The 20th century household guide : being a popular referee on subjects of household enquiry, including housekeeping, furnishing, decorating, domestic cookery, needlework, gardening, medicine, law, amusements, &c.;, &c.; / edited by Alfred H. Miles, assisted by a staff of specialists.

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THE 20th CENTURY HOUSEHOLD GUIDE

BEING A REFEREE ON HOUSEHOLD POPULAR SUBJECTS OF ENQUIRY

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UPPER HOLLOWAY BROTHERHOOD.

President - Rev. S. G. MORRIS.

JUNE TO DECEMBER, 1909.

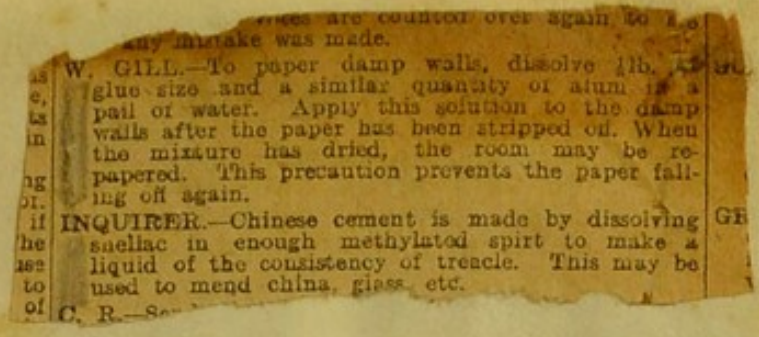
Mr. A B Grafton 43

13 Black Sauce

½ lb of best prunes
½ dessn sugar
1 oz powdered Senna

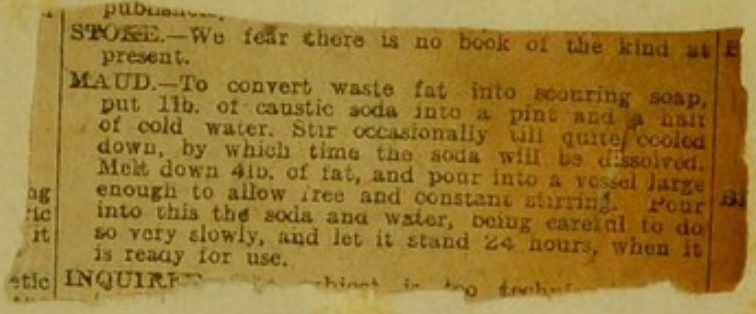
Soak prunes overnight
Stew gently with part
of sugar till well done
Take out stones & beat
in rest of sugar + Senna
well. Add a little
brandy. Stew prunes
with just enough water
to cover

Constipation Herbs
Hearts ease
1/6 post free



W. GILL.—To paper damp walls, dissolve 1lb. glue-size and a similar quantity of alum in a pail of water. Apply this solution to the damp walls after the paper has been stripped off. When the mixture has dried, the room may be re-papered. This precaution prevents the paper falling off again.

INQUIRER.—Chinese cement is made by dissolving shellac in enough methylated spirt to make a liquid of the consistency of treacle. This may be used to mend china, glass etc.



STOKE.—We fear there is no book of the kind at present.

MAUD.—To convert waste fat into scouring soap, put 1lb. of caustic soda into a pint and a half of cold water. Stir occasionally till quite cooled down, by which time the soda will be dissolved. Melt down 4lb. of fat, and pour into a vessel large enough to allow free and constant stirring. Pour into this the soda and water, being careful to do so very slowly, and let it stand 24 hours, when it is ready for use.

THE 20th CENTURY
HOUSEHOLD GUIDE

MAXIMS FOR OUR SOLDIERS

Lord Kitchener Enjoins Every Man To Do His Duty Bravely.

To every soldier in the Expeditionary Army Lord Kitchener issued the following instructions, to be kept in his active service pay-book :—

You are ordered abroad as a soldier of the King to help our French comrades against the invasion of a common enemy.

You have to perform a task which will need your courage, your energy, your patience. Remember that the honour of the British Empire depends on your individual conduct.

It will be your duty not only to set an example of discipline and perfect steadiness under fire, but also to maintain the most friendly relations with those whom you are helping in this struggle.

Be invariably courteous, considerate, and kind. Never do anything likely to injure or destroy property, and always look upon looting as a disgraceful act.

In this new experience you may find temptations, both in wine and women. You must entirely resist both temptations, and while treating all women with perfect courtesy you should avoid any intimacy.

Do your duty bravely.

Fear God.

Honour the King.

KITCHENER, Field-Marshal.

'DUTY IS YOUR WATCHWORD'

The King's Message to his Soldiers.

The King sent the following inspiring message to the troops before leaving England :—

BUCKINGHAM PALACE.

You are leaving home to fight for the safety and honour of my Empire.

Belgium, whose country we are pledged to defend, has been attacked, and France is about to be invaded by the same powerful foe.

I have implicit confidence in you, my soldiers. Duty is your watchword, and I know your duty will be nobly done.

I shall follow your every movement with deepest interest, and mark with eager satisfaction your daily progress. Indeed, your welfare will never be absent from my thoughts.

I pray God to bless you and guard you, and bring you back victorious.

GEORGE, R.I.

Aug. 9, 1914.

EVERY MAN'S DUTY.

"We are fighting on behalf of our friends a powerful, vicious, and unscrupulous enemy. It is the duty of every man to do all he can to fit himself for any event that may arise."

LORD ROBERTS at Eton.

THE KAISER AND GOD.

"Led by Wilhelm, as you tell him, God has done extremely well."—Telegram from the Kaiser to the Crown Princess.

Led by Wilhelm, as you tell
God has done extremely well;
Your patronising nod
Show that you approve of God.
Kaiser, face a question now—
This—does God approve of you?

Broken pledges, treaties torn,
Your first page of war adorn;
We on fouler things must look
Who read further in that book,
Where you did in time unfold
All that you in peace forswore,
Where you, barbarously wise,
Bade your soldiers terrorise,
Where you made—the deed was fine—
Women screen your firing line,
Villages burned down to dust,
Torture, murder, bestial lust,
Filth too foul for printer's ink,
Crimes from which the apes would shrink—
Strange the offerings that you press
On the God of Righteousness!

Kaiser, when you'd decorate
Sons or friends who serve your State,
Not that Iron Cross bestow
But a Cross of Wood, and so—
So remind the world that you
Have made Calvary anew.

Kaiser, when you'd kneel in prayer
Look upon your hands, and there
Let that deep and awful stain
From the blood of children slain
Burn your very soul with shame,
Till you dare not breathe that Name
That now you glibly advertise—
God as one of your allies.

Impious braggart, you forget;
God is not your conscript yet;
You shall learn in dumb amaze
That His ways are not your ways,
That the mire through which you trod
Is not the high white road of God,
To Whom, whichever way the combat rolls,
We, fighting to the end, commend our souls.

BARRY PAIN in *The Times.*



"A man's work, 'tis till set of sun,
But a woman's work is never done!"

[*Frontispiece*

Look Inside]

THE 20th CENTURY HOUSEHOLD GUIDE

BEING A

POPULAR REFEREE ON SUBJECTS OF HOUSEHOLD ENQUIRY

INCLUDING

HOUSEKEEPING, FURNISHING, DECORATING, DOMESTIC COOKERY, NEEDLEWORK, GARDENING, MEDICINE, LAW, AMUSEMENTS, &c., &c.

EDITED BY

ALFRED H. MILES

ASSISTED BY A STAFF OF SPECIALISTS

With Upwards of 100 Illustrations

LONDON

EDWIN DALTON

48–50, ALDERSGATE STREET, E.C.

1909

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PREFACE

This Work aims to be a popular referee on subjects of household enquiry.

It deals with all questions concerning the Building, Buying, Renting, Furnishing and Decoration of the House; with Household Management and Accounts, Income and Expenditure, Choosing and Buying, Cooking and Carving, Cleaning and Renovating, the Duties of Servants, etc., etc.; with Home Farming and the management of Poultry, Pigs and Domestic Pets, Dogs, Cats, Pigeons, Rabbits and Song Birds; with Gardening in the Conservatory, the Flower Garden, the Kitchen Garden and the Fruit Garden; with the Household and Household Relationships, the Forms and Laws of Marriage, Matrimonial Causes, Domestic Life; the Law of Parent and Child, Education, Moral Training and Etiquette; with Needlework, Plain and Fancy, the Sewing Machine, its History and Development, Taste in Dress, etc., etc.; with Household Hygiene, Medical Self-help, the Structure of the Body, Food and Feeding, the Bath and Bathing, Common Ailments, Common Injuries, Nursing the Sick, etc., etc.; with Life Insurance, giving tables of the Expectancy of Life at different ages, and rates of Premiums with and without profit-sharing as charged by the principal Companies, annuities and the Law of Wills and Testaments; with Home Amusements, Chess, Draughts, Card Games, Dancing, Christmas Customs and Decoration, hints on Tableaux, etc., etc., etc.

Besides these and other more domestic subjects the Household Oracle deals with those which affect the householder as a citizen and a scholar. An Epitome of English History from Anglo-Saxon

times is followed by a series of Stepping Stones of English History in Table form, giving the dates of all the principal events from the Roman occupation. A sketch of the growth of Our English Tongue is followed by a concise statement of the rules of English Grammar with examples. A brief account of the Land we live on, tracing the growth of the Land Laws, leads up to a description of the English Constitution showing the working of our constitutional system, parochial, municipal and imperial. Under the heading "The Measurement of Time" the story of the Calendar is told, to which is added a Universal Time Table and a Table showing the date of Easter Day and the day of the week upon which each month of the year commences from 1898 to 1950. A History of the Human Family is followed by an historical sketch of each of the great Nations of the World, a Dictionary of the Religions of the World and a Table of the Styles of Architecture of all ages. A description of our Postal System in all its ramifications is given, including particulars of rates and conditions up to and including the changes made at the Jubilee of the Queen's reign, 1897, to which are added Tables of Weights and Measures, a Universal Interest Table, a Table of Values of Foreign Moneys, a Ready Reckoner and a Table of Interest at five per Cent on £1 to £10 000 from 1 day to 365 days and from 1 month to 12 months.

These and numerous other subjects are treated by specialists whose names are given in the Table of Subjects and Authors, The subjects are illustrated by drawings and diagrams wherever necessary, and it is hoped that their treatment will be found simple, concise and popular. In the department of cookery, economy—apparently the last thing thought of in the preparation of many books dealing with the subject—has been steadily kept in view, and though high-class cookery is dealt with, many homely recipes are given which have stood the test of practical experience for many years.

In the result it is hoped that the volume will be an invaluable help to the young housekeeper and an indispensable authority in every house.

A. H. M.

SUBJECTS AND AUTHORS

Architecture, Building and Decoration,
W. H. Wood, Esq., M.R.I.B.A.

Cookery, Plain and Artistic,—Lessons and Recipes,
A. G. Payne, Esq., and other writers.

Domestic Pets; Dogs, Cats, Pigeons, Rabbits and Song Birds,
Gordon Stables, Esq. M.D., R.N.

English Constitution, The, Parochial, Municipal and Imperial,
Alfred H. Miles, Esq.

English Grammar, Rules and Examples; and English History,
Emily D. Francis.

Gardening and The Gardeners' Calendar,
W. E. Early, Esq., and other writers.

Great Nations of the World, The,
Rev. Robert Tuck, B.A.

History of the Human Family, The,
Rev. Robert Tuck, B.A.

Home Amusements, Dancing, Chess, Card, Games, etc.,
Thomas Archer, Esq., and other writers.

Home Farming; Keeping Poultry, Pigs, etc.,
Gordon Stables, Esq., M.D., R.N.

House Furnishing and Home Making,
Alfred H. Miles, Esq., and other writers.

Household Hygiene, Medical Self-help, etc., etc.,
H. Cameron Gillies, Esq., M.D.

Housekeeping, Buying and Storing, etc., etc.,
A. G. Payne, Esq., and other writers.

Land we Live on, The,
Alfred H. Miles, Esq.

Law—Landlord and Tenant, Master and Servant, etc.,
R. J. Griffiths, Esq., LL.D.

Law—Matrimonial Causes, Parent and Child, etc.,
L. D. Powles, Esq., Barrister at Law.

Life Insurance, Annuities, Old Age Pensions, etc.,
Alfred H. Miles, Esq.

Measurement of Time, The, and The Story of the Calendar,
Alfred H. Miles, Esq.

Needlework, Plain and Fancy,
Emily D. Francis.

Our English Tongue, Its Formation and Growth,
Alfred H. Miles, Esq.

Pigs, Their Care and Treatment,
Gordon Stables, Esq., M.D., R.N.

Poultry, Their Breeding and Management,
Gordon Stables, Esq., M.D., R.N.

Religions, A Dictionary of,
Rev. Robert Tuck, B.A.

Stepping Stones of English History,
Alfred H. Miles, Esq.

Wills and Testaments, The Law of,
L. D. Powles, Esq., Barrister at Law.

Furniture Polish

½ pint Linseed oil

1 gill Methylated Spirits

2 Table Spoon full of Vinegar

× 2° worth Butter of Anthony ×

× Anthony

× poison to be had at Chemists

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THE HOUSEHOLD GUIDE.

A POPULAR REFEREE ON ALL SUBJECTS OF HOUSEHOLD ENQUIRY.

THE HOUSE.

The Modern Builder.—It is not altogether pleasant, as you sit at dinner in your suburban home, to know that Smith, who lives next door on one side, has cabbage for his evening meal, and likes it strong; and that Jones, next door upon the other side, has cold mutton, and doesn't like it at all. And as you smell Smith's cabbage, and listen to Jones's strong language, you very naturally feel dissatisfied with a system of building that divides house from house by a wall scarcely thicker than the paper that you paste upon it. And you resolve firmly that when *you* are a landed proprietor, and put up houses, you will supply your tenants with party-walls as thick as the head of an alderman. But you wouldn't do anything of the sort, if you were a millionaire. You would be just as economical of your brick-and-mortar as your present landlord is; you would give your contracts to the lowest bidder—that is, the most unscrupulous contractor; and you would charge high rents for your card-houses, with just as much cheerful impudence as does the man whom you are now condemning. It is human nature. This may be unpopular doctrine but it is true for all that. People like to be told that the human race can boast a high average of morality and generosity and justice. The only public teachers whom we permit to abuse us with impunity are the clergy. Perhaps that is because we don't feel obliged to believe them when they do it. The Parson tells us that we are all miserable sinners, and we quite agree with him of course. But there's no animosity in it. The reverend gentleman comes home and takes dinner with us after the sermon; and we look upon his remarks as merely glittering generalities, without any practical application to ourselves at any rate. But it's quite a different thing when an independent and erratic writer remarks that if the average man is left to his own devices, he will invest his money so as to bring in the greatest return for the least risk; and that all the natural goodness of his nature will not prevent him from building paper houses, if paper houses pay. Yet the thing must be said, and without any pretty compliments, either. It is not the thieves, and brutes, and vagabonds of society who put up the rotten structures which destroy our comfort. It is the class which we consider the chief support of the social edifice. It is the church-warden, the club-man, the

shining light of influence and respectability who owns acre upon acre of fragile shells that, for want of better and more enduring habitations, a host of poor folk must call *homes*. And these men do not build with the malicious intention of making their tenants uncomfortable. They do not construct six-inch party-walls in order to put the people between them in peril of their lives. They simply deceive themselves, and quiet their consciences with little fibs which are only too easy to invent. "The city is growing—these houses must all be turned into shops within a few years—if I spend any more money on the construction, I shall have to make the rental so high that there will be no possibility of filling them. Some day, when I build in a permanently settled neighbourhood, I'll build solidly." Thus speaks the heart of the rich man to itself; and he signs the contract with McDethtrapp & O'Shantee, who engage to put up his next row in less than sixty days, at the lowest prices. And then the rich man says firmly and unanswerably to his heart: "Shut up, and don't be sentimental!" And then he walks forth proud and asthmatic; and is really and honestly quite shocked and horrified when he sees a French nurse in a public thoroughfare exposing a muslin-wrapped infant to the winter wind. You can't do anything by appealing to that man's moral nature. He utterly lacks the sense of analogy. He can't see that if a thin dress on a baby is objectionable, a thin house over a family is equally incorrect and improper. You couldn't possibly convince him that he and the careless *bonne* are equally derelict to duty—one in one way and the other in another; but both guilty of treating their fellow creatures as they would not wish their fellow creatures to treat them. No, if we want that our houses should be houses, and not shadows and ghosts of houses, we, the great tenant population of this country, must build up a LAW big enough and strong enough to hold the richest proprietor and the trickiest contractor in a good firm grasp. No poor little inefficient, half-hearted "Board of Inspectors" will do the work; we want a system of legal protection which will adapt itself to all the various and varying exigencies of the case. If it is possible to plead the cause of the poor without being attainted of communism we will say that when next a breath of fire or a whiff of wind touches a paper house, and all of a sudden the scant bricks are scattered, and the cheap mortar puts on immortality—*then* we want to see the esteemed and respected citizen, to whom those erections belonged, in court, on the wrong side of the bar, to stand his trial for manslaughter—before a jury of tenants. In the mean time we may remember, that there is an old proverb which says, "If you want a thing done well do it yourself," and if we have the time, money and opportunity we may experiment upon the lines laid down in the following pages; or, if we do not experiment ourselves, we shall, after their perusal, at least be better qualified to judge of the buildings erected by others, in which from time to time we may be compelled to live.

Building, Buying, and Renting Houses.—Most householders are compelled either to build, buy, or rent a house; and many lack the experience necessary to securing the maximum comfort at the minimum cost. To point out the desiderata to be sought in human dwellings, and the ordinary evils to be guarded against in building, buying or renting houses, is the purpose of these pages; and it is hoped that they may furnish the reader with information which will minister to his comfort in many ways.

Locality.—Previous to the negotiations for securing a residence, whether by building, buying or renting, the question *where* to live is an important and general one. Although, in the majority of cases, the nature and place of one's business does not admit of a very large selection of *localities*, yet there is generally, owing to facilities of locomotion, some choice which can be made. Under

the head of *locality*, it will be convenient to treat of *climate* and *aspect; soils* on which to build, *water supply*, etc.

Climate.—In the sense in which the word is here used, climate may be defined to mean the general tendency of a district towards mild, or severe, average, or extreme moisture or dryness, heat or cold. Climate may be considered as consisting of four varieties: dry and warm, wet and warm, dry and cold, and wet and cold. In some localities there is generally a prevalence of one or more kinds; and in most places the situation of a dwelling either modifies or intensifies these climatic influences. It is advisable, whenever possible, to avoid either a damp heat or a damp cold; the former being malarious, the latter productive of rheumatism, pleurisy, colds, and other ills. The bracing influence of dry cold is generally advantageous, especially for those not naturally delicate; and its excess can frequently, if not generally, be guarded against by the protecting influences of a wood, or by artificial means. A dry heat is the most genial, as it probably is the most generally acceptable; its excess, as in the case of cold, can be modified by shade. In selecting a site whereon to build, or a house already built, these considerations must be borne in mind; and any natural features, which may ameliorate the excesses spoken of, must be noted. It should be remembered that an elevated situation, other things being equal, has the advantage over a depressed one, which is more or less damp, and consequently unhealthy. It is true that the tops of hills are more or less bleak according to their height, and on that account are undesirable as places of residence. In this, as in most cases, the advice of Horace well applies: "It is safest to take the middle course."

Aspect in reference to an estate is its situation in regard to sunshine and weather. The more a piece of land slopes in any direction, so much the more will it be exposed to, or deprived of, the sun's rays. This exposure to, or deprivation of, solar influence, will obviously affect the cultivation of the land, as it will the comfort of the house. In districts where objectionable winds prevail, their rigour is tempered by securing a site sloping away from their influence; in other words, inclining towards the opposite point of the compass.

Soil.—On the soil depends, in great measure, the health of the inmates and the durability of the building erected thereon. The main essentials for building purposes are: that the soil should rapidly absorb moisture, so that the house may remain dry in all weathers; and an equality of compressibility to obviate settlement, and consequent fracture of any portion of the structure. The soils from which one has generally to select are loams, gravels, chalks, and clays. Of these a firm gravel, of good depth, is generally the best as the rain is speedily absorbed, and very little evaporation takes place, as is the case with clayey and loamy soils. The next, in order of merit, are compact, sandy soils, of a gravelly nature. Chalk requires to be protected from the weather, and necessitates great care in the foundations. Clay soils are, besides the disadvantage of retaining moisture, very treacherous to deal with. A drought after a heavy rain will cause large cracks or fissures, often of considerable depth in clayey soils, obviously to the danger of the stability of the building. Loamy or sandy soils, with the exception of those previously mentioned, are about the worst, as the soil will escape laterally when adjacent excavations or disturbances are made. Hence the failure of many buildings on these soils, after having stood many years. Of course a building *can*, with proper precautions, be erected on *any* soil; and even the best, from the geological formation of contiguous or underlying strata, frequently demand considerable skill and caution in dealing with them. St. Paul's Cathedral may be cited as an instance of the successful management of a very treacherous site; this magnificent edifice having been erected on a bed of clay, overlaying a mass of *quicksand*, 40 feet

in depth. The avoidance of soils necessitating a large outlay on foundations, for ordinary buildings at least, is a precaution so obvious that it needs no further comment.

Water Supply is a most important matter to consider in deciding on a locality; the constant supply of good water being obviously necessary for health and cleanliness. In towns, of course, the supply is provided by the municipality or by a Water company; but in the country, unless the proposed site be in the immediate vicinity of a river, lake, or stream, when the suitability of the water can be readily tested, the supply will, generally, have to be from a well; and where such has to be sunk, a knowledge of the geological formation of the district will afford a clue as to the probable depth of the water-bearing strata. In order, however, to determine the quality, as well as the chance of an adequate supply, it will generally be found necessary to have recourse to boring. In the construction of a new, but more particularly in the adoption of an existing well, it is of paramount importance to satisfy oneself of the *impossibility* of the water becoming contaminated in any way. The contiguity of a sewage tank, a stagnant pool, or other receptacle of putrid matter, is a danger which is self-evident —there are, moreover, other circumstances to be taken into consideration, as there is a possibility of the supply becoming contaminated, even at a distance. The depth of the source, and the nature of the soil, may preclude the possibility of any pollution from adjacent putrescence,—but the inclination of the water-bearing stratum may, at no very great distance, bring the supply sufficiently near the surface to render it liable to infection. Besides the well, advantage can be taken of the intermittent supply of rain water, which, from its softness, and in the country, general purity, is especially valuable for cleansing purposes. In addition to these matters, certain local and social considerations should be thought of before pitching one's tent. The chief are, distance from, and facility of access to, the nearest railway station or main road; proximity to the doctor, the church, etc., and the character of neighbouring society. Inquiries as to the rights of adjoining owners, easements, and other privileges, are among the most important questions on which to satisfy oneself. In some country villages, and in many suburbs, the existence, even temporarily, of obnoxious odours from neighbouring manufactories, stagnant pools, marshes, ditches, and other places, are all matters of which it is necessary to take cognisance before deciding on any property, however suitable it may be in other respects.

The House.—The style or architectural expression of a building, which is a matter of individual taste, does not generally affect its convenience, as does the plan, or disposition of the several apartments. A house to be absolutely satisfactory should, undoubtedly, be as beautiful in design as it ought certainly to be perfect in arrangement. Such consummate excellence is, however, seldom attainable; and it becomes necessary either to effect a compromise between comfort and appearance, or to sacrifice one to the other. The most preferable course to the majority of persons is, no doubt, to consider comfort and convenience first, and appearance afterwards. This is, doubtless, the most logical and sensible course. And moreover, it should be remembered that a building, well and truly constructed, and suited to the purpose for which it is intended, need not be ugly, although devoid of so-called architectural embellishments. The comfortableness of a house, means its thorough suitability to the wants of its occupants, and exemption from draughts, smoky chimneys, dust, smells from kitchen and other places, damp, excess of heat and cold, besides other evils. The manner in which these can be best obviated, we will now proceed to discuss.

The Outlook.—Amongst the chief desiderata for a house may be mentioned *aspect*, or the disposition of windows,

etc., towards the various points of the compass, in order to admit or exclude solar rays from particular points, as also certain winds from different quarters. This, as a rule, cannot be generally secured in towns and populous suburbs —one side of a street having all the advantage of the morning sun in the principal rooms, the other, all the disadvantage of the afternoon's rays—or one side of a street may be exposed to the roasting influence of the mid-day sun; the other have hardly any, and that very obliquely. In country residences, however, although there are numerous instances displayed of want of skill in this particular, it is generally possible, and more or less easy, to arrange the apartments with a due regard to aspect.

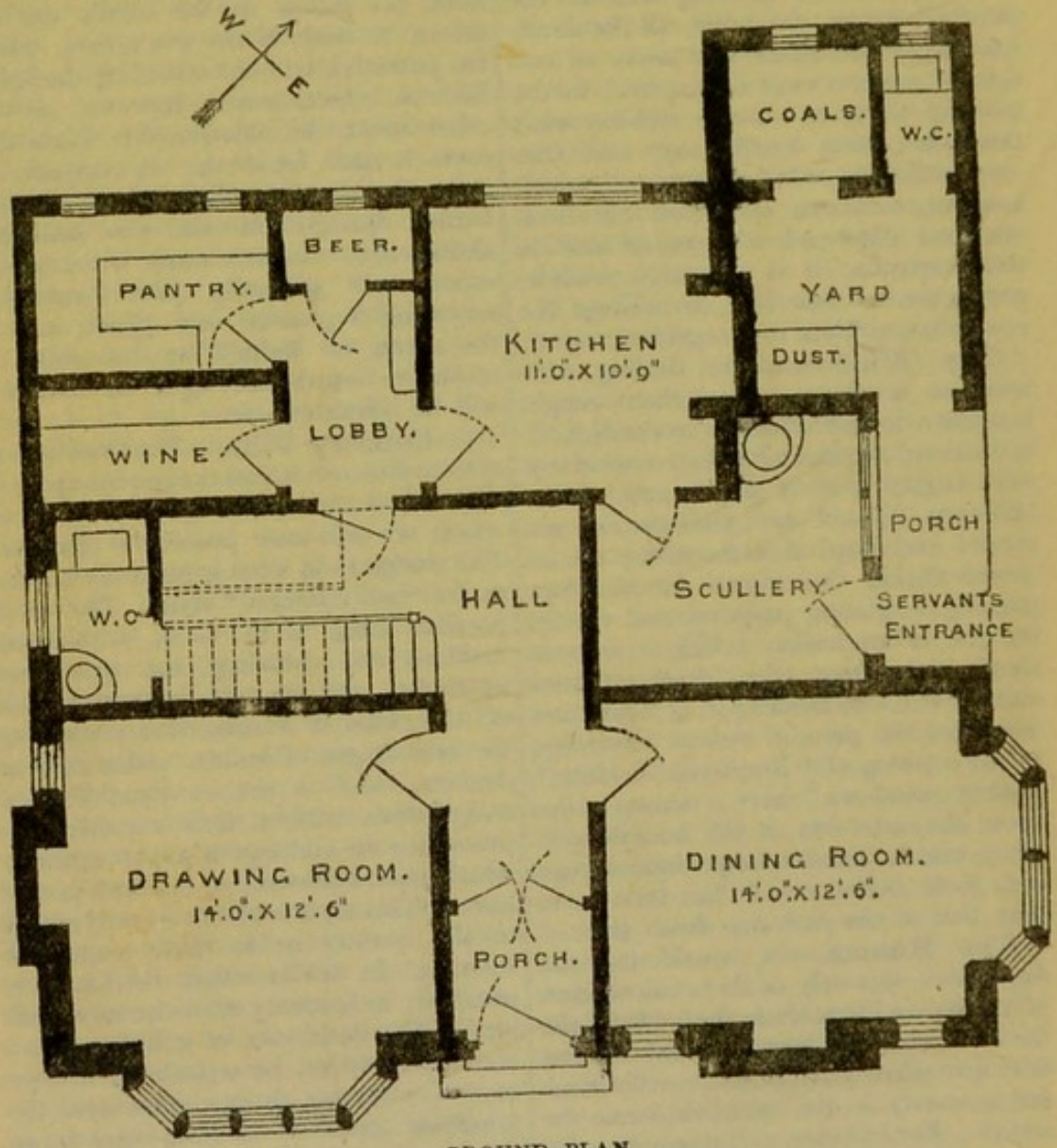
The Windows.—In dealing with windows it is no more than simple humanity to call attention to the N.A.P. or National Accident Preventive windows now largely used in public and private buildings. These are windows so arranged and fitted that the sashes can be turned inside the rooms for cleaning, painting or glazing purposes and this by the use of mechanism which is at once simple and strong. The death roll from outside window cleaning is a heavy one and from the point of view of humanity, to say nothing of "Employers' liability," "safety windows" have a strong claim upon the attention of the householder. They can be fitted to any window space and their initial cost is but little more than that of the ordinary death trap.

The Rooms.—In considering the disposition, not only of the windows, but of the rooms themselves, the habits of the family have to be borne in mind in ascertaining to what, if any, extent, modifications are necessary in the established rule for aspect. For instance, a dining-room with only a north light, whilst eminently suited to a family using it only as a room for luncheon and *late* dinners, would be wholly unsuitable to less formal individuals using it as a sitting-room during the day. In the former case, a north or north-east aspect is the most judicious, as the objectionable glare of sunlight during meals is obviated. In the latter, however, sunshine during the day is an essential, for any sitting-room deprived of its influence cannot but be gloomy. A sitting-room should look more or less southward; due south *may* be tolerated, especially if the room be lighted from two sides, as the blinds can be drawn to exclude the sun's rays, when too powerful, without excluding the light. Such an aspect would, however, on the other hand, be objectionable when the room is used for meals. A compromise must therefore be effected between the formal dining-room and the ordinary sitting-room. In most cases, a south-east aspect will generally prove suitable, rendering it pleasant and genial; and if the room be lighted on two sides, a north or north-east light in addition will be advantageous.

