom by artificial means.

To restore the bloom to grapes, suspend them in the sort of box

already described, and work the puff at intervals of an hour or two. When not wanted for immediate use, they should be suffered to remain all night in the box; but, when a very delicate bloom is wanted, they should remain a few days. In no situation will they keep so well, and for so long a time as in the blooming-box.

Grapes require more care in packing than any other fruit. Mr. Gauen recommends moss and cotton wool, the former well threshed and carefully picked over. Place a layer of moss at the bottom of the box; on this a layer of cotton wool; and, next, the bunches, side by side, within half an inch of each other; fill the interstices with cotton wool, place a layer of the same material over the fruit, and finish with a layer of moss. A false bottom, supported by the sides, may next be introduced, and the layers repeated according to the size of the box. Where the bunches are very large, it is necessary to introduce splints or slips of whalebone through the heavier parts of the bunches, and support them on the sides of the box, or on the interstices of cotton wool.

Before fixing on a bunch of grapes to show for flavour, it is necessary to taste the bunches in different parts of the house, or of different parts of the same vine. In general, the berries of the best flavour and colour are those of the first ripened bunches (of the bunches at the root end of the vine,) and of the lower extremity of the bunch. Grapes, unlike other fruits, do not improve in flavour after gathering; unripe bunches never get any riper after they are gathered. In selecting bunches, avoid those where any, or even one, of the leaves have been removed from the vine near the bunch, because the berries of bunches so circumstanced will certainly be of inferior flavour. Every one must observe this in the case of gooseberries and currants.

Plums are to be treated on the same general principles as grapes, only instead of being suspended in the blooming-box, they may be laid upon the wire bottom. No fruits require so much care in handling as the plum, but in none is the bloom more easily restored.

Peaches, nectarines, apricots, figs, and, in general, every fruit having a bloom, may be treated as directed for the foregoing: the box, the puff, and the calcined magnesia are all the ingredients necessary.

KEEPING FRUIT.

To keep Fruit through the Winter.

LET cherries, strawberries, raspberries, plums, or any other pulpy fruit, be put into a vessel somewhat like that used by confectioners for freezing ice-creams, around which put salt and ice, as they do. The fruit will soon be frozen, when it should be carried to the ice-house, and placed in a hole dug out in the centre of the ice, and over the top of the hole a quantity of powdered charcoal should be placed, secured by a common blanket. When the winter arrives, the vessel may be opened, and the fruit taken out in its frozen state; then place it in cold water to thaw, and it will be found as delicious as when first gathered. When salt and ice shall be found inadequate to freeze some fruits hard enough, a mixture of salt, saltpetre, and glauber salts, will effect the purpose.

Apples preserved in hods in the earth, in the manner of pota-

toes, have been sent to the Horticultural Society, on February 14, in as fresh a state as if newly gathered from the tree. The apples should be of hardy and keeping sorts, and not more than four or five bushels should be put into one hod. It is requisite to place straw at the bottom and sides, and also to cover the top of the heap of apples with straw, so as entirely to separate them from the earth.

Red and white Currants have been preserved on the tree in a very perfect and fresh state till the middle of November, or later, by being covered with bunting from the time they have ripened. This covering is found to keep the fruit in a better state than mats. The free admission of light and air to the tree seems to be beneficial. It is necessary, after the bunting has been fixed, to open it at the bottom occasionally, in order to remove the leaves which drop from the branches. The berries should be ripened when the bunting is fixed, otherwise they will shrink, instead of remaining plump and fresh.

Nuts may be preserved, during winter, by placing them in a large brown earthenware pan, which, when filled, is to be placed in a deep hole in the garden; the top of the pan being covered with a flat piece of wood, on which is to be put a heavy weight, the hole to be filled with earth. By this method nuts may be kept in a fresh state till the season of their maturity returns.*

MISCELLANEOUS.

Watering Vegetables.

WATERING gives vegetables, long exposed, a fresher colour, and more attractive appearance; but repeated waterings are highly pernicious, as they neutralize the natural juices of some, render others bitter, and make all others vapid or disagreeable.

To preserve Wood in damp Situations.

Two coats of the following preparation are to be applied; this being done, the wood is subject to no deterioration whatever from humidity. Twelve pounds of resin must be beaten in a mortar, to which add three pounds of sulphur and twelve pints of whale oil. This mixture must then be melted over a fire, and stirred during the operation. Ochre reduced to an impalpable powder by triturating it with oil, must then be combined in the proportion necessary to give either a darker or a lighter colour to the material. The first coat must be put on very lightly, having been previously heated; the second coat may be laid on in two or three days afterwards; and a third after an equal interval, if, from a peculiar dampness, it be required.

Solvent for Putty.

THE best solvent to take off old putty from glazed sashes, is

* These three receipts are from the Transactions of the Horticultural Society.

made thus:—Take American pearl-ash and mix it with slaked stone-burnt lime, to the consistency of paint, and apply the same until you find the strength of the putty is drawn out. The greatest difficulty is to get it to enter the bedding putty, which must be brushed over with the solvent oftener than any other part. The same solvent will prevent the necessity of burning off paint, as if applied with a brush over the whole surface, it soon destroys the tenacity of the paint.

Iron Fencing.

THE following mode of preserving iron is simple and efficacious. Boil eight pounds of hog's fat, cut very small, in a glazed pot or pipkin, with three or four spoonsful of water; when well melted, strain it through coarse linen, then set it on a slow fire, with four ounces of camphor broken small, allowing it to boil gently. Take it off, and, whilst hot, mix it with as much black-lead as will give it colour and consistence, and lay it on hot. This will not only preserve the iron in the atmosphere, but also whatever portion may be in the ground.

Cheap Paint.

GAS-TAR, mixed with yellow ochre, makes an excellent green paint for coarse wood-work, iron rails, &c.

Weather-proof Composition for Roofs, &c.

TAKE one measure of fine sand, two measures of wood-ashes well sifted, three of slackened lime ground up with oil—to be laid on with a painter's brush, the first coat thin, the second thick. In a short time, it will become so hard as to resist weather and fire.

Or, slake a quantity of lime in tar, in which dip sheets of the thickest brown paper; lay them on in the manner of slating; they will form a durable covering, and will effectually resist the weather for years. This is an invaluable composition for covering barns, out-houses, &c.

Blackening Garden Walls.

COAL-TAR is used as the colouring matter, and to prevent it having a glossy, or shining surface, which would be prejudicial to tender leaves and shoots, add one pint of linseed oil to each gallon of tar. Two coats are necessary on very rough walls; and, when sufficiently dried, the trees are nailed up in their places. By this coat of colour, the wall acquires ten degrees of heat more than the walls not coloured, thus affording great assistance in maturing the buds upon fruit-bearing shoots, and preventing the harbouring of insects. The loss of entire crops of melons and cucumbers, has followed coating the frames with tar, which may be worth mentioning to prevent a practice attended with so much benefit, from being indiscriminately applied. Lampblack, quicklime, a little copperas, and hot water, will form a blackening

much cheaper; and, as applied to masonry, with all the advantages of tar, without any of its disadvantages.

Gravel Walks.

WHEN a new walk is made, or an old one reformed, take the necessary quantity of road scraping, previously dried in the air, and reduced as fine as possible; mix with the heap enough of coal-tar from a gas-work, so that the whole shall be sufficiently saturated, and then add a quantity of gravel;—with this lay a thick stratum as a foundation, and then cover it with a thin coating of gravel. In a short time the walk will be as hard as a rock, not affected by wet, or disfigured by worms.

MOTIONS OF THE BAROMETER.

THE following is an index to the motions of the barometer:—1. In summer a rise indicates the approach of fair weather. In winter, it generally indicates frost; but at all seasons, in this region, the same effect is liable to be produced by an east or north-east wind. 2. In summer, a fall generally precedes rain, or a south or south-west wind, or a hurricane or thunder. In winter, it usually precedes rain or thaw. 3. An unsettled state of the mercury usually obtains in unsettled weather. 4. The good or bad weather, which the barometer announces, will generally be of long or short duration, according as it is a longer or shorter time in coming, after the observed rise or fall of the barometer. 5. If the barometer rise from nine in the morning till three or four in the afternoon, fine weather may be more confidently expected; and, if it fall from that hour of the afternoon until nine or ten at night, rain is indicated with greater certainty than when the reverse takes place; because these movements are in opposition to its natural hororary oscillations.

SALUTARY CAUTIONS.

TREATMENT IN CASES OF APPARENT DEATH.

SOME of the most common accidents by which many persons are hurried out of existence, such as drowning, suffocation by gases, and other casualties often occur in places where it is impossible to procure immediate medical assistance. In these cases, a prompt use of a few simple remedies might probably save the lives of many valuable members of the community. The Humane Society has published some important directions in these matters, the substance of which appears very clearly stated in the following paper, which was drawn up by Mr. Aaron, a surgeon of Birmingham:—

Treatment of drowned Persons.

1. REMOVE the body on a plank or hurdle, with the head uncovered and elevated, to the nearest convenient place; or, if it be far to such a place, first strip the body of the wet clothes, dry it carefully, and with as little rubbing as possible, and put on it some of the spare clothes of bystanders.

2. On arriving at the intended place, put the body in a room where there is a fire, lay a mattress, or folded blanket, on a table of convenient height, and, placing it near the fire, lay the body upon it, keeping the head and chest constantly elevated. Admit no more than six or seven persons, who will be quite sufficient for every necessary purpose.

3. Let part of these immediately begin to apply dry warmth in every possible way, such as hot bricks and bottles of hot water, wrapped in flannel, bags of hot sand, &c, to the soles of the feet, palms of the hands, armpits, &c. and hot flannels upon the body and limbs; while the others, at the same time, commence artificial respiration in the following manner:—

4. While one closes the mouth and one nostril, let another insert the pipe of a pair of bellows in the other nostril, and blow a moderate quantity of air gently into the lungs; the mouth and nostrils being then unclosed, the chest and pit of the stomach must be gently pressed, to expel the air; a fresh portion of air is then to be blown in again, and again expelled in the same man-

ner. This must be continued, uninterruptedly, for three or four hours, if recovery does not take place sooner, before the attempt at restoration should be abandoned.

5. After this has been done a few times, rub the body and limbs of the person with a dry hand, or with dry warm flannels, but not so as to interfere with the process, No. 4.

6. A glyster, with an ounce or two of table salt, and a little mustard, in half a pint (not more) of warm water may be given.

7. Smelling salts, or the fumes of brown paper, or feathers burnt, may be passed under the nose occasionally, but not held there.

8. If recovery takes place, as soon as the person is able to swallow some warm brandy or wine and water, should be given at intervals, continuing the rubbing and artificial respiration till the natural breathing is fully established, when the person should be put into a warm bed, be carefully watched for some time, and occasionally supplied with small quantities of light nutritious food. Fresh air should be allowed freely to enter the room.

N.B. If the accident has happened in the winter, and the body is frozen, warmth must be applied very gradually, as recommended in the treatment of persons exposed to intense cold.*

Treatment of Persons hanged.

REMOVE the cord immediately, and proceed exactly as for a drowned person: except that medical assistance should be obtained, as soon as possible, to open a vein in the neck.

Treatment of Persons suffocated by noxious Gases.

IF the body is yet warm, it should be freely exposed to a draught of fresh air; and cold water should be dashed over the head and chest. In other respects, it should be treated exactly as a drowned person. If the body is cold, warmth must be applied at first.