A Country Villa.—The frontispiece of this volume indicates the general appearance of a villa, the ground plan of which we will now proceed to consider. The design is in what is generally known as the "half-timbered" style. The lower portion being in red brick, with stone mullions and dressings, the upper part in timber and plaster; the peculiarities of this kind of construction possessing the advantages of hollow walls, such as dryness, and a certain equability of temperature, without their expense, and possessing in addition a picturesqueness which plain brickwork or masonry cannot have. This style is obviously only suited to the country or to thinly populated suburbs. In well-wooded districts it is peculiarly in harmony with the surroundings. The desiderata of a house to live in may, however, be considered in connection with this as any other style, the principles involved in each case being the same.

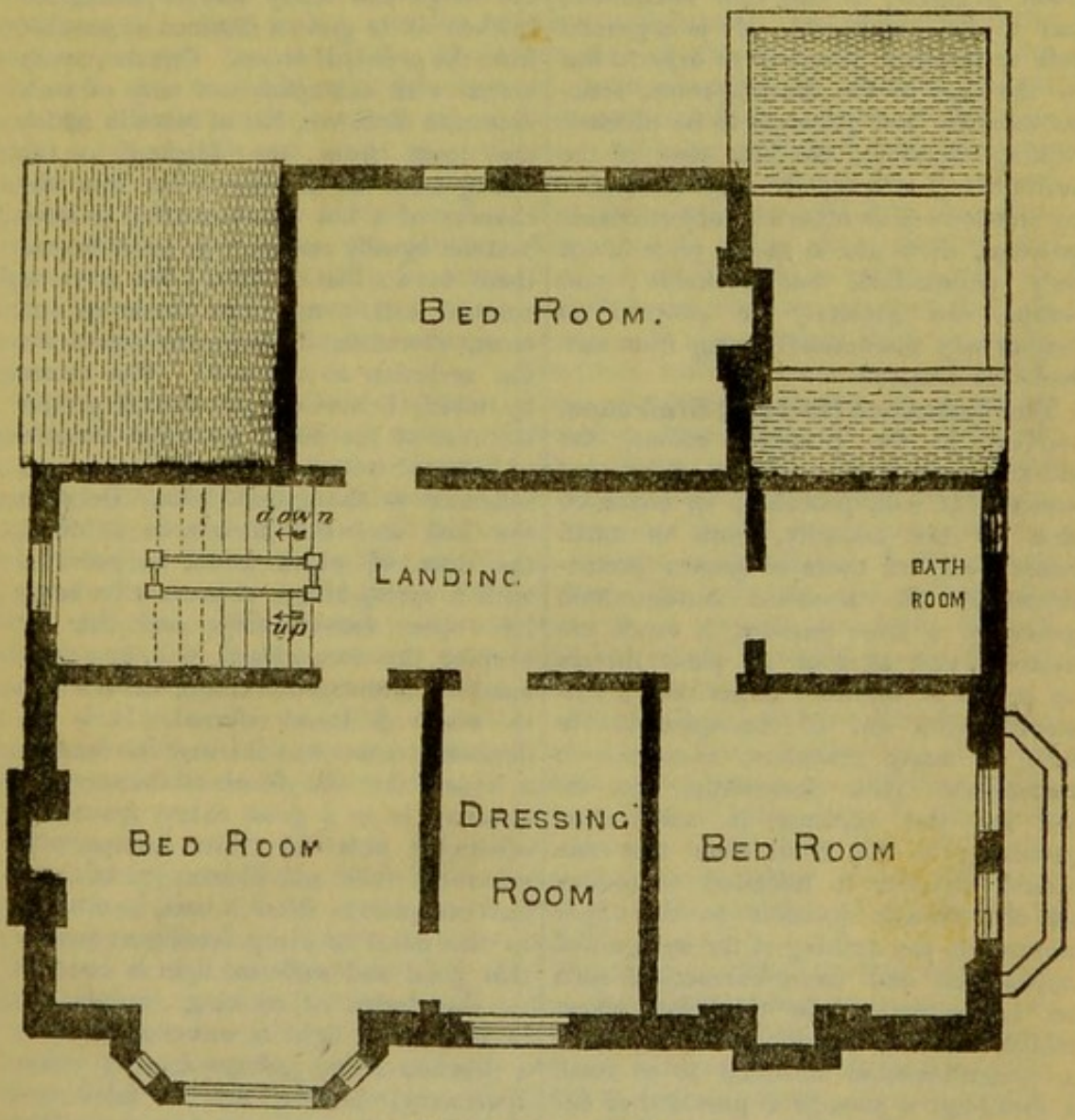
The Dining-Room.—In the accompanying ground plan, which is that of the villa referred to, the aspect assigned to the different rooms will be readily perceived by the annexed compass. In a small house like this the dining-room would doubtless serve the double purpose of dining-room and sitting-room, and

therefore the aspect advocated is obtained by two narrow side windows facing the south-east, and a bay looking principally towards the north-east. It will be evident that such a room, whilst having an abundance of sunlight during the early part of the day, will be cool and pleasant in the afternoon and evening. The position of the door in a room of this kind is of more importance than in a more stately apartment. In both cases, where there is no service door, it should be placed near the sideboard for the convenience of service. In the parlour dining-room, we are now considering, its position in relation to the fire-place is of the greatest importance, as here, unlike the formal dining-room, the good old English custom of drawing round the fire has to be considered—a cosy chat or read by the fireside, undisturbed by draughts, being essential to the comfort of any sitting-room. The hanging, or side on which the hinges are placed, like every other detail, is duly taken cognizance of by the careful architect. A reference to the plan of the dining-room will show the advantage of the door



GROUND PLAN.

opening in the direction indicated, instead of the opposite way. Any current of air admitted by the opening of the door must impinge against the wall *opposite* the fire-place; whereas, had the door been hinged on the other side, any rush of air would be *towards* the fire-place.



FIRST FLOOR PLAN.

The Drawing-Room.—The drawing-room, whether in small or large houses, differs little in purpose. It is essentially the ladies' sitting-room for the greater part of the day, and in it visitors are generally received at all hours. For these reasons then, if for no others, it is important that the room should be cheerful and comfortable, with a liberal allowance of windows, whose aspect should be in a great degree southwards—somewhere between south-east and south-west is the most desirable. Not too near the east to suffer from the winds from that quarter, nor so far west as to catch the hot level rays of the setting sun, or the extreme influence of the rain from this quarter. Very little window space, at the same time, is permissible towards the sultry south. As a rule, the *principal* light

should be from the south-east. A bay window, facing this direction, is probably the best arrangement, as shewn in the accompanying plan. Independently of the cosiness of the bay, there is the advantage of a good range of sunshine. In this room, perhaps more than in any other *prospect*, or the view obtainable, has to be considered. It is a general rule to sacrifice *prospect* to *aspect;* but in the case of the drawing-room, some compromise has generally to be effected. When, therefore, the best view of the surrounding country is only obtainable by windows in an otherwise objectionable position, their use in such a place is not only permissible, but desirable; and means can generally be adopted to temper any discomfort arising from outlooks so situated.

The Entrance Hall and Staircase.—Next to the principal rooms, the entrance-hall and staircase claim our notice. It will, probably, be conceded that in the majority, both of small houses and of those of greater pretentiousness, the so-called entrance-hall, generally a mere passage, is much too narrow—any attempt to place therein an article of furniture larger than a hatstand being out of the question—in fact, in many instances, even this is impossible. How frequently, too, do we see the staircase in such close proximity to the front door that one would imagine it intended to convey all the draught possible to the upper rooms—to say nothing of the undignified appearance and inconvenience of such an arrangement. In the plan given, whilst avoiding anything like waste, or a pretentiousness unsuited to so small a dwelling, a passage is provided of fair width leading to a hall sufficiently large to admit, besides a hatstand, at least a table and a couple of chairs.

The Kitchen.—In the majority of ordinary houses, the position of the kitchen relatively to the other rooms is, to say the least of it, ill considered; in fact, it appears to have been dictated either by chance or caprice, instead of receiving the same attention bestowed on the other rooms. In small houses the chief difficulty is to so arrange the culinary department as to prevent its odours pervading the other apartments. Of course, the larger the house the easier the arrangement in this respect, though this difficulty is often solved in the rough and ready way of placing the kitchen at as great a distance as possible from the principal rooms. One frequently meets with examples, not only of such excessive distances, but of cases in which the route from the kitchen to the dining-room is so circuitous, that the chances of a hot dinner coming to table become equally remote. In small houses there is no fear of this. We have to contend with a too close proximity, and must, therefore, devise some means for the seclusion so desirable. The means by which I have endeavoured to protect the rest of the house from the invasion of those odours will be seen on reference to the ground plan. Between the hall and the kitchen is a lobby, the door of which would be provided with a spring-hinge, to prevent its being left open unnecessarily, and this by keeping the door closed, will, in a great measure, intercept the disagreeable whiffs to which I have referred. It is undoubtedly too often the case in choosing a house, that the *fitness* of the servants' quarters is to a great extent ignored—otherwise how do those houses with miserably dark and ill-arranged kitchens find occupiers?—Now it must be obvious to the mind of every intelligent person that good and sufficient light is essential to the duties of cooking, in fact, an abundance of light is more essential in a kitchen than perhaps in any other apartment; bearing this in mind one should reject any house, however otherwise suitable, that is not properly planned in this respect. In large kitchens a top light in addition to wall lights is frequently very advantageous; but in the class of houses we are now considering, such a feature is generally both unnecessary and unattainable. In those of smaller size, one or two windows properly placed is all that is required;

for a house of the size illustrated, one large window is the best. This, in order that the objects on or at the fire may be properly seen, should be to the left of anyone facing the fire-place—unless the cook is left-handed, the light on the opposite side is quite sufficient to impede her progress—of course there are cases in which such a position of window cannot be obtained. It is advisable also to avoid either a door opening directly to the external air, or such a disposition of doors as will ensure a direct draught to the fire-place. A scullery adjoining the kitchen with a communicating door, in the position shown on the plan, and with its outer door protected by a porch or other means, is perhaps about the best arrangement.

Store Rooms.—Of the store-rooms, pantry, and cellars, it is not necessary to say much in connection with small houses, except that it is advisable to exclude the sun's rays from all places in which food is kept; the light should therefore be as due north as possible. Wine cellars should be in such positions, or constructed in such a manner, as to ensure an equality of temperature, hence it is not desirable that they should have any windows; air is not necessary for the preservation of wine as it is for beer.

Bedrooms.—The planning of bedrooms, though necessarily following to a great extent that of the rooms below, is a matter deserving of particular attention, and is one in which the skill of the designer may frequently manifest itself. For it is obvious that a room underneath a sleeping apartment may be perfectly suited to the purpose for which it is intended, but a repetition above might, and possibly would, be wholly unsuited to another purpose. Although the primary consideration of a bedroom is that of a place wherein to sleep, yet it must be remembered that it may be occasionally used as a sick-room. For the reasons I have hinted at, the positions of the fire-place and windows are generally fixed, and the only remaining element in the general plan—the position of the door has to be determined. Before considering this, however, the place for the bed must be settled. The best position for it is with its head to the wall and with the light at the side; then if the fire-place be at the foot, the arrangement so far will be most satisfactory. In determining the position of the door, the other articles of furniture must be thought of—for instance, wardrobe, chest of drawers, etc. Allowing sufficient wall space for these, the door should be so placed that the sleeper is safe from draughts. The aperture being thus planned, the door should so open as to hide the bed; and if it can also be arranged that, on opening, it also exposes its back to the fire-place, nothing more can be desired. This absolute perfection of planning, however, cannot always be managed, the present example to wit. In the bedroom over drawing-room the position of the door is the only practicable one, on account of the stairs. I should here observe the first rule, and so hang the door as to conceal the bed, when it will be evident it would expose its *face* and not its *back* to the fire.

Attic Plan.—Above the first floor there are three bedrooms somewhat smaller than those on the floor below on account of the slope in the roof. If this is objected to the walls might be carried up rather higher though it would be a sacrifice of appearance to utility.

Drainage.—Of all the evils with which the householder has to contend, undoubtedly the chief and most frequent are the annoyances and dangers resulting from defective drainage. It may, I think, be safely stated, without fear of contradiction, that the majority of houses of the speculative class manifest, if not culpable negligence and dishonesty, at least ignorance of the fundamental principles of drainage. And can it be wondered at when we consider that, where no stringent law exists compelling builders to observe certain rules as to drainage, a man must be possessed of

a more than ordinary share of integrity to carry out properly such work, when under no sort of supervision. For it must be remembered that the intending purchaser cannot *see* any defects in this underground work, and it is generally only after occupation that one becomes aware that imperfections exist. The principal faults are bad materials, defective and irregular fall, and badly-formed joints, or as is frequently the case, none at all. In many of the houses we have had occasion to condemn, and, indeed, in others of a superior class, it is by no means an unfrequent occurrence to find the principal drains carried *through* the house. In the case of detached and semi-detached houses, such a course is both unnecessary and inexcusable. In dealing with houses in a row, it *is* frequently necessary to adopt such a procedure. In such cases too much care cannot be bestowed on them. Nothing inferior to the best stoneware pipes, laid in concrete, with joints made in cement, is permissible; though cast-iron pipes in such situations are undoubtedly the best, as there is less liability of leakage owing to defective workmanship. Any leakage is obviously a fertile source of danger to the health of those in the house, even if it be the smallest aperture, as it will permit the sewer gas, so deadly a poison, to find its way into the house. During the last few years such a vast amount of labour has been expended on investigating the evils of defective sanitary arrangements, and so much valuable matter written on the subject by eminent authorities, that it is unnecessary to do more than call attention to the principal *causes* of these evils. In the event of radical errors in the drainage adopted, the uninitiated householder who values his own and his family's health, would, of course, seek the guidance of a duly qualified professional man. There are, however, trivial temporary defects which may very well be rectified by a good workman, without more supervision than that of the well-informed householder. For instance, the insertion of a good for a broken or faulty pipe, or the repair of a joint, etc. The existence of a defective pipe or leakage of any kind generally manifests itself, sooner or later, by the prevalence of a disagreeable smell arising therefrom. As such indication of "something wrong" generally pervades a great portion of the house, means must be adopted for ascertaining the locality from whence it emanates. One of the best agents for this purpose, possibly unknown to many of my readers, is ether. The method is to pour a small quantity into the drain at its highest inlet—as down one of the upper W.C.'s; the plug must be pulled up, the ether quickly poured down, and the valve immediately shut. In a short time afterwards the position of the leak can generally be more or less accurately determined by the escape of the pungent vapour of the ether, which is sufficiently powerful to be smelt at or near the exact spot before it has time to spread. Care must be taken in using it, to avoid spilling it on the hands or clothes, and so confusing the scent. The inflammable nature of it must also be borne in mind. The necessity of proper drainage is now pretty generally admitted, and therefore the Hygienic reasons need not be discussed here. But while the importance of good sanitation is generally recognized, the methods by which it is to be secured are not quite so obvious to the ordinary householder. To help him in his battle with the most subtile of his household enemies the following suggestions are made.

Water Closets.—There is one kind of apparatus which although condemned by every one who has the slightest insight into sanitary science, is still largely manufactured; and, therefore, must be guarded against. This is the form known as the "pan-closet." Pan-closets are those having a dish-shaped valve or pan at the bottom of the bowl. This pan is made to contain a sufficient quantity of water to allow the bowl to dip into the receiver below the water-line, and thus form a "seal." The receiver in these closets being large,

filth accumulates and remains in them. In taking old houses, and, indeed, not unfrequently in new ones, it is very desirable to ascertain if there are such *death-traps* in use. In condemning these pan-closets, we refer to the old forms. There are some improved ones in the market, which are less objectionable; but which are, nevertheless, unequal to the more perfect form of valve closets. These improved pan-closets should, therefore, be received with caution. To the uninitiated, the number of patent apparatuses advertised—most claiming some special advantage—must be truly bewildering. As the different sorts of appliances are, however, very few, the variety in actual construction of those

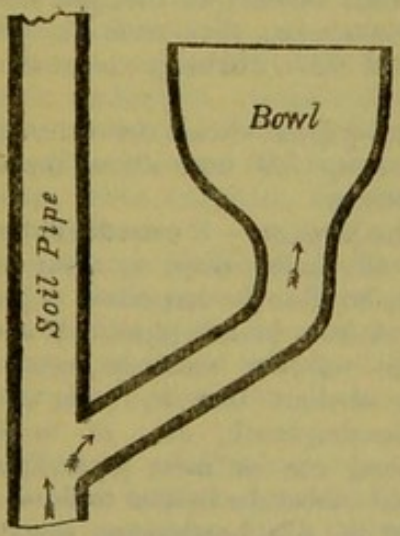


Fig. 1.

that are to be commended is not great. Water-closets may be divided into three kinds, the hopper, the wash-out and wash-down, and the valve closet. For common use outside the house where a good service of water is obtainable, the Hopper closet is about the best, as there is no machinery, as cranks, wires, or valves, to get out of order; and it is, therefore, adapted to rough usage. It is necessary for these closets, especially, to have a good command of water. The supply pipes for them should always be a quarter of an inch larger in diameter than for a valve closet similarly situated. The wash-out and wash-down closets are somewhat superior to the Hopper but equally simple. Water waste preventers or flushing cisterns are necessary for all these. For places in which the two former could not be judiciously employed, and in fact, in all situations where a superior article is desired, some good form of valve closet should be adopted. Those having a flushing rim are the best.

Trapping and Traps.—If any connection with a drain as that of a W.C. pan or bowl with the soil-pipe, were made direct, as in Fig. 1, it is evident to the most casual observer that if any effluvium rises in the soilpipe, it must also find its way into the bowl, and thence into the house, as shown by the

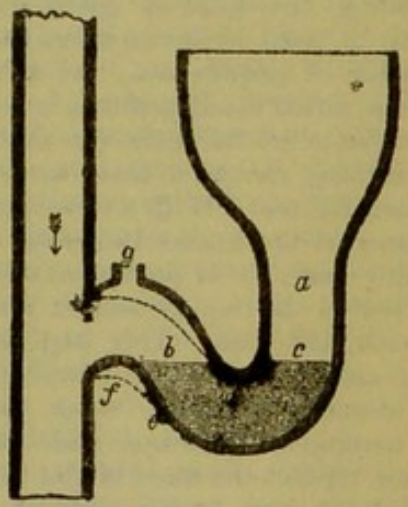


Fig. 2.

arrows. To prevent this, the pipe connecting the bowl to the soil-pipe has one or more bends in it, so as to retain a certain amount of water and thus intercept the gases which otherwise would receive no check. This bent pipe is called a "trap." Fig. 2 shows what is technically known as an S trap—so called from the form it bears to that letter. If a liquid be poured down *a c*, it will not flow out of the other arm until it has risen above the level *b c*—which level, except under certain conditions hereafter described, will always be maintained. It will be observed that the upper portion, *d*, dips into the

water, and thus prevents the passage of any air or gas. The depth from the surface of the water to *d* constitutes therefore the "trap," and is technically known as the "seal." This is only one of many forms of traps for W.C. attachments; however, this and the P trap—the same in principle—are considered the best. The actual form and proportion of these traps is a matter of great importance. In some, the outlet arm is made as shown by the dotted lines *e f*, which will not offer sufficient impediment to the flow, and the whole of the water, therefore, is liable, by a sudden flush, to be displaced. Traps, when thus permitting the water to become displaced, are said to "momentum out." In addition to the necessity of excluding any noxious gases from the sewer, it must be remembered that solid particles of grease, etc., are frequently thrown down scullery sinks; hence some provision must be made for this refuse, for nothing chokes a drain sooner than kitchen fat, etc. With a view apparently to prevent the drains becoming choked in this way, it is no uncommon thing to find a D trap or similar receptacle beneath the sink. This trap *probably* does not get cleaned out until there is an absolute stoppage, when the mass of decomposed animal and vegetable matter renders the cause of that "horrible smell" obvious to the apathetic householder. In no house, however, should the cleanliness of such things as waste-pipes be a matter of chance, and for this reason D traps here as elsewhere must be condemned. The waste-pipe should be trapped with an S or other good form inside the house, and the outlet on no account connected with the drain, but discharge over a gulley or into a grease trap. The grating stops the solid particles which would, as we have seen, choke the pipes, and the slops pass through the trap, and so into the drain. In large establishments, where a great quantity of grease naturally accumulates, these gullies would generally be found inadequate, or at all events would require *very* frequent emptying—some sort of grease *tank* is therefore generally used. The one which finds most favour amongst sanatists is the "flush tank," invented and patented by Mr. Rogers Field. In this apparatus the coarser solid matters are intercepted before entering the tank; the grease, etc., is intercepted by an intermittent system of discharge, which allows sufficient time for the grease to cool, solidify, and become precipitated; and, moreover, the whole is so arranged that the water passing through the tank is discharged in sufficient force to flush or cleanse the drain—a very necessary performance.

Wastes from Baths and Lavatories.—The discharge, or waste-pipes from baths, lavatories, etc., must be treated in a similar manner to that just described for sinks, *i.e.*, they must be internally trapped and discharge into the open air.

Soil-pipes should be external, and carried up full bore above the roof of the house.

The Drains.—It must not be forgotten that all drains may, at some time or other, have to be inspected, or junctions formed from branch pipes. If now they consist of the ordinary socket-pipes, it is obvious that in order to insert a cleaning-brush, etc., or to form a junction, one or more pipes—generally several—must be broken to do so. The repair of this breaking-up can only be patch-work; for it is quite impossible to re-instate the pipes as they were. This method of inspecting drains is, therefore, both costly and clumsy. The absence of any proper provisions for this examination has, doubtless, frequently deterred householders from incurring the expense of breaking them up until absolutely compelled by the urgency of the case to do so. In the best systems of drainage, manholes should be constructed at all changes of direction; or, where they are deemed too costly, "inspection caps" must be provided, which can be readily removed, and a cane and brush inserted for the removal of any obstruction. In all systems of drainage with the common socket-pipes, it is highly desirable that the

workmen, in laying them, be subject to constant supervision. Subsequent test is the *only* method which is generally resorted to for detecting leakages. The outlet of the drain having been perfectly stopped, the pipes are filled with water, which will speedily expose a faulty joint, but cannot disclose any otherwise imperfectly-formed ones; namely, those having a burr or projecting portion of cement on the inside of the pipe. As such excrescences seriously affect the proper flow of sewage, and thus help to cause obstructions, they cannot be too carefully guarded against.

Flushing of Drains.—Supposing that the pipes are all laid to a sufficient and uniform fall, the joints perfectly formed, and everything in proper working order, it will nevertheless be necessary that they be more or less frequently flushed. Automatic flushing is, undoubtedly, the best and most efficacious. Where no special appliances exist the drains must be flushed, when necessary, by pouring water down them.

Connection with Public Sewer.—The house drain must be disconnected from the public sewer by means of a proper trap and should be easy of access, preferably by a manhole, in case of stoppage.

Ventilation of Drains.—In order to prevent the bottling up of bad air in drains it is necessary for a current of air to be constantly passing through them—in other words they must be ventilated—the simplest way of affecting this is to have an air inlet on the house side of the disconnecting trap and to carry up the soil pipe well above the eaves, the higher the better, to act as an outlet.

Warming and Ventilation.—The necessity of a sufficiency of pure air, although recognized by most intelligent individuals, is, nevertheless, frequently not *demanded* by the majority of householders, who are content to live in houses in which no provision is made for its immediate supply other than through badly-fitting doors or windows. The necessary *change* of air can therefore only be effected by the opening of windows, etc. There is no doubt at the present day a greater desire for fresh air than was the case some years ago. We do not so often see now sand-bags at the windows and doors, or the heavily-curtained beds, which were considered so desirable by the last generation. It is, however, somewhat astonishing that more has not been done in this direction, when it is considered how frequently, during the last thirty or forty years, the evils of breathing an impure atmosphere have been demonstrated. Granting, then, that an adequate supply of fresh air is necessary, how can it be effected? By thorough ventilation, which means change of air; or, as the Americans expressively term it, atmospheric recuperation. Ventilation may be classed under two heads —*natural*, and *artificial* or mechanical. All methods of spontaneous combustion produced by unequal density of two columns of air, as draughts from chimneys, windows, etc., belong to the former class; ventilation by bellows, pumps, and similar contrivances to the latter. The mechanical systems are the most effective; the natural generally the most economical. The object of ventilation is to direct the pressure of the necessary current of air admitted, in order to obviate draughts.

Ventilation.—In the sense in which the term is here used, "ventilation," that of dwelling-houses only, means the removal of the vitiated air of rooms, etc., caused by the pulmonary and cutaneous exhalations of the occupants, and of the products of combustion of lights, as gas, lamps, candles, fires. The amount of air required to be admitted into any apartment is that quantity which will maintain it in a state fit for respiration, or normally pure. It is usual to take the presence of carbonic acid gas, the result of combustion both in the human frame and in burning of artificial lights, as the index of impurity. The proportion it bears to any volume of air determines whether such air is good, indifferent, or bad to be breathed. Dr. de Chaumont has shown by experiments that the organic impurity of the air is not

perceptible to the senses until the carbonic gas in it rises to the ratio of ·6 per 1,000 volumes. At ·2 it is fresh, at ·4 it begins to be close, at ·6 it *is* close, the organic matter being disagreeable; at ·9 it is very close, the organic matter being offensive and oppressive. From tables which have been carefully prepared by experienced observers, the amount of air necessary to dilute to the standard ·2 can be readily seen and used in practice. This quantity has been fixed at about 3,000 cubic feet for each adult, per hour. The size of the apartment determines how often a complete change must be effected; the larger the space, the less is the necessity for the frequent renewal of air, and the less the chance of draught. Thus, a room ten feet square by ten feet high, or having 1,000 cubic feet of air space, would have to be changed three times per hour for each occupant to maintain the required supply of 3,000 feet per hour. This changing of the air is, however, none the less necessary because a room is large. Even in a space of 10,000 cubic feet per head, the air would become too vitiated to breathe without inconvenience after about three and a half hours, after which the same constant supply of 3,000 feet per head would be as necessary as in the smallest space. Fresh air is, besides, required for fires, gas, etc. When a fire is lighted in a grate, the flame and warm smoke proceeding from it soon raise the temperature of the air in the flue; consequently it ascends, and colder air from the room flows in to supply its place; this air in turn likewise becomes heated, rises, and a fresh accession of air takes place, and so on. What constitutes, therefore, the draught of a chimney is nothing else than the colder air of the room constantly passing towards the fire-place. As the air is continually passing towards the fire, there must, of course, be a constant supply maintained from the external air; hence it is found that, in a house where the passage of the external air is much interrupted, the chimneys are liable to smoke, the reason being that a sufficient draught is not maintained. **Smoky Chimneys.**—When no special inlets for air exist, and the doors and windows fit so closely as to impede a communication with the external air, and thus prevent a sufficient supply for the fires in the house, the necessary quantity descends by those chimneys which are not in use. Hence, when a fire is lighted in any of these, the smoke at first is driven into the room. To remedy this the door should be shut and the window opened, when the chimney will soon begin to draw. What is called *back* smoke in a room where there is no fire, arises from the circumstance that the chimney is serving as an inlet for air to supply the fires in the house, carrying the smoke of a neighbouring chimney down into the room along with it.

Allowance for Gas.—The extent to which the air is vitiated by the burning of gas is very considerable. Every foot of gas consumed gives off as much carbonic acid as one individual. Through an ordinary burner, when the gas is full on, at least four feet per hour pass, therefore the allowance of fresh air for each burner must be four times as much as for an adult.

Natural Ventilation.—Having determined the number and size of the *inlets* for fresh air, and the *outlets* for foul air, the chief considerations are their positions. Before dogmatically assigning any places for either, we will briefly consider the manner in which the air becomes vitiated. In the case of ourselves, we must breathe in pure air in order to obtain the amount of oxygen required to preserve life. The change which the oxygen undergoes in our bodies results in the discharge through the lungs of carbonic acid. This gas on leaving the body is of the same temperature as the body, and, therefore, considerably higher than the surrounding air (the heat of the body is about 98° Fahrenheit), consequently it rises to the top of the room, where, if there is no escape for it, it cools and descends to be again breathed. Somewhere, therefore, in the upper part of the room is obviously

the best position for the outlets for heated air, as it will, from apertures thus placed, flow out naturally; whereas, if the exits were low down in the apartment, the escape of the foul air would be impeded by the upward flow. Again the advice of Horace applies: it is safest to take the middle course. A mean position for the admission of fresh air is apparently the best about six feet from the floor, to avoid a draught on the heads of those in the room. Air, moreover, admitted at about this point has been found by experiment to diffuse itself more readily than from other positions—a proper and general diffusion of the air being the desideratum. Rooms which have been badly ventilated are generally draughty in some places and stuffy in others. How often do we see apartments *attempted* to be ventilated by one inlet, probably an air brick in the wall under the floor, and one outlet—or perhaps no outlet except the chimney. It may be safely affirmed that ventilation in its true sense under such circumstances is impossible. *Several* inlets and outlets are required, in order to diffuse the air without draught. The inlets should be small, arranged on one side of the room; the outlets rather larger, and on the opposite side.

Warmed Air.—In a climate like ours there should be some means for warming the incoming air, otherwise it cannot but be chilly in the cold weather, even if there be no actual draught. This chilliness is, of course, both uncomfortable and unhealthy, and causes people to stop up the apertures which admit the cold air, on the ground that they feel a draught. There are several means by which the air can be thus warmed before it enters a room. Two or three kinds of open grates contain a warm air chamber, through which the outer air passes before entering. When other means than the open fire are adopted for heating, as by hot water, or hot-air apparatus, warming the air previous to its admission is an easy matter, though there is some difficulty in preventing the air thus heating becoming impure.

Ventilation by Open Windows.—Unless proper provision has been made during the building of the house, the subsequent introduction of any effective system of ventilation is generally both somewhat costly besides being troublesome. Householders are therefore naturally somewhat indisposed to incur expense of this kind, and trust to the opening of windows to "clear the room." The admission, however, of the air from open windows is generally productive of draught, both inconvenient and dangerous to those sitting close to them. By a very simple expedient, however, this draught may be avoided. Let a piece of wood, half-an-inch thick will do, the exact length of the width of the sash, and four or five inches wide, be attached to the lower sash, so that when shut down the meeting bars of the sashes are thus separated a few inches. If made to fit properly, and anyone who can handle a saw can easily do it, the air will be prevented from entering at the lower part, but will readily do so between the meeting bars, thus separated, and as an upward direction will thus be obviously given to the current of air entering the room, all down draughts will be avoided.

Artificial Ventilation.—We have already briefly referred to the practice of bringing the fresh air in through a warm-air chamber, at the back of the grate or stove: and having regard to the advisability of warming the incoming air, there does not appear any better method of introducing, at all events, the greater portion of fresh air than by this means. One of the best known grates for effecting this purpose is the one invented by Captain Galton, and largely and successfully used in barracks and military quarters—the external fresh air is admitted in a chamber behind the stove, and passing over plates or gills behind the fire, it is thus warmed before entering the room, which it does through louvres in a special tube provided for it. The air, being thus warmed, mingles insensibly with that in the room, thus perfectly obviating any draught. There are a few good stoves on similar prin-

ciples, as "The Manchester Grate," manufactured by Mr. E. H. Shorland, of Manchester. In connection with these grates, flues or pipes are constructed which can be carried up to rooms above, and any spare, heated air utilised for warming bedrooms, etc., situated over the room in which the grate is placed. There are other makers of repute who have patented grates designed on somewhat similar principles. It is frequently necessary, especially in rooms where a large number of people meet constantly, as in schoolrooms, etc., or occasionally as at parties, to supplement the air inlets from these stoves by others. This method is resorted to in many of the best modern barracks, where ventilation is carefully studied with, I believe, uniform success. The air thus admitted, between windows or other suitable places, should have an upward tendency imparted to it, in order to prevent a draught on the heads of the occupants, which frequently happens if the air enters the apartment in a horizontal direction. The external inlet is generally at about the floor level, and traverses a vertical tube for some little distance before discharging in the room. This is the principle of the "Tobin" flues, too well known to need further description.

Ventilating Pipes.—The Sanitary Engineering Company have patented some improved forms of ventilating pipes on this principle, known as the "Imperial" ventilating tubes, which can be fixed at the sides or, most conveniently, at the corners of a room. They can be treated decoratively or concealed behind furniture, etc. These tubes are also fitted with an arrangement for filtering the air previous to its admission—the air before rising up the tubes passes over water, thus cleansing it of impurities, as blacks, soot, fog, etc. The tray containing this water is removable, so that the contents can be periodically changed. When great coolness is desired, pieces of ice can be readily placed in this container—a great advantage during a sultry summer.

Extract Ventilators.—The chimney-flue, as we have seen, forms a powerful extract ventilator; but in many cases this has to be supplemented, or perhaps there is no fire-place at all. When the chimney requires an augmentator—if I may use the term—some form of chimney-valve, as Arnott's, or the modification of his invention, are the most generally used. They are fixed in the chimney-breast, near the ceiling, forming a communication between the air in the room and the flue. In the winter time, or when there is a fire, these valves answer very well, provided there be no down draught; if there be, soot and dust will be troublesome in proportion. When there is no fire, this down draught is a very common consequence. Of course, ventilators of this kind have the advantage that they can be inserted after the house is built, and one can thus "doctor up" an old house without pulling it to pieces. They are, however, inferior, as far as my experience goes, to ventilation flues, which, of course, must be formed as the building is carried up. These flues are generally formed between the smoke-flues, so that the heat from the latter shall induce an upward current, and so cause the ventilating flues to act as exhaust or extract ventilators. It is, moreover, a common practice to augment the natural extract power, by placing a gas-burner within these flues; or the heated air from the gas-burners in the room may be conveyed into them, and thus serve two purposes, *viz.*, that of getting rid of the products of combustion and of aiding the extractive power of the exhaust at the same time.

Warming.—As it is the universal custom in this country to warm the rooms of private houses by means of the open fire, it will be unnecessary to discuss heating by other means. In fact, heating by hot water, air, or steam, is invariably left more or less in the hands of the heating engineer, who arranges for a certain temperature. None of those methods of warming have, however, been adopted to any extent in private houses, both on account of the preliminary cost and also from the fact

that the asmosphere is rendered both unhealthy and often unpleasant by artificial heating of this description. Closed stoves, too, are frequently open to these objections, to say nothing of national prejudice in favour of an open fire, which certainly has the advantage of cheerfulness. Such being the case, it has been the aim of the leading manufacturers, whilst recognizing popular opinion, to endeavour to supply open grates constructed so as to be more economical in the consumption of fuel than those of some years ago, which were certainly wasteful. Foremost amongst the most approved modern kinds are the "slow combustion" stoves, which have a solid bottom instead of the *grating* in the old pattern. The addition, too, of tiles round the stoves and in the hearths, whilst affording opportunities for artistic effect, have the immense advantage of radiating heat which would otherwise be lost except to the chimney. Well-constructed grates of this kind, from the very fact of this greater radiation, combined with combustion, effect a considerable saving of fuel—in some cases quite a third or more.

Lighting.—The manner in which our rooms are lighted has a very considerable influence, however, on the air therein. It is a popular fallacy to imagine that gas is much more impure than candles or lamps. Such is not the case if *equal* illuminating powers be compared. Where lamps or candles are used, they are generally placed, where the light is wanted; if, however, these be so multiplied that the same amount of light is diffused *throughout* the apartment as is attained by gas, the pollution of the atmosphere would be even greater. The necessary fixed position of gaselier or bracket necessitates obviously a greater amount of light than required locally, hence the necessity, if we wish to maintain a pure atmosphere, of conveying away the products of combustion as they are generated. One of the best forms of gaselier with which I am acquainted is Benham's Ventilating Globe-Light, which, in addition to carrying off the products of its own combustion, materially aids the ventilation of the room in which it is placed. Besides the advantage of having suitable fittings, the pressure of the gas is a matter of considerable importance, although often not attended to. If the maximum quantity passing through the meter be sufficient for all the jets when lighted, it is obvious that, when several of the burners are turned off, the pressure for the remainder will be too great. Of course, this may be corrected by partially turning off the meter; but the most satisfactory arrangement is to have a regulator, several of which are now made, not only to regulate, and consequently economise the gas, but to purify it at the time.

Buying a House.—All that has been said about locality, climate, aspect, soil, water supply, outlook, the disposition of rooms, drainage, ventilation, warming and lighting, in connection with building a house, applies with equal force in determining the selection of a house already built, whether for purchase or rental. But here it is necessary to caution those not experienced in such matters against proceeding with business of so much importance without professional advice. Good advice is cheap at any price, and those who lack experience should never grudge the cost of the best that they can buy. Like most other things the best advice is the cheapest in the end. No one would think of attempting to build a house without employing professional assistance, and no one should ever think of purchasing a house without having technical advice. If the purchaser has all the money necessary to effect the purchase his course is simple. He selects a house which answers to his requirements, employs an architect or surveyor to examine into its condition, and a lawyer to enquire into its title. If he has only part of the purchase money the most convenient course is to raise the rest by a mortgage on the property to be purchased, and this mortgage may be permanent or terminable. If permanent the lawyer will arrange the loan for a consideration and at a given rate of

interest. If terminable the loan can be obtained from a Building Society.

Building Societies are of two kinds, Terminable and Permanent. **Terminable Building Societies** are in theory good, but in practice from a variety of causes, incident to the application of the principle, difficult to work. To illustrate this let us suppose that four hundred people agree each to put a pound per week into a common fund, with a view to advancing sums of £400 by ballot week by week to each subscriber in turn. It is clear that the first to receive the benefit would secure it in the first week of the subscription when he had only paid one pound, that if nothing interrupted the course of events the last subscriber would receive his appropriation in the four hundredth week, when his own united and unaided subscriptions would amount to £400. In theory those obtaining the earlier appropriations would anticipate the results of their thrift by the measure of time by which their appropriation anticipated the four hundredth week, and the later would not be delayed in the enjoyment of theirs beyond the moment (in the extremest case) at which they would naturally attain it if they paid their money weekly into a savings bank. Interest not being involved, and working expenses being kept low, it is contended that this system is economic, and if, as we have already said, nothing happened in the working out of the scheme to interrupt its even course, the contention might be allowed. But unfortunately the unexpected often happens, and there is nothing certain but the unforeseen. Of 400 people who might enter into such a compact, many would, from a variety of causes, become unable to complete it; some would be unable to continue their subscription, some, tired of waiting for an appropriation would want to withdraw, and some would be removed by the hand of death. These exigencies would interrupt the weekly appropriations, and as they increased would make the intervals between appropriations longer and longer, and indefinitely postpone the final working out of the scheme. In this way some Terminable Building Societies, started with the best intentions and the brightest hopes, have in time become almost interminable nuisances. Another objection to such a system is its want of elasticity. When a man wants to buy a house it is not any house, anywhere, and at any time that he wants to buy, it is a given house in a given place and at a given time. If he cannot have his money when his opportunity serves, it is not of much use to him. For these and other reasons the ordinary Terminable Building Society, of which the Starr-Bowket societies are a type, have lost the favour that they once had, and most people prefer to deal with the Permanent Investment and Building Societies and pay interest on the capital they borrow.

Permanent Investment and Building Societies have a twofold object. They exist to enable their shareholders to invest money on the security of land and houses, and to enable purchasers of such property to obtain advances upon the security of the same under a system which arranges for the repayment of the principle with interest in a given time by periodical instalments. Thus there are two classes of members, 1, Investing members, and 2, Borrowing members, the money received from the investing members being lent to the borrowing members on freehold and leasehold property. Investors buy shares either by the payment of a lump sum, or by periodical subscription, and receive interest upon the same at the rates determined by the various societies. Borrowers pay interest upon loans at rates which vary according to risk.

To Secure a Loan from a Building Society obtain a form of application, fill it up according to the directions given, and forward it to the office of the society together with the fee required by the rules for surveying the property proposed to be mortgaged. Surveying fees vary according to the amount sought to be raised and the distance of the property from the office. The property will

then be surveyed, and a report furnished to the Directors, who will decide whether the amount applied for can be advanced, and if not, what they will advance upon the property, and the decision will be communicated to the applicant. The next step is to pay whatever fees are required by the rules and send the title Deeds or abstract of title to the Society's Solicitor, who, if the title is satisfactory, will prepare the mortgage deed, and on its execution and the receipt of the Law charges will pay over the amount. Law charges are according to fixed scales, particulars of which are given in the prospectuses of the various societies.

Repayment of Principal and Interest.—The following from the Tables of The Temperance Permanent Building Society is an illustration of the way in which a Borrower gradually reduces the amount owing by him to the Society.

When an Advance of £100 is taken for 10 years.

Repayments of £1 1s. 8d. per month, during		Apportioned.			Owing.
		For Interest.	For Commission or Premium.	For Principal.	
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1st Year	13 0 0	4 10 0	1 0 0	7 10 0	92 10 0
2nd „	13 0 0	4 3 3	1 0 0	7 16 9	84 13 3
3rd „	13 0 0	3 16 2	1 0 0	8 3 10	76 9 5
4th „	13 0 0	3 8 10	..	9 11 2	66 18 3
5th „	13 0 0	3 0 3	..	9 19 9	56 18 6
6th „	13 0 0	2 11 3	..	10 8 9	46 9 9
7th „	13 0 0	2 1 10	..	10 18 2	35 11 7
8th „	13 0 6	1 12 0	..	11 8 0	24 3 7
9th „	13 0 0	1 1 9	..	11 18 3	12 5 4
10th „	12 16 4	0 11 0	..	12 5 4	..
	129 16 4	26 16 4	3 0 0	100 0 0	

Taking a House.—In theory there are several ways in which one can take a house. First of all you may become what is called a **Tenant-at-Will.** It is not necessary to reduce an agreement of this sort into writing, because it is of so informal a character that the landlord can turn the tenant out when he pleases, and the tenant can go off at any time, without waiting for the landlord's consent. Perhaps the only instance of this kind of relationship now existing is that of caretakers put in by builders of new houses to keep the property in good preservation. The commonest way of taking a house is to become a **Yearly Tenant.** If you enter into an agreement to pay a certain annual sum for the hire of a house, but do not fix any definite period of occupation, you become a yearly tenant. The chief advantage of such a tenancy over a tenancy-at-will is that landlord and tenant are entitled to notice before it can be terminated. This notice must be given at least half-a-year before the expiration of the current year of the tenancy, for one only of the parties to the agreement cannot put an end to it, except at the close of a certain number of whole years from the time it commenced; and, if it be a tenancy under the "Agricultural Holdings Act, 1875," a notice of twelve months is necessary. If the tenant went

in at Christmas he must go out at the same season of the year, unless, of course, he and the landlord should agree to the contrary. When he is once in he has a right to remain for twelve months; and, if at the end of the first six months no notice has been given on either side, the tenancy must continue for at least two years. This rule of law can be overridden by the express agreement of the parties. If it be arranged that three months' notice, expiring on any quarter day, shall determine a tenancy, it will probably be found by people who are liable to sudden removals, in order that the husband may carry on his business, that they may escape the inconvenience of having an empty house left on their hands. **A Tenancy by Sufferance** is where any tenant "holds over," that is, continues in possession after his tenancy has expired, whatever may be the term of such tenancy. But this relationship cannot arise by contract, for if the landlord assents to it, it becomes at once a tenancy at will. It therefore lacks the essential characteristic of all real tenancies, and is in fact a mere fiction of law. It ought more properly to be described as a "continuing trespass," unheeded by the landlord. **Leases.** A Lease, or An Agreement for a Term of Years is a common form of agreement in the present day. If the term is not to exceed three years, a memorandum of agreement, or an interchange of letters between the parties, is quite sufficient. Even a verbal agreement will do, but it is needless to point out that this slovenly mode of doing business is dangerous enough to be carefully avoided. The law as to leases of more than three years' duration is in a state of considerable confusion, and it is not a little difficult to say what is and what is not a lease. Although a lease for three years or less may be a verbal one, an *agreement to make such a lease* must be in writing, if it is to be of any value at all. It is not certain, moreover what is the difference between a lease and an agreement for a lease, but this much is quite clear, that if the intentions of the parties are clearly expressed, the law is satisfied, and the technical name of the instrument is a matter of no consequence whatever. Leases and agreements for leases, if for more than three years, must be in the form of a deed, and under seal, or they are void at law. It is not necessary to have witnesses to the attestation, but as a matter of practice they are almost always resorted to. The general results at which we have arrived in respect to leases are that a written memorandum from landlord to tenant is sufficient, if accepted by the latter, in case of a three years' occupation or any lesser period; but that any lease for a longer term than three years must be by deed, that is, by a writing signed, sealed, and delivered. Every lease or agreement for a lease must be stamped, and it is best in every case to enquire in London at Somerset House, or in the Country at the local office of the Inland Revenue. Always see that all these documents are stamped at once, as the consequences of delay are often serious.

Taking Lodgings.—Young married people frequently adopt the plan of taking lodgings; and, as an expedient for saving trouble, and for determining exactly the amount of one's weekly expenditure, the system is not without its merits. Landlords always try to insert in leases a clause against underletting, and tenants should not accept such a lease if they can possibly help it. To let lodgings, however, is not a breach of this prohibition against under-letting. To determine a weekly tenancy a "reasonable" notice is required, but it is difficult to say what a reasonable notice is. A week is the minimum term which can be safely resorted to, and the wisest plan is to give the same notice as the intervals between the tenant's payments. If a tenancy has been formed by a word-of-mouth agreement, notice can be given in the same fashion, but it is much the better plan to reduce this, and all other similar transactions, into writing.

Binding Contracts.—If a person makes an offer, it is not binding until it has been accepted. Until then, the

person who made it has a place of repentance left to him. When an unconditional acceptance has once been made, there is a complete and binding contract. If a particular time for acceptance or rejection be named, it is presumed that the intention to contract continues until that time expires. Thus, in one case, A made an offer to B to sell at a certain price, and requiring an answer by return of post. Through a mistake on A's part, B did not receive this letter at the proper time; but when it came to hand, he sent an answer accepting the offer by return of post. A had, in the meantime, sold to someone else, considering the bargain to be off; but it was held that there was a perfect contract. In another case the delay, in a similar instance, was due to the Post Office. The plaintiff answered by return of post after receiving the letter, and it was decided that the contract had been completed. When a letter of acceptance is put into the post, the contract is complete, although the letter may never reach its destination. It used to be otherwise, the old rule being that the acceptance must be received by the person making the offer, but the present practice is invariable. The moment an acceptance of an offer is put into the post box, there is, in the eye of the law, a good and sufficient contract. The remarks above as to stamps apply equally to letters about lodgings.

The Landlord's Position. Written Agreements.—It is a safe and wholesome rule, which applies to a great many affairs of life, that contracts ought, if possible, to be put into writing, even where the law does not expressly require it. Sometimes, indeed, it is desirable that something more than the bare contract should be thus placed permanently on record. A weary toiler in the great city suddenly takes it into his head that a house in the country is exactly the kind of thing to set himself and his family up in health. He goes to a suave and polite agent, who shows him a beautiful photograph of a residence. The would-be tenant visits the place; finds that it is a strongly-built and commodious house, where a dance can be held without making a sudden adjournment to the cellar, and that there is a delightful flavour of ghosts about the premises generally. He asks the agent if he knows of anything against the house, and the agent replies in the negative. Subsequently, however, the tenant finds that there is a peculiar odour about his new residence, and a little investigation convinces him that there are no drains worth mentioning in the establishment. If he had taken the trouble to get a written warranty that the drainage and other elementary requisites of a healthy animal existence were satisfactory, he would be master of the position, and that without spending a sixpence. As it is in the case we are supposing, the agent and landlord would probably compel him to go to law; and though the contract would, no doubt, be eventually rescinded it would be cheaper for the plaintiff to put the drains in order than to carry his complaint to a court of law. His simplest plan, in the first instance, at any rate, would be to refuse payment of the rent; but if he has bought the house outright, it is obvious that the case rests on a very different basis. The safest plan is always before buying or taking a house, to have it inspected on your own behalf by some independent, duly qualified person.

"In general there is no implied covenant by the lessor of a house or of land that it is *reasonably fit for habitation*, occupation or cultivation, nor that the house will endure during the term, nor that the lessor will do any repairs whatever. And if the landlord is bound to do repairs there is no implied condition that if not done the tenant may quit." Woodfall "Landlord and Tenant," p. 184.

Verbal Agreements.—There are, however, one or two things incident to a landlord's position, which he can, as a matter of law, do by word of mouth with safety. If, for example, he has let his house for £60 a year to Mr. Jones, and Mr. Jones subsequently finds out that the house could, according to his

ideas, be vastly improved by the expenditure of a little capital, the landlord agrees to make the required alterations in consideration of an extra rent of £10 per annum, and they are made accordingly. This extra sum can be recovered in spite of the fact that no writing passed between the parties. Or, again, the landlord agrees to take the fixtures of an outgoing tenant. A mere word-of-mouth arrangement is quite sufficient for this purpose.

Repairs.—On the subject of repairs, it is worth while mentioning—and the fact will, no doubt, surprise most people—that, in the absence of express agreement, a landlord is under no kind of an obligation to *repair* the premises which he has let on lease. Even if the house becomes unfit to dwell in for want of attention, and the tenant is obliged to leave hastily, without going through the proper ceremony of giving six months' notice, the landlord can bring an action and can recover his rent. Here, again, we come back to the necessity of taking care what sort of a bargain is originally made. Unless the landlord has been expressly bound to keep the place in reasonable repair, he can do as he likes in the matter; and, with a bad landlord, it is tolerably well known what form his pleasure will assume.

Property Tax.—In one respect the landlord has no option at all with regard to his property. He must pay the property-tax, and even if he inserts a clause in the lease transferring this burden to his tenant, it makes no difference whatever; the law says that he is the man to discharge this obligation. The tenant usually pays the tax in the first instance, and stops the amount out of his next payment for rent.

Tithes.—In like manner the landlord is responsible for tithes. The state of the law on this subject is a scandal, but the tendency against ecclesiastical legislation is so strong that probably nothing will ever be done to remedy it. If the owner of the tithe-rent charge likes to make a descent for a good, round sum, upon a given land-owner, small or large, he must pay the money, and look to his fellow-contributors for their share of the money. In the suburbs of London appeals from such unfortunate holders of land are common enough, and the success they meet with is very varied. It is worthy of notice that tithe is not a charge upon the *person* of an owner or an occupier, but upon *the land itself;* and if there is no agreement to the contrary, the tenant can pay what is demanded, and deduct it from his rent. The better plan, however, is not to pay, and to leave the tithe-proprietor and the landlord to settle matters among themselves.

Fixtures.—The question of fixtures is a large one, but as we are now dealing with the landlord's position, it is only needful to mention the landlord's side of the case. If a tenant has a right to remove fixtures during his tenancy, or while he remains by the landlord's permission in possession, he must take them away during that period. If he once abandons his possession of the premises, the fixtures in question become a gift in law to the landlord, and he cannot legally allow the tenant afterwards to remove them, without giving him a formal licence, under seal, to do so. The removal of fixtures naturally brings us to the question of distress.

Distress.—Before the landlord can exercise this extreme right given him by the law, there must be several preliminary requisites clearly in existence. First of all there must have been an actual lease, and not a mere agreement to make one. Then there must have been a fixed rent stipulated for, or it will not do; and no distress is possible if the premises were held on a rent hereafter to be agreed upon, or at their "fair value." In the next place, this rent must have fallen into arrear. This happens at the very end of the day on which it is payable, or if paid in advance, at the beginning of the period for which it is payable. The distress must either be made by the landlord himself or a bailiff holding a certificate from a county

court judge. Lastly—and this is a high legal matter, which need not be further dwelt upon here—the person distraining, must have the reversion in him. The landlord, under a distress, can sell everything on the premises except things in the personal use of the debtor, the fixtures affixed to the freehold, the goods of a stranger delivered to the tenant to be wrought on in the way of his ordinary trade, perishable articles, wild animals, the instruments of the debtor's profession if other sufficient goods can be obtained, and, with the same qualification, beasts of the plough and instrument of husbandry and loose money. The lodger is now protected by statute 34—s.V. c. 79, and if on a declaration by the lodger that the goods are his property the payment to the landlord of any rent due by the lodger to the intermediate tenant the landlord proceeds, he is guilty of an illicit distress. There is this difference between an execution and a distress, that, in the former, no goods or property belonging to a stranger can be sold; but, as we have seen, this is not the rule under a distress, unless the strange property is in the house to be wrought upon in the ordinary course of trade. If the tenant who is in arrears tries to stave off a distress by giving a bill, note, or bond, he must remember that he does not by this process prevent the landlord from taking proceedings. Rent is of a "higher nature" than bills, bonds, or notes; and unless the landlord chooses to do so, he need not treat these documents, or any one of them, as other than a collateral security. In Palmer and Bradley [1895] 2. o. B. 405, the Court of Appeal held that the taking of a bill of exchange by the landlord was some evidence to go to a jury of an agreement by the landlord to suspend his remedy by distress during the currency of the bill. In making the distress the landlord may open any outer door, and, once in, inner doors may be forced open. The distraint must be made between sunrise and sunset. The bailiff makes an inventory of the furniture and other goods, which he leaves, with a written notice of the amount due and of the goods distrained, on the premises. Five days afterwards two sworn appraisers come and value the goods, which are then sold. If any balance remains—which is highly improbable—it is handed over to the owner. Even after the lease has expired the landlord can distrain if his late tenant be still in possession.

Ejectment.—Sometimes a tenant refuses to pay his rent, not because he cannot, but because for some reason or other he will not. The landlord can bring an action against him for the money in this case, and turn him out of the premises after making a formal demand for the money. This is a very old common-law right; but a person can be ejected without this formality if he owes six months' rent and there is not sufficient property on the premises to distrain upon. A landlord can distrain for six years' rent; but if the goods have been taken in execution by somebody else before he distrains, he is only entitled to one year's arrears. In the case of Bankruptcy, the landlord can, as the law now stands, recover six months' rent in preference to other creditors. If the tenant commits a breach of the covenants of his lease, he can be ejected, subject to relief by the court under the Conveyancing Act, 1881, s. 14 (1). Forfeiture for breach of covenants is not enforceable without notice to the tenant requiring compensation, and failure by the tenant to compensate. The lessee may also apply to the court for relief. Lease includes underlease and agreements for leases where the lessee has become entitled to have his lease granted. The following covenants are excepted: Covenants against assigning or underletting. Or a condition for prefecture or bankruptcy or taking in execution of the lessee's interest. In the meantime, it is enough to find out that the law has made the landlord a really formidable person; and that the only way to get on a pleasant footing with many representatives of the class, is to keep a sharp look-out in the first instance on the covenants of the lease by which the house is taken.

The Tenant's Obligations to his Landlord.—The larger and the more valuable the house and land a person takes on lease are, the greater is the necessity to take care what "covenants" are inserted in that lease. As a very general rule, it is desirable to have only what are called the "usual" covenants, because, when special stipulations are made by the landlord, that fact itself is a proof that he has some strong motive for insisting upon them; and this being so, he will naturally take care that they are strictly performed. If the tenant chooses so to perform them, well and good. There is nothing more to be said. If, on the other hand, he does not wish to be troubled about his tenancy more than is good for man, he will do well to see, when the draft lease is submitted to him for approval, that the covenants are not much more than six in number—(1) to pay rent; (2) to pay taxes, except those we have already mentioned, which belong to the landlord; (3) to keep and deliver up the premises in repair; (4) to cultivate land, supposing the property to be a farm, in accordance with good husbandry; (5) to allow the landlord to enter and view the state of repairs; and (6) for quiet enjoyment until default. The last affects the landlord, but the other five are obligations belonging to the tenant. It is possible too that the landlord may further stipulate for some restrictions on the use of the premises, and that the tenant should effect and maintain an insurance policy while he is in possession. Last of all there may be a clause about "waste." These covenants are enough to cover all the relations between landlord and tenant, in the great majority of cases, and we will run through them as briefly and simply as possible.

Rent.—The lease generally determines whether the rent ought to be paid half-yearly or quarterly; if the agreement is merely "at a rent of £100" without saying annually, it must be paid yearly; and if no time is fixed, the same rule applies. If it is to be paid in advance, the intention must be clearly stated, or else it will be held that the ordinary custom must be followed. In farming leases the last half-year's rent is generally made payable in advance, but usually the law favours the sound principle that money ought not to be paid until it has been earned. For this reason if a tenant be good natured enough to pay his rent a little before it is due—not a common failing, certainly—and a mortgagee of whose existence he knew takes possession of the estate before the regular rent day, the tenant will have to pay over again. Rent must be paid to the landlord himself or to his authorized agent, and if his wife takes it, and chooses to spend it, the tenant would have to prove her agency before he would be let off. The money is due at the first moment of the day fixed upon, and it is in arrear on the first moment of the succeeding morning. If the landlord wants to re-enter, he must demand his rent a sufficient time before sunset to allow the money to be counted, and he must wait on the premises until the sun has set to constitute what the law calls a "constructive continuing demand."

To keep and deliver up the Premises in Repair.—Every tenant is supposed to do proper repairs, the nature of these being dependent upon the length of his occupation; a yearly tenant must keep the premises wind and water-tight, repair fences, replace windows or doors broken during his tenancy, and cleanse drains and sewers. He is not responsible, however, for mere wear and tear, so that he need not repair doors or windows worn out by time. A lessee for a term of years is usually made expressly responsible for repairs, and he may fairly measure his duty in this respect by asking himself how much is needed to enable him to give up the premises in much the same condition as when he entered. He is responsible if the premises are burnt down through his negligence. Repairing clauses ought to be read very carefully, because they vary according to the ingenuity of the gentlemen who draft them, but it is enough substantially to comply with what is stipulated for. The covenant respecting good husbandry, hardly

comes within the scope of this work, especially as no man ought to take a farm until he knows, practically, what good husbandry means, and we may therefore pass on.

To allow the Landlord to enter and view the State of Repairs.—About this, nothing need be said, except that all reasonable facilities must be granted, however unwelcome constant reminders of his shortcomings may be to the tenant. This leads us to renew the warning, that a man taking a house on lease, cannot be too careful to understand precisely what he is making himself responsible for, and to see that his landlord and he do not frame their expectations on different bases. A neglect of this precaution may lead, not only to frequent visits from, but to perpetual quarrels with, the landlord; quarrels which are apt to cost a good deal of money before they are composed.

Restrictions on the Use of the Premises.—The lessee frequently binds himself to reside on the premises, or to carry on a particular business there, or to keep it open, if an inn, for a certain length of time. It the word "trade" or "business" is found in this clause, it should be remembered that they are not the same thing; a trade consists in buying and selling; but keeping a school or a private lunatic asylum, is a business. If the carrying on of an offensive or noisome trade is prohibited, the meaning depends very much on the situation of the premises, and it has been held that coach-making, carrying on mock auctions, and storing up lucifer matches, are neither noisome nor offensive, though the latter might be covered by the use of the word "dangerous." A man once forfeited his lease because he had promised to use the premises as a private dwelling-house, and he stuck up a board with the words "coal office" upon it. An amateur philanthropist did the same by opening a school, where he gave free education to a number of children. As a rule, however, the parties know perfectly well what they mean by this covenant.

Insurance.—If the tenant undertakes to insure the premises, he must do so within a very short time after the lease is signed, or it is forfeited, even though no fire occurs. If the insurance is to be in the joint names of the landlord and tenant, the covenant is broken by insuring only in the name of the tenant, but not if the name used be that of the landlord. If the lease has thus been forfeited, and no fire has occurred, the Courts have the power of restoring the lease once, and only once, if the tenant can show that the matter happened by accident or mistake, and that he has, in point of fact, insured the premises since.