Treatment of Persons exposed to intense Cold.

1. RUB the body for a few minutes gently with snow, or melted ice, or, if these cannot be had, with the coldest water that can be procured. Afterwards add small quantities of hot water, at intervals, to increase the warmth very gradually.

2. Use artificial respiration, and, as soon as the person can swallow, give warm cordials, at first in very small quantities.

* A case is reported by a French physician, showing the importance of never abandoning all hope of success in restoring animation. A person who had been twenty minutes under water, was treated in the usual way for the space of half an hour, without success; when, a ligature being applied to the arm, above a vein that had been previously opened, ten ounces of blood were withdrawn, after which the circulation and respiration gradually returned, though accompanied by the most dreadful convulsions. A second, and a third bleeding, was had recourse to, which brought about a favourable sleep, and ultimate recovery on the ensuing day.

Treatment of Persons in a state of excessive Intoxication.

1. THESE persons should have all tight parts of their dress loosened, the head should be covered with a cloth wet with cold water, and vomiting should be excited as quickly as possible, either by an emetic, or, if the person cannot swallow, by tickling the throat with a feather, or the finger.

2. Glysters of salt and water should be given, and the person kept in the upright posture; and the head, on no account, be allowed to hang down. If recovery does not take place soon, mustard poultices should be applied to the feet; and, if the extremities become cold, warmth and friction should be perseveringly used.

NOTE.—It may be essential to add, that the lives of persons apparently dead, are sometimes wholly placed beyond the power of restoration, by the injudicious treatment of those who witness the accident. A very common error is to shake the body of a drowned person violently, or to hold it up by the feet. The use of all the remedies employed in cases of drowning is to excite the action of the lungs, the suspension of which action is the cause of death. To hold a body up by the heels is, of all other positions, the most calculated to prevent the lungs being again put in motion; and the practice has, we doubt not, often produced that death which it was intended to avert.

RULES FOR THE PRESERVATION OF HUMAN LIFE FROM THE DREADFUL CALAMITY OF FIRE. BY THE "SOCIETY FOR PREVENTING THE LOSS OF LIFE BY FIRE."

1. *Cautions.*

SWEEP chimneys regularly—sweep frequently with a broom the lower part of the chimney within reach. Beware of lights near combustibles—beware of children near fires and lights, or of trusting them with candles. Go into dangerous places in the day time only. Don't leave clothes to dry unwatched either day or night—don't leave a poker in the fire—see that all be *safe*, before you retire to rest. Every family should have a fire-escape—as a knotted rope, or fringed rope (with a noose at one end to fasten it to a bed, &c. or to a staple, or to a pulley, near a window) a rope ladder with wooden steps, and a large strong sack with a rope to let down children. There are many other fire-escapes. Many might have been, and many may be, saved from the dreadful death by fire;—can the science and humanity of the age be exerted in a better cause, or one more neglected?

2. *Directions for Persons in Danger.*

WHEN a fire happens, put it out in its earliest stage; if suffered to extend itself, give the alarm. Beware of opening doors, &c. to increase the fire by fresh air. Muster the whole family—see that none are missing—try to be as collected as possible. First

save lives, then property. Think of the ways of escape; by the stairs, if no better way—creep along a room where the fire is, and creep down stairs backwards on hands and knees—(heated air ascends)—come down stairs with a pillow before your face and a wet blanket round the body, and hold your breath—or try the roof of the adjoining house. Throw out of the window a feather bed to leap upon in the last extremity—fasten fire-escapes to the bed-posts first—send children down by a sack fastened to a rope, taking care of the iron spikes and area—then lower yourselves.

3. *Neighbours and Spectators.*

WHEN a fire happens, let every respectable neighbour attend. (He will protect and save both lives and property; and the state of the Fire Police will be publicly known, *felt*, and the evil remedied.) Send instantly for engines, both of the parish and of the Insurance Companies, and the parish and other ladders. Look for the nearest fire-plug—send instantly for all the policemen, constables, (Statute 14 Geo. III. c. 78, s. 75,) and see they attend, and are active—(let the state of the parish engines and ladders, as also defaulters, be marked and reported)—send for ropes and fire-escapes, (if any near,) and a bed for the inmates to jump out upon—inquire the number of inmates, and what is become of them. Any thing may be conveyed to the persons in danger by first throwing a stone at the end of a string (on the principle of Captain Manby's invention) into the room; and to that string may be fastened a rope, ladder, sack, &c. with directions for their use, or any thing else. Use the ropes, ladders, and fire-escapes, as early as possible.

THE END.

APPENDIX.

GOVERNMENT OFFICES.

Treasury, Whitehall	War Office, Whitehall
Exchequer Office, Whitehall Yard	Board of Trade and Plantations, Whitehall
Secretary of State's Offices.—Home Office, Whitehall; Colonial Office, 13 & 14 Downing Street; Foreign Office, 15 to 17 Downing Street	India Board, Canon Row
Privy Seal and Signet Office, 28, Abingdon Street	Ordnance Office, 86, Pall Mall
Office of Woods and Forests, 1, Whitehall Place	Custom House, Lower Thames Street
Admiralty, Whitehall	Excise Office, Old Broad Street
Horse Guards, Whitehall	Stamp and Tax Office, Somerset House
	Post Office, St. Martins-le-Grand
	Royal Mint, Tower Hill

POLICE OFFICES.

Bow Street, Covent Garden	Lambeth Street, Whitechapel
Great Marlborough Street	Worship Street, Shoreditch
Clerkenwell, Bagnigge Wells Road	London Police Office, Guildhall
Hihg Street, Marylebone	Justice Room, Mansion House
Queen Square, Westminster	Guildhall Justice Room
Thames Police Office, Wapping Street	Town Hall, Borough, High Street
Union Hall, Southwark	Metropolitan Police, 4, Whitehall Place

CLUB OR SUBSCRIPTION HOUSES.

Albion, 85, St. James's Street	Junior St. James's, 54, St. James's Street
Alfred, 23, Albemarle Street	Junior United Service, 11, Charles Street, St. James's
Alliance, 79, Pall Mall	Oriental, 18, Hanover Square
Army and Navy, 16, St. James's Square	Oxford and Cambridge University, 71, Pall Mall
Arthur's, 69, St. James's Street	Parthenon, 20, St. James's Square
Athenæum, 107, Pall Mall	Portland, 1, Stratford Place
Carlton, Pall Mall	Reform, Pall Mall
City, 19, Old Broad Street	Royal Naval, 160, New Bond Street
City of London Commercial, 28, Throgmorton Street	St. James's, 50, St. James's Street
Clarence, 12, Waterloo Place	'Travellers', 106, Pall Mall
Cocoa Tree, 64, St. James's Street	Union, Trafalgar Square
Erectheium, 8, York Street	United University, Pall Mall East
Garrick, 35, King Street, Covent Garden	West India, 60, St. James's Street
Graham's, 87, St. James's Street	White's, 38, St. James's Street
Guards, 49, St. James's Street	Windham, 11, St. James's Street

COACH AND WAGGON OFFICES.

- Angel Inn, St. Clement's, Strand
 Angel Inn, 56, Farringdon Street
 Axe, 20, Aldermanbury
 Bell, 12, Friday Street
 Bell and Crown, 133, Holborn Hill
 Belle Sauvage, 38, Ludgate Hill
 Black Boy and Camel, 9, Leadenhall Street
 Black Lion, Bishopsgate Street
 Black Lion, 10, Water Lane, Fleet Street
 Blossom's Inn, 20, Lawrence Lane
 Blue Boar, 30, Aldgate, High Street
 Blue Posts, 7, Holborn Bars
 Blue Posts, 6, Tottenham Court Road
 Boar and Castle, 6, Oxford Street
 Bolt in Tun, 64, Fleet Street
 British Coach Office, 27, Cockspur Street
 Bull, 25, Aldgate, High Street
 Bull, 93, Bishopsgate Within
 Bull, 121, Holborn
 Bull, 151, Leadenhall Street
 Bull, and Mouth, St. Martin's-le-Grand
 _____ New Office, corner of Portman Street
 _____ Western Office, 40, Fagent Circus
 Castle, 56, Moorgate Street
 Castle Inn, 26, Wood Street
 Castle and Falcon, Aldersgate Street
 Catherine Wheel, 191, Borough, High Street
 Cheshire Cheese, 48, Crutched Friars
 Clemmitt's Inn, 14, Old Bailey
 Commercial Yard, 2, Moor Lane, Fore Street
 Cross Street, 16, Gracechurch Street
 Cross Keys, 108, St. John Street
 Cross Keys, Wood Street
 Crown, St. Paul's Church Yard
 Elephant Inn, 112, Fore Street
 Flower Pot, 115, Bishopsgate Street
 Four Swans, 83, Bishopsgate Within
 French Horn, 26, Crutched Friars
 George, 70, Borough, High Street
 George, 25, Old Bailey
 George Yard, 21, Aldermanbury
 George and Gate, 15, Gracechurch Street
 George and Blue Bear, 270, Holborn
 Gerard's Hall, 3, Basing Lane
 Gloucester Coffee House, 77, Piccadilly
 Gloucestershire Warehouse, 33, White Cross Street
 Golden Cross, Charing Cross
 Golden Horse, Glasshouse Yard, Aldersgate Street
 Golden Lion, 112, St. John Street
 Goose and Gridiron, St. Paul's Churchyard
 Green Dragon, Bishopsgate
 Green Man and Still, 335, Oxford Street
 Greyhound, King Street, West Smithfield
 Greyhound, 30, Milton Street, Cripplegate
 Half Moon, 132, Borough, High Street
 Half Moon, 88, Gracechurch Street
 Hercules, 119, Leadenhall Street
 Hore's Office, 18, Strand
 King's Arms, 106, Bishopsgate Street
 King's Arms, Holborn Bridge
 King's Arms, 122, Leadenhall Street
 King's Head, 54, Borough, High Street
 Kings and Key, 142, Fleet Street
 Lamb, Leadenhall Market
 Lewes Arms, Dover Road, Southwark
 Magpie and Stump, 118, Newgate Street
 Mitchell's Warehouse, 69, Old Bailey
 Moore's Warehouse, 122, Oxford Street
 Nag's Head, 102, Borough, High Street
 Nag's Head, 10, James's Street, Covent Garden
 New Catherine Wheel, 190, Bishopsgate Street
 New Inn, 51, Old Bailey
 New Inn, Old Change
 New White Horse Cellar, 67, Piccadilly
 Old Bell, Holborn
 Old Bell, 26, Warwick Lane
 Old Catherine Wheel, 40, Bishopsgate Street
 Old George, 80, Snow Hill
 Old White Horse Cellar, Piccadilly
 One Swan, 180, Bishopsgate Street

Oxford Arms, Warwick Lane, Newgate Street	Silver Cross, 25, Charing Cross
Pewter Platter, 86, Gracechurch Street	Spotted Dog, 298 Strand
Phoenix, 65, King William Street, City	Spread Eagle, Regent Circus
Queen's Head, 84, Borough, High Street	Spread Eagle, 84, Gracechurch Street
Ram, 78, West Smithfield	Spur, 97, Borough, High Street
Red Lion, 109, Aldersgate Street	Swan with Two Necks, 10, Lad Lane
Red Lion, 339, Strand	Talbot, 75, Borough, High Street
Rose, 25, Farringdon Street	Three Cups, 88, Aldersgate Street
Rose, 79, West Smithfield	Three Nuns, 11, Aldgate High Street
Salisbury Arms, Cow Lane, Smithfield	Van Inn, 18, Giltspur Street
Saracen's Head, 4, Aldgate	White Hart, 62, Borough, High Street
Saracen's Head, 6, Friday Street	White Hart, 296, Strand
Saracen's Head, 40, Skinner Street, Snow Hill	White Hart, 120, St. John Street
Shepherd's Royal Blue Office, 34, Camomile Street	White Horse, 10, Cripplegate
Ship, 45, Charing Cross	White Horse, 90, Fetter Lane
	White Horse, 32, Friday Street
	White Swan Yard, 20, Whitechapel
	Windmill, 115, St. John Street

NEWSPAPER OFFICES.