Waste is to spoil or destroy houses, gardens, trees, and other things included in the property leased. It consists of two kinds; voluntary or wilful waste is where the tenant does something he ought not to do, or allows somebody else to do it. This includes removing windows, doors, and other fixtures, even though he put them up himself. To alter a hall into a stable, to throw two rooms into one, and to pull down one building and to erect another, even though it be a better one, are all acts of wilful waste, and so is the cutting down of timber and fruit trees. Even where a tenant removed a border of box which he had planted, and another ploughed up strawberry beds in full bearing, for which he had paid his predecessor, it was held that voluntary waste had been committed. *Permissive* waste, roughly speaking, is to allow the premises to go to rack and ruin. Leaving the house uncovered, so that the timbers decayed, or permitting the walls to decay for want of plastering, or the foundations to be sapped because a ditch was not closed up, are instances of this transgression, carefully to be avoided. Wilful waste may be dealt with, either by an action for damages, or by an injunction; and permissive waste by a suit for damages. These are costly things, and therefore the tenant would do well, for this and other reasons already mentioned, to *study his covenants*.

Rates and Taxes.—So far as the tenant is concerned, there is no practical difference between a rate, a duty, or a

tax. In each of these cases he has to pay a certain amount of money for the imperial or local needs of government; and the distinction between rates and taxes is in fact simply this, that taxes and duties—such as income tax, property tax, land tax, house tax, import and export duties, duties on probates, armorial bearings, servants, plate, hair powder, stamps and licenses of every description—are paid, by the collectors, to the account of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, at the Bank of England. Rates, on the other hand, are spent locally, for sanitary works and improvements, lighting, watering, police, sewers, roads, school-board purposes, and other parochial needs. Sometimes a church rate is levied, under a local Act of Parliament, and there is generally in every large municipality some peculiar rate not known elsewhere. The system of local government in England is so anomalous as to have become a public scandal, and the result is that the innocent-looking demand notes, which are presented quarterly to the householder, generally contain some concealed piece of extravagance, which the ratepayer is powerless to prevent. Every Englishman knows how to punish a Government which wastes the Queen's taxes. Nineteen out of every twenty are totally ignorant as to who it is that rules and rates them locally. This, however, is a wide subject, and hardly a legal one. Still, it may be useful to point out that the highly anomalous state of things now in vogue in vestries, town councils, and other bodies vested with the functions of local government, imposes many unnecessary burdens on the unfortunate ratepayer.

The Tenant's Liability.—We have seen already that landlord and tenant cannot enter into a contract to transfer the property tax to the latter; the occupier usually pays it and deducts it from his next rent, a proceeding which the landlord is bound to recognise under a penalty of £50. The deduction should be made out of the first payment to be made thereafter on account of rent or out of subsequent rent during the period through which the same was accruing due; the tenant is not entitled to deduct till he has actually paid the amount. Only two kinds of bargains may be made, with respect to this tax, without breaking the law; that of promising to reduce the rent if the property tax is repealed—which it never will be—and an agreement that if the tenant pays the rent in full, without deducting income tax, the landlord will pay him the amount of the tax. In the absence of any agreement, the landlord must pay, or allow out of the rent, the land tax, sewers rate, one-half the cattle-plague rate, and the poor rate, if the house be let for a term less than three months. We have already said that the tithe rent charge is a burden upon the land, and therefore payable by the landlord, but he and the tenant may by agreement transfer this liability to the latter. Supposing a tenant agrees to pay the tithe rent charge, and then leaves without doing so, the landlord or the succeeding tenant may pay the money, and proceed against the defaulting tenant for the amount, just as if it were an ordinary debt. If there be no agreement to the contrary, the occupier must pay the house duty, the poor rate, paving, watch, lighting, highway, county, and borough rates. These are what may be called a tenant's natural burdens; but the landlord sometimes contrives to transfer his responsibilities, with the exception of the land tax, to his tenant, by inserting a clause in the lease implying that no deductions are to be made from the rent, or reserving a "net" rent or a rent "free of all outgoings." These and similar words simply mean that the tenant pays everything except the property tax. Sometimes, however, attempts of this kind overreach themselves. A covenant by which the tenant was to pay "all taxes, parochial and parliamentary," was held not to include a sewers rate, which is neither parochial nor parliamentary; and similarly "taxes on the land" were held not to include poor and church rates, which are personal charges, although the object of the draughtsman who drew

up these leases was probably to cover these very imposts. In the same way a covenant to pay "taxes and assessments" has been held not to include tithe rent charges, but the word "rates" not only comprises parochial charges, but also a country rate. These points are mentioned in order to show the inexperienced householder how careful he ought to be to refuse to sign a lease which has any exceptional or ambiguous clauses whatsoever.

Future Taxes and Outgoings are generally a subject of preliminary agreement between the parties; but if not, landlord or tenant, as the case may be, must pay all new taxes of the same nature as the old ones; but not those of a different nature, unless the covenant expressly mentions all future outgoings, and this would include money paid to the local authorities for paving, flagging, or other works which would permanently improve the property, without permanently benefiting the tenant who pays the rate. Supposing a tenant has agreed to pay all future outgoings, he is liable for the cost of works executed under the Sanitary Act, 1866, and for the paving of the street. But in a case where the tenant covenanted to pay all rates, charges, and impositions "on the premises thereby demised, or in respect thereof, or of the said rent," it was held that the landlord must pay for drainage works, because the Public Health Act of 1875 makes such expenses a personal charge on the landlord, and not a burden on the land. The landlord need only pay the land tax on the actual rent he receives; so that, if his rent is £100, and the premises are taxed at £120, the tenant is responsible for the tax on the extra £20. If the tenant is underrated he can only deduct *pro rata* according to the actual tax he has paid. On one occasion the landlord was to pay the sewers rate and land tax. His tenant, however, built on the land, and increased the rateable value; but it was held that he could only deduct the rate and tax on the original rent. In another case, the landlord covenanted to pay all taxes "already charged or to be charged upon or in respect of the demised premises;" and there was a covenant preventing the tenant from building on the land without a license. When he signed the lease he obtained this license, and he built so as to increase the rateable value. One would have supposed that in this case he would have escaped, but he did not. It was held that the landlord was only liable to pay the taxes on the original value. Generally speaking, if the landlord undertakes to pay rates and taxes, present or future, the agreement must be taken to apply to those rates and taxes which are or would be payable on the premises at the time the lease was executed.

Fixtures.—When a new tenant enters upon the possession of a house, he generally finds something wanting in the premises, and he often sets to work to supply the deficiency. Perhaps it is the mere laying down of painted tiles on the hearth, or the screwing up of a chandelier; but it frequently happens, when the work is done, that somebody suggests to him that his improvements are fixtures, and therefore the property of the landlord. To remove such harrowing doubts as these, it may be worth while to consider what are fixtures and what are, to use a handy legal term, chattels only.

Fixtures and Chattels.—There was an old rule of law in frequent use once, that every chattel annexed to real property became a fixture. This rule still applies as between a person granting a mortgage and the person who advances the money, because it is considered that the latter ought to have as much security as possible for the money he has advanced. Between landlord and tenant, however, the rule is not nearly so strict, and a chattel may be fixed to the premises and yet remain a chattel and not a fixture. The law favours the tenant rather than the landlord in this matter. A wooden hut, for instance, or any other building resting only on its own weight, is not a fixture, even when its weight is so great as to make it become imbedded in the ground. The same thing may be said of a weighing-

machine, resting in a hole lined with brickwork, and which could be lifted out at pleasure. In another case, however, some blocks of stone were placed on the top of one another, without any mortar or cement, for the purpose of forming a drystone wall, which would become part of the land: here it was held that the blocks of stone were a fixture; though, if they had simply been stacked in a yard, one on top of the other, for convenience sake, they would have been chattels, and not fixtures. The *intention*, it will be seen, has a good deal to do with the matter. Supposing the chattel to be actually fastened to the building or land, as in the case of a chandelier, there are two questions which ought to be asked—(1) Can the article be removed entire without injury to itself or the building? and (2) Was it put with the object of permanently improving the property, or merely for a temporary purpose, or for the more complete use and enjoyment of it as a chattel? Applying these tests, it has been held that machinery, fastened by screws to the floor, for the purpose of steadying it, is not a fixture; nor are distillery tanks forming the roofs of rooms or houses, boiling backs and mash-tuns (lying on brick piers against the walls) which formed the floors of some of the rooms, and were screwed down for the purpose of being steadied, and connected with pipes which were attached to fixtures. Hangings, chimney-glasses, pier-glasses, pictures, slightly attached to the walls for the purpose of holding them up in their places; chandeliers, seats screwed to the premises to keep them steady, and carpets attached by nails to the floor, are not fixtures, for they are fastened only for a temporary purpose, and for their more complete use and enjoyment as chattels. Fixtures such as doors or windows become, of course, the property of the landlord; but sometimes chattels are annexed to the land for trade or business purposes, or for domestic convenience and ornament, which are so permanent as to become part of the land, but which the law, nevertheless, allows the tenant to remove, in order to encourage trade, or to give him the full domestic enjoyment of the premises while he is in possession of them. Let us consider.

Trade Fixtures.—There are three questions to be asked here. (1) Is the removal sanctioned by custom? (2) Can it be made without injury to the property? And (3) Can it be effected without demolishing or destroying the essential character and value of the fixture to be removed? It does not matter that it has to be taken to pieces, if the pieces can be put together again. A great number of cases have been decided on these points, and it has been held that soap-boilers, vats, salt-pans fixed with mortar to a brick floor, bakers' ovens, furnaces, coppers in brewhouses, brewing vessels and pipes, engines screwed down to planks, fire-engines, steam-engines, and other colliery machinery, and greenhouses or hothouses erected by a market gardener or nurseryman for the purposes of his business, can be removed. It will be seen from this list that the old rule still applied to mortgaged property has been widely departed from in every other relation of life. There are some restrictions, however, still in existence. A gentleman erected a conservatory on a brick foundation, attached to a dwelling-house and communicating with it by windows opening into the conservatory. It was decided that this erection became the property of the landlord. In another case, where a greenhouse was put up in a garden and a boiler was built into the brickwork forming it, it was decided that the greenhouse and boiler passed to the landlord, but that the tenant could remove the pipes attached to the heating apparatus if he thought proper. If a nurseryman is leaving his premises, he can take away trees planted for the purposes of trade; but an ordinary lessee could not take away a single flower or a border of box.

Fixtures for Ornament or Domestic Convenience.—In this case the questions to be asked are whether they are slightly fixed, and if

they can be removed entire with little or no damage to the building. Bells, cornices, wainscots fixed only by screws, book-cases, and other furniture attached by holdfasts, screws, or nails to the wall; ornamental chimney-pieces, stoves, and grates fixed with brickwork in the chimney-places, but removable without injury to the chimney-place; pumps only slightly attached to the premises, cooling-tubs, mash-tubs, water-tubs, and blinds have all been held by the Courts to be removable. On the other hand, hearths and chimney-pieces not of an ornamental character, fire-grates, and benches nailed to the wall pass to the landlord, because they were put up to complete the house. A veranda, the lower part of which is attached to posts fixed in the ground, cannot be removed. Recently cases filled with stuffed birds on a gallery were held not to be fixtures. Custom has a good deal to do with the regulation of fixtures, and still more frequently, in modern times, landlord and tenant enter into an express agreement on the point.

Removing Fixtures.—The tenant must remove the fixtures to which he is entitled before the landlord re-enters; and, the moment the landlord chooses to regard him as a trespasser, who has no further right to be on the premises, the right of removal is gone, unless the fixtures have been previously unfastened and reconverted into chattels. Even if the tenant continues in possession under a new agreement or lease, and nothing is said about the fixtures, the right of removal is lost. His fixtures have, in fact, passed to the landlord, and they are part and parcel of the premises which are let under the new lease or agreement.

HOUSE FURNISHING.

Home-Making.—Given the house, whether by building, buying, or leasing, the next thing is to set about making it a home. Comfort is the basis of home-making. Men who practically live at their clubs, or anywhere else except at home, do so because they find more comfort there than they do in the bosoms of their families. This, of course, should never be, and it need never be, if but due attention is paid to home-making. In home-making many things combine. Tasteful decoration makes the home attractive, careful furnishing makes it comfortable, efficient house-keeping makes it enjoyable and sympathetic companionship makes it lovable. In dealing with home-making, in so far as it is provided by decoration and furniture, we propose to go through the house room by room, treating of decoration and furniture as two departments of one subject, as certainl ythe two must be considered in their relationship to each other, if satisfactory results are to be secured.

Decoration and Furniture.—So much of decoration is of the nature of furnishing in so far as ceilings, walls, dado's, panels, and wainscots are concerned, and so much of furniture is decorative in design that the only way to promote that harmony of arrangement which secures the most beauty in appearance together with the most comfort in use, is to deal with the two departments together, thus making sure that the one shall be complementary to the other, and so heighten the effect of the whole, and not, as often happens —when one hand directs the decoration and another the furnishing—the one tend to minimise or neutralise the effect of the other. The acme of arrangement in any scene, whether it be a picture or a room, is that the elements which make it up shall be lost in the general effect that they produce; hence relation and harmony are of paramount importance, in maintaining which every detail should be subsidiary.

Harmony in Colour and Design.—Variety, says the proverb, is the charm of life, and anything which breaks up the monotony of things is sometimes regarded as variety. But what is variety? Variety is variation of colour or design *on a fixed basis*. The mere juxtaposition of things that differ in colour and form does not produce variety, but *incongruity*. True variety is due to the observance of the natural laws

that govern the relations of colours and forms. To illustrate this take the well-known relationship of colours. "The rose is red, the violet's blue," says the rhyme, but the rose ceases to be red and the violet is no longer blue when the two are brought into close relationship. That is to say, different colours so far affect each other as to produce, when seen together, a different effect upon the eye to that which is produced when they are seen separately. Thus one colour is said to "kill" another, or to "help it," as the case may be. This, of course, has to be borne in mind in dealing with decoration and furnishing. To have a colour on the floor which kills the colour on the walls is to spoil both, just as to have a colour on a hat which is out of harmony with the colour of the dress is to destroy the effect of each. The effect of colours one upon another is given in the following table, made by Mr. R. W. Edis, from notes on pairs of colours and the changes due to contrast, by Professor Rood.

Pairs of colours.		Change due to Contrast.
Red	becomes more	purplish
Yellow	" "	greenish
Red	" "	orange-red
Blue	" "	greenish
Yellow	" "	orange-yellow
Green	" "	bluish-green
Green	" "	yellowish-green
Blue	" "	purplish
Red	" "	purplish
Orange	" "	yellowish
Blue	" "	greenish
Violet	" "	purplish

To determine colours that will agree, a very simple and interesting experiment will suffice. Take a piece of coloured material about the size of a shilling and place it upon a black ground. Look at it steadily for a few seconds and then turn the eye upon a piece of plain white paper; the colour seen upon the white paper will be that which will best harmonise with the colour placed upon the black ground. Forms, like sounds, are subject to laws of harmony, and to decorate and furnish to the best advantage, these laws must be observed. To those who lack experience in these matters, the best advice is, deal with some firm of known character and reputation, seek the advice of the best skill they employ, have estimates for everything they propose to do, and do not disturb contracts when once settled.

Art and Nature in Decoration.—Much of error in old time decoration arose from the tendency of man to try and improve upon nature, instead of trying to apply it. To try and gild the sun must always be a profitless endeavour, and yet in every generation there are those who try to improve upon what they do not understand, with the result that at the best they lose their labour and at the worst disfigure that which, properly treated, is well qualified to adorn. Nature supplies many kinds of wood for man's manipulation. Some kinds are rarer than others, and from time to time one kind is more fashionable than another. To equalise supply and demand, and to meet the cry for cheapness, men set their ingenuity to work, and proceed to paint the commoner kinds in imitation of the rarer kinds. This is an instance of the false in art. It is far better to have a piece of plain deal than to have a piece of deal painted and grained to imitate walnut! The one is true, and the other is a false representation. **Graining.** Mr. Ruskin deals with this point in his own heightened and powerful way. "There is not," he says, "a meaner occupation for the human mind than the imitation of the stains and striæ of marble and wood. When engaged in any easy and simple mechanical occupation, there is still some liberty for the mind to leave the literal work, and the clash of the loom or the activity of the fingers will not always prevent the thoughts from happy expatiations in their own domains. But the grainer must think of what he is doing; and veritable attention and care, and occa-

sionally considerable skill, are consumed in the doing of a more absolute nothing than I can name in any other department of painful idleness. I know not anything so humiliating as to see a human being, with arms and limbs complete, and apparently a head, and assuredly a soul, yet into the hands of which when you have put a brush and palette, it cannot do anything with them but imitate a piece of wood. It cannot colour, it has no ideas of form; it cannot caricature, it has no idea of humour. It is incapable of anything beyond knots. All its achievements, the entire result of the daily application of its imagination and immortality, is to be such a piece of texture as the sun and dew are sucking up out of the muddy ground, and weaving together, far more finely, in millions and millions of growing branches, over every rood of waste woodland and shady rill." That shams have a bad moral influence Mr. Ruskin goes on to point out. "You see," he says, "that which pretends to a worth which it has not, which pretends to have cost and to be what it did not and is not, is an imposition, a vulgarity, an impertinence, a sin." "Nobody wants ornaments in this world, but everybody wants integrity. All the fair devices that ever were fancied are not worth a lie. Leave your walls as bare as a planed board.... if need be, but do not rough coat them with falsehood." To have a wooden article painted to look like marble and to know all the while that it is only wood can but result in wooden satisfaction, a satisfaction which is minimised by the fact that it is perverted wood and not even wood at its best. If plain polished or varnished deal or pine is not rich enough in appearance—infinitely preferable, by the way, to any graining—it can be stained to give it colour; and as the natural grain of the wood shows through the stain, the truth of the whole thing is obvious. Then if staining is objected to, or it is considered that it will not afford sufficient protection to the wood, what can be better than painting—either in one plain colour, or decorated with properly designed ornament. Painting is, perhaps, the best for most purposes of domestic decoration, as a greater variety of pigments are at our disposal, and thus the colour or colours can be arranged in harmony with any proposed style or scheme of decoration. The objections to **Veneering**, as prevalent in most of the modern cheap furniture, are almost, if not quite, as great as in the case of graining—the object being to make the work appear different to what it is. When veneering is applied to mouldings and other carved surfaces, the falseness is intensified. These objections do not apply to "marquetry," where a certain design or pattern is produced by inlaying, or rather veneering on different kinds of woods. In this class of work veneer is rightly applied, as the effect could not very well be produced in any other way; and, as it is obvious that it is not all solid work, there is no deceit in its use. **Solid Woods.** There is now, however, and has been for some years, a laudable attempt on the part of the leading manufacturers to produce really good furniture, in plain solid woods, artistic in design and well made, which the majority of veneered furniture is not. The greater part of this class of furniture, it is true, is more expensive than the common kinds; but as it lasts very much longer than inferior kinds, it is of course really cheaper in the end.

Fitness in Furniture and Decoration.—Truth in art may be summed up to mean the fitness of an object, and of its decoration to the use to which it is to be put, or the position it is destined to occupy. Next to the avoidance of shams, the *fitness* or *aptness* of an article or its decoration is one of the most important principles. The fitness, or want of that quality, in an object of common use is generally apparent. On considering the purpose for which the object is intended, and ascertaining if it fulfils the necessary conditions, we determine its fitness. Take a dining-room chair, for instance. What is the

principal use of such chairs? Why, to sit on when at meals. Now, if the chair be too high or too low, or the back too much inclined—although it might be good as a chair, *per se*—it would be wanting in fitness because it would not be suited to the purpose for which it was intended. This single instance is, I apprehend, sufficient to explain the term fitness in relation to the object. The fitness of its decoration may not at first sight be so generally apparent. I think it may be best summed up thus. Any article, however plain, that answers its purpose, possesses the quality of fitness; it may also be decorated, and still possess fitness; or it may be decorated, and have its fitness destroyed. And again, an article which does not *quite* fulfil its purpose, may be made to do so by being decorated. The weapons of the warriors of past ages afford good illustrations. The savage found that his club was not quite perfect, it slipped in his hand, and, to increase his grip, he roughened it; afterwards it occurred to him to make this roughening ornamental. Other weapons, as swords, daggers, etc., likewise require this roughening. When the utility was paramount, the ornamental character of this feature, never—however beautiful—became an impediment; it was only when the *raison d'être* was lost sight of, that the debased form of ornament culminated in actual impediments. Take for instance such ordinary things as modern scissors. In order to show a certain dexterity in cutting the metal, the handles are often so belaboured with twists and scrolls and points as to render their use not only inconvenient, but painful: they no longer possess fitness. Given truth and fitness in detail, we must have, as already pointed out, fitness or harmony in arrangement. Everything should be considered as a part of a scheme or general whole. A chair or a table should not be merely designed as a chair or a table apart from the other furniture, and so on with regard to other objects. There is no objection to a difference of style throughout a house, or even throughout a room. A room may be furnished with objects of different styles and yet be not at all incongruous. They must be related and then they will present variety in nicety.

Furnishing.—Furnishing a house is necessarily for most people a serious undertaking. As a rule, like marriage, it occurs but once in a lifetime, so seldom indeed that few besides those professionally engaged in furnishing can be said to have much experience of it. Happily for us the best skill of the most experienced furnishers is available for the use of those desiring to furnish, and facilities of selection were never greater than they are to-day. Many of the larger furnishers both in London and the provinces make a handsome display of their wares in show rooms which rival and even duplicate rooms in king's palaces and in the houses of the nobility, while most of them are equally ready to estimate for the furnishing of a college, or a hall. A walk through the show rooms of Messrs Maple & Company or those of Messrs Shoolbred, to mention no others, is to experience a revelation of beauty and taste which dazzles if it does not embarrass. For those who wish to furnish upon a large scale and to whom money is no object, ample opportunities are afforded for gratifying the most luxurious tastes. Suites of furniture for every period, not merely in imitation of, but actually surviving the times of Louis XIV, XV and XVI, and that of the first French Empire, can be seen and purchased, while all the more modern periods are represented in all their variety of styles. But while £20,000 may easily be spent in furnishing a large house, it is possible to furnish a small one for almost anything down to £20, indeed it is in making the most of a small sum that the skill and experience of the furnisher is most shown. Perhaps the simplest way of securing this is, for those who desire to furnish a given number of rooms for a given sum, to secure inventories of the goods that would be supplied for the same from one or two respectable

furnishing houses. A comparison of the lists supplied would enable the purchaser to judge of the completeness of the furnishing proposed, while an examination of the goods proposed to be supplied by the estimating firms would show him from which he was most likely to get the best value for his money. In this way the "contriving" which so troubles the inexperienced purchaser is thrown upon the professional furnisher who is the best qualified to "contrive," and the results should be satisfactory to all parties concerned. The purchaser, in this case, is quite safe, for he is not committed to anything until he has formally accepted an estimate, and this of course he would not do until he had made satisfactory examination of the goods.

Furnishing on the Hire System.—Those who may wish to furnish without paying cash for the goods they require, can do so on the hire system by arrangement with one or other of the Furnishing companies, or upholstering firms, who undertake this class of business. Economists usually discourage furnishing upon the hire system, and certainly if the purchaser can pay cash it is advisable for him to buy at the best price he can for ready money. It is never well for young people to start housekeeping with a heavy debt upon their shoulders, and it is far better to begin with a little and furnish by degrees than to fill a house with furniture on credit and spend the first few years of married life, which should be free from care, under the shadow of a great obligation. Still, where the income is certain there can be no impropriety in undertaking a burden that is well within the bounds of endurance, and if for the accommodation of the immediate use of the furniture no more than a moderate interest is charged, there can be no objection to the transaction. The man who buys a house through a building society buys it on the hire system and there are thousands of people who purchase pianos under the three years system who would never possess one but for the facilities the hire system furnishes. The danger lies in the temptation—always present when payment is to be deferred—to launch out into expenditure that is not warranted by the income of the purchaser. What a man can pay for at the time of purchase can be very definitely ascertained, but what he may be able to pay for months or years hence is always an unknown quality. When, however, the purchaser has determined to proceed upon the hire system he must be very careful with whom he makes his contract, or he may find his furniture falls to pieces before he has paid for it. Furnishing firms who supply all the goods required from their own stock, unless in a very large way, seldom offer the choice that is available when the purchase is made through a company which does not trade itself but which supplies a list of leading firms from whom the goods can be ordered upon the company's account. Of course there are many respectable firms who can be trusted to advise their customers upon the selection of goods even under the hire system, but there are also many others who are not equally worthy of confidence. If a private firm is dealt with it should be one that has a reputation for fair dealing and good workmanship, which is worth their maintaining, in which case they may be trusted from motives of self-interest to do the right by their customers. If the purchaser decides to deal with a company not in trade, he should select the one which offers the largest choice of selection and charges the most moderate fees or rates of interest for the accommodation. The mode of procedure is as follows: the hirer fills up a form of application supplied by the company, giving particulars of the value of the goods he proposes to purchase, and such references as the company may require. If accepted, the hirer is requested to select the goods he requires from the stocks of the various firms employed by the company. The selection being completed, the invoices are made out, and when approved by the hirer the agreement is signed, the

deposit paid, and the goods delivered to the hirer, as previously arranged. When the last monthly or quarterly instalment is paid, the goods become the absolute property of the hirer. The terms vary according to risk, and the proportion of more perishable goods which are included in the hire. The following are the terms advertised by a well known Furnishing Company. Five per cent. commission is charged upon the amount of the purchase and five per cent. per annum interest on the money advanced, twenty per cent. of the purchase money being paid by the hirer in cash on the selection of the goods. The amount of the loan is repaid together with the commission and interest in monthly or quarterly instalments. Where the hire extends over more than one year, an extra 2½ per cent. interest is charged upon the amounts remaining unpaid at the commencement of each year. This practically means that when the advance is repaid in one year the cost to the hirer amounts to ten per cent. on the loan, *i.e.* 5 per cent. commission and 5 per cent. interest; when the repayments extend over two or three years, the cost is 10 per cent. on the first year and 7½ per cent. upon the amount remaining unpaid at the commencement of the second and third years.

To illustrate the case, we will suppose that furniture is bought, including commission, fire insurance, etc., to the value of £100, to be paid in 1, 2, or 3 years. The following Tables show the monthly or quarterly payments:—

Payable in One Year.

	£	s.	d.
Amount	100	0	0
20 per cent. Cash down ...	20	0	0
Balance	80	0	0
5 per cent. Interest	4	0	0
Total	84	0	0
Instalments—			
Payable Monthly	7	0	0
,, Quarterly ...	21	0	0

Payable in Two Years.

	£	s.	d.
Amount	100	0	0
20 per cent. Cash down ...	20	0	0
Balance	80	0	0
1st Year's Interest	4	0	0
2nd Do.	3	0	0
Total	87	0	0
Instalments—			
Payable Monthly	3	12	6
,, Quarterly ...	10	17	6

Payable in Three Years.

	£	s.	d.
Amount	100	0	0
20 per cent. Cash down ...	20	0	0
Balance	80	0	0
1st Year's Interest	4	0	0
2nd Do.	4	0	0
3rd Do.	2	0	0
Total	90	0	0
Instalments—			
Payable Monthly	2	10	0
,, Quarterly ...	7	10	0

Where the selection contains an undue proportion of destructible or perishable goods, the terms of the above scale may be modified as far as regards the deposit, but the charge for interest or commission is not disturbed. Hirers can at any time pay up the balance of instalments in one sum, and are in such cases allowed a rebate of 2½ per cent. per annum.

Modern Furnishing.—The characteristic which perhaps most differentiates modern furnishing from that of from thirty to fifty years ago is summed up in Mathew Arnold's famous phrase, "sweetness and light." Any one who will compare in thought a modern bedroom with its light iron bedstead and lighter hangings, and its white and light wood furniture, with the sleeping apartment furnished by our grandmothers, with its heavy four post mahogany bedstead, dark hangings and equally heavy furniture to match, will see at once the difference to which we refer, and this difference in a more or less marked degree will be found in every room in the

house. Our more immediate ancestors took themselves more seriously than we do, and we find their habit of thought reflected in the furnishing and decoration of their houses. That we have gained much in the culture of taste during the intervening years there can be no possible doubt. Any one who will take the trouble to look through the illustrated catalogue of the great Exhibition of 1851 which to some extent indicates the high water mark of the culture and taste of the time as reflected in its arts and crafts, cannot fail to be struck with the progress made in all departments during the latter half of the 19th century. Happily the advantages arising from this increased culture and advanced taste are available alike in a more or less degree for rich and poor. Wealth, even though vulgar, has always had the chance of employing the best available skill; and the comparatively low standards of taste obtaining among men of moderate and smaller means in past times, has not encouraged the application of art to cheaper manufacturers. But nowadays, thanks to the teaching of Mr. Ruskin, Mr. William Morris, and South Kensington, better things obtain; the general standard of taste has been so far raised, and it has become worth the while of manufacturers to apply art to the production even of their cheap wares, so that artistic furnishing is no longer the exclusive enjoyment of the rich and it is possible to furnish artistically within whatever means are available and at a cost not exceeding that of old time vulgarity. What is wanted is taste in selection and taste in arrangement, and these can be employed without adding to the cost of the things purchased.

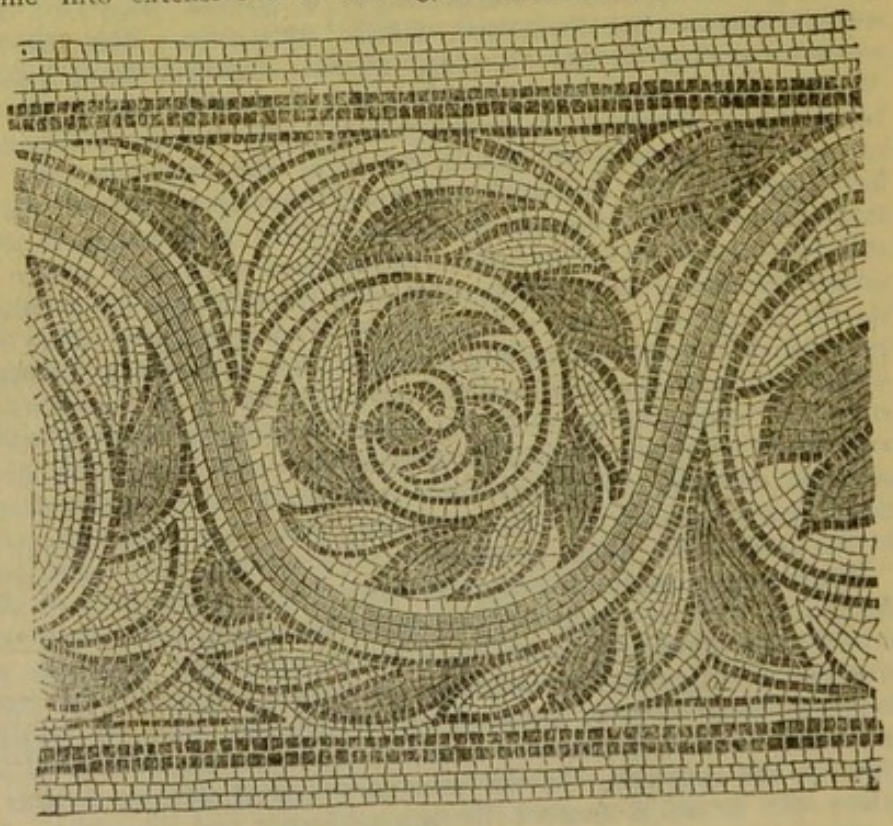
The Approach.—Having already dealt with some of the general principles involved in furnishing and decoration we will now proceed to consider the house in detail room by room, but before we enter some consideration must be given to the approach. In the country, where the house is reached through a garden, no approach can for a moment compare with a well kept gravel path. **Gravel Paths** seem to have a natural affinity to lawns and flower beds and when well kept—and the path needs as much attention as any other part of the garden—become ornamental as well as useful, harmonizing as no other kind of path can with the rural character of the surroundings. If the house is a large one and situated in a fairly large garden, vases filled with flowers edging the path at intervals will not be out of place, but all exterior decorations should be in modest proportion to the size of the house, or pretentiousness in the approach will only lead to disappointment in the house, besides which pretentiousness is always vulgar. In the variable climate of the British Isles stucco garden decorations should be avoided, for the effect of damp on such is not that of ornament, and damp we have always with us. **Terra Cotta Vases** can be bought at 10/- each and upwards. In the country it is the garden that determines the character of the approach and anything that well becomes a garden may be employed in its adornment. The cost of gravel is 8/- to 12/- per load, and a load consists of a cube yard. In towns it is the house which determines the character of the approach, and the attempt to cultivate gardens in city forecourts is often as incongruous as it would be to pave a country garden with city flags. Town houses are usually approached by forecourts paved either with flag stones, tiles, or mosaics. **Flag Stones** have the merit of durability as well as that of being in keeping with stone buildings and with the paving of the streets with which they communicate. They, however, lack sympathy and the desire for something lighter and more ornate has led to the employment of tiles and mosaics. **Mosaics.** Mosaic flooring is made of small cubes of marble or ceramic ware firmly imbedded in concrete, in which patterns, coloured heraldic designs, or mottoes can be worked if desired. The merit of mosaics is their combination of beauty and durability. As the cubes are small, very elegant designs can be made with them, and as the colour is solid

the pattern never wears off Mosaic



Mosaic.

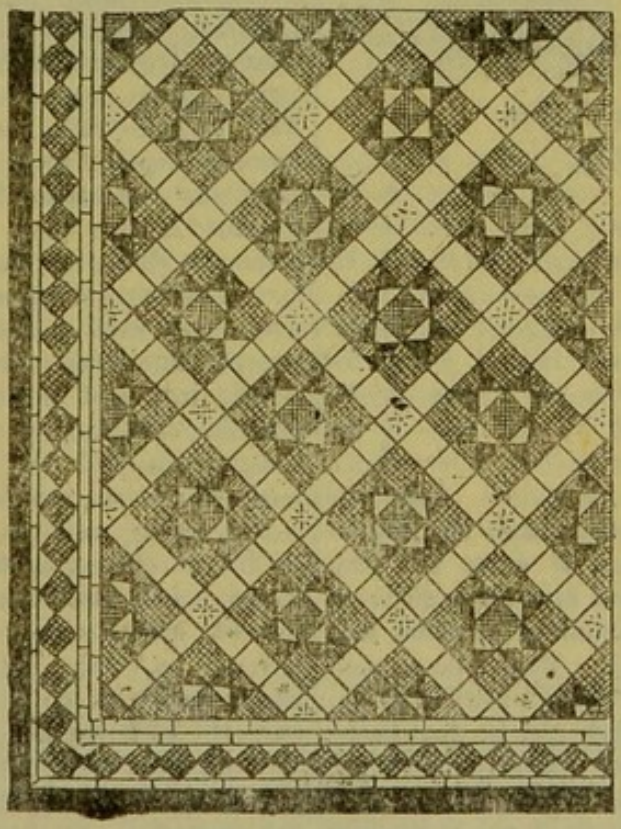
floorings have come into extensive use of recent years for forecourts, halls and passages of public and private buildings. Designs may be simple or elaborate, the cost naturally varying according to the work involved. Some designs consist of all-over patterns and others of plain centres with ornamental borders. Cube mosaics cost from 15/- per square yard and upwards according to design. Mosaic hearths from 20/-, more elaborate designs 60/-. The accompanying illustrations show how elaborate and beautiful mosaic flooring may be made. A cheaper mosaic is made with the chippings of marble cubes of all shapes, sizes and colours welded together in a mass with cement, presenting a pretty mottled appearance. This costs from 7/- per square yard. **Tiles** may be bought at prices ranging from pence to shillings according to design and colouring. The cheapest are known as **Quarries**. These are the blue, red and buff tiles put down in wash-houses and forecourts. They are made 4 in. and 6 in. square and 1 in. thick, and cost from 3/6 to 4/6 per square yard. **Plain unglazed flooring** tiles, red, buff, drab, salmon, black and chocolate, arranged to make a variegated pattern, cost from 6/- per square yard, best quality from 10/-. **Encaustic** or **Inlaid Tiles**, blue, green, white and other colours, best quality, 12/6 per square yard. **Plain white glazed Tiles** for scullery walls from 11/- per square yard. Bath-room printed tiles from 13/6. **Glazed Tiles of various**



Mosaic.

colours made in several sizes for hearths, 15/- to 20/- per hearth; with strips to form panels for stove, 25/- to 30/-. Whole hearths hand-painted with side panels, complete, from £6.0.0. **Tile curbs** for hearths 30/-. **Embossed Tiles** for window boxes or stove panels from 6d. each. **Dados**, majolica work with embossed skirtings and top mouldings from 25/- per square yard.

The Entrance.—Having determined the character of the approach we now proceed to the front door, close to which door scrapers invite us to remove as much of the garden as may cling to our boots before entering. **Door Scrapers** may be purchased at any price from 1/3 to 21/-, or more, and in many styles, varying from the plain and simple to the more ornate and elaborate. Some are no more than plain iron bars or knives fitted horizontally into the walls of the building, while others rival the "coal vase" in form and pretentiousness, and some are fitted with brushes to aid their efficiency. In the country door scrapers are perhaps more necessary than in town, but in both they are essential aids to cleanliness.



Tesselated Tiles.

Across the Threshold.—Passing into the house we are at once impressed with the necessity of supplementing the office of the scraper by that of the mat. A well furnished hall will be such as will impress the visitor with the necessity for this additional aid to cleanliness.

A quaint writer has said:

If down his throat a man should choose
In fun, to jump or slide,
Against his teeth, he'd scrape his shoes,
Not dirt his own inside.
Or if his teeth were lost and gone
And he'd no stump to scrape upon,
He'd see at once how very pat,
His tongue lay there, by way of mat,
And he would wipe his feet on *that*.

It would be well if everyone who enters a house in muddy weather would observe the fitness of things thus quaintly illustrated.

To receive the door mat a well should be sunk in the flooring that the mat may not disturb the level of the hall and form an object calculated to trip one up on entering or leaving the house. This having been made, it is almost needless to add that the mat should match in thickness the depth of the well provided for it.

Door Mats.—The best mats for street doors are undoubtedly those made of cocoa-fibre. These may be had either plain, bordered, or patterned, and, if desired, with a crest or monogram worked in the centre. The sizes of cocoa mats are known in the trade by numbers ranging from 1 to 9; the actual measurements, with prices of the various qualities are as follows:—

BEST DIAMOND,

without Border.

No.	Inches.	s.	d.
2	27 × 16	2	0
3	30 × 18	2	6½
4	33 × 20	3	2
5	36 × 22	3	9
6	39 × 24	4	4
7	42 × 26	5	3
8	45 × 28	6	0
9	48 × 30	7	0

EXTRA DIAMOND,

without Border.

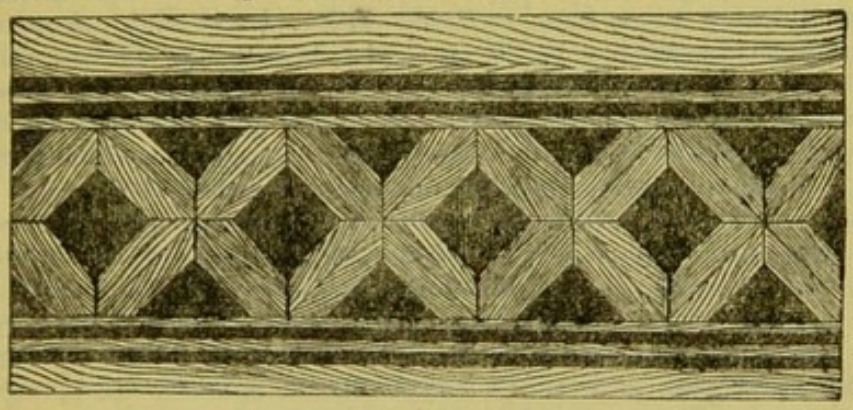
No.	Inches.	s.	d.
2	27 × 16	2	6
3	30 × 18	3	2
4	33 × 20	3	9
5	36 × 22	4	6
6	39 × 24	5	3
7	42 × 26	6	3
8	45 × 29	7	3
9	48 × 30	8	3

Attempts have been made recently to vary the appearance of cocoa mats by working patterns and borders in different coloured fibres. These of medium size cost about 13/- each. Plain cocoa mats having the word "Salve" worked in the centre 39 × 24 inches can be purchased for 8/9. For other doorways bordered cocoa mats formed of a centre of fine fibre surrounded by wool are commonly used. These **Extra border mats** with Vandyke or plain borders are made to the same sizes as given above, and at the following prices: no. 2 3/- to 3/6; no. 3 3/10 to 4/4; no. 4 4/9 to 5/-; no. 5 5/9 to 6/2; no. 6 6/9 to 7/3; no. 7 8/- to 8/9; no. 8 9/- to 9/6. **Oriental mats** are frequently used for the doorways of reception and bedrooms. Turkey mats can be had 3 feet by 1 foot, for 5s. 6d., and 3 feet by 2 feet, for 10s. 6d. each. Sheepskin mats in black, orange, blue, crimson, or white are also largely used these are usually about 33 by 11 inches or 36 by 12 and cost from 3s. 9d. to 9s. 6d. Anglo-Indian Rugs in rich Oriental colourings with fringed ends are made in mat size, 30 by 13 inches, price 3s. 3d. and 3s. 9d. each. Beam mats are also used for bedrooms and other doors; they have mottled centres and coloured striped borders. They usually measure about 33 by 12 inches, 2s. 9d.; 36 by 12, 3s. each; any size and colour can be made to order at 1s., 1s. 2d. to 1s. 6d. per square foot. The same mats, but of larger size, are used for bedroom hearthrugs, with a Kidderminster, Dutch, or felt carpet; prices range from 7s. 9d. upward. The English-made Persian Saddle bags form very pretty mats; they have a short close pile not unlike Utrecht velvet, and Persian designs and colourings. The sizes are 18 by 18 inches, 3s.; and 22 by 22 inches, 4s. 3d. each. The smaller size make nice hassocks. These mats are also used for covering chairs, music stools, etc., and are both beautiful and durable. **Tapestry mats**, similar to Tapestry carpet, are very useful and inexpensive; the smaller size, 36 by 14 inches, being only 1s. 6½d.; the larger, 36 by 18 inches, 2s. 6½d. each. **Linoleum mats** can be had in two sizes, 18 by 18 inches, 10d.; and 24 by 24 inches, 1s. 6d. each. **Floorcloth mats** come at 10½d. 18 by 18 inches; and 1s. 1½d. for the larger size, 24 by 18 inches. These are useful to protect carpets from being soiled by plants, vases, flower stands, coal boxes, etc., etc., etc.

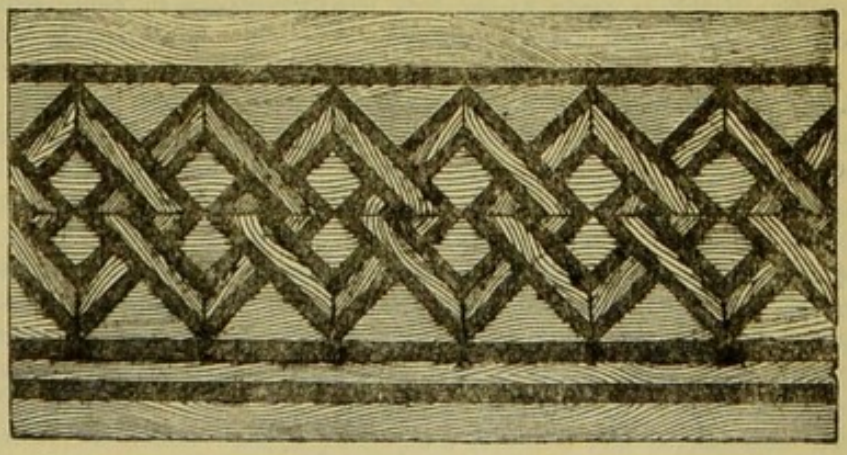
The Hall.—Happily the desire of every English host is to give his visitor a hearty welcome, and since first impressions are not only the most vivid but also the most lasting, the air of welcome should make itself felt upon the very threshold. To this end the furnishing and decoration of the hall should be made with a view to comfort and warmth. Having done our duty by the door mat, our next step brings us into contact with the floor, and the question of its character and covering becomes our next concern.

The Floor.—The majority of entrance

halls are too small and narrow to admit of much furnishing or decoration, still they may easily be made to look more cheerful and inviting than they usually do. Experts tell us that it is best to begin furnishing and decoration by dealing with the floor, as it is easier to harmonize furniture and decoration with floors and floor coverings than *vice versa*. To begin then with the Hall floor; we usually find it to consist of white deal boards which have lost for ever their pristine whiteness, and our first impulse is to cover them over and hide their ugliness. But here at the outset of our furnishing we are brought face to face with one of the chief points in which modern furnishing differs from that of the past. All-over floor coverings are now deprecated on sanitary grounds as they harbour dust, and being nailed to the floor or held to it by heavy articles of furniture, cannot be readily removed for cleansing purposes. Several plans are, however, open to us for dealing with the hall floor. The simplest and cheapest is to stain or paint the edging and employ matting for the centre. Parquet veneer, or solid parquet of which particulars are given on page 43 may be used either for a bordering or to cover the whole floor, or the hall may be laid down with mosaic or tesselated tiles, in harmony with the forecourt as described on page 36. In the centre of a hall floored with either of these materials **Indian or Persian rugs** look rich and warm and need not be costly, as they can be bought for a few shillings and will last for a very long time. **Jeypore Rugs** of handsome pile, Eastern design and colouring, with fringed ends, 7 ft. 6 in. by 4 ft., cost about £1.12.6. Jeypore or Mecca **Vestibule Rugs** which are made long and narrow to suit the entrance halls of average terraced houses can be purchased from £1.4.6 (10 ft. × 2 ft. 5 in.) to £3.15.0 (13 ft. × 4 ft. 6 in.). **Cocoa Mattings**, which are well adapted for covering the centres of stone passages or those of mosaic or tesselated tiles, are apt to become too sombre when used with parquet borderings, but they are convenient, and although they harbour dust can, when not fastened down, be easily removed when necessary for cleanliness. The best makes vary from 18 inches to



Parquet Bordering.



Parquet Bordering.

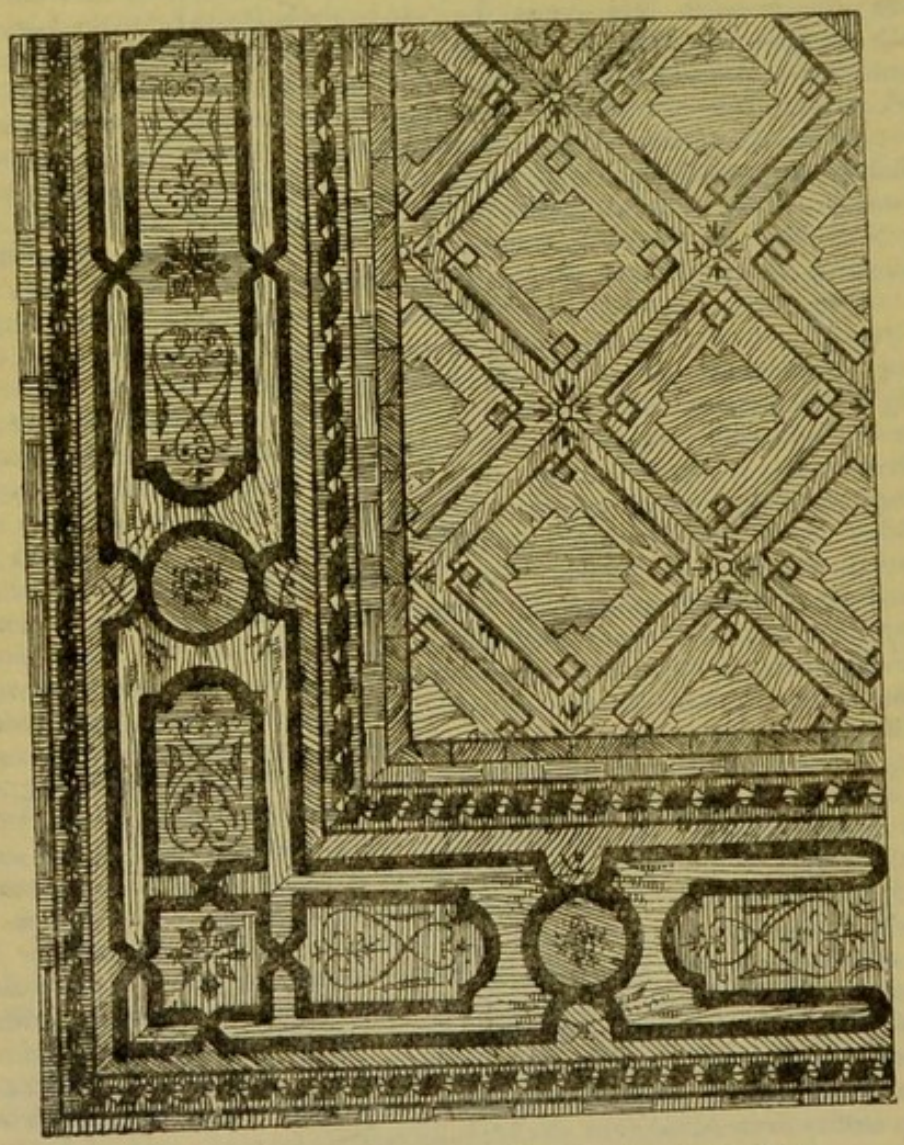
72 inches in width, and prices range from 8/- to 4/6 per yard. This matting can be had in olive, peacock, and other art shades. **Beresford mattings** are softer to the tread than those of cocoa fibre but they wear well and may be had in plain light brown or fancy colours. They are made in widths of 18, 27, and 36 inches and are sold at 1/-, 1/6, and 2/- per yard respectively. **Napier mattings** made from hemp may be had in light brown and fancy colours 18, 27, or 36 inches wide, and from 1/6 to 3/6 per yard. **Manilla mattings** of bright clean surface and open texture are made in the same widths and sold at from 11d. to 1/10 per yard. **China and India mattings** are made of various widths in plain creamy white, olive, red, red and white check, and other fancy patterns. The widths are 27, 36, 45 and 54 inches, the prices vary from 1/2 per yard for the narrowest width to 2/9 for the broadest. **Floorcloths and Linoleum** are popular for all-over floor coverings and the chief objection to them is that which applies to all all-over coverings, namely that they harbour the dust and cannot be readily removed for cleaning. **Oilcloth** is popular for a variety of reasons. It is cheap, it looks clean, and is easily washed, it is durable and can be cut to fit almost any crooked passage. Made as wide as 24 feet any private entrance hall can be covered by it without a join in the material, and in the hands of those accustomed to lay it, it can be cut to fit any irregularity of construction with which it may be required to harmonize. Great varieties of pattern may be had in oilcloths and linoleum, patterns which admirably imitate parquet, mosaic, and tesselated tiles, and which may therefore be made the basis upon which Indian and other rugs may produce a similar effect. Of course the sham is not equal to the real but, as in most things, involves less immediate outlay. In buying floorcloths care should be taken to secure well seasoned cloths, for cloths which have not been allowed due time for drying and hardening very soon wear shabby. Good, well seasoned cloths can be had for 2/4 per square yard, extra stout qualities costing from 2/9 to 3/-. Linoleum and oilcloth sufficiently stout to border bedroom and other carpets can be purchased from 8d. to 1/6 per yard. **Linoleum** carried to a high state of perfection in design and durability in the Staines and other best makes, is not quite so easy of manipulation nor so economic as oilcloth, as it is only made in widths of 3 ft. and 6 ft. and so, often has to be cut to waste in fitting. Prices range from 1/1 to 3/- per square yard. Bordered floor cloths are made of various widths specially for passages, the prices being the same per square yard as that of the body cloths they are made to match.

Hall Decoration.—The simplest form of wall decoration is paint, dado height, surmounted by stencil ornament and distemper. Dados running round the hall and up the staircase may be painted, or papered, or formed of wood panelling, which, however, becomes costly, or "Lincrusta Walton" may be employed. This may be obtained in almost any colour, and is very decorative in character, the ornament being stamped in low relief. It is also moderate in cost. It is a kind of linoleum, and therefore a good medium for resisting damp; it moreover has the advantage of being strong and of wearing well. Wall-papers, of excellent design and colouring, can now be procured from most of the leading manufacturers, at prices as low as a penny a yard. The paper should not, as a rule, extend to the cornice; but should be separated from it by a frieze. Paper-friezes are sold by the yard at all prices, and their use materially enhances the general effect. A narrow wood moulding, which can be bought for a penny a foot or even less, and which can be nailed up by anyone under the frieze, forms an agreeable and, in case of pictures, useful feature in the scheme. The addition of a narrow shelf above this moulding—the moulding, in fact, forming the "bed mould" to it—is a convenient accessory for the display of china plates, majolica,

and the like. The successful treatment of a hall in some such manner as this, is infinitely superior to the old fashioned marble-paper and varnish, and need not be any more costly. **The Staircase.** Very little can be done with the ordinary builders' staircase—the hideous balusters still remain; and as no amount of decorating can improve their form, the quieter it is kept the better. A plain tint, harmonizing with the dado, without any picking out, will generally be most suitable. Above the dado, which must *rake*, that is, run parallel, with the stairs, the covering to the wall should be in keeping with that of the hall; in fact, as a rule, it is better to have the same pattern. The frieze around the hall may, if it be of a suitable running pattern, extend up the staircase wall. The soffite or ceiling of the stairs should be coloured cream or vellum as the rest of the hall, and relieved with a bordering close to the *strings* of a few rather dullish red lines—either alone or enclosing a stencilled pattern all the same colour. The stairs themselves should, if narrow, as is usually the case, be nearly covered with the staircarpet. If a very narrow slip is used with painted borders of a totally different tone, the stairs look still narrower. Whatever paint or colour there is at the sides should harmonize, and not contrast, with the prevailing tone in the carpet.

The Hall Furniture.—The first thing that usually strikes the eye upon entering the average house is the ugly heap of coats, hats, and umbrellas that commonly disfigures the entrance hall. Various contrivances have been made with a view to reducing to something like sightliness the motley array of limbless clothes which, scarecrow like, wait us on the threshold and horrify us. **Hat and Umbrella Stands** are made of very handsome design, so handsome indeed that when they are not in use they may be said to serve a better purpose by way of ornament. Where it can be arranged, it is better to relegate the "cloak room" to the rear of the stair case, or some other spot near to, but out of sight of the entrance hall. This gives more room where room is usually needed and has the advantage not only of removing an eyesore from the entrance hall but of reducing the temptations offered to itinerant callers. Ordinary hat and umbrella stands of good make can be had in oak or mahogany from £1.13.0 and in Early English designs from £1.18.6. It is almost needless to add they can be had of very elaborate design with shelves and drawers, carved panels and mouldings, bevelled glass backs and marble tops, for eleven or twelve pounds. **Hall Wardrobes** are also made, which to some extent get over the difficulty of unsightliness to which we have referred. These contain centre cupboards fitted for coats and hats and also enclosures for sticks and umbrellas. Obviously, however, these are somewhat costly, and are usually made to fit the Hall for which they are intended. **Hat Racks** made of mahogany with strong brass hooks are sold with three hooks 3/3, four hooks 4/3, and five hooks 5/3. **Hat Rails**, brass, fitted with sliding hooks for coats, and mounted on mahogany or oak, four feet long with six hooks £1.11.6. **Fancy Hat Racks** are made of various sizes and shapes. The "Villa" hat rack, 54 inches long, of oak, walnut, or mahogany, and twelve hooks, costs £1.3.6. The "Clifton" hat rack, square, with brass rail, and bevelled glass centre in oak, walnut, or mahogany, from one guinea. The "Jockey Club" hat and whip holder, horse-shoe shape, 30 in. × 24, in mahogany, oak, or walnut, or ebonized, with seven silver plated hooks, £1.5.0. The "Lothbury" hat and coat rack 4 feet 3 in. long, 2 feet 6 in. high, with bevelled silvered centre plate and 12 hooks, costs £2.10.0. The "Throgmorton," 4 feet 9 by 3 feet 3, with bevelled silvered centre plate and eight hooks, £4.18.6. **Hall Tables.** Where there is room—and the removal of the hat and coat stand to some other place may often make room—a Hall Table may be a very useful as well as ornamental addition to the Hall furniture. These in early English from 3 ft. to 4 ft. long are made

to very handsome designs in mahogany, walnut, and oak, with or without marble tops and drawers from £1.7.6 and upwards. **Hall Chairs** in mahogany, walnut, and oak (carved) of very handsome design can be bought for from 17/6 and upwards. **Hall Benches** without backs in either wood, cost from 21/-; with backs in polished or fumigated oak and carved panels from six to fifteen guineas. **Umbrella Stands** in walnut, oak, and mahogany, square, cost from 10/6; oblong, from 15/-. **Fireplaces.** In halls where there is room enough, a hall fire forms a striking feature in the *ensemble*, besides being of actual use in preserving a comfortable atmosphere during uncomfortable weather. The fireplace may be as simple as possible, or it may be made quite a piece of furniture, with cupboards above the mantel for hat and coat brushes, and shelves for china and curios. The fender would most appropriately be of stone or marble —the hearth, as well as sides, if possible, being of glazed tiles. In existing halls where there is space enough to need warming but no means of providing the warmth, the construction of a fireplace would often be a costly and trouble-



Parquetry of Baron Rothschild's Drawing-room, Paris.

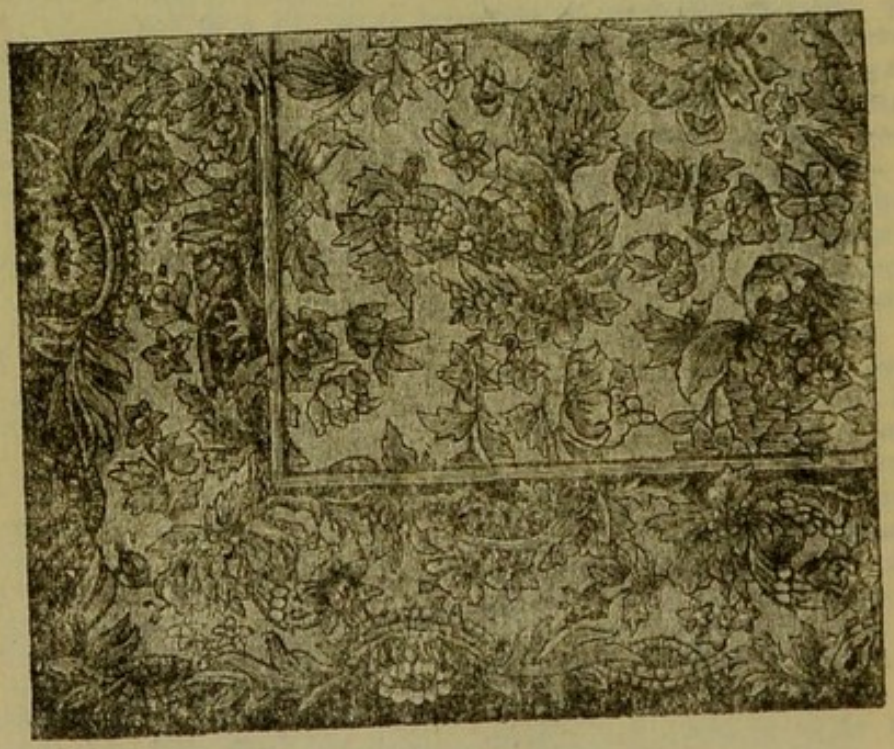
some affair. There are, however, gas and other stoves of a highly decorative kind, either of terra-cotta, tiles, china, etc., which may be substituted at much less constructive cost.