<i>Age</i> , 1, Catherine Street, Strand	<i>Gardener's Chronicle</i> , 3, Charles Street, Covent Garden
<i>Argus</i> , 2, Catherine Street, Strand	<i>John Bull</i> , 40, Fleet Street
<i>Atlas</i> , Southampton Street, Strand.	<i>Inventor's Advocate</i> , Strand
<i>Bell's Weekly Messenger</i> , 2, New Bridge Street	<i>London Gazette</i> , Canon Row, Westminster
<i>Bell's New Weekly Messenger</i> , 299, Strand	<i>Law Chronicle</i> , 8, Warwick Square
<i>Bell's Life in London</i> , 170, Strand	<i>Law Gazette</i> , 194, Fleet Street
<i>Britannia</i> , 26, Bride Lane	<i>Morning Advertiser</i> , 127, Fleet Street
<i>County Chronicle and Herald</i> , 11, Warwick Square	<i>Morning Chronicle</i> , 332, Strand
<i>City Chronicle</i> , 7, Wellington Street North, Strand	<i>Morning Herald</i> , 18, Catherine Street
<i>Courier</i> , 345, Strand	<i>Morning Post</i> , 335, Strand
<i>Court Journal</i> , 19, Catherine Street	<i>Mark Lane Express</i> , 24, Norfolk St. and 103, Shoe Lane, Fleet St.
<i>Colonial Gazette</i> , 9, Wellington Street, Strand	<i>Magnet</i> , 299, Strand
<i>Commercial Gazette</i> , 16, Finch Lane	<i>Naval and Military Gazette</i> , 19, Catherine Street
<i>Conservative Journal</i> , 13, Wellington Street	<i>Observer</i> , 170, Strand
<i>Examiner</i> , 5, Wellington Street, Strand	<i>Old England</i> , 162, Fleet Street
<i>Ecclesiastical Gazette</i> , 14, Southampton Street, Strand	<i>Planet</i> , 299, Strand
<i>Evening Mail</i> , Printing House Square	<i>Public Ledger</i> , 1, St. Dunstan's Hill
<i>Evening Chronicle</i> , 332, Strand	<i>Record</i> , 54, Fleet Street
<i>Era</i> , 20, Catherine Street	<i>Railway Times</i> , 122, Fleet Street
<i>Globe and Traveller</i> , 127, Strand	<i>Shipping and Mercantile Gazette</i> , 3, Crane Court, Fleet Street
<i>Gardeners' Gazette</i> , 343, Strand	<i>Standard</i> , 38, Bridge Street
	<i>Sun</i> , 112, Strand
	<i>Sunday Times</i> , 72, Fleet Street
	<i>Spectator</i> , 9, Wellington Street, Strand

<i>Satirist</i> , 334, Strand	<i>United Service Gazette</i> , 1, Crane Court
<i>St. James's Chronicle</i> , 38, New Bridge Street	<i>Watchman</i> , 161, Fleet Street
<i>The Times</i> , Printing House Square	<i>Weekly Chronicle</i> , 337, Strand
<i>The Tablet</i> , Bridges Street	<i>Weekly Dispatch</i> , 139, Fleet Street

PRINCIPAL LIBRARIES.

Andrews's, New Bond Street	Hookham's, Old Bond Street
Bull's, Holles Street, Cavendish Square	M'Clary's, St. James's Street
Cawthorne's British, Cockspur Street	Mitchell's Royal Library, 35, Old Bond Street
Earle's, Berkeley Square	Newman's Minerva, Leadenhall Street
Ebers's, Old Bond Street	Sams's, St. James's Street
Hodgson's, Wimpole Street	Saunders and Otley's, Conduit Street
Hoitt's, Upper Berkeley Street, Portman Square	

MORNING MAILS,

WITH THE INNS AND RAILWAYS THEY GO FROM.

BRIGHTON—Spread Eagle, Regent Circus
 BIRMINGHAM to PRESTON—By Birmingham, Grand Junction, North Union, and Preston and Lancaster Railways
 CHELTENHAM—By Great Western Railway to Steventon Station; from Cross Keys, Wood Street, and Golden Cross, Charing Cross
 DOVER.—Golden Cross, and Spread Eagle.
 DUBLIN—Birmingham Railway to Liverpool
 EDINBURGH—Birmingham Railway
 GLASGOW—Birmingham Railway
 SOUTHAMPTON—South Western Railway, from Swan with Two Necks, Lad Lane

EVENING MAILS.

BATH—Swan with Two Necks, Lad Lane
 BRIGHTON—Blossom's Inn, Lawrence Lane
 BIRMINGHAM and LANCASTER—Birmingham, Grand Junction, North Union, and Preston and Lancaster Railways
 CARMARTHEN, GLOUCESTER, and CHELTENHAM—Golden Cross, Charing Cross
 DOVER—Golden Cross, Charing Cross, and Swan with Two Necks, Lad Lane
 DUBLIN—Birmingham Railway to Liverpool
 EDINBURGH—Birmingham Railway
 EDINBURGH and YORK—Bull and Mouth, St. Martins-le-Grand
 EXETER—Railway to Basingstoke
 FALMOUTH, DEVONPORT, and EXETER—Railway to Brighton Station, from the Spread Eagle, Gracechurch Street, and Swan with Two Necks, Lad Lane

FALMOUTH and EXETER—By Railway to Basingstoke, from the Bull and Mouth, St. Martins-le-Grand

GLASGOW—by the Birmingham and Lancaster Railway

Through HASTINGS to ST. LEONARDS—Bolt in Tun, Fleet Street, and Golden Cross, Charing Cross

HULL, LINCOLN, and PETERBOROUGH—Spread Eagle, Gracechurch Street and Swan with Two Necks, Lad Lane.

MELTON—Bull and Mouth, St. Martins-le-Grand

LOUTH and BOSTON—Bell and Crown, Holborn, and Saracen's Head, Snow Hill

LUDLOW and WORCESTER—Bull and Mouth, St. Martins-le-Grand

NORWICH and IPSWICH—Swan with Two Necks, Lad Lane

NORWICH and NEWMARKET—Belle Sauvage, Ludgate Hill

PEMBROKE, CARMARTHEN, and BRISTOL—Swan with Two Necks, Lad Lane

POOLE and SOUTHAMPTON—Railway to Southampton, Swan with Two Necks, Lad Lane

PORTSMOUTH—White Horse, Fetter Lane, and Bolt in Tun, Fleet Street

STROUD—Swan with Two Necks, Lad Lane, and Golden Cross, Charing Cross

WELLS, LYNN, and CAMBRIDGE—Bell and Crown, Holborn, Swan with Two Necks, Lad Lane

YARMOUTH and IPSWICH—White Horse, Fetter Lane

RAILWAY STATIONS IN LONDON.

GREAT WESTERN—Paddington

EASTERN COUNTIES—Shoreditch

LONDON and BIRMINGHAM—Euston Square, New Road

LONDON and BLACKWALL—Minories

LONDON and CROYDON—Tooley Street, London Bridge

LONDON and BRIGHTON—Tooley Street, London Bridge

LONDON and GREENWICH—Tooley Street London Bridge

NORTHERN and EASTERN—Shoreditch

SOUTH WESTERN—Nine Elms, Vauxhall

STAMPS.

STAMP DUTIES FOR BILLS AND RECEIPTS.

RECEIPTS				BILLS, &c.				At or under 2 months date or 60 days sight		Exceeding 2 months date or 60 days sight	
£.	£.	s.	d.	£ s.	not ex.	£ s.	s.	d.	s.	d.	
				2 0	not ex.	5 5			1 0	1 6	
5	...	10	...	5 5	...	20 0			1 6	2 0	
10	...	20	...	20 0	..	30 0			2 0	2 6	
20	...	50	...	30 0	..	50 0			2 6	3 6	
50	...	100	...	50 0	...	100 0			3 6	4 6	
100	...	200	...	100 0	...	200 0			4 6	5 0	
200	...	300	...	200 0	..	300 0			5 0	6 0	
300	...	500	...	300 0	...	500 0			6 0	8 6	
500	...	1000	...	500 0	...	1000 0			8 6	12 6	
1000 and upwards	1000 0	...	2000 0			12 6	15 0	
Receipt in full	2000 0	...	3000 0			15 0	25 0	
The receiver to find the stamp.				Exceeding		3000 0			25 0	30 0	

HACKNEY COACH AND CABRIOLET FARES.

REGULATIONS.

Fares by Distance.—For every hackney carriage drawn by two horses, for any distance within and not exceeding one mile - 1s. 0d.
 Exceeding one mile and not exceeding one and a half } 1 6
 Exceeding one and a half and not exceeding two } 2 0
 And, for any further distance, an increase of sixpence for every half-mile.

Fares by time.—For every hackney carriage, drawn by two horses, for any time not exceeding 20 minutes - 1s. 0d.
 Above 20 minutes and not exceeding 45 - } 1 6
 45 - 60 - } 2 0
 60 - 75 - } 2 6
 75 - 90 - } 3 0
 And a progressive increase of sixpence for every fifteen minutes.

For every hackney carriage*, drawn by *one horse*, two thirds only of the rates and fares above mentioned. Fares may be charged either for distance or time, at the option of the driver.

Drivers to drive to any place within five miles from the Post Office, or within five miles from the place where hired. For permitting persons to ride without consent of hirer, £1. Persons refusing to pay their fare, or for any damage, may be committed to prison.

Back Fare.—No back fare is to be charged within the limits of the post delivery, a circle of three miles from St. Martins-le-Grand; if discharged beyond this limit between 8, P. M. and 5, A. M. the full fare back to the nearest point of the limits of the metropolis or back to the stand where hired at the option of the hirer: if discharged between 5, A. M. and 8, P. M. more than four miles beyond the said limits, sixpence per mile back to the limits or to the stand where hired.

The *limits* of the *Metropolitan Stage Carriages*, (by 1 & 2 Vict. cap. 79,) are *ten* miles from the Post Office: they embrace every stage carriage, (excepting such as go beyond the limits of the act;) every such carriage to have, above the Stamp Office plate, affixed a plate, inscribed in black letters, one inch in length, on a white ground, "Metropolitan Stage Carriage," and such carriage to have the number of the Stamp Office Plate, and the number of passengers licensed to carry inside and outside, conspicuously placed inside and outside: penalty not exceeding £1.

£5 penalty for any driver, conductor, or waterman, acting without license or transferring or lending license, not exceeding £5. Every driver, conductor, or waterman to wear a metal ticket, with number and employment on his breast, and must allow any person to note the number; for refusal penalty not exceeding £2. Complaints to be made before the justices within seven days.

* 'Hackney carriage' includes every carriage plying for hire within ten miles of the Post Office, not being a stage carriage.

POSTING.

Calculation of Posting, from One Shilling to Two Shillings and Sixpence per Mile.

	12d.	13d.	14d.	15d.	16d.	17d.	18d.	21d.	24d.	27d.	30d.
	s. d.										
Eight Miles	8 0	8 8	9 4	10 0	10 8	11 4	12 0	14 0	16 0	18 0	20 0
Nine - - -	9 0	9 9	10 6	11 3	12 0	12 9	13 6	15 9	18 0	20 3	22 6
Ten - - -	10 0	10 10	11 8	12 6	13 4	14 2	15 0	17 6	20 0	22 6	25 0
Eleven - -	11 0	11 11	12 10	13 9	14 8	15 7	16 6	19 3	22 0	24 9	27 6
Twelve - -	12 0	13 0	14 0	15 0	16 0	17 0	18 0	21 0	24 0	27 0	30 0
Thirteen -	13 0	14 1	15 2	16 3	17 4	18 5	19 6	22 9	26 0	29 3	32 6
Fourteen -	14 0	15 2	16 4	17 6	18 8	19 10	21 0	24 6	28 0	31 6	35 0
Fifteen - -	15 0	16 3	17 6	18 9	20 0	21 3	22 6	26 3	30 0	33 9	37 6
Sixteen - -	16 0	17 4	18 8	20 0	21 4	22 8	24 0	28 0	32 0	36 0	40 0
Seventeen -	17 0	18 5	19 10	21 3	22 8	24 1	25 6	29 9	34 0	38 3	42 6
Eighteen -	18 0	19 6	21 0	22 6	24 0	25 6	27 0	31 6	36 0	40 6	45 0
Nineteen -	19 0	20 7	22 2	23 9	25 4	26 11	28 6	33 3	38 0	42 9	47 6
Twenty - -	20 0	21 8	23 4	25 0	26 8	28 4	30 0	35 0	40 0	45 0	50 0

APPENDIX.

HACKNEY COACH FARES TO THE PRINCIPAL THEATRES.

From	Opera House.	Drury Lane.	Covent Garden.	Sadler's Wells.	Astley's	Surrey.
	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>
Aldersgate-street	3 0	2 0	2 0	1 6	2 0	2 0
Arundel-street, Strand	1 0	1 0	1 0	2 0	1 6	2 0
Bedford-street, Covent-garden..	1 0	1 0	1 0	3 0	1 6	3 0
Bishopsgate-street Within.....	3 0	2 0	2 0	3 0	3 0	2 0
Blackman-street, Borough } (over London Bridge) }	3 6	3 0	3 0	3 6	1 6	1 0
—— (over Blackfriars)	3 6	3 0	3 0	3 6	1 0	1 0
—— (over Westminster)	2 0	3 0	3 0		1 0	1 0
Bloomsbury-square	1 6	1 0	1 0	2 0	2 0	3 0
Bond-street, Piccadilly	1 0	1 6	1 6	3 6	1 6	3 0
Buckingham Gate	1 6	2 0	2 0	4 6	1 6	2 0
Charing Cross.....	1 0	1 0	1 0	3 6	1 0	1 6
Charles-street, Covent-garden..	1 0	1 0	1 0	3 0	1 6	2 0
Cheapside (Foster-lane end)....	2 0	1 6	1 6	1 6	2 0	1 6
—— (end of King-street)..	2 0	1 6	2 0	2 0	3 0	2 0
Chelsea College	3 0	3 6	3 0	6 0	3 0	3 6
Cornhill	3 0	2 0	2 0	2 0	3 0	2 0
Fenchurch-street	3 0	2 0	3 0	2 0	3 0	2 0
Fleet-street (Obelisk).....	1 6	1 0	1 0	2 0	2 0	1 6
Gracechurch-street.....	3 0	2 0	2 0	2 0	2 0	2 0
Hackney Church.....	5 6	5 0	5 0			
Haymarket (Piccadilly end)	1 0	1 0	1 0	3 0	1 6	2 0
Holborn (end of Leather-lane)..	2 0	1 0	1 0	1 6	2 0	1 6
—— (end of King-street)....	1 6	1 0	1 0	1 6	2 0	2 0
Hyde Park Corner	1 6	2 0	2 0	4 0	3 0	4 0
Islington (by Blue Coat Boy)..	3 6	3 0	3 0	1 0	4 0	3 0
Knightsbridge	2 0	3 0	3 0	4 6	3 0	3 6
Leicester-square	1 0	1 0	1 0	3 0	1 6	2 0
Mile End Turnpike.....	4 6	3 6	3 6	3 6	4 0	3 6
Minories	3 6	3 0	3 0	3 0	3 0	2 0
Moorfields	3 0	2 0	3 0	1 6	3 0	3 0
Oxford-street (Pantheon)	1 0	1 6	1 6	3 0	2 0	3 0
—— (Orchard-street)..	1 6	2 0	2 0	3 6	3 0	3 6
Palace-yard, Westminster	1 0	1 0	1 0	3 6	1 0	1 6
Ratcliffe Cross.....	4 6	3 6	4 0	3 6	4 0	3 6
Soho (St. Anne's Church).....	1 0	1 0	1 0	5 0	1 6	2 0
St. James's Palace	1 0	1 6	1 6	3 6	1 6	2 0
St. Paul's Churchyard	2 0	1 0	1 0	1 6	2 0	1 6
Shoreditch Church.....	4 0	3 6	3 6	2 0	4 0	3 6
Smithfield	2 0	1 6	1 6	1 0	2 0	2 0
Strand (Catherine-street)	1 0	1 0	1 0	2 0	1 6	2 0
Temple Bar	1 0	1 0	1 0	2 0	2 0	1 6
Tottenham-ct.-rd., Goodge-st..	1 6	1 0	1 0	3 0	2 0	3 0
Tower Gate.....	3 6	3 0	3 0	3 0	3 0	2 0
Union-street (Borough end)....	3 0	3 0	3 0	3 6	1 6	1 0
Whitechapel Bar	3 6	3 0	3 0	3 6	3 6	3 0

RATES OF CARTAGE.

Goods weighing 14 cwt. or under, are deemed half a load, and from 14 cwt. to 26 cwt. a load.

From any part of the city of London the rates are :—

				half a	a
				load	load
				s. d.	s. d.
	Not exceeding	$\frac{1}{2}$	mile	2 7	4 2
Exceeding	$\frac{1}{2}$ mile	...	1	3 4	5 2
...	1	...	$1\frac{1}{4}$	4 2	5 11
...	$1\frac{1}{2}$...	2	5 2	6 8
...	2	...	$2\frac{1}{2}$	5 11	7 7
...	$2\frac{1}{2}$...	3	6 8	8 5
...	3	...	$3\frac{1}{2}$	7 7	9 4
...	$3\frac{1}{2}$...	4	8 5	10 1

PORTERAGE OF PARCELS FROM INNS IN LONDON.

For any parcel not weighing more than 56 lb., and when the distance does not exceed a quarter of a mile, 3*d.*; half a mile, 4*d.*; a mile, 6*d.*; a mile and a half, 8*d.*; two miles, 10*d.*; and 3*d.* for every additional half-mile. Porters exacting more, to be fined 20*s.*, or not less than 5*s.*; misbehaving, 0*s.* to 20*s.*

A ticket to be sent with every parcel, with the charge for carriage and portorage marked on it, under a penalty of 40*s.* or not less than 5*s.* Parcels are to be delivered within six hours after arrival, under a penalty of 20*s.* or not less than 10*s.* Parcels arriving between four in the evening and seven in the morning, to be delivered in six hours from the latter period, under the like penalty.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF CARRIERS.

By 1 William IV., cap. 68, it is enacted, that mail contractors, coach proprietors, and carriers, shall not be liable for the loss of any parcel containing coin, gold, or silver, manufactured or unmanufactured, jewellery, watches, clocks, &c.; bills, bank-notes, or securities for the payment of money, maps, writings, title-deeds, paintings, plated articles, glass, china, manufactured or unmanufactured silks, furs, or lace, where the value of such parcel exceeds 10*l.*, unless delivered as such, and an increased charge be paid and accepted for the same, of which charge notice is to be affixed in offices and warehouses. Carriers, &c., are to give receipts, acknowledging such increased rate; and in case of neglecting to give a receipt or affix notice, the party not to be entitled to the benefit of this act. The publication of notices is not to limit the liability of proprietors, &c., in respect of any other goods conveyed. Every office used to be deemed a receiving-house; and any one coach proprietor or carrier liable to be sued. Nothing in this act extends to annul, or in anywise affect, any special contract between such mail contractor, stage-coach proprietor, or common carrier, and any other parties, for the conveyance of goods. This act does not protect any mail contractor, stage-coach proprietor, or other common carrier, from liability to answer for loss or injury to any goods arising from the felonious acts of any coachman, guard, book-keeper, or other servant, nor to protect any such coachman, servant, &c., from liability, for any loss or injury occasioned by his own neglect or misconduct.

REPOSITORIES FOR THE WEEKLY SALE OF HORSES AND CARRIAGES.

Dixon's, formerly Sadler's and Sons, Goswell Street, Tuesdays and Fridays.
 Horse Bazaar, King Street, Portman Square.
 Marks's (for Carriages,) Upper Regent Street.
 Morris's, formerly Alridge's, St. Martin's Lane, Wednesdays and Saturdays.
 Panttechnicon, Belgrave Square.
 Tattersall's, Hyde Park Corner, Mondays.

INTEREST TABLES.

Table by which the Interest of any Sum, at any Rate and for any Time, may be readily found.

Days.	3 perCent.			3½ p.Cent.			4 perCent.			5 perCent.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1	—	—	1¾	—	—	2¼	—	—	2½	...	—	3¼
2	—	—	3¼	—	—	4½	—	—	5¼	...	—	6½
3	—	—	5¼	—	—	6¾	—	—	7¾	...	—	9¾
4	—	—	7¼	—	—	9	—	—	10½	...	1	1
5	—	—	9¼	—	—	11½	—	1	1¼	...	1	4¼
6	—	—	11¾	—	1	1	—	1	3¼	...	1	7½
7	—	1	1¾	—	1	4	—	1	6¼	...	1	11½
8	—	1	3¾	—	1	6	—	1	9	...	2	2¼
9	—	1	5¾	—	1	8	—	1	11½	...	2	5½
10	—	1	7¾	—	1	11	—	2	2¼	...	2	8¾
20	—	3	3¼	—	3	10	—	4	4½	...	5	5½
30	—	4	11	—	5	9	—	6	6¾	...	8	2½
40	—	6	6¾	—	7	8	—	8	9	...	10	11¼
50	—	8	2½	—	9	7	—	10	11½	...	13	8¼
60	—	9	10¼	—	11	6	—	13	1¾	...	16	5¼
70	—	11	6	—	13	5	—	15	4	...	19	2
80	—	13	1¾	—	16	4	—	17	6¼	...	1	1 11
90	—	14	9½	—	17	3	—	19	8½	...	1	4 7¾
100	—	16	5¼	—	19	2	1	1 11	...	1	7 4¾	
200	1	12	10½	1	18	4¼	2	3 10	...	2	14 9¾	
300	2	9	3¾	2	17	6¼	2	5 9	...	4	2 2¼	

N.B. This Table contains the Interest of £100, for all the several days in the first column, and at the several rates of 3, 3½, 4, and 5 per Cent. in the other four columns.