The Reception Rooms.—In passing from the Hall to the Reception Rooms the first things to be considered are the floors. In all probability we shall find them composed of white deal planks, which have shrunken somewhat since they were placed in position, leaving cracks, which are ready receptacles for dust. It has been the fashion to cover up this unsightly floor by means of a Brussels or Turkey carpet, stretched tightly, and nailed down firmly close up to the wall, which carpet usually remained down from one spring-cleaning to another, carefully conserving beneath it the dusty accumulations of the year. If we are to furnish upon modern principles the all-over carpet must be relegated to the past, and if this is done we shall need a parquet flooring, which should be laid down either over the entire area of the room, or round the walls, two feet or so in width, and a loose carpet laid down in the centre, which should be taken up and beaten at least once a week.

Parquet.—Solid parquet is about an inch thick, and will last for many years, so if the occupier is furnishing his own house it is economy to employ it. But if he is only a householder, occupying a house belonging to another, in the eternity of whose interest in the property he is not concerned, a very useful and cheap parquet veneer, about a quarter of an inch in thickness, can be had, which will answer the purpose admirably, and can be laid over the existing floors at a cost of from ninepence per square foot. The cost of the solid wood is very little more; it ranges from one shilling per square foot upwards according to design, the smaller patterns being the more expensive. Parquet flooring consists of natural woods, cut in geometrical patterns, and fastened together in a sort of mosaic, by means of strong glue. It is made in a great variety of designs, the prevailing colours being dark brown and buff. The annexed engraving shows the design made by Messrs. Damman and Washer, 72 Finsbury Pavement, London (Mr. E. W. Jennings, A.R.I.B.A., director) for the floor of Baron Gve de Rothschild's drawing-room in Paris. A reference to the *P. O. London Directory* will show that many firms are engaged in this manufacture. A large quantity is also imported from the continent, where it is much more largely used than in this country. Once fixed, it remains perfectly firm, and should be kept in condition by the occasional application of a solution of bees'-wax with turpentine. It *can* be laid down by any ordinary joiner, but it is better, where possible, to employ men who have been accustomed to the work. There is another kind of parquetry called "plated" which has the advantage of being removable at pleasure. It is made of $^1/_4$ inch oak, walnut, rosewood, etc., worked to the desired design, which is glued and pressed down on to a stout closely framed backing of deal. The price of this depends entirely on the pattern, but is a little more expensive than the solid oak. If the border of the floor only is covered in this way, the best and, in the long run, by far the cheapest covering for the centre is a Turkey carpet. The prevailing colours in these carpets, which are largely made in Smyrna and the Levant, are a subdued crimson and blue. These will harmonize very nicely with the browns and buffs of the parquet border, and will not show the dirt from the feet. For those who wish for something less costly, yet having the same effect as a Turkey, a carpet called Axminster is made, chiefly at Kidderminster, without seam, in a variety of sizes, having a border in most cases of about a foot wide, while for very hot weather there are a number of Indian mattings which can be obtained at most carpet warehouses, at a very low price, and which are far preferable to any woollen texture during the days of our short English summer. Any or all of these coverings will be found far more useful and appropriate for the dining-room for instance

than the old style of Brussels carpet nailed down to the floor. It will be found in all cases that the wear is greatest near the door and round the fire-place, which is usually opposite, especially where a hearth-rug is dispensed with. The results of the friction can be largely equalised if the carpet be turned upside down every few weeks; and the pattern usually adopted in carpets of this class is such as will admit of it being readily done.

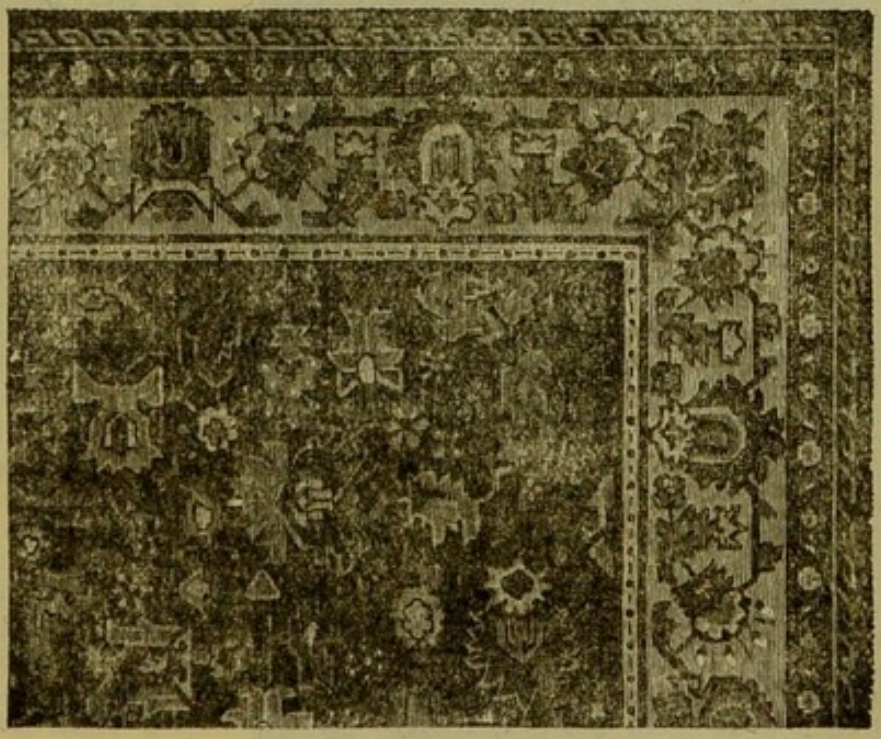
Carpets.—In no department of furnishing has more improvement been made of recent years than in the designing and manufacture of carpets. Col. Robert W. Edis, F.S.A., in a lecture on furniture and decoration thus humorously describes the kind of thing we all remember but do not wish to see revived, "A green carpet, with peaceful lilies intertwining with each other; a hearth-rug with a Bengal tiger, ill at ease, with his back to the fire and his face to the lilies; and a footstool covered with Berlin wool representing the pet dog of the period very much astonished at his proximity to the aforesaid tiger." Happily this kind of ornament, though hardly as dead as the dog or the tiger that enter so largely into its design, is a thing of the past, and people now realise that good sense as well as good taste must be employed in design and manufacture. Radiating designs and all-over patterns are obviously preferable to groups of flowers for instance, sometimes represented as growing out of vases, which look well enough when viewed from the foot of the vase, but which become upside down when viewed, as they must quite as often be, from the opposite direction. "Perhaps," says the author of "Under our Feet", "the perfection of artistic design and colouring is attained when the result is a pleasing and harmonious expression, leaving with the casual spectator no exact impression of the details of the design or the arrangement of the colours, but simply the remembrance of an agreeable effect. Such patterns improve upon acquaintance; further and closer examination reveals the skilfully-arranged design and discovers the clever



Axminster Design.

combination of colouring which has produced the pleasing result." In dealing with patterns it must of course be borne in mind that large patterns are obviously unsuited to small rooms, and that small patterns tend to make the room look larger. Soft, rich, and deep colourings, such as are found in Eastern carpets, are more sought after at the present time, all classes of home-made carpets having been greatly influenced of late years by oriental patterns and examples.

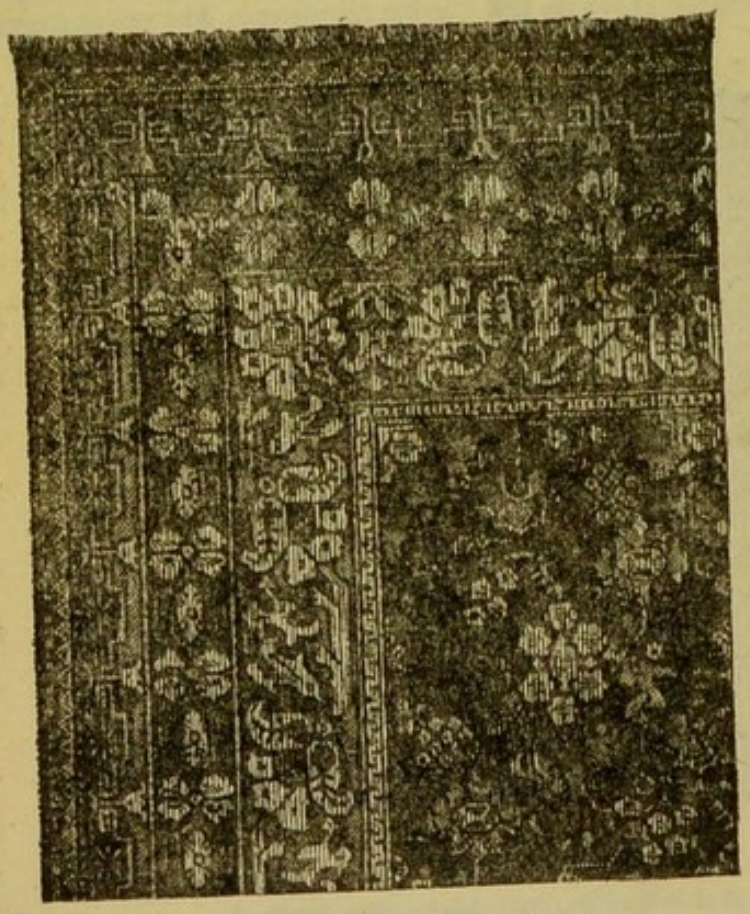
Oriental carpets vary so much in size, substance, and value, that it is difficult, if not impossible, to quote prices, as they can easily be quoted for the various English makes. Turkey carpets, *par excellence* the carpets for dining-rooms, are expensive in immediate outlay, but when their great durability is considered they may fairly be called economic. They may be procured in all sizes, from 6 ft. square to 40 ft. by 24 ft. and at a cost of from about 15/- per square yard. Their general effect is rich, warm, and comfortable and they have the merit of enhancing the effect of the furniture and surroundings. **Nomad carpets** made in northern Persia, of texture similar to those of Turkey are now often used for dining-rooms. They are made in great variety of design and colouring. Some have plain brown, crimson, old gold or camel centres, with handsome borders; others have grey or mouse-colour grounds, with an all-over pattern in red, blue, old gold or green; while those on red or blue grounds present an effect similar to a Turkey carpet, though the design is of Persian character. The prices are very little higher than for Turkey carpets, and the designs are sometimes preferred. **Indian carpets** are also suitable for use in the dining-room. Those known as Mirzapore, deriving their name from Mirzapur, or Mirzapore, a district in the north-west province of India, are the least expensive kind that can be recommended; one large enough for a room, say 15 to 16 feet long by 12 to 13 feet wide, costing about £5 10s. to £8. These carpets are very thick, deep in pile, and specially suitable where great warmth and luxurious softness to the tread are



A Brussels Design.

desired. The colourings are usually black, cream, dull crimson, orange, or pale greyish blue grounds, with distinct borders, and central patterns in Indian red, blue, orange, camel, and occasionally a little green or white.

English Carpets include many varieties. Axminster, Saxony, and Wiltonpile, Brussels, Kidderminster, and Tapestry Brussels, etc., etc. Of those hand made, **Axminster carpets** hold the first place.



A Cheviot Kidderminster Square.

They are "costly and sumptuous" in character and are "unequalled either in point of massiveness, in delicate softness, in closeness and length of pile, in artistic and effective design, and in brilliancy of colouring." Like Turkey carpets they are woven by hand and hence are more costly than machine made fabrics. They are usually made to order and can be made to any size. **Patent Axminster carpets** sometimes called Real Axminster "are woven in one piece throughout upon a principle utilized by Mr. Templeton of Glasgow." Oriental and European designs and colourings are reproduced in these fabrics, which are very handsome and pleasing in effect. Prices range from 9/- to 35/- per yard. Average makes cost from 21/- to 24/- per square yard. The same fabric woven by power, 27 inches wide, is sold at prices varying from 7/6 per yard. These of course can be made to any size with border to match. **Royal Axminster carpet** is sold as low as 4/11 per yard, a carpet 13 ft. 6 in. long by 9 ft. 9 in. wide costing rather less than £6. **Saxony Carpets** are recommended for "hard street-like wear" for which they are said to be unequalled. They are largely used for board and committee rooms, corridors of hotels, etc., etc. They are varied in design and rich in colouring, and range in price from 6/9 per yard, 27 inches wide. **Wilton pile carpets** offer the maximum quality at a minimum cost which is so often sought after. They range in price from 4/6 to 5/9 per yard, and can be got as low as 3/11 or even less, and are at once handsome and durable. The following are the prices for good quality:—

WILTON PILE CARPETS.

ft.		ft.		£	s.	d.
9.0	×	9.0	... ...	3	6	0
10.6	×	9.0	... ...	3	17	0
12.0	×	9.0	... ...	4	8	0
12.0	×	11.3	... ...	5	10	0
13.6	×	11.3	... ...	6	3	9
13.6	×	13.6	... ...	7	8	6

ft.	ft.	£	s.	d.
15.0 ×	11.3	6	17	6
15.0 ×	13.6	8	5	0
16.6 ×	11.3	7	11	3
16.6 ×	13.6	9	1	6
18.0 ×	15.9	11	11	0
21.0 ×	18.0	15	8	0

Extra Imperial Wilton Carpets cost 5/3 per yard, a price little in excess of the price of the best Brussels, but giving a far superior result.

Nezoom Carpets are woven on special looms and can be made to any length, *twelve feet wide without seam*, thus obviating making up by sewing widths together and securing greater economy both in making and wearing. The following are the prices quoted by Messrs. Maple & Co.:—

"NEZOOM" CARPETS.

ft.	ft.	£	s.	d.
10.6 ×	9.0	3	12	6
12.0 ×	9.0	4	2	6
13.6 ×	9.0	4	12	6
11.0 ×	10.0	4	5	0
12.0 ×	10.0	4	12	6
13.6 ×	10.0	5	4	0
12.0 ×	11.0	5	2	0
13.0 ×	11.0	5	10	0
14.0 ×	11.0	5	18	0
15.0 ×	11.0	6	7	6
13.0 ×	12.0	6	0	0
14.0 ×	12.0	6	8	0
15.0 ×	12.0	6	17	6
16.0 ×	12.0	7	6	6
17.0 ×	12.0	8	2	6

"NEZOOM" PILE CARPETS.

ft.	ft.	£	s.	d.
10.6 ×	9.0	5	0	0
12.0 ×	9.0	5	15	0
13.6 ×	9.0	6	10	0
11.0 ×	10.0	6	0	0
12.0 ×	10.0	6	10	0
13.6 ×	10.0	7	5	0
12.0 ×	11.0	7	0	0
13.0 ×	11.6	7	12	6
14.0 ×	11.0	8	8	0
15.0 ×	11.0	8	17	0
13.0 ×	12.0	8	8	0
14.0 ×	12.0	8	17	0
15.0 ×	12.0	9	15	0
16.0 ×	12.0	10	10	0
17.0 ×	12.0	11	18	0

Brussels Carpets are perhaps more widely used in England than any other kind. All-over carpets are usually made of Brussels or its imitation, Tapestry Brussels. Five frame Brussels carpets can be bought as low as 3/- per yard, and the best goods, including the newest designs, from 3/6 to 3/9 per yard, special qualities are also made up to 4/6 per yard. The table given below shows the relative cost of the various qualities:—

BRUSSELS CARPETS.

Size	*Stout* £ s. d.	*Heavy* £ s. d.	*Superior* £ s. d.	*Five Frame* £ s. d.
9.0 × 9.0	1 16 0	2 0 0	2 3 9	2 5 0
10.6 × 9.0	2 2 0	2 6 8	2 10 9	2 12 6
12.0 × 9.0	2 8 0	2 13 6	2 18 0	3 0 0
13.6 × 9.0	2 14 0	3 0 0	3 6 0	3 7 6
12.0 × 11.3	3 0 0	3 6 9	3 13 9	3 15 0
13.6 × 11.3	3 7 6	3 15 0	4 3 6	4 4 6
13.6 × 13.6	4 1 0	4 10 0	4 19 0	5 1 3
15.0 × 11.3	3 15 0	4 3 6	4 11 8	4 13 9
15.0 × 13.6	4 10 0	5 0 0	5 9 9	5 12 6
16.6 × 11.3	4 2 6	4 11 9	5 1 0	5 3 3
16.6 × 13.6	4 19 0	5 10 0	6 2 6	6 3 9
18.0 × 15.9	6 6 0	7 0 0	7 14 3	7 17 6

Tapestry Brussels Carpets are used for parlours and dining-rooms where less expensive carpets are required. They are made in great variety of patterns and are durable, though of course not so durable as Brussels. Tapestry Brussels carpets may be had in several qualities—the following are prices of two qualities bordered:—

STOUT TAPESTRY BRUSSELS.

ft.	ft.	£	s.	d.
7.6 ×	6.9		15	0
9.0 ×	6.9		18	0
9.0 ×	9.0	1	4	0
10.6 ×	9.0	1	8	0
12.0 ×	9.0	1	12	0
13.6 ×	9.0	1	16	0
12.0 ×	11.3	2	0	0
13.6 ×	11.3	2	5	0
13.6 ×	13.0	2	14	0
15.0 ×	11.3	2	10	0
15.0 ×	13.6	3	0	0
16.6 ×	11.3	2	15	0
16.6 ×	13.6	3	6	0
18.0 ×	15.9	4	4	0

BEST QUALITY.

ft.	ft.	£	s.	d.
9.0 ×	9.0	1	10	0
10.6 ×	9.0	1	15	0
12.0 ×	9.0	2	0	0
13.6 ×	9.0	2	5	0
12.0 ×	11.3	2	10	0
13.6 ×	11.3	2	16	3
13.6 ×	13.6	3	7	6
15.0 ×	11.3	3	2	6
15.0 ×	13.6	3	15	0
16.6 ×	11.3	3	8	9
16.6 ×	13.6	4	2	6
18.0 ×	15.9	5	5	0

Drawing-room Carpets.—While the Turkey carpet may be taken as the desideratum for the dining-room, Persian carpets are *par excellence* the carpets for the drawing-room and the boudoir. They are, however, costly, and other and less expensive carpets are more often used. Indian carpets of various makes are among these. In some cases carpets are dispensed with and Indian and other rugs are arranged on polished parquetry or on a ground of plain felt in olive, peacock, or some other suitable colour. Most of the carpets already mentioned are suitable for the drawing-room, in addition to which we may mention as suitable for smaller drawing-rooms the "**Woodstock Carpets**" of Messrs. Maple & Co. These are similar in make to Kidderminster, being woven throughout in one piece and having a wide fringed border. They are made in two thicknesses, the ordinary being called two-ply, and the extra thick make three-ply carpet.

WOODSTOCK CARPETS.

	ft.	ft.	£	s.	d.
2-Ply	6.0 ×	6.0		11	4
"	8.0 ×	6.0		15	3
"	8.0 ×	7.6		18	4
"	9.0 ×	7.6	1	0	8
"	9.0 ×	9.0	1	4	9
"	10.6 ×	9.0	1	8	11
"	10.6 ×	10.6	1	13	6
"	12.0 ×	9.0	1	13	0
"	12.0 ×	10.6	1	18	6
"	12.0 ×	12.0	2	4	0
"	13.6 ×	10.6	2	3	3
"	13.6 ×	12.0	2	9	6
"	15.0 ×	12.0	2	15	0

Three-ply carpets cost about 37½ per cent. more than two-ply. Rugs to match, 6 ft. × 3 ft., 2-Ply 6/6, 3-Ply 8/6.

Pembroke Carpets, also seamless, are suitable for smaller drawing-rooms, and are very moderate in price. There are two kinds, the loop pile, and the cut or velvet pile. Of great variety in design and colouring, the centre of these carpets bears an all-over pattern, and is surrounded by an appropriate border. The following are sizes and prices:—

LOOP PILE.

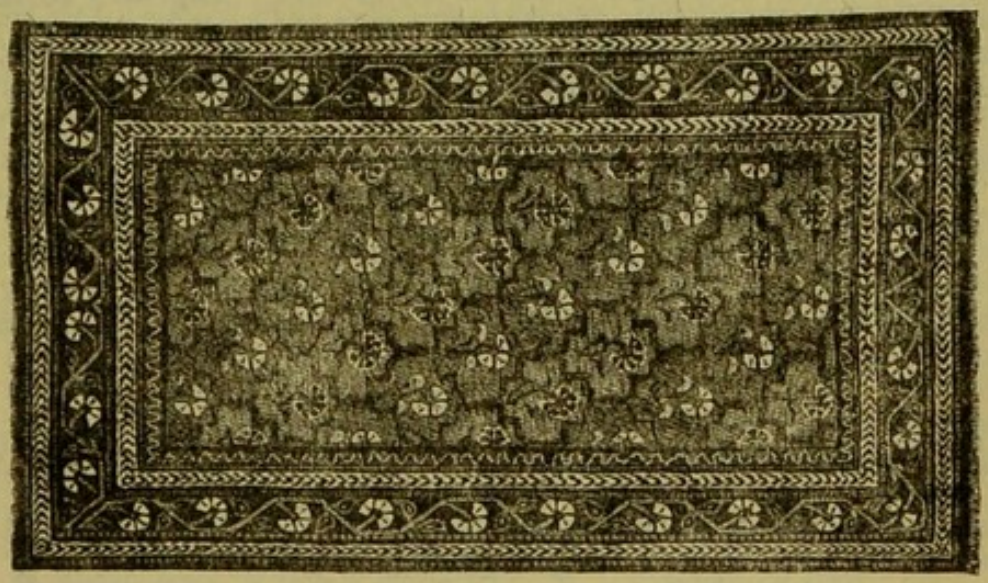
ft.	ft.	£	s.	d.
6.6 ×	4.6		9	9
9.0 ×	7.6	1	9	6
10.6 ×	9.0	2	1	0
12.0 ×	9.0	2	7	0
13.6 ×	10.0	2	19	6
14.0 ×	11.0	3	10	0
15.0 ×	12.0	4	0	0

VELVET OR CUT PILE.

ft.		ft.		£	s.	d.
6.6	×	4.6	... ...		17	6
7.10	×	5.5	... ...	1	5	0
9.9	×	6.9	... ...	2	0	0
11.0	×	7.6	... ...	2	9	6
11.1	×	8.4	... ...	3	2	6
12.9	×	9.9	... ...	3	18	0
14.4	×	10.9	... ...	4	17	6

Indian matting made 36 in. wide and costing 1/- to 2/3 per yard forms a very good surround for a drawing-room carpet.

Rugs.—The carpet having been chosen, says the author of "Under our Feet," the next consideration is the hearthrug. A rug is generally sold with a Turkey Carpet, but is not indispensable. The sizes range from about 5 ft. by 2 ft. 4 in. to 9 ft. by 5 ft.; the prices from 22/6 to £5. For the Pile or Brussels carpets, Axminster rugs are most suitable; the prices of these range from 6/9 to 40/- each, but it is not now considered absolutely necessary that a rug should match the carpet with which it is laid. An Anglo-Indian rug, short close pile, with fringed ends, measuring, exclusive of the fringe, 5 ft. by 2 ft. 5 in., can be bought for 12/9; a Mecca rug of similar size and texture, but much better quality, costing 17/9, or 5 ft. 10 in. by 2 ft. 7 in., £1.1.9, or 6 ft. by 3 ft., £1.6.6; or a Benares rug, 6 ft. by 3 ft., at 18/9, is frequently sold. The Saddlebag rugs, 5 ft. by 3 ft., cost 19/9, and 6 ft. by 3 ft., £1.3.9. The Jeypore rugs are another variety, coming at 8/6, 12/6, and 16/9 each, or extra large, 7 ft. by 4 ft., £1.12.6. These rugs are of Oriental character and colourings, and are often almost exact imitations of fine old specimens from Daghestan, Khiva and Feragan, their soft, mellowed tones admitting of their use with almost any carpet, either for the hearth or for the many decorative purposes for which the more costly Eastern productions are employed. The Anglo-Indian rug is also made in a smaller size for window spaces, etc., price 7/6, 4 ft. by 2 ft. Where the rugs described above are not suitable, it is better to use a sheepskin rug, either in black, white, or of a colour to suit the carpet. The great advantages of black or white sheepskin rugs are that not only will they harmonize with any carpet, but they can be cleaned, when soiled, and made to look almost equal to new at a very small outlay. A sheepskin hearthrug of moderate size will cost from 21/- to 50/-. Goatskin rugs come cheaper, one of ordinary size costing about



A Deccan Rug.

8/-; or if lined, making it stronger and more durable, about 9/6 each. Amongst foreign Fur Rugs, those chiefly used are the skins of the wolf and bear; the former range from 55/- upwards; the latter from £5 to £12.

Surrounds.—The question of carpet and rug settled, the surround, or covering for the margin left round the central carpet, has to be considered. An excellent substitute for real parquetry, (for which see p. 43) and at a much lower cost, is linoleum, especially that known as "inlaid," which is in perfect semblance of inlaid wood; or again oil floorcloth in imitation of parquet, or polished oak boards. The prices of the ordinary linoleum are from 1s. 1½d. to 3s. per square yard; the inlaid is somewhat more costly, and the stout floorcloth, 8d., 1s. 2d., 1s. 6d., 1s. 7½d., 2s. 4d. to 3s. 2d. Another fabric much used as a surround is a thick plain felt, in olive, Indian red, peacock, mustard, or other colour; this material is 48 inches wide, 3/3 to 3/6 per yard. As surrounds are usually from 18 to 24 inches wide, this felt cuts to advantage, and wastes but little.

Underfelts.—To make the most of a carpet it should be laid upon some other substance. Drab felt, called underfelt, not only preserves the carpet, but makes it much softer to the tread, protecting it from the inequalities of the floor, and thus causing it to wear longer; it is 46 inches wide, and costs 1/3 per yard. Other materials available are coarse, strong Hessian, about 54 inches wide, 4½d.; Felt paper, thick and soft, 4½d.; and ordinary stout brown paper at 2d. a yard; these are both about 54 inches wide and serve the purpose very well.

Stair carpets are made in all the principal styles: Turkey, Indian, Persian, and English. Oriental stair carpets range from 2 ft. 4 inches to 4 ft. 6 inches in width, but they can be made to any width. **Hand-made Axminster** are the best English make, but are correspondingly costly. **Saxony carpets** are less expensive and are very durable, the prices ranging from 6/9 per yard. **Wilton** pile carpets are made in widths of 22½, 27, and 36 inches. Royal being priced at 5/-, 5/9, and 9/9 per yard respectively, and Imperial at 4/11, 5/3, and 8/3. **Velvet carpet** specially adapted to resist hard wear, and recommended on this account for billiard rooms, hotel and theatre staircases, is made in the same widths and sold at from 3/9, 4/3, and 6/- per yard. **Brussels** is, however, more used than any other carpet for staircases. It is made in the same widths as Wilton and velvet carpets, 22½, 27, and 36 inches, the narrower from 2/4½ to 3/6 per yard, the medium width from 2/9 to 3/9, the widest from 5/9 to 6/3 per yard. **Tapestry Brussels stair carpets** are made as narrow as 18 inches and priced as low as 1/6 per yard, 22½ inch costing from 1/9 to 2/3; 27 inches from 2/2 to 2/6. Body carpets to match the centres of the stair carpets can be had for the landings at the prices quoted for the 27 inch stair carpet. **Twill carpets** are largely used for staircases. **Extra Twill** made of very fine wool with black, white, or steel coloured centre and blue or scarlet border costs 3/3, 3/11 and 4/11 per yard respectively for 22½, 27, and 36 inch widths. **Venetian Twill,** durable and soft to the tread, with crimson, oak, or green centre and contrasting border, can be had in 18, 22½, 27, and 36 inch measures at 1/9, 2/2, 2/7½, and 3/6 per yard. **Albert Twills** offer a greater variety of colourings than those named. They are made in 18, 22½ and 27 inch widths, and sold at 2/-, 2/6 and 2/11 per yard. **Kidderminster carpets** (three-ply) are made 22½, 27, and 36 inches wide for staircases and sold at 2/4½, 3/- and 3/9 per yard. All wool **Dutch stair carpets** are made in the four sizes, 18 inches, etc., and sold from 1/-, 1/3, 1/6 and 2/- per yard respectively. As stair carpets wear at the edges it is a good plan to allow half a yard or so in the length measurement, so that the carpet can be shifted an inch or two from time to time to equalize the wear. Old carpets or felts under new ones help to preserve them,

and give them a softer tread. Pads are supplied for this purpose at prices ranging from 3/- to 5/- per dozen, according to width.

Bedroom Carpets.—The wear and tear of bedroom carpets is obviously much less than that of other apartments, a lighter make of carpet is therefore suitable. All the principal makes are used for bedrooms, but Brussels, Tapestry Brussels, and Kidderminster carpets, and plain and printed felts are very popular. The prices of Brussels carpets are given on p. 47, and those of Tapestry Brussels on p. 48. **Three-ply Kidderminster carpets** cost from 3/6 to 3/9 per yard, 36 inches wide. Ordinary Kidderminster carpets cost from 1/9 to 2/6 per yard. **Printed Felts** measure about 4 ft. 4 inches wide and range from 2/2 to 2/11 per yard. **Mottled Tapestry,** a carpet woven from the surplus wools of best Brussels carpets, is useful for bedrooms; it is 27 inches wide and ranges from 1/- a yard; good qualities that will wear exceedingly well, at from 1/5 to 1/9. **Dutch carpets,** excellent for hard wear, are 36 inches wide, and the prices range from 1/8 upwards, the very best being 2/4 per yard. **Hemp Dutch carpets** are 36 inches wide, prices from 8d. to 1/- per yard. **Worsted bedside rugs,** 6 feet 6 inches long, 2 feet 3 inches wide, cost 3/9 each, or 6 feet long by 3 feet wide, 3/11 each. **Indian matting** is also largely used in bedrooms, and is very inexpensive. Mats for the fronts of washstands are made in several sizes; 54 × 27 in. from 1/3; 66 × 36 from 1/9.