To find the interest of £100 for any other time,—as one year and 250 days, at 3½ per Cent.—take the sums for the several days as they are stated.

Interest for 1 year	£3 10 0
200 days.....	1 18 4¼
50 days.....	0 9 7
<hr/>	
Interest required	5 17 11¼

For other sums than £100.—£312. 10s. at 3½ for the above time.

First find for £100, as above;—multiply the interest by the number of hundreds, and for the odd sum take the parts of the hundred, and add to it.

Three times the interest of £100, as above, is	£17 13 9¾
One-eighth of £100, for £12 10s. is	0 14 8¾
<hr/>	
	£18 8 6½

When the Interest is required for any other rate than those in the table.

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it may be easily made out from them. So $\frac{1}{2}$ of 5 is $2\frac{1}{2}$, of 4 is 2, $\frac{1}{2}$ of 3 is $1\frac{1}{2}$, 1-3rd of 3 is 1, 1-6th of 3 is $\frac{1}{2}$, and 1-12th of 3 is $\frac{1}{4}$,—so, by parts or adding or subtracting, any rate may be found.

LAWS RESPECTING SERVANTS.

THE following abstracts of Acts of Parliament respecting servants are worthy of special attention:—

A servant setting fire carelessly to a house, is liable to pay, on the oath of one witness, 100*l.* to the sufferer, or be committed to prison and hard labour for 18 months. 14 *Geo.* 3. *c.* 48.

Where servants are hired by the year, they cannot be put away before the expiration of that term, without some reasonable cause to be allowed by one magistrate; nor after the ending of the term, without a quarter's warning, given before witness. If a master discharge a servant otherwise, he is liable to a penalty of 40*s.* 5 *Eliz.* *c.* 4.

If a servant refuse to serve his term, he may be committed till he give security to serve the time; or he may be sent to the House of Correction, and punished there as a disorderly person. 5 *Eliz.* *c.* 4. 7 *Jac.* *c.* 4.

A yearly servant is not to be discharged, by reason of sickness, or any other disability by the act of God; nor may his wages be abated. *Dalt.* 129.

All hiring, without stipulation of time, is, strictly speaking, hiring for a year, and the law so construes it. 2 *Inst.* 42.

Both master and servant may, however, part by mutual consent. A master detaining a servant's wages, or not allowing sufficient meat, drink, &c., is a good cause for a servant's leaving his place, but it must be allowed by a justice of peace. *Dalt.*

If a servant, hired for a term, quit his service before the end of it, he loses all his wages, unless his master puts him away.

A woman servant who marries is obliged to serve out her time; and if both man and wife are servants by the year, they must both serve their time. *Dalt.* 92.

Should a woman with child hire herself for a term, and the master she hires with knew not of her being with child, he may discharge her, but before a magistrate. If she prove with child during her service, he may do the same; but if he do not discharge her before a magistrate, when he knows of it, and keeps her on, he must provide for her till her delivery, and one month after, and then she is to be sent to her place of settlement. *Dalt.*

A servant hired at a month's wages, or warning, cannot quit his place, or be discharged a day before the expiration of the month, without the whole month's wages be paid; unless by the authority of a magistrate, for some reasonable complaint. If a servant, after warning is given, is insolent, or refuses to do his duty, a magistrate, on complaint, will commit him to prison for the time he has to serve; but the master will be ordered to pay him his wages whilst there.

No agreement a servant shall make with his master to his disadvantage whilst he is under the age of 21, shall operate against him. *Dalt.* *c.* 58.

If a servant assault his master or mistress, or any other, having charge over him, he may be bound over to his good behaviour, or be committed for a year, or less, at the discretion of two magistrates. 5 *Eliz.* *c.* 4. *s.* 21.

If any servant shall purloin, or make away with his master's goods to the amount of 40*s.* it is felony. 12 *Anne*, *c.* 7.—Disputes with servants about wages, under 10*l.* a year, and other things, if they cannot be amicably settled, should be referred to a neighbouring magistrate, who is authorized to hear complaints, and redress them; the expense is but trifling. But the

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wages of coachmen, grooms, and the like, magistrates can take no cognizance of, as they come within the jurisdiction of the office that regulates the hackney-coaches, post-horses, &c.

If masters or mistresses, when they hire servants, deliver into the custody of such servants, plate, china, linen, &c. and tell them, before a witness, that they must be responsible for such things; then, if they lose any part of them, the law will oblige them, as far as they are able, to replace them. As to breaking of china, a servant cannot be compelled to make it good, unless it was done designedly, and the servant, when hired, agreed to pay for what he might break.

A servant may stand up in his master or mistress's defence, and assault any one that assaults them, without being liable to any punishment by law. *Salk.* 407.

Whatever trespasses a servant commits, by order of his master, the master is answerable for it, not the servant. *Lord Raymond*, 264.

Masters are justifiable in insisting on their servants going to church. Every person who shall keep a servant that shall be absent from church one month, without a reasonable excuse, shall forfeit 10*l.* for every month he so keeps that servant. 3 *Jac.* c. 5 s. 8, 22.

Servants gaming at a public-house with cards, dice, draughts, shuffle-board, mississippi, skittles, nine-pins, billiard-tables, &c. are liable to be apprehended, and forfeit from 5*s.* to 20*s.*, one-fourth to the informer, or be committed to hard labour for a month, or till the penalty is paid. 30 *Geo.* 2. c. 24.

Masters are responsible for the acts of servants who act by their direction.

If any servant shall curse or swear, and be convicted on the oath of one witness, before one justice, within eight days of the offence, he shall forfeit 1*s.* for the first offence, 2*s.* if convicted a second time, and 3*s.* the third time; or be committed to hard labour for ten days. 19 *Geo.* 2. c. 21.

Every person convicted of having been drunk, within six months of the complaint made, before one justice, on the oath of one witness, shall forfeit 5*s.* for the first offence, or be set in the stocks for six hours; and if convicted a second time, shall give security not to offend so again. 4 *Jac.* c. 5. 21 *Jac.* c. 7.

If a master deliver the key of a room to a servant, and he steal to the value of 1*s.* it is felony. *Dalt.* c. 155.

If any goods be delivered to the care of a servant, and he go away with them, or convert them to his own use, it is felony, if he be more than 18 years old. 21 *Hen.* 8. c. 7.

Servants pawning their master's goods without orders, shall forfeit 20*s.* and the value of the goods so pawned, or be sent to the House of Correction for three months, and publicly whipped. 29 *Geo.* 3.

Such goods unlawfully pawned may be searched for, by a search-warrant, and shall be restored to the owner. *Ibid.*

HINTS FOR MARKETING-

VEGETABLES.

January. Borcole or Scotch Kale, Brocoli, Cardoons, Celery, Leeks, Parsnips.—*February.* Brocoli, Leeks, Parsley, (and through the year) Parsnips.—*March.* Brocoli, Parsnips, Radishes, Small Salad. (and through the year,) Sea Kale, Spinach. (Spring.)—*April.* Asparagus, Chervil, Cucumbers, Lettuce, Parsnips, Radishes, Sea Kale, Spinach (Spring.)—*May.* Asparagus, Cabbage, Carrots, Cauliflowers, Chervil, Corn-Salad, Cucumbers, Lettuce, Pease, Potatoes, (and through the year.) Radishes, Sea Kale, Spinach (Spring, Turnips.—*June.* Asparagus, Beans (French and Kidney,) Beans (Windsor,) Cabbage, Carrots, Cauliflower, Chervil, Corn-Salad, Cucumbers, Endive, (and through the year,) Lettuce, Pease, Radishes, Spinach (Spring), Turnips.—*July.* Artichokes, Asparagus, Beans (French, Kidney, and Scarlet,) Beans (Windsor,) Cabbage (Red,) Carrots, Cauliflowers, Cucumbers, Lettuce, Peas, Salsify, Spinach (Spring.) Turnips.—*August.* Artichokes, Beans, (French, Kidney, and Scarlet,) Beans (Windsor,) Cabbage (Red,) Carrots, Cauliflowers, Cucumbers, Lettuce, Onions, Pease, Salsify, Shallots, Turnips.—*September.* Artichokes, Jerusalem Artichokes, Beans (Scarlet,) Celery Leeks, Onions, Shallots, Turnips.—*October.* Artichokes, Brocoli, Celery, Leeks, Onions, Parsnips, Shallots, Spinach (Winter,) Turnips.—*November.* Borcole, or Scotch Kale, Brocoli, Cardoons, Celery, Leeks, Onions, Parsnips, Shallots, Spinach (Winter.)—*December.* Borcole or Scotch Kale, Brocoli, Cardoons, Celery, Leeks, Parsnips, Shallots, Spinach (Winter.)

FISH.

January. Barbel, Brill, Carp, Cockles, Cod, Crabs, Dabbs, Dace, *Eels, *Haddocks, Herrings, Ling, Lobsters, Mussels, Oysters, Perch, Pike, Plaice, Prawns, Salmon, Shrimps, *Skate, Smelts, Sprats, *Tench, Turbot, *Whittings.—*February.* Barbel (the spawn of this fish is poisonous,) Brill, Carp, Cockles, Cod, Crabs, Dabbs, *Dace, Eels, Flounders, Haddocks, Herrings, Ling, Lobsters, Mussels, Oysters, Perch, Pike, Plaice, Salmon, Shrimps, *Skate, Smelts, *Tench, Turbot, *Whiting.—*March.* Brill, Carp, Cockles, Cod, Conger-Eel, Crabs, Dabbs, Dory, Eels, Flounders, Ling, Lobsters, Mussels, Oysters, Perch, Pike, Plaice, *Prawns, Salmon, Shrimps, *Skate, Smelts, *Tench, Turbot, *Whittings.—*April.* Brill, Carp, Cockles, Cod, Conger-Eel, *Crabs, Dabbs, Dory, Eels, Flounders, Lings, *Lobsters, Mackerel, Mullet, Mussels, Oysters, Perch, Pike, Plaice, *Prawns *Salmon, Shrimps, *Skates Smelts, *Tench, Turbot, Whittings.—*May.* Brill, Carp, Cod, Conger-Eels, *Crabs, Dabbs, Dace, Dory, Eels, Flounders, Gurnets, Ling, *Lobsters, Mackerel, Mullet, Perch, Pike, Plaice, *Prawns, *Salmon, Shrimps, *Skate, Smelts, Tench, Trout, Turbot, Whittings.—*June.* Carp, Cod, Conger-Eel, *Crabs, Dabbs, Dace, Dory, Eels, Flounders, Gurnets, Haddocks, Ling, *Lobsters, Mackerel, Mullet, Perch, Pike, Plaice, *Prawns, *Salmon, *Skate, Tench, Trout, Turbot, Whittings.—*July.* Barbel, Carp, Conger-Eel, *Crabs, Dabbs, Dace, Dory, Eels, Flounders, Gurnets, Haddocks, Ling, *Lobsters, Mackerel, Mullet, Perch, Pike, Plaice, *Prawns, Salmon Skate, Tench, Thornback, Trout, Turbot, Whittings.—*August.* Barbel, Carp, Conger-Eel, Dabbs, Dace, Eels, Flounders, Gurnets, Haddocks, Herrings, Lobsters, Oysters, (4th) *Perch, *Pike, Plaice, *Prawns, Salmon, Skate, Tench, Thornback, *Turbot, Whittings.—*September.* Barbel, Carp, Cockles, Conger-Eel.