Coverings for Carpets.—Housekeepers often ask, "What is the best thing to protect a new, or cover a worn carpet?" Of druggets there are two kinds; one a stout worsted fabric, 108 inches wide, sold at 6/3 per yard, more durable than handsome, the other a baize-like material, with red or green ground, and small printed pattern, about 46 inches in width, sold at 3/3 per yard. Printed felts are, however, more largely used than any other materials for carpet coverings. These felts are made in squares, with borders. The following are some of the leading sizes with quotations for best quality:—

ft.		ft.						s.	d.
8.0	×	6.0	...	...	...	...	...	13	0
8.0	×	7.6	...	...	...	...	...	16	3
9.0	×	8.0	...	...	...	...	...	19	6
10.6	×	8.0	...	...	...	...	...	22	9
12.0	×	8.0	...	...	...	...	...	26	0
12.0	×	10.0	...	...	...	...	...	32	6
12.0	×	12.0	...	...	...	...	...	39	0
12.0	×	13.6	...	...	...	...	...	44	0
12.0	×	15.0	...	...	...	...	...	48	9
16.0	×	13.6	...	...	...	...	...	56	6

Plain felts can be had in peacock, olive, terra cotta, crimson, chestnut, mustard, chocolate, maroon, etc., and are more fashionable than printed felts, but they show spots more readily than patterned felts do. Linen damasks, or drills, known as "Crumbcloths," are made for covering carpets, and are largely used for summer wear, as also for dancing carpets. Damasks are made in slate colour, and "whitey-brown," with diamond or other pattern. Sold by measure, 66 to 108 inches wide, the prices range from 1/6½ to 3/9 per yard. Woven in one piece, damasks may be had in the following sizes:—

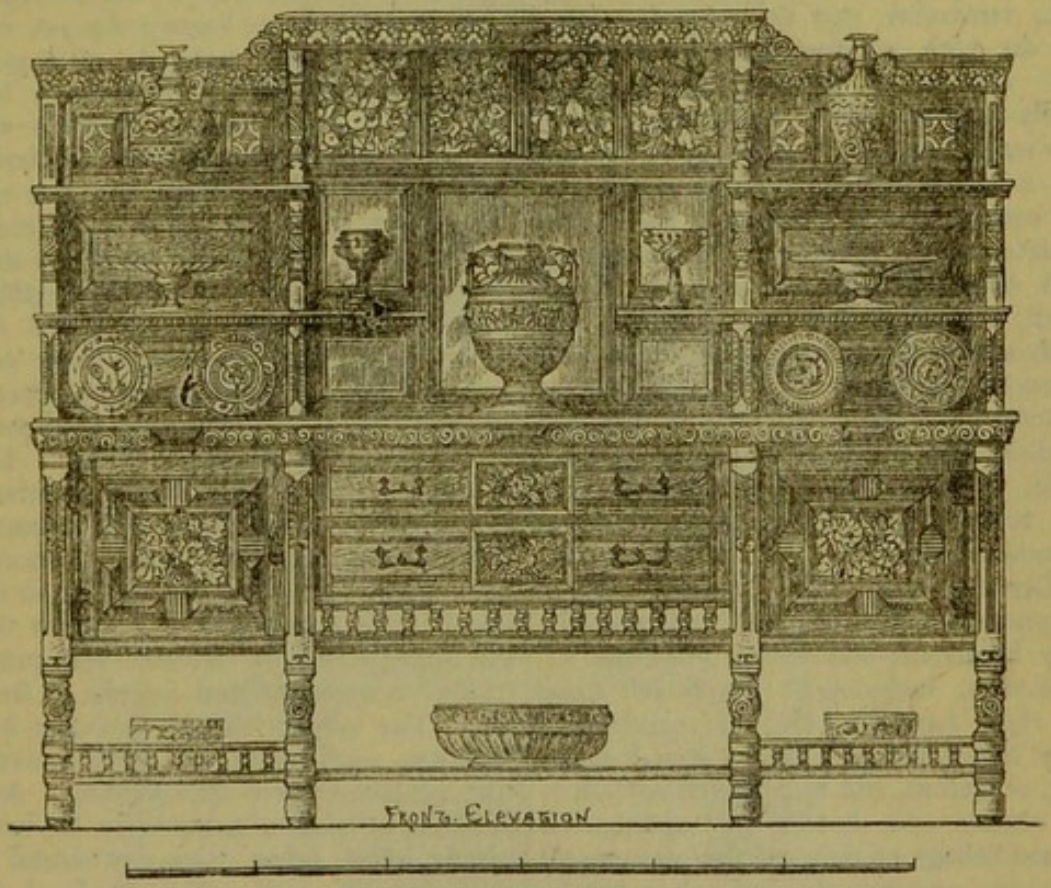
GREY SLATE.

Size.					*Price.*		*Price.*	
ft.		ft.			s.	d.	s.	d.
6.0	×	6.0	...	...	3	9	3	11
6.0	×	7.6	...	...	4	9	4	11
6.0	×	9.0	...	...	5	9	5	9
7.6	×	7.6	...	...	5	9	5	11
7.6	×	9.0	...	...	6	11	7	3
7.6	×	10.6	...	...	7	11	8	6
7.6	×	12.0	...	...	8	11	9	6
9.0	×	9.0	...	...	8	6	8	11
9.0	×	10.6	...	...	9	9	9	11
9.0	×	12.0	...	...	10	9	11	6
9.0	×	13.6	...	...	12	9	13	6
10.6	×	10.6	...	...	12	6	12	9
10.6	×	12.0	...	...	13	9	14	3
10.6	×	13.6	...	...	14	9	15	9
10.6	×	15.0	...	...	16	6	17	0
12.0	×	12.0	...	...	15	6	16	6

Drills have a drab ground, with coloured bars or stripes; they are 72 and 108 inches wide; and cost from 3/6 to 4/11. These materials are woven with borders, in widths ranging from 14 to 36 inches, for covering stair carpets, and cost from 5d. to 1/9 per yard. These fabrics should be cleaned and calendered rather than washed, when soiled. **Bordered Felts** are also used for covering stair carpets and are made with crimson, terra cotta, cinnamon, olive, peacock, maroon, or other plain centres, or with small artistic designs. They are made 16 and 24 inches wide; and sold with plain centres at 1/2 and 1/10 per yard respectively, with printed centres 1/2½ and 1/11. **Plain Felts** are also used and may be cut without waste. Oilcloth looks well while fresh but does not wear well at the edges.

The Dining-room.—The mistake generally made in the decoration and furnishing of the different rooms of a house is that of doing everything by rule, because it is proper, and without considering individual tastes. It will be obvious on a moment's reflection that the style of furniture for a dining-room, say for people who only use it for dining in, might be quite out of place for more homely individuals who use it as a general sitting-room. In the one case, massiveness and even gloominess *might* not be unsuitable, the room being principally used by artificial light; while in the latter case, a greater air of comfort ought to prevail. Taking, then, a so-called dining-room where the family not only have all their meals, but where, as a rule, they frequently sit in the evenings, the first question is, what are the tastes of the family? If the family is a reading one, bookcases arranged round the room, or a portion of it, will afford a good beginning. A series of small bookcases, having two or three shelves each, arranged at intervals, or even continuous, is preferable to the custom of one large one—the upper shelves of which one cannot reach without standing on a chair. The tops of these dwarf bookcases form convenient places for statuettes, vases, and other pieces of old china, etc. American walnut is a very suitable wood for this purpose, but should be only *dull* polished. The rest of the wood-work—doors, windows, etc., will then be painted to harmonize with them. **The walls.**—If pictures (paintings) are to be hung, a suitable back-ground must be provided; there is hardly a better colour in this respect than chocolate, which will also harmonize well with the bookcases. This colour may of course be either distemper or may be the prevailing tone in a paper. Under the cornice should be as deep a frieze as would be consistent with the height of the room; many beautiful paper friezes can be obtained at very moderate prices. The junction of frieze and general wall-paper affords a good place for the picture rail, which may be either brass or other metal, or a small wood moulding. If the cornice is coloured (distempered) the same tint as the ground of the frieze, it adds very considerably to the general effect. The ceiling should be coloured or papered a cream, vellum, or yellowish tone. The thing to avoid is a white ceiling—a remnant of barbarism which most people are so fond of because "it looks clean." They appear not to notice that by contrast it makes everything else look dirty. Cream colour is the nearest approach to white which should be made, and even that for some rooms is much too white. **The Floor.**—The chief consideration with regard to the floor is its preparation for covering with carpet or rugs. The all-over carpet is, as we have already seen, dirty, for the reason that it is so seldom taken up, and artistically its appearance is on a par with its non-hygienic properties—it is most unsatisfactory. If the boards are stained or painted all round, for a width of two-and-a-half to three-and-a-half feet from the walls, with a suitable colour, or the borders are laid with parquet or parquet veneer and the central part of the room covered with a carpet, the result will be pleasing and healthy. By this arrangement there is, firstly, the economic advantage of less carpet to buy, and

secondly, as we have seen, the advantage of being able to turn it about as it shows signs of wearing in particular places. The carpet should be cheerful without gaudiness, being of an all-over pattern—a geometrical or regular set pattern is unsatisfactory and uncomfortable to look at. **The fire-place** is an eyesore in most houses. The marble—usually white—chimney-piece, with its horrible stock-in-trade trusses, and altogether chilly and repelling appearance, is quite detrimental to any scheme of decoration. If it cannot be removed, and a wooden chimney-piece with tile sides, etc., substituted, the best thing to do is to hide as much of the objectionable object as possible. A mantel-board, rather longer and wider than the shelf, covered with some suitable hanging of, say, a dullish green colour, either plain or enriched, with some running needlework ornament, is the best way to hide the trusses and a portion of the rest of the chimney-piece. Over this board an over-mantel of American walnut will form, with a few choice ornaments and pieces of china, an effective central feature for this side of the room. The over-mantel may be as plain as possible—hardly anything more than shelves for knick-knacks. Very handsome mantelpieces and over-mantels are now made to fit over existing mantels or to supersede them. These can be purchased, with or without tiled registered stoves to match, at prices ranging from £5 to £21; Tiled stoves from 25/-; Iron kerb blacked, 8/6, with brass rail and supports, 18/-; Berlin black fender with polished brass rail and supports, 21/-.



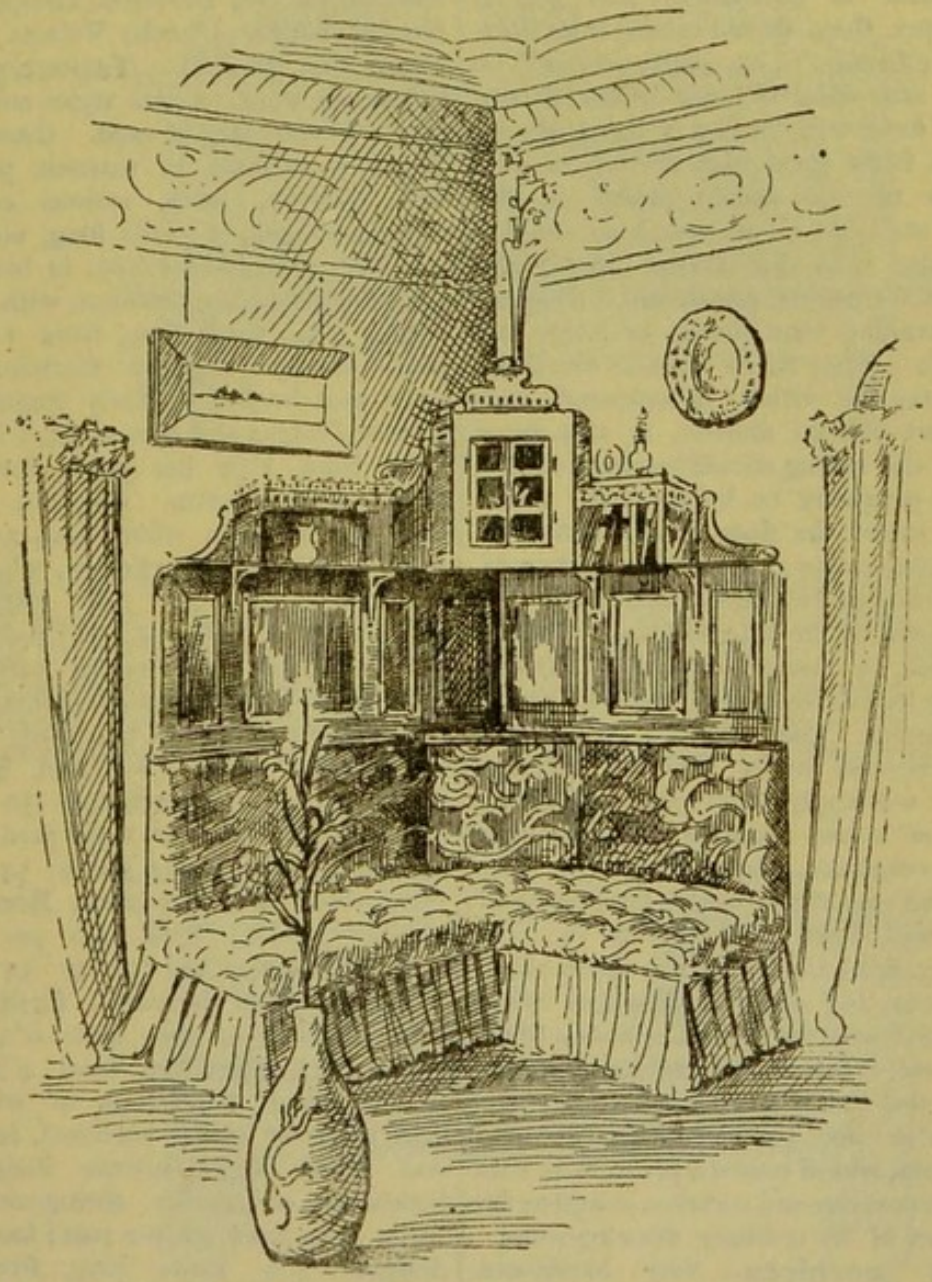
Art Sideboard.

Dining-room Furniture.—The furniture of a dining-room, whatever may be the tastes of the occupants, should be essentially comfortable and convenient. It should generally be *en suite*, although there may be a few chairs of a different character. There should be at least two

or three easy chairs. The general chairs should be good, plain, and strongly made, with the backs stuffed or covered, and broad seats. American walnut frames unpolished will be very suitable, polished mahogany shows the slightest scratch. No actual rule can be given for the form of any chair, although of course one used to designing them can pretty well tell from the appearance on paper how they will turn out. The buyer, however, should always test them practically, and in choosing chairs, sofas, etc., remember that the form has more to do with comfort than the padding. No amount of padding can make a badly-designed chair really comfortable, any more than a badly-cut dress or coat can be made so. Dining-room chairs can be bought at any price from 12/6 to £4 a-piece, the cheaper kinds with plain backs and American cloth, hair cloth, or leather cloth coverings, and the better kinds with stuffed backs and spring seats and morocco coverings. A very handsome walnut chair with open back and real leather seat can be bought as low as 17/6, or with real morocco seat as low as 26/6. Easy chairs from £1.4.6. Couches from £2.12.6.

Dining-room suits in leather can be purchased from £8.15.0 and upwards, very handsome suits being obtainable for £16.16.0, including 1 couch, left hand or right hand as may be required, 2 easy and 6 ordinary chairs in mahogany, oak, or walnut, and upholstered in leather. A similar suit, handsomely upholstered in saddlebags of rich Persian design and colouring and mounted on velvet, can be bought for £15.10.0. Similar suits in morocco from £19.10.0. The dining-table, either rectangular or circular, should be of the same wood as the chairs; not too massive, but at the same time strong, and above all plain—anything more than a few mouldings, mostly flush, turned on the legs, being quite superfluous. Dining-room tables vary in price according to wood and size. The cheapest have deal tops and birch legs and are not telescopic. These range from 3 ft. 6 in. by 5 ft. at £1.13.6 to 4 ft. by 8 ft. at £2.15.0. Mahogany tables with extending screws and strong castors 3 ft. 6 in. by 5 ft. and with one flap, cost from £2.15.0; 3 ft. 6 in. by 7 ft. with two flaps from £4.4.0. A useful table with two flaps 4 ft. by 8 ft. costs £5.5.0. Larger dining-tables are fitted with an extra leg to support the centre. These extend to 5 ft. 6 in. by 20 ft. and cost from £36 to £38. Oval dining-tables forming round tables when the leaf is taken out can be had in mahogany 4 ft. by 6 ft. for £6.5.0, in oak £6.15.0; 4 ft. by 8 ft., mahogany £9.9.0, oak £10.10.0. If the room is of a good size, and especially if it have a bay window, a small occasional table will prove a convenience. The sideboard is an article of furniture, the size and enrichment of which depends as much on the purse of the buyer as on the style of the room. It need not be anything but a plain buffet, arranged for the reception of china, etc., the lower part being fitted with a cellaret, cupboard, and drawers. Carving, unless very good, had better be dispensed with. The panels and other parts can be effectively decorated at small cost, with stamped leather or some painted stencil ornament. Those who are sufficiently skilful in the use of the brush might ornament this and other pieces of furniture with paintings of conventionalized flowers, or fruit, etc. The colours should be rather low in tone, and rather flat in treatment; that is, having very little shading. Any attempt to give a perspective or naturalistic effect being quite detrimental to this class of work. The panels of the room doors can be, with great artistic effect, treated in the same manner, or may be papered with a small-pattern paper, the cost of which is very trifling; but the appearance, if a good pattern be selected, is exceedingly good. The design for a sideboard which is of a rather expensive description, is given as an illustration of the sort of thing to aim at where a handsome piece of furniture is desired. The panels, which are here intended to be carved in low relief, might be considerably reduced in cost

by being painted as suggested; and the carving to other parts could very well be omitted without a substitute. Sideboards can be purchased from £3 to £50, very handsome ones being made as low as from £8 to £10. **Dinner waggons** are sold at from £2 and upwards.



A Cosy Corner.

The Drawing-room.—If the Drawing room is really a with-drawing-room, in which the hostess and guests assemble after dinner, or in which the former receives formal visits, the conventional type of lightness and gaiety, the true counterparts of society talk, will be quite consistent. If, however, it is intended for a middle-class family, it must be regarded as simply another, somewhat lighter, sitting-room. A room, which, whilst it is essentially comfortable, shall not appear all frivolity, but suggest the calm repose which belongs to the business-man after his day's toil is over. To commence with the wall-covering, which will probably be paper:—A dado is not as a rule admissible in a drawing-

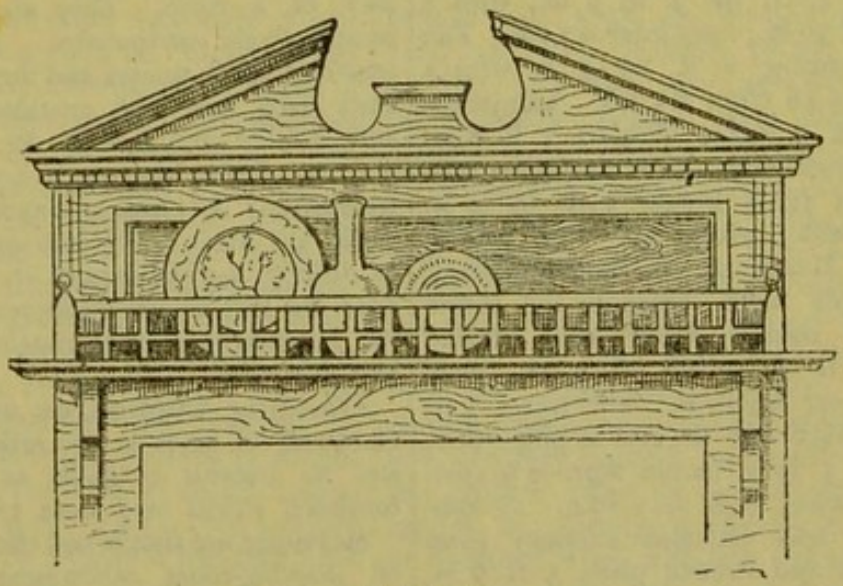
room, on account of the different heights of cabinets and other furniture, which would appear to be cut in two by a strongly-marked line at the back of them; nor is there the same *motif* for it as in the dining-room, where a more formal appearance is desirable. The general wall-paper, then, should extend from skirting to frieze. The paper should be bright and cheerful; the colour chosen should look well by day or night, should form a fairly good back-ground to such pictures as one usually hangs in this room, and last, but not least, should harmonize with the average complexion. Stiff and formal patterns should be avoided, the prevailing tone should be bright and cheerful. The frieze should be deep, and may be either distempered with ornament painted thereon, or may be of paper; the ceiling should be cream colour. Unless parquetry be indulged in, a bordering round the floor should be formed by painting rather than staining the boards, as a sufficient brightness cannot very well be attained by the latter method. Instead of paint, a border formed of Indian matting looks exceedingly well with almost any carpet. The remarks as to the chimney-piece, under head of "dining-room," will apply here; and for furniture, which of course must be especially easy and comfortable, plenty of couches, divans, and easy-chairs, with a few occasional ones, will form the bulk of it. The covering need not be of the same colour or pattern, but all of it should of course harmonize with the prevailing colour of the walls, etc. Two or three tables of various size, a few cabinets for curios, drawings, etc., with one or two small hanging bookcases, and of course a piano, will, with suitable cornices and curtains, complete the furniture of an ordinary drawing-room.

Gilt cornices, very handsome, double gilt, and made to fit any straight window, can be bought at prices ranging from 2/10 per foot, really elaborate designs costing about 8/6 per foot. **Valences** vary in cost according to the quality of the material used, which may range between such extremes as ten pence and ten guineas per yard.

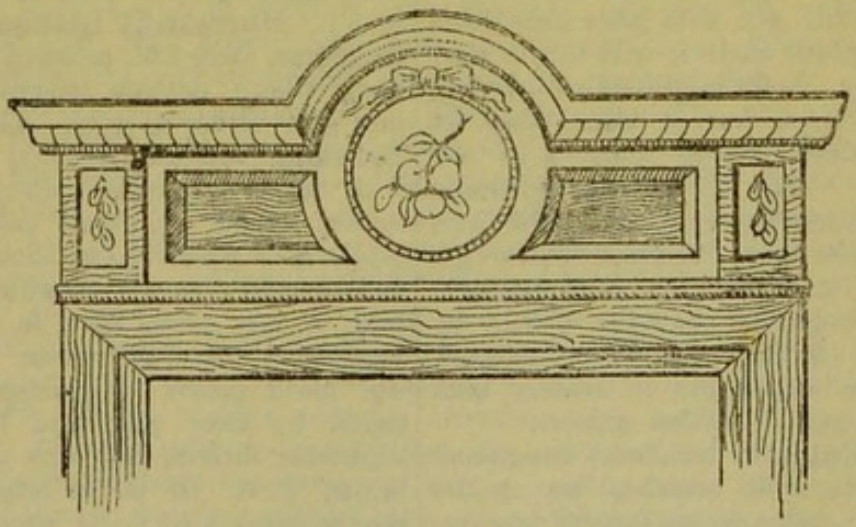
Curtains are made of all kinds of materials, and naturally vary in price according to the quality of the materials used. These include Tapestries, All-wool Reps, Wool Damasks, Art serges, Diagonal cloths, Plushettes, Chenilles, Silk Brocatelles, Brocades, Lampas silks, Neuilly Satins, Utrecht Velvets, Velveteens, etc., etc., etc. **Tapestry Curtains,** in their various styles and qualities, are very largely used. Cross-stripe Tapestry curtains in maroon, peacock, and crimson, with various coloured stripes, fringed, 3 yards long, cost from 4/9 per pair; Reversible, in blue, maroon, terra-cotta and crimson, with fringed edges, 3½ yards long, from 11/9 per pair. Heavy Tapestry Curtains with dado and border in Early English and oriental designs and colourings, 3½ yards long, from 17/9 per pair; Reversible from 19/6; extra size, 4 yards long by 2 yards wide, from 39/6 per pair. **Chenille Curtains,** 3½ yards, cost from 25/6 per pair; extra size, 4 yards by 2, from 65/- per pair. **All Wool Reps** for making curtains or covering furniture, various colours, double width, cost from 2/6 per yard; **Wool Damasks** from 1/3½; **Art Serges** from 1/3½; **Tapestries** (50 to 54 inches wide), from 2/11 per yard; **Chenilles**, English make (50 to 54 inches wide), from 2/11 per yard; **Brocades** (double width), from 4/6 per yard; **Silk Brocatelles** (50 to 54 inches wide), from 7/6 per yard. **Cretonnes and Chintzes** cost from 6½d. per yard. **Art Muslins** from 4½d. per yard. **Lace Curtains** in white or ecru, single or double bordered, scalloped and taped edges, artistic designs for bedrooms or smaller sitting-rooms, 3 yards long, from 2/6 per pair; handsome designs, 3½ yards long, from 3/9. **Guipure Lace Curtains,** 3½ yards long, from 6/9 per pair. **Frilled Lace Curtains** from 9/11 per pair.

Overmantels.—The treatment of the fireplace marks one of the great distinctions between old fashioned and modern furnishing. The old fashioned grate and mantelpiece have been super-

seded by much more elegant appointments, and the large gilt pier glass of our fathers has been succeeded by the more elaborate overmantel with its ornate design and happy combination of use and ornament. There seems to be no limit to the ingenuity employed in designing these truly picturesque articles of furniture, and considering the elegance secured the cost is singularly low. Hand-some overmantels, 45 inches by 45 inches with centre plate 26 inches by 20 inches can be bought for less than £2, while very handsome designs 65 × 62 inches, having a centre plate of 35 × 25 inches, cost less than £8. Richly carved mahogany overmantels 60 × 60 inches can be bought for £6.10.0. Beautiful designs in oak, walnut, and mahogany may be had at all prices from £2 and upwards, the price varying according to the elaboration of design and the amount of carving or inlaying involved. Very choice overmantels can be bought for from five to six pounds. **Mantel boards** draped in very elegant designs can be bought at prices varying according to the quality of the material used, which may of course be simple and inexpensive, or elaborate and costly.



Overdoor.



Overdoor.

Gilt Chimney Glasses of new and chaste design can be bought in various shapes and sizes at low prices. A Pier glass, with carved wood frame, double gilt, size 4 ft. by 3 ft. 9 in., with a plate 40 × 30 in., costs from £2.7.6. The same measuring 6 ft. by 5 ft. with a plate 60 × 48 costs £5.7.6. Landscape shape 2 ft. 9 inches high by 3 ft. 8 in. wide, glasses plate, 36 × 24 inches cost £1.7.6; 3 ft. 4 inches high by 4 ft. 1 inch wide, plate, 40 × 30 inches, £1.15.6. Handsome oval chimney glasses, double gilt with brackets on either side and corners fitted with silvered plates 4 ft. 6 in. × 4 ft. 4 in., plate 44 × 34 cost £6.10.0. The same, 5 ft. 2 inches high and the rest in proportion, £7.15.0; 5 ft. 9 inches high £9.15.0. 6 ft. 3 inches high £11.10.0. A very handsome and elaborate chimney glass double gilt and French plate, 5 ft. 9 in. high × 4 ft. 10 in. wide and a plate 54 × 44 in. costs £9.5.0. The same 6 ft. 4 in. high and the rest in proportion £10.15.0. 7 ft. 6 in. × 5 ft. 6 in. (plate 70 × 50 in.) £12.10.0. Very beautiful pier glasses can be bought at prices ranging from £5 to £6. **Pier glasses and cabinets** of handsome and elaborate design, richly gilt, with plate glass doors and silk plush shelves, with marble tops, make very choice additions to drawing-room furniture, but of course they are costly, prices varying from £30 and upwards. Very choice **pier glasses** and **console tables** with marble tops and massive and elaborate double gilt frames 5 ft. wide × 10 ft. 6 in. high, can be bought for £17.5.0, 5 ft. 6 in. wide × 11 ft. high for twenty guineas. These are also made in smaller sizes at from eleven to fifteen guineas.

Girandoles of handsome design and double gilt with branches for candles make very choice decorations for drawing-room walls and are less costly than might be expected. A large double gilt girandole with three branches for candles with a plate 26 × 18 inches costs £3, 30 × 20 inches £3.10.0. Smaller oval girandoles can be had from £1.7.0, still smaller from 13/9. **Brackets**, double gilt, 13 × 9 inches 13/6; 15 × 11 inches 18/9.

Over-doors are decorative woodwork designs for placing over doors, and may be made to greatly improve the appearance of a room. They are, moreover, comparatively inexpensive. A panelled over-door with trusses and fluted pilasters costs 16/9, one with moulded pediment and spindle rail gallery for ornaments £1.1.6. Prices vary up to £3.5.0. **Ornamental Arches** of decorative woodwork are made to fit into any doorway to destroy the squareness of the appearance and give an artistic approach. These can be bought at prices ranging from 18/- and upwards.

Hanging Cupboards and Bookshelves are made in very artistic designs, and so become available as decorative furniture. Prices vary from 7/6 to £2.

Screens are simple and effective means of drawing-room adornment, for they are often very handsome, and they need not be expensive. Four-fold Japanese screens with handsome gold embroidery on black ground 5ft. 8 in. high can be brought for 12/6; the same with paper panels for 8/9. Other designs with shaped tops and handsome leather paper sides standing 6 ft. high, range as high as £3. **Normandy Screens or Red Screens**, three-fold, polished pine, range from 16/9. Artistic screens are made in a great variety of styles. **Graduated Screens**, four-fold, covered both sides with handsome leather paper, and with leather edging and brass nails, extreme height 5 ft. 8 inches, very handsome, may be bought for £3.10.0. **Dwarf Screens** have a very pretty effect in a drawing-room. A two-fold screen with rich silk plush panels for photographs, protected by clear glass and fitted with adjustable shelves, and with silk curtains below, 3 ft. 10 in. in height, in gilt bronze, costs £3.7.6; in white or cream enamel £3.17.6. A four-fold mahogany screen with Bartolozzi prints mounted in rich silk plush of any colour, adjustable shelves and silk curtains below—a very artistic screen—can be bought for £4.7.6. **Cheval Screens**, walnut, mahogany, or ebonized with bevelled glass

panel measuring 18 × 24 inches 3 ft. 1 in. in height, cost £1.12.6.