* Denotes when in the highest perfection.

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*Dace, Eels, Flounders, Gurnets, Haddocks, Herrings, Lobsters, Mussels, Oysters, *Perch, *Pike, Plaice, Shrimps, Tench, Thornback, Whittings.—*October.* Barbel, Brill, Carp, Cockles, Cod, Conger-Eel, Crabs, *Dace, Eels, Haddocks, Herrings, Lobsters, Mussels, Oysters, Perch, *Pike, Shrimps, Tench, Thornback, Whittings.—*November.* Barbel, Brill, Carp, Cod, Cockles, Crabs, *Dace, Eels, Haddocks, Herrings, Ling, Lobsters, Mussels, Oysters, Perch, *Pike, Plaice, Shrimps, Skate, Smelts, Sprats, *Tench, Thornback, Whittings.—*December.* Barbel, Brill, Carp, Cockles, Cod, Crabs, *Dace, Eels, *Haddocks, Herrings, Ling, Lobsters, Mussels, Oysters, Perch, Pike, Plaice, Salmon, Shrimps, Skate, Smelts, Sprats, *Tench, Whittings.

Marketing Table, by the Pound, Yard, Stone, &c.

No.	2½d.		3½d.		4½d.		5½d.		6½d.		7½d.		8½d.		9½d.		10½d.		11½d.				
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.																	
1	0	2	0	3	0	4	0	5	0	6	0	7	0	8	0	9	0	10	0	11	0		
2	0	5	0	7	0	9	0	1	1	1	1	1	3	0	1	5	0	0	10	2	1	11	
3	0	7	0	10	2	1	1	4	2	1	7	2	1	2	2	4	2	2	7	2	2	10	
4	0	10	0	1	6	0	1	10	0	2	2	6	0	2	10	0	3	3	6	0	3	10	
5	1	0	1	5	2	1	3	2	2	2	8	2	3	6	2	3	11	4	4	2	4	9	
6	1	3	1	9	0	2	3	9	0	3	3	9	0	4	3	4	4	5	3	0	5	9	
7	1	5	2	0	2	7	2	3	2	3	9	2	4	4	11	2	5	6	2	6	8	2	
8	1	8	0	2	4	0	3	8	0	4	4	0	5	8	0	6	4	7	0	7	8	0	
9	1	10	2	7	2	3	4	2	4	10	2	5	7	2	6	4	7	1	2	8	7	2	
10	2	1	2	11	0	3	9	0	4	5	5	0	6	7	1	7	11	7	10	9	7	0	
11	2	3	2	2	3	2	4	1	2	5	11	2	6	7	9	8	8	8	9	0	9	7	0
12	2	6	0	3	6	0	4	6	0	6	6	0	7	8	6	9	6	10	6	10	11	6	0
13	2	8	2	3	9	2	4	10	2	7	0	2	8	9	2	10	3	12	11	4	12	5	2
14	2	11	0	4	1	0	5	3	0	7	7	0	8	11	0	11	1	13	12	3	13	5	0
15	3	1	2	4	4	2	5	7	2	8	1	2	9	10	7	11	10	14	13	14	14	4	2
16	3	4	0	4	8	0	6	0	0	8	8	0	10	11	4	12	11	14	12	15	15	6	0
17	3	6	2	4	11	2	6	4	2	9	2	2	10	12	0	13	13	14	14	16	16	6	0
18	3	9	0	5	3	0	6	9	0	9	9	0	11	12	9	14	14	15	15	16	17	3	2
19	3	11	2	5	6	2	7	1	2	10	3	2	11	13	5	15	15	16	16	17	18	3	0
20	4	2	0	5	10	0	7	6	0	10	10	0	12	14	2	16	15	17	17	18	19	2	0
21	4	4	2	6	1	2	7	10	2	11	4	2	13	14	10	16	16	18	18	19	20	1	2
22	4	7	0	6	5	0	8	3	0	11	11	0	13	14	10	17	17	18	19	20	21	1	0
23	4	9	2	6	8	2	8	7	2	12	5	2	14	16	3	18	18	19	20	21	22	0	2
24	5	0	0	7	0	0	9	0	0	13	0	0	15	17	0	19	19	20	21	22	23	0	0
25	5	2	2	7	3	2	9	4	2	13	6	2	15	17	8	19	19	20	21	22	23	11	2
26	5	5	0	7	7	0	9	9	0	14	1	0	16	18	5	20	20	21	22	23	24	11	0
27	5	7	2	7	10	2	10	1	2	14	7	2	16	19	1	21	21	22	23	24	25	10	2
28	5	10	0	8	2	0	10	6	0	15	2	0	17	19	10	22	20	21	22	23	24	10	0
42	8	9	0	12	3	0	15	9	0	22	9	0	26	3	0	29	9	0	33	3	40	3	0
56	11	8	0	16	4	0	21	0	0	30	4	0	35	0	0	39	8	0	44	4	53	8	0

STEAM BOATS.

To places on the British Coasts, and various parts of the Continent, leave the Thames, at stated hours ; but passage may be secured at the several Coach-Booking-Offices in the metropolis.

FARES OF WATERMEN.

By Distance.—Every half-mile, scullers, 3*d.*, oars, 6*d.* Scullers allowed to take four persons and oars six persons at those fares.

By Time.—Oars, 1*s.* per half-hour, scullers, 6*d.* By the day, (from seven o'clock morning to eight evening, from Michaelmas to Lady Day, and from Lady Day to Michaelmas, from six to six,) oars, 12*s.*, scullers, 6*s.*

Watermen must have a book of their fares with them, under a penalty of £5.

POSTAGE OF LETTERS.

All inland letters or packets, including those from the Channel Isles, and the Isle of Man, if PREPAID, are subject to an uniform rate of one penny for each letter or packet *under* half an ounce in weight.

Half an ounce	...	Twopence
One ounce	...	Fourpence
Two ounces	...	Sixpence
Three ounces	...	Eightpence,

And a further sum of twopence for every ounce up to sixteen ounces, beyond which weight no packet can be received ; excepting—

Parliamentary petitions and addresses to her Majesty.

Parliamentary proceedings.

Letters and packets addressed to, or received from, places beyond sea.

Deeds, if sent in covers open at the sides.

Bankers' parcels *despatched from London.*

Letters and packets from public departments.

The above rates of postage *must be paid* when the letter is delivered at the post office, or it must be enclosed in the postage envelope with the stamp impressed on it, or have affixed to it one or more penny or twopenny labels, according to its weight. These stamps and envelopes may be had of most stationers and at all the post offices. Letters sent, without the postage being prepaid, *double* of the above rates are charged ; or, if the weight of the letter exceeds the value of envelope or stamp affixed, the excess will be charged double.

Newspapers sent in covers open at the sides, pass free by post ; but, if any writing be discovered in them, they are charged with *treble* postage.

Letters, containing coin or not, can be *registered* on the payment of one shilling and the postage.

The commission charged for money orders, (which may be procured at the General Post Office, at the branch offices, at the receiving houses within the three miles' circle of the metropolis, and all post masters throughout the kingdom,) is at the rate of threepence on sums not exceeding two pounds, and on sums above two and not exceeding five pounds, sixpence ; but no order will be given for sums beyond this amount.

FOREIGN LETTERS.

The postage of all foreign letters, (excepting those to France, Gibraltar, Malta, British North America, and the West Indies,) must be paid at the time of putting them into the post.

THE POSTAGE ON SINGLE LETTERS TO THE BRITISH COLONIES

Is one shilling, conveyed by packet, between the United Kingdom and the British Colonies and possessions, but on letters passing between the United Kingdom and Malta, the Ionian Isles, and India, when passing through France, the rates remain unchanged; therefore, all letters intended to pass at the reduced single rate of a shilling between the three last mentioned placet and the United Kingdom, should be addressed "*viâ Falmouth.*"

LETTERS TO FOREIGN PARTS NOT BRITISH COLONIES.

As the rates of postage of the above are so varied, the most safe method, to prevent disappointment, is to make inquiries at any post office, where every information will be given.

FOREIGN MONEY.

VALUE OF FOREIGN MONEY IN ENGLISH CURRENCY.

		£.	s.	d.			£.	s.	d.
An Eagle	... America	2	3	11½	Crusade of Exc.	Portugal	0	2	3
A Dollar or 100 cents	} Ditto	0	4	4	Mœda	... Ditto	1	7	0
Cent (not quite)		Ditto	0	0	0½	Florin	... Austria	0	1
Sous	... French	0	0	1	Ducat	... Flanders	0	7	10½
Franc or 20 sous	Ditto	0	0	10	Rix Dollar	... Austria	0	3	6
Louis or Napoleon	Ditto	0	16	8	Rix Dollar (90 Groschen)	} Prussian	0	3	4
Louis d'Or	... Ditto	1	0	0	Rix Dollar		Holland	0	4
Real	... Spanish	0	0	5½	Stiver	... Ditto	0	0	1
Ducat	... Ditto	0	6	9	Guilder	... Ditto	0	5	3
Piastre	... Ditto	0	3	7	Rupee	... Bombay	0	2	3
Dollar	... Ditto	0	4	6	Gold Rupee	... Ditto	1	13	9
Pistole	... Ditto	0	14	4	Rupee	... Bengal	0	2	3
					Pagoda	... Ditto	0	7	10½

TABLE SHEWING THE TIME OF DAYBREAK

FOR EVERY FIVE DAYS IN ANY MONTH OF THE YEAR, FOR EVER.

As it is often of the highest importance that servants should be early and punctual in their rising, we insert the following table for their better guidance:—

JAN.	FEB.	MAR.	APRIL.	MAY.	JUNE.	JULY.	AUG.	SEPT.	OCT.	NOV.	DEC.
D.H.M.	D.H.M.	D.H.M.	D.H.M.	D.H.M.	No Night.	No Night.	D.H.M.	D.H.M.	D.H.M.	D.H.M.	D.H.M.
1 5 53	1 5 13	1 4 19	1 3 4	1 1 23	No Night.	D.H.M.	1 2 6	1 3 35	1 4 41	1 5 33	1 5 49
6 5 48	6 5 4	6 4 8	6 2 51	6 0 58	No Night.	D.H.M.	6 2 23	6 3 47	6 4 51	6 5 39	6 5 54
11 5 42	11 4 55	11 3 57	11 2 35	11 0 14	No Night.	D.H.M.	11 2 38	11 3 59	11 5 9	11 5 45	11 5 57
16 5 36	16 4 46	16 3 46	16 2 19	16	No Night.	D.H.M.	16 0 59	16 2 53	16 4 10	16 5 9	16 6 19½
21 5 29	21 4 36	21 3 38	21 2 2	21	No Night.	D.H.M.	21 1 24	21 3 7	21 4 21	21 5 17	21 5 54
26 5 21	26 4 25	26 3 20	26 1 47	26	No Night.	D.H.M.	26 1 44	26 3 21	26 4 31	26 5 24	26 6 0

INNKEEPERS.

DUTIES OF INNKEEPERS.—Innkeepers are bound by law to receive guests coming to their inns, and they are also bound to *protect their property when there*. They have no option to reject or refuse a guest, unless their house be already full, or they are able to assign some other reasonable and sufficient cause. Neither can they impose unreasonable terms on such as frequent their houses: if they do, they may be fined, and their inns indicted and suppressed. An innkeeper who has stables attached to his premises, may be compelled to receive a horse, although the owner does not reside in his house; but he cannot, under such circumstances, be compelled to receive a trunk or other dead thing. By the annual mutiny act, constables, or, in their default, justices of the peace, may quarter soldiers in inns, livery-stables, alehouses, &c., under the conditions and regulations set forth in the statute,

Responsibility of Innkeeper.—An innkeeper is bound to keep safely whatever things his guests deposit in his inn, or in his custody as innkeeper; and he is civilly liable for all losses, except those arising from *irresistible force*, of what is usually termed the act of God and the king's enemies. "It has long been holden," says Sir William Jones, "that an innkeeper is bound to restitution, if the trunks or parcels of his guests, committed to him either personally or through one of his agents, be damaged in his inn, or stolen out of it by any person whatever (except the servant or companion of the guest); nor shall he discharge himself of this responsibility by a refusal to take any care of the goods, because there are suspected persons in the house, for whose conduct he cannot be answerable; it is otherwise, indeed, if he refuse admission to a traveller because he really has no room for him, and the traveller nevertheless, insists upon entering, and place his baggage in a chamber without the keeper's consent. Add to this, that if he fail to provide honest servants and honest inmates, according to the confidence reposed in him by the public, his negligence in that respect is highly culpable, and he ought to answer civilly for their acts, even if they should rob the guests that sleep in their chambers.

Even if an innkeeper bid the guests take the key of his chamber and lock the door, telling him that he cannot undertake the charge of the goods, still, if they be stolen, he is held to be responsible. In all such cases it is not competent to the innkeeper to plead that he took *ordinary* care, or that the *force* which occasioned the loss was truly irresistible. A guest is not bound to deliver his goods in special custody to the innkeeper, nor, indeed, to acquaint him that he has any. If he have property with him, or about his person, the innkeeper must be responsible for it without communication. But the innkeeper may require that the property of his guests be delivered into his hands, in order that it may be put in a secure place; and if the guest refuse, the innkeeper is not liable for its safety. The guest exonerates the innkeeper from liability, when he takes upon himself the exclusive custody of the goods, so as to deprive the innkeeper of having any care over them: thus, if a guest demand and have exclusive possession of a room, for the purpose of a shop or warehouse, he exonerates the landlord from any loss he may sustain in the property which he keeps in that apartment; but it is otherwise if he have not *the exclusive possession of the room*. The innkeeper cannot oblige the guest to take charge of his *own* goods; for this, in effect, would be a refusal to admit them into the inn. And it is no excuse for an innkeeper to say that he delivered the key of the chamber whence the property was stolen to the guest, who left the door open.

WAGES, &c.

A useful Table of Expenses, Income, or Wages, showing at one view, what any Sum, from One Pound to One Thousand per Annum, is per Calendar Month, Week, or Day.

	Per Yr.		Per Mnth.		Per Week.		Per Day.		Per Yr.		Per Mnth.		Per Week.		Per Day.		
	l.	s.	l.	s.	l.	s.	l.	s.	l.	s.	l.	s.	l.	s.	l.	s.	
1	0	is 0	1	8	0	0	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	10	...	0	2	6	0	0	7	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	0	...	0	3	4	0	0	9	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	2	...	0	3	6	0	0	9	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	10	...	0	4	2	0	0	11	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
3	0	...	0	5	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
3	3	...	0	5	3	0	1	2	0	0	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
3	10	...	0	5	10	0	1	4	0	0	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
4	0	...	0	6	8	0	1	6	0	0	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
4	4	...	0	7	0	0	1	7	1	0	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
4	10	...	0	7	6	0	1	8	0	0	3	1	1	1	1	1	1
5	0	...	0	8	4	0	1	11	0	0	3	1	1	1	1	1	1
5	5	...	0	8	9	0	2	0	1	0	3	1	1	1	1	1	1
5	10	...	0	9	2	0	2	1	0	0	3	1	1	1	1	1	1
6	0	...	0	10	0	0	2	3	0	0	4	1	1	1	1	1	1
6	6	...	0	10	6	0	2	5	0	0	4	1	1	1	1	1	1
6	10	...	0	10	10	0	2	6	0	0	4	1	1	1	1	1	1
7	0	...	0	11	8	0	2	8	1	0	4	1	1	1	1	1	1
7	7	...	0	12	3	0	2	10	0	0	4	1	1	1	1	1	1
7	10	...	0	12	6	0	2	10	1	0	5	1	1	1	1	1	1
8	0	...	0	13	4	0	3	1	0	0	5	1	1	1	1	1	1

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

LONG MEASURE.

3 Barley corns make 1 inch.	40 Poles 1 furlong.
12 Inches 1 foot.	8 Furlongs 1 mile.
3 Feet 1 yard.	3 Miles 1 league.
6 Feet 1 fathom.	20 Leagues 1 degree
5½ Yards 1 pole.	This treats of length only.

SQUARE MEASURE.

144 Square inches make 1 square foot	100 Feet 1 square of flooring.
9 Square feet 1 square yard	272½ Feet 1 rod of brickwork.

This measure is applicable to things having length and breadth, (see Land Measure, p. 20.) Land is measured by a chain called Gunter's chain, that is 4 poles or 22 yards, or 66 feet long, and consist of 100 links.—In land-surveying the dimensions are taken with a chain, and the areas are found in square links. A square is a figure of four equal sides and angles. A square number is produced by being multiplied into itself, as, the square 5 is 25 multiplied by 5 being equal; to 25.

CUBIC OR SOLID MEASURE.

1728 Inches make one solid foot.
27 Feet make one yard, or cart load.
40 Feet of unhewn timber or 50 feet of hewn timber make one ton or load.
108 Feet make one stack of wood.
228 Feet make one cord of wood.
42 Cubic feet make one ton of shipping.
277,274 Cubic inches make one imperial gallon.
2218,192 Cubic inches make one imperial standard bushel.

A cube is a solid body, and contains length, breadth, and thickness. A cubed number is found by being multiplied twice into itself; as the cube of seven is 343:—thus, 7 times 7 are 49 and 7 times 49, are 303.

ALE AND BEER MEASURE.

9 Gallons one firkin.
2 Firkins or 18 gallons one kilderkin.
2 Kilderkins or 36 gallons one barrel.
3 Kilderkins or 54 gallons one hogshead.
108 Gallons or 2 hogsheads one butt.

ALL LIQUIDS.

4 Gills or noggins make one pint.
2 Pints one quart.
4 Quarts one gallon,

The standard Gallon contains, 10 pounds Avordupois weight of distilled water.

The Imperial Gallon contains about one fifth more than the old, it being now made equal to Beer Measure, which is about one sixtieth less than formerly.

Casks are generally gauged and charged according to their actual contents; as, for Beer, the Firkin of 9 gallons, the Kilderkin of 18 the Barrel of 36, the Hogshead of 54, and the Butt of 108 gallons. For Wine and Spirits, there are, the Anker, Rumlet, Tierce, Hogshead, Puncheon, Pipe, Butt, and Ton.

TROY WEIGHT.

- 4 Grains make one carat.
- 6 Carats or 24 grains, one penny-weight.
- 20 Pennyweights or 480 grains, one ounce.
- 12 ounces, one pound.

AVOIRDOPOISE WEIGHT.

- 16 Drams make one ounce.
- 16 Ounces, one pound.
- 14 Pounds, one stone.
- 28 Pounds, one qr. of cwt.
- 4 Qrs. or 112 lb., one cwt.
- 20 Cwt. or 2240 lb., one ton.
- 19½ Cwt. or 2184 lb., one fother of lead.

DRY MEASURE.

- 2 Pints make one quart.
 - 2 Quarts one pottle.
 - 2 Pottles one gallon.
 - 2 Gallons one peck.
 - 4 Pecks one bushel.
 - 8 Bushels one quarter.
 - 5 Quarters one load
- By this measure Salt, Oysters, Corn, and other dry goods are measured.

TIME.

- 60 Seconds make one minute.
- 60 Minutes 1 hour.
- 24 Hours 1 day.
- 7 Days 1 week.
- 4 Weeks 1 month.
- 13 Months, 1 day, 6 hours, or 365 Days, 5 hours, 1 year.
- 365 Days, 5 hours, 48 minutes, 57 seconds, 39 thirds, are a Solar year.
- 8,756 Hours, or 525,949 minutes, 1 year.

THE MONTHS.

Thirty days hath September, April, June, and November;
February hath twenty-eight alone.
All the rest have thirty-one,
Except in Leap year, at which time,
February's days are twenty-nine.
Leap year occurs every fourth year:
whenever the date of the year will
divide exactly by 4, that year is Leap
year.

A peck loaf weighs	lb	16	0
A half ditto		8	0
A quarter ditto		4	0

A TABLE OF MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES.

- A firkin of butter is 56 lb.
- A firkin of soap is 64 lb.
- A peck of salt is 14 lb.
- A peck of flour is 14 lb.
- A bushel of flour is 56 lb.
- A sack is 280 lb.
- A chest of tea is about 84 lb.
- A bag of rice is 168 lb.
- A wey of cheese, in Suffolk, is 256 lb.
- A wey of cheese, in Essex, is 336 lb.
- A pint of butter 1½ lb.
- A barrel of potash is 200 lb.
- A barrel of butter is 224 lb.
- A tun of fish oil is 252 gallons.
- A tun of seed oil is 236 ditto.
- A seem of glass is 120 lb.
- A cubit (common use) is 1 ft. 6 in.
- A truss of straw is 36 lb.
- 500 Bricks or 1000 tiles are a load.
- A firkin of beer is 9 gallons.
- A kilderkin is 18 gallons.
- A barrel is 36 gallons.
- A hogshead is 54 ditto.
- A butt is 108 ditto.
- A tierce of wine is 42 ditto.
- A puncheon is 84 ditto.
- A tun is 252 ditto.
- A pipe of Port (or Oporto) wine is 138 ditto.
- A pipe of Sherry is 130 ditto.
- A pipe of Madeira is 110 ditto.
- A hogshead of Claret is 62 ditto.
- A hogshead of Champagne is 63 ditto.

PAPER.

- A stationer's ream of paper contains 18 inside quires and 2 outside,
- 24 Sheets is an inside quire.
- 20 Damaged ditto is an outside quire.
- 21½ Quires (inside) form a printer's ream.
- 2 Reams a bundle.
- 10 Ditto a bale.

COMMERCIAL NUMBERS.

- Bottles and Corks are sold by the dozen and gross.
- A brace is 2.
- A leash is 3.
- 12 articles of any kind are one doz.
- 12 dozen are one gross.
- 20 articles are one score.
- 5 score are one common hundred.
- 6 score are one long hundred.

PENCE AND SHILLINGS.

Pence.	s.	d.	Pence.	s.	d.	Shil.	£.	s.	Shil.	£.	s.
20	are	1	8	30	...	6	8	20	are	1	0
30	...	2	6	90	...	7	6	30	...	1	10
40	...	3	4	100	...	8	4	40	...	2	0
50	...	4	2	110	...	9	2	50	...	2	10
60	...	5	0	120	...	10	0	60	...	3	0
70	...	5	10					70	...	3	10

4 Farthings make 1 Penny.
12 Pence 1 Shilling.

20 Shillings
240 Pence
960 Farthings } a Pound.

PRACTICE TABLE.

Aliquot parts of a pound.	Aliquot parts of a Pound.	Parts of a Shilling.	Parts of a Shilling.
s. d.	s. d.	d.	d.
10 0 is the Half.	3 4 ... 6th.	6 is the Half.	1½ is the 8th.
6 8 ... 3rd.	2 6 ... 8th.	4 ... 3rd.	1 ... 12th.
5 0 .. 4th.	2 0 ... 10th.	3 ... 4th.	¾ ... 16th.
4 0 ... 5th.	1 8 ... 12th.	2 ... 6th.	

Table showing the number of Days from any Day in one Month to the same Day in any other Month, throughout the Year.

From	To	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
From	Jan.	365	31	59	90	120	151	181	212	243	273	304	334
	Feb.	334	365	28	59	89	120	150	181	212	242	273	303
	Mar.	306	337	365	31	61	92	122	153	184	214	245	275
	April	275	306	334	365	30	61	91	122	153	183	214	244
	May	245	276	304	335	365	31	61	92	123	153	184	214
	June	214	245	273	304	334	365	30	61	92	122	153	183
	July	184	215	243	273	304	335	365	31	62	92	123	153
	Aug.	153	184	212	243	273	304	334	365	31	61	92	122
	Sept.	122	153	181	212	242	273	303	334	365	30	61	91
	Oct.	92	123	151	182	212	243	273	304	335	365	31	61
	Nov.	61	92	120	151	181	212	242	273	304	334	365	30
	Dec.	31	62	90	121	151	182	212	243	274	304	335	365

In Leap Year, when February intervenes, add one day to the calculation.

Table of Precedence among Gentlemen, who ought to be served according to their respective ranks.

(THE footman should study the following tables of priority of rank among persons of distinction, a knowledge of which will enable him to evince peculiar tact in his situation, and save his master or mistress much trouble in directing him, when waiting at table.)

1. King's Sons.
2. King's Brothers.
3. King's Uncles.
4. King's Grandsons.
5. King's Nephews.
6. Archbishop of Canterbury.
7. Lord High Chancellor.
8. Archbishop of York.
9. Lord Treasurer.
10. Lord President of the Privy Council.
11. Lord Privy Seal.
12. Lord High Constable.
13. Lord Great Chamberlain of England.
14. Earl Marshal.
15. Lord High Admiral.
16. Lord Steward of the Household.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 17. Dukes according to their Patents. | 51. Knights Commanders of the Bath. |
| 18. Marquesses. | 52. Knights Bachelors. |
| 19. Dukes' eldest sons. | 53. Eldest sons of the eldest sons of Peers. |
| 20. Earls. | 54. Baronets' eldest sons. |
| 21. Marquesses' eldest sons. | 55. Knights of the Garter's eldest sons. |
| 22. Dukes' younger sons. | 56. Bannerets' eldest sons. |
| 23. Viscounts. | 57. Knights of the Bath's eldest sons. |
| 24. Earls eldest sons. | 58. Knights' eldest sons. |
| 25. Marquesses' eldest sons. | 59. Baronets' younger sons. |
| 26. Bishop of London. | 60. Sergeants at Law. |
| 27. Bishop of Durham. | 61. Doctors, Deans, and Chancellors. |
| 28. Bishop of Winchester. | 62. Masters in Chancery. |
| 29. Bishops according to their seniority of consecration. | 63. Companions of the Bath. |
| 30. Barons. | 64. Esquires of the King's body. |
| 31. Speaker of the House of Commons. | 65. Gentlemen of the Privy Chamber. |
| 32. Viscounts' eldest sons. | 66. Esquires of the Knights of the Bath. |
| 33. Earls' younger sons. | 67. Esquires by creation. |
| 34. Baron's eldest sons. | 68. Esquires by office or commission. |
| 35. Knights of the Garter. | 69. Younger sons of the Knights of the Garter. |
| 36. Privy Councillors. | 70. Younger sons of Bannerets. |
| 37. Chancellor of the Exchequer. | 71. Younger sons of Knights of the Bath. |
| 38. Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. | 72. Younger sons of Knights Bachelors. |
| 39. Lord Chief Justice of the King's Bench. | 73. Gentlemen entitled to bear arms. |
| 40. The Master of the Rolls. | 74. Clergymen not dignitaries. |
| 41. The Vice Chancellor. | 75. Barristers at Law |
| 42. Lord Chief Justice of the Common Pleas. | 76. Officers of the Navy. |
| 43. Lord Chief Baron of the Exchequer. | 77. Officers of the Army. |
| 44. Judges and Barons of the Exchequer according to seniority. | 78. Citizens. |
| 45. Knights Bannerets royal. | 79. Burgesses. |
| 46. Viscounts' younger sons. | 80. Married men and widowers, before single men of the same rank. |
| 47. Barons' younger sons. | |
| 48. Baronets. | |
| 49. Knights Bannerets. | |
| 50. Knights of the Bath Grand Crosses. | |

Precedency among Ladies.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Daughters of the king. | 9. Wives of the eldest sons of dukes. |
| 2. Wives of the king's sons. | 10. Daughters of dukes. |
| 3. Wives of the king's brothers. | 11. Countesses. |
| 4. Wives of the king's uncles. | 12. Wives of the eldest sons of marquesses. |
| 5. Wives of the eldest sons of dukes of the blood royal. | 13. Daughters of marquesses. |
| 6. Wives of the king's nephews. | 14. Wives of the younger sons of dukes. |
| 7. Duchesses. | |
| 8. Marchionesses. | |

- | | |
|--|---|
| 15. Viscountesses. | 42. Daughters of knights of the bath. |
| 16. Wives of the eldest sons of earls. | 43. Wives of the eldest sons of knights bachelors. |
| 17. Daughters of earls. | 44. Daughters of knights bachelors. |
| 18. Wives of the younger sons of marquesses. | 45. Wives of the younger sons of baronets. |
| 19. Wives of archbishops. | 46. Daughters of knights. |
| 20. Wives of bishops. | 47. Wives of the companions of the order of the bath. |
| 21. Baronesses. | 48. Wives of the esquires of the king's body. |
| 22. Wives of the eldest sons of viscounts. | 49. Wives of the esquires of the knights of the bath. |
| 23. Daughters of viscounts. | 50. Wives of esquires by creation |
| 24. Wives of the younger sons of earls. | 51. Wives of esquires by office. |
| 25. Wives of the sons of barons. | 52. Wives of younger sons of knights of the garter. |
| 26. Maids of honour. | 53. Wives of the younger sons of bannerets. |
| 27. Wives of the younger sons of viscounts. | 54. Wives of the younger sons of knights of the bath. |
| 28. Wives of the younger sons of barons. | 55. Wives of the younger sons of knights bachelors. |
| 29. Wives of baronets. | 56. Wives of gentlemen entitled to bear arms. |
| 30. Wives of the knights of the garter. | 57. Daughters of esquires entitled to bear arms. |
| 31. Wives of bannerets. | 58. Daughters of gentlemen entitled to bear arms. |
| 32. Wives of knights grand crosses of the bath. | 59. Wives of clergymen. |
| 33. Wives of knights commanders of the bath. | 60. Wives of barristers at law. |
| 34. Wives of knights bachelors. | 61. Wives of officers in the navy. |
| 35. Wives of the eldest sons of the younger sons of peers. | 62. Wives of officers in the army. |
| 36. Wives of the eldest sons of baronets. | 63. Wives of citizens. |
| 37. Daughters of baronets | 64. Wives of burgesses. |
| 38. Wives of the eldest sons of knights of the garter. | 65. Widows. |
| 39. Wives of the eldest sons of bannerets. | 66. Daughters of citizens. |
| 40. Daughters of bannerets | 67. Daughters of burgesses. |
| 41. Wives of the eldest sons of knights of the bath. | |

In addition to the above Regulations, observe,

1. That preference is to be given to persons of superior age of the same rank.
2. That ladies of all ranks are to be served before their husbands.
3. That, among ladies, wives rank first, widows next, and unmarried ladies last.
4. That strangers are, in all cases, to be served first, and the young ladies of your own family last.

Note also, That at public meetings in the country, preference is usually given to the lady of the greatest landholder.

Modes of Address in Writing and Speaking.

TO THE ROYAL FAMILY.

To the King's Most Excellent Majesty:—*Sire*, or *May it please your Majesty*.

To His Royal Highness Prince William Henry, Duke of Clarence: *May it please your Royal Highness*. And so to all the rest of the Royal Family, male and female, changing their names and titles.

TO THE NOBILITY.

To his Grace the Duke of Wellington:—*My Lord Duke — Your Grace*. To the Most Noble the Marquess of B.:—*My Lord Marquess — Your Lordship*. To the Right Hon. the Earl of D. To the Right Hon. Lord Viscount F. To the Right Hon. Lord G. — *My Lord — Your Lordship*.

Note—Noblemen's wives are to be addressed in the same style.

Note also, that by courtesy of England, all the sons of *dukes* and *marquesses*, and the *eldest sons* of earls, have the titles of *Lord* and *Right Honourable*; and their *daughters* have the title of *Honourable*, but without any other addition. Every *gentleman*, in any place of honour or trust, is styled *Honourable*.

The members of His Majesty's Privy Council, the Lord Mayors of London, York, and Dublin, and the Lord Provost of Edinburgh, for the time being, are styled *Right Honourable*.

Every considerable servant to His Majesty, or any other of the Royal Family, is, while on the *Civil*, *Naval*, or *Military List*, distinguished by the title of *Esquire*.

Every Member of Parliament is an *Esquire*; but if he has a higher title, remember always to address him and every gentleman by his highest title.

TO THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

To the Right Hon. the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, in the Imperial

Parliament of the United Kingdom, Assembled:—*My Lords — May it please your Lordships*.

TO THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

To the Knights, Citizens, and Burgesses, in the Imperial Parliament of the United Kingdom, Assembled:—*Gentlemen — May it please your Honourable House*. To the Right Hon. Sir A. B., Speaker of the Honourable House of Commons. As he is generally a member of the Privy Council—Right Honourable Sir.

TO THE CLERGY.

To the most Reverend Father in God, A., Lord Archbishop of C.;—*My Lord—Your Grace*. To the Right Reverend Father in God, B., Lord Bishop of L.:—*Right Reverend Sir*. To the very Reverend Mr. or Dr. C. D., Dean of E., to the Reverend Mr. or Dr. F.

Chancellor of G.

Archdeacon of H.

Prebendary of I.

Rector of K.

Vicar of L.

Curate of M.

} *Reverend Sir.*

Note—All clergymen are styled Reverend.

The officers of His Majesty's household are generally addressed according to their quality, and sometimes according to their office, or both; as, To My Lord Steward.

My Lord Chamberlain.

The Right Hon. the Earl of B.

Lord Privy Seal—Lord President of the Council, &c. &c.—One of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, &c.:—*My Lord*. To the Right Honourable the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury—of the Admiralty, &c.:—*My Lords*, or *May it please your Lordships*. To the Honourable the Commissioners of His Majesty's Board of Customs, Excise, &c.:—*May it please your Honours*.



RECORD OF TREATMENT, EXTRACTION, REPAIR, etc.

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Date	Particulars
JUNE 99	Chemical Treatment Fumigation Deacidification <i>Renaissance HA Liquid</i> Lamination Solvents Leather Treatment Adhesives Remarks