Occasional Furniture adds much to the picturesqueness of the drawing-room. **Tables** may be had in great variety of shape, style, and price, from eight or nine shillings to as many pounds. **Occasional Chairs** also are a characteristic feature of the modern drawing-room. Small Fancy Parisian gilt chairs range from 14/6. Ebonized bentwood chairs, plain, can be bought for 4/10, with gilt rim and seat, 9/-. Black and gold folding chairs in silk plush from a guinea; black and gold rocking chairs upholstered in any coloured satin, £3.7.6. **What-nots and Music Cabinets** are other useful and ornamental items in drawing-room furniture. A Chippendale three-tier what-not in walnut, mahogany, or ebonized, of chaste designing will cost about £3.3.0., but ordinary what-nots can be bought at half that price. Music cabinets may be bought at various prices, and few things are more necessary, for nothing makes more litter in a room than homeless and strayed music. Cabinets in dark mahogany, handsomely carved with bevelled glass at back and shelf above, cost from £5 and upwards, inlaid rosewood from £4.4.0. **Canterburys** range from £1.7.6 to £3.10.0. **Music Stools** from 18/6. **Portfolios** for drawings further vary drawing-room attractiveness. Leather made, on walnut, oak, mahogany, or ebonized stand, with lock and brass legs, they cost (32 × 22) £2.4.0, (36 × 24) £2.16.0, (40 × 28) £3.3.0. These may be had in black and gold at a slightly advanced price, and with telescopic legs for 4/- extra.

Pianos are like horses, they should never be bought by people who do not understand them, without competent advice. It is far better to pay a fee for professional assistance in selecting an instrument, than to buy one without knowledge and to find afterwards that it has little besides appearance to recommend it. That leading makers can be trusted to supply value for money is doubtless true, but there are many advertising firms who sell pianos, especially on the three-years system, merely as pieces of furniture, and if these were never opened they would answer well enough. But a piano ought to last a good many years, and a good one assuredly will. **Grand pianos** by good makers can often be bought second-hand at much reduced prices, owing to the fact that they are too large for ordinary houses, and hence the demand is more limited. **Second-hand** or **so-called second-hand Cottage pianos** should always be looked upon with suspicion. Many a buyer has been tempted by the apparent candour of the word "second-hand" to pay a larger price for an instrument than it could ever have commanded as new. Good makers usually number their pianos, and will generally answer an enquiry as to the original value of the instrument, if applied to. **Cottage pianos** in walnut or ebonized wood with iron frame, check action, and ivory keys, good enough for school or general use, can be purchased as low as £25. Somewhat better instruments in inlaid walnut, or rosewood, or black and gold, can be had for £32. Commencing at these low prices cottage pianos range to 150 guineas, while **Grand pianos** can be purchased from 65 guineas and upwards. Of English makes for home use, those of Messrs. Brinsmead and Sons may be recommended.

The Library.—The term "Library" being, as generally used, somewhat elastic, the apartment so called is capable of an even greater variety of structural treatment than many of the other rooms in which the differences are in many instances purely those of variety of taste in the actual decoration. In large houses having a number of rooms, the library is tolerably well defined. No matter what the tastes of the owner, for even if not a reading man, he considers it the proper thing to have a library, and one is provided and furnished accordingly; although it is to be hoped there are few such instances as that on record of a certain Crœsus who ordered three tons of books for his library, and when asked what kind he wanted, replied "Why, small books for the top shelves, and

large books for the bottom shelves, of course." There are, however, many men whose so-called library is little more than a smoking room; the *collection* of books generally being of an essentially light kind. Assuming, however, that we are speaking of libraries properly so called, there are still many varieties of such: there is the library—or more strictly speaking—the study of the essentially studious man, who jealously keeps it to himself, considering even dusting as more or less unnecessary. We will consider a mean between these extremes—a room to which all shall have access for the purpose of reading and study, and which shall be arranged with all proper regard for comfort, but not so luxurious as to encourage laziness. The first consideration in a room of this kind is obviously the disposal of the books. If the room is a fair size, the great quantity of books can be arranged so as to be easily got at. **The bookcases** need not be more than six to seven feet high, say six feet to the level of the top shelf; at that height the topmost books can be easily reached by a person of average height, without standing on a chair or using the library steps, which of course must be provided for exceptional cases. The bookcases should, as a rule, be purposely made; that is, designed to suit the room and the class of books which they are intended to hold. Unless the books are in constant use, the bookcases should have glass doors, otherwise it is impossible to keep the books free from dust. As, however, it is obviously inadvisable for the glass to reach to the ground, it is better for those cases which have glass fronts to have the lower portion formed as cupboards; these are very useful for newspapers, periodicals, and large flat books which are either too large or too thin to stand up on the shelves in the ordinary way. In a small room one such bookcase, with cupboards below and glazed doors above, would probably provide sufficient accommodation of this nature; this might form a central feature in a side wall, say opposite the fire-place. Right and left of this, and, adjacent to it, reaching to the walls on either side, could be plain shelves, without any glass fronts; these would be for commoner books, and for those in more constant use. Great care must be taken to keep these shelves tidy, if appearances are to be maintained. The recesses at the sides of the chimney breast are frequently filled with shelves; but unless a great number of books have to be accommodated, it is better to place narrow bookcases against the return walls, and thus leave some space free immediately against the fire-place; or, perhaps better still, have angle cabinets in these recesses. The amount of furniture will, of course, depend on the size of the room. For a small, or even a moderate sized room, one central table with a small pedestal or other writing table will be all that is necessary in this way; a few chairs, which should be strong and plain. If the bookcases are made of the height suggested, there will be plenty of room above to admit of statuettes, bronzes, old china, etc., not in too great proportion, but as a relief to the eye, and in order to break up the hard and stiff lines of the bookcases. There will also be sufficient wall space above the cases, and in other parts of the room, for a few pictures. For a small room of moderate height, say about ten feet, it is better not to attempt a frieze, the general wall colour extending right up to the cornice. and the picture rod fixed immediately under it. A frieze-like effect can, however, be produced by fixing a moulding round those parts of the room unoccupied by book-cases, at the same height as their cornice line. Pictures, plates, or japanese fans or trays can be, with advantage in such a case, used here and there, to give interest to this part of the wall space, and relieve the somewhat inevitable monotony.

Library Furniture includes several articles not usually found in other rooms. Of these **Pedestal Tables** range from £4.15.0 and upwards. **Revolving Bookstands** from £3.15.0. **Cylinder pedestal Tables** from £12.10.0.

Bookcases in oak, walnut, or mahogany, with two glass doors above, two drawers with brass handles and cupboard with shelf below from £6.6.0. **Library steps** and **chair convertibles,** strongly made, 21/.

The Bedrooms.—There are two ways of considering a bedroom; it may be considered as a private sitting-room, with a bed in it, or simply as a place to sleep in. The former is the view taken by many well-to-do people. In a room of this sort the amount of upholstery indulged in is often fearful to contemplate. Sofas and easy-chairs invite one to be lazy. The bed is, of course, a feather one. There are monstrous curtains and other drapery to it, as well as to the windows and the door, and the floor thickly carpeted *all over*. Then there will be in such a room reading stands for novels, tables strewn with knick-knacks, and other evidences of so-called comfort—laziness would be a more correct term. There are, however, those who take a different view of what a bedroom should be. It should be as its name implies, a place for bed, and not a sitting-room. Anything which harbours dust or dirt should be studiously avoided, and for this reason the floor should be carpeted only in parts, for easy removal, in order that it may be scrubbed as often as possible. The curtains (if any) should be of some washable material—chintz, cretonne, or linen. They should, moreover, barely reach the ground, and should not be too full. The bedstead must be of metal, brass, or iron. If without curtains, so much the better. If, however, there be any, they must be small. The other furniture, namely, dressing-table, washstand, wardrobe, and drawers, should be of some light plain wood, as pine, birch, or ash; the plainer the better, as they can be more readily cleaned. It is better that all the furniture be raised several inches from the floor, so that the dust can be removed daily. If a wardrobe, for instance, rests, as is usual, directly on the floor, it is quite obvious that it cannot fit perfectly enough to exclude all dust. Some is sure to find its way underneath, and a wardrobe of this kind is not easily moved. By raising it, however, as suggested, the dust can be swept from underneath, and if strong castors are fitted to it, it can be moved when the room has to be scrubbed. When bedrooms are treated in this way, and reasonable means taken to ensure ventilation, they cannot but have a beneficial effect on the sleepers. With regard to the covering of walls, although there is no objection to wall-papers of a suitable light tone, distemper is better, as it is more easily renewed, a matter of some importance after an illness, where renewal of paper might be costly. The wood-work should be painted a light colour, in harmony with the furniture and wall-covering. **The dressing-rooms** will, of course, be similiarly treated to the bedrooms to which they belong.

Bedroom Furniture in suites can be bought as low as £3.10.0, very handsome suites being purchasable for from £10 to £20. To buy furniture *en suite* is to ensure harmony in style, which is much more gratifying to good taste than the motley result which too often follows the independent purchase of individual items of furniture. Taking the principal items separately, for they must be considered separately, however they are bought, we begin with **Bedsteads** and **bedding.** For bedsteads in our day iron has for the most part taken the place of wood, as being lighter, cleaner, and more healthy. Iron and brass bedsteads or Iron bedsteads with brass fittings may be bought at very low prices. **Cots:** Iron 2 ft. × 4 ft. from 12/-, brass from £3.9.6. **Swinging cots:** Iron from 18/9. Brass from about £4. **Four-posters** with rods for curtains: iron £1.1.0, brass £4.10. **Child's Iron bedstead** with movable sides, 2 ft. 6 in. by 5 ft., from 14/9. **Iron bedsteads** 2 ft. 6 in. by 6 ft. Japanned black, plain, 8/9, 4 ft. 6 in. × 6 ft. 3,10/6. Taking this as the minimum, bedsteads in iron and brass may be bought at any price up to twenty guineas. Very handsome iron and brass bedsteads full size 5ft. 6 in. × 6 ft. 6 in. can be bought for £3.18.6. Four-posters 5 ft. × 6 ft. 6 in. from £1.8.9. All brass from £7.10. All

brass full size 5 ft. 6 in. × 6 ft. 6 in. from £9.11.6. **Wire mattresses,** double woven, made to clip on to any ordinary bedstead 3 ft. wide cost 9/6; 3 ft. 6 in., 10/9; 4 ft. 11/9; 4 ft. 6 in. 12/9. Double woven steel wire mattresses are made in several qualities, at prices varying from 10/6 for 3 ft. width to £1.7.6 for 5 ft. 6 in. width. **Spring mattresses** made of bright metal chains attached to polished pitch pine frames are made in two qualities, 3 ft. measures costing 19/6 and £1.2.0 respectively, 5 ft. 6 in. £1.8.6, and £1.14.6. **Palliasses** 2 ft. 6 in. cost from 4/9 to 8/6 according to quality; 4 ft. 6 in., 8/6 to 14/6; full size 5 ft. 6 in., from 16/- to 18/-. Mattresses are made of various qualities of tick, wool, and hair and consequently vary a good deal in price. **Wool mattresses** 3 ft. wide range from 11/9 to £3.3.0; 4 ft. 6 in. from 16/9 to £4.14.6, and full size 5 ft. 6 in. from £1.2.0 to £5.15.6. **Hair mattresses** of the same measurements cost (3 ft.) from £1.5.6. to £4.17.6 (4 ft. 6 in.) £2.2.0 to £7.10.0 (5 ft. 6 in.) £2.18.6 to £9.5.0. **Spring mattresses** made with copper spiral springs and top stuffing to the same sizes cost 3 ft. from £1.5.6 to £3.19.0; 4 ft. 6 in. brass £1.16.6 to £5.19.6; 5 ft. 6 in. from £3.0.0 to £7.4.0. The **Royal Osborne spring mattress** said to be the best in the market costs, 3 ft. measure, £4.18.6, 4 ft. 6 in. measure, £7.5.0 and 5 ft. 6 in. £8.17.6. **Bedding** including beds, bolsters, and pillows is made in many qualities and therefore sold at widely differing prices. The bedding for a 3 ft. bed for instance, including 1 bed, 1 bolster, and 1 pillow, made of common grey goose feathers in cotton tick would cost: bed £1.4.6, bolster 5/6; pillow 2/11; or £1.12.11 the set. The same set made of the best Lincoln white goose feathers, in superior linen welted ticks and the pillow of white down, would cost £6.12.3. Between these two extremes there are some seven grades of quality, and as these are all made in six different sizes it will be seen that it is impossible to give all the prices here. We shall therefore limit ourselves to particulars concerning three sizes: 3 ft. 6 in., 4 ft. 6 in., and 5 ft. 6 in. In 3 ft. 6 in. measure, the set of bedding, consisting of 1 bed, 1 bolster, and 1 pillow, costs when made of (1) common grey goose feathers and cotton ticks, £1.18.8.; when made of (2) good grey goose feathers and fine cotton ticks £2.4.6.; made of (3) superior grey goose feathers and super union ticks £2.14.0. (4) Dantzic grey goose feathers and fine linen ticks £3.12.3. (5) Good Lincoln grey goose feathers in super linen ticks £4.3.3. (6) White goose feathers in super linen ticks £4.18.6. (7) Dantzic white feathers in welted ticks £5.6.0. (8) Best Dantzic white feathers, welted tick, and down pillow £6.3.0. (9) Best Lincoln white feathers, ditto, £7.6.0. The prices of these various qualities in 4 ft. 6 in. measure, including 2 pillows instead of 1 would be (1) £2.15.5, (2) £3.2.6, (3) £3.19.6, (4) £5.4.0, (5) £5.19.9, (6) £6.11.9, (7) £7.1.6, (8) £8.6.0. and (9) £10.7.9. In 5 ft. 6 in measure the first four qualities are not made up. The prices for the five better qualities with two pillows would be (5) £7.10.6. (6) £8.12.6. (7) £9.0.6. (8) £10.9.0. (9) £12.6.6. **Wardrobes.**—Next to the bedstead the largest piece of furniture in the bedroom is the wardrobe. Wardrobes are made in great variety of design and price, from the severely plain and inexpensive to the richly carved and costly. Ladies' wardrobes 4 ft. wide, in birch or mahogany, range from £5.10.0, in walnut £6.10.0. They can be bought in Japanned deal for £4. Gentlemen's wardrobes in mahogany from £6.10.0., in Japanned deal £4.7.6. A very handsome wardrobe with best plate doors and richly carved can be bought for from £15 to £20. **Chests of Drawers** in mahogany or birch can be bought as low as £1.9.6, really good chests costing from £4. In Japanned oak and maple they can be bought from 16/9. **Marble-top Washstands** are made in great variety, and may be bought from 13/6 to £10, very handsome ones being purchasable for three or four pounds. **Dressing Tables** in mahogany or birch from 21/-;

in ash, walnut, or mahogany, with brackets and drawers and large glass affixed, from £2.3.6. Artistic dressing tables and wash stands, made to special designs, from £3.3.0 each. Combined wash-stands and toilet tables with part marble top and tiled back, toilet glass, four drawers, and cupboard with rail for towel at end, from £4.5.0. **Dressing glasses** cost from 1/10 upwards; handsome early-English glasses 20/-; oval dressing glasses 30/-, cheval glasses, plate 42 in. × 20 in. from £2.12.6, 50 in. × 26 in. £4.5.0. **Bedroom chairs** cost from 2/6. **Linpaniers** in wicker and plaited rush from 2/11. **Bedroom toilet ware** in complete services can be bought for 3/3; very choice designs ranging as high as £3.12.6. Really beautiful sets, however, can be bought at from 7/- to 10/-.

Baths.—Most modern houses are fitted with bath-rooms, so that householders are saved the trouble and expense of providing large baths. **Foot Baths** or sponge baths cost from 5/- to 25/-. **Oxford Hip Baths** from 13/- to 25/- **Hot Water Cans** from 1/8 to 3/-. **Toilet Cans** from 3/4 to 6/9. **Japanned Toilet sets** complete, can, pail, and bath, from 8/6 to 27/-. **Easy Chair Bath Convertible,** with spring seat and best stuffing in cretonne, 65/- to 72/6.

Fancy Furniture in various styles of elegant design, suitable to the different apartments of the house, appeal especially to different tastes. Of these Antique carved oak furniture, Austrian bent wood furniture, Rustic furniture, and cane, wicker, rush, and bamboo furniture may be named. **Antique carved Oak Furniture** has a very solid and handsome appearance, and unites use and ornament with strength and richness of appearance. Chairs (ordinary shape) range from 17/6; elbow chairs from 38/6. Of the former the "Yatten" chair is a handsome design, and costs about £1.13.6; of the latter the "Qualford" chair may be particularised; its cost is £2.12.6. Antique carved oak chairs with caned seats and backs range from 12/9. The "Estnor" spinning chair is a picturesque "occasional" and costs no more than 10/6. **Dwarf antique Tables** range from 14/6; the "Yeovil", a pretty shape, from 14/9; the "old Lancashire" spinning table 18/6; the "Eleanor" flap table £1.5.6. **Antique carved Bookcases** range from £2.10.0. **Buffets** from £6.10.0 **Cabinets** from £6.10.0. **Austrian Bent Wood Furniture** unites durability in use with lightness in appearance. The wood being bent by the application of steam, joints are avoided and breakage minimised. Chairs range from 5/- upwards. Rocking chairs from 17/-, children's chairs 3/-, high chairs 11/6, folding chairs 18/9. Settees from £1.2.6. **Rush seated furniture** is another variety of light treatment in furnishing. "Welbeck" Chairs ebonized with rush seat range from 4/6, elbow chairs from 10/6, Settees from £1.7.6, other patterns increase in price according to the make and wood used. Walnut, mahogany, and fumigated oak are all used for rush seated furniture. **Wicker Furniture** has a light, cool appearance for summer use. Chairs from 5/6, with tapestry cushions and drapery from 12/6. Settees (3 ft. 9 in. long) from 13/6. Lounges from £1.6.6. **Rush and wicker** tables range from 7/6. **The Mozart Music stand and newspaper rack** in natural cane costs about 13/9. **Bamboo Furniture,** suggestive of the "Bungalow", is very light and pretty in appearance, and wears well. **Tables** from 5/- and upwards. **Whatnots** from 12/6; **Cabinets** from 20/- and upwards. **Overmantels** from £2.12.6. **Overdoors** from 12/9. **Canterburys** with Japanese panels 13/9. **Umbrella Stands,** 5 ft. 11 inches high, 2 ft. wide, and 12 in. deep, £1.9.6. **Bookshelves** lined with chinese matting, 3 ft. 9 in. high × 3 ft. 6 in. wide, £1.5.6. **Rustic Furniture** suitable for garden use is made strong and of well seasoned woods. **Garden Seats,** Rustic frames with yew seats, 3 ft. long, 16/6; 4 ft. 19/9; 5 ft. £1.2.6; 6 ft. £1.5.0. **Garden Chairs** about 10/-. **Tables** from 11/6. **Flower Stands** from 8/6.

Lamps. The introduction of gas and the electric light has thrown oil

lamps generally, as a means of illumination, into a secondary position, but as aids to the artistic decoration of the home, they hold no unimportant place. **Hall Lamps**, in brass, polished, and fitted with cathedral glass, with doors at side, glass containers, best duplex burners and extinguishers, complete, can be bought for £1.14.6 and form highly decorative additions to Hall furniture. **Suspension Lamps** of various designs, simple and elaborate, can be bought from 10/6 upwards. **Wrought iron lanterns** with brackets for candles or fairy lights make very artistic additions to the furnishing of small lobbies, recesses or alcoves, and can be bought from 11/6. **Table lamps** can be bought very cheaply, electro-bronzed vase lamps, with circular burners, loose containers, opal shades and chimneys, complete, from 2/6 each. Handsome solid brass pillar lamps with crystal containers, extinguishers, duplex burners, opal globes and chimneys, complete, cost from 12/6. **Floor Lamps** in wrought iron with copper relief work, copper containers, good duplex burners, fitted with extinguishers and chimneys, complete, 4 ft. 6 in. high, but capable of telescopic extension to 6 ft. 6 in. cost from 17/6. **Art shades** in every colour, fitted with strong brass supports, complete, can be bought in sateen for 9/9, in silk for 14/6, in silk and lace for 17/6. **Fancy Paper shades** with folding frames 4/6.

Gas fittings of very elegant designs can now be bought at very moderate prices. **Hall Lanterns.** Early English, in polished brass, with cathedral glass panels, from £1.6.6 to £10.0.0. **Gas Brackets** from 1/6, double jointed from 2/- to 3/6, treble jointed 6/9. Ornamental brackets, handsome designs, 11 in. projection, £1.12.0. Double brackets, lacquered or bronzed, £1.12.6. **Gasaliers** of artistic designs in steel-bronze, bronzed, or lacquered brass, for three lights can be bought for 12/6 and upwards. Very handsome shade light gasaliers with antique repoussé corona and decorations, lacquered or bronzed, for four lights with centre shade £17.0.0, seven lights £19.10.0, ten lights £21.10.0.

Fenders vary in price according to the design and the metal used. The old fashioned bedroom fender, Berlin black, costs about 2/9, while fire irons to match cost 2/6. Berlin black fenders with steel rods cost from 5/-, with brass rods and mounts from 15/6. All Brass Fenders from £2.8.6. Berlin black kerbs cost from 7/3; Polished marble kerbs from £1.8.0.

Coal Boxes and **Cabinets** may be had in very handsome designs, from 5/- to £5, the ordinary black and brass coal scoop, with lining and hand scoop complete, from 3/6.

Blinds are made of various materials. **Art blinds** vary in price according to the material used. **Festoon blinds** are usually made in Tussore or Surah silk, sateen, reversible cretonne, or other similar fabric and so may be either inexpensive or costly. **Venetian blinds** are made in various qualities from 6½d. to 9½d. per square foot; with worsted webs in either quality ½d. per foot extra. If patent actions are used they cost from ½d. to 1½d. per foot extra. **Roller Blinds** are made of various materials at prices (including wood roller and in some cases various patent actions) varying from 4½d. to 11½d. per square foot. If rollers are not included 1½d. per foot may be allowed on these prices. Cords and tassels are included. **Cane Blinds** cost from 1/7 per square foot. **Wire Blinds** from 1/10. **Dwarf Venetians** from 3/6. **Outside Blinds** are made of various shapes. **The Boxhead roller blind** made to work with single line—roller blind in best blue and white striped Barnsley tick—costs 1/2 per square foot; fancy striped 1/4; with spring rollers 1/6. Other shapes are known as Italian, Florentine, Spanish, and oriental, and vary in cost up to 2/10 per square foot. These prices are charged for blinds made to fit into the reveals of window openings. If made to fix on the face of the brick work or stone, an extra charge of 2d. per foot is made.

Table Glass. Services of table glass can be bought at prices which vary

according to the workmanship. The "Beaufort" service in plain glass with cut fluted stems costs £3.15.0 and includes 12 each wine glasses for Port, Sherry, Claret, Champagne, 12 each Finger and custard glasses, 12 Tumblers, 2 water jugs, 4 Goblets, 2 Quart Decanters, 2 Pint Decanters and 1 Claret Decanter; 95 pieces in all. The "Digby" service consists of the same numbers of glasses which are of the same shape but are beautifully etched, and cost £6.3.0. Services engraved by hand, such as the "Japanese Stork" service, cost £10.13.0, while the "Clarence" service, richly cut in sharp diamonds and prisms, costs £34.8.0.

Dinner Services consist of either 52, 81, or 101 pieces, and are known as "cottage", "medium", and "complete", respectively. "Cottage" services, consisting of 52 pieces, plain, with pink or blue band, can be bought for 16/6; "medium" sets of 81 pieces of the same quality costing 31/6; "complete" sets of 101 pieces 40/-. Crests or monograms can be added to the complete set for 15/- extra. Very pretty designs in one colour can be had from 19/6, "cottage"; 42/-, "medium; and 55/-, "complete." "Complete" sets of 101 pieces can be got of same designs in natural colourings from 76/6. Very handsome "Cottage" dinner sets may be bought for 36/-. **Tea and Breakfast Ware.** Breakfast sets of 29 pieces are sufficient for six persons, sets of 51 pieces being required for twelve persons. Breakfast sets, plain, with pink line decoration, 29 pieces, cost 10/6; 51 pieces 22/6. In white with gold band, 19/6 and 30/6 respectively. Sets varying in price according to design graduate upwards, very handsome and artistic sets being purchasable at 38/6 for 29 pieces, 76/6 for 51 pieces. Tea sets of 40 pieces can be bought in great variety of design, ranging from 23/6 to 57/6 per set.

Electro plate table ware varies in price according to quality and design. Like most other things the best is the cheapest in the end, though it involves a larger immediate outlay. Triple plated goods should stand daily use for twenty years, when they can be replated at moderate prices. It is difficult to give an idea of prices in a condensed form. **Table spoons** and **forks,** which cost the same, may be cited as an illustration of the varying prices of plated goods according to quality and design. What is known as second quality of these (Table spoons and forks) cost 9/- per dozen; best heavy nickel 12/-; common 19/-; double-plated "fiddle", "old English" or Rat-tail pattern 24/-; triple plated ditto 29/-; "Albany", Kings" and other fancy patterns 32/-; Triple-plated Bead 36/- triple plated "Albany", Kings", etc., 42/-. **Soup spoons** cost about 2/- per dozen less than table spoons. **Dessert Spoons and forks** in the best qualities 8/- to 10/- per dozen less than table spoons and forks. **Tea spoons** in the best qualities about half or rather less than a half of the price of table spoons. **Egg spoons** cost from 4/- per dozen second quality to 20/- triple plated Albany, etc. **Mustard** and **Salt Spoons** from 6d. to 1/8 each. **Gravy Spoons** 3/- to 8/- each. **Soup ladles** from 5/- to 12/-. **Sauce ladles** from 1/6 to 4/6. **Sugar Tongs** from 1/4 to 4/-. **Butter Knives** 2/9 to 4/9. General electro plated goods are too numerous and various to be dealt with in detail here, illustrated price lists being indispensable when selection cannot be made from the articles themselves.

Table Cutlery.—Knives are of many qualities, both of blade and handle, and vary in price from about 17/6 per dozen to about £2.18.6 per dozen. **Dessert knives** from 13/6 to £2.5.0 per dozen. **Carvers** per pair in corresponding qualities from 5/6 to 17/6. **Steels** from 2/- to 7/6. **Black-handled knives** and **forks** riveted cost from 8/- per dozen. Dessert knives from 6/-. Carvers from 2/- per pair. Steels from 1/-. **Ivorine handled knives** from 10/6 per dozen. Dessert knives from 8/6. Carvers from 3/6 per pair. Steels from 1/6.

Kitchen Utensils.—Articles of kitchen use can be bought in sets or separately, and various upholsterers supply complete lists with prices for sets and for separate

articles. Thus a **useful set of servants' ware**, including a breakfast set, a dinner set for six, a tea set, pans, jars, moulds, basins, jugs, dishes, bowls, bottles, etc., etc., can be bought for £3.0.0. **A set of Ironmongery, Turnery, Brushes** and **kitchen utensils** including about 125 articles may be bought for under £10. These lists are fairly complete, and doubtless contain articles not needed by ordinary, purchasers. In ordering sets, therefore, lists should be examined to avoid waste in expenditure. Sets containing nearly 400 articles are advertised to cost about £60.

Household Linens, Blankets, Quilts, etc., are sold in sets or separately, complete lists being supplied with estimates by the best upholsterers, according to requirement. Thus a complete cottage set may be purchased, hemmed and ready for use, from £8 to £10, while a set for a family residence of the best class will cost about £180. The following, estimated for a small villa or flat, will give an idea how these sets are made up.

			£ s. d.
2	pairs fine twill or plain cotton sheets, for 4 ft. 6 in. bed	@ 10/9	1 1 6
2	pairs fine twill or plain cotton pillow cases	„ 1/11	3 10
1	pair top blankets		19 6
1	under blanket ..		4 6
1	white quilt		10 9
2	toilet covers	„ 1/3	2 6
2	pairs fine twill or plain cotton sheets, for 3 ft. spare bed	„ 7/9	15 6
1	pair pillow cases		1 11
1	pair top blankets		14 9
1	under blanket ..		3 11
1	white quilt		7 6
2	toilet covers	„ 1/6	3 0
2	pairs sheets, for servant's bed ..	„ 5/11	11 10
1	pair pillow cases		1 4
1	„ top blankets		8 11
1	under blanket ..		2 9
1	coloured quilt ..		4 3
2	toilet covers	„ 1/0½	2 1
2	table cloths, 2 yards square. ..	„ 6/3	12 6
1	table cloth, 2×2½ yards long		7 11
½	dozen napkins .. for		5 9
2	kitchen table cloths, 1¾ yards square	@ 2/3	4 6
½	dozen stout huckaback towels .. .. for		4 11
½	dozen fine huckaback towels .. .. „		5 11
3	bath towels	@ -/11	2 9
3	servant's towels .. „	-/7	1 9
½	dozen tea cloths .. „	6/6	3 3
½	„ glass „ .. „	6/6	3 3
½	„ kitchen „ .. „	6/6	3 3
½	„ dusters .. .. „	3/11	1 11½
3	round towel .. .. „	1/6	4 6
			£10 2 6

Imitation Stained-Glass.—Stained. Glass windows are always an attraction for both young and old, and whether seen in public or private buildings cannot fail to please the eye. Useful as well as ornamental, they may be made to shut out an unpleasant view as well as tone down an excess of light, while adding beauty to the interior of the building in which they are used. From its high cost, however, stained glass is necessarily a luxury for the rich; and many of the substitutes which have appeared from time to time, while being more or less effective, have been too costly to admit of general use. The Patent Glacier Window Decoration has the merit of approaching real stained glass in colour and appearance more nearly than anything previously introduced, and is at the same time easy to affix. It is a material supplied in transparent adhesive sheets, in the shape of borders, corners, and centre pieces and ground patterns for covering large areas, etc., etc.; the variety of sizes being such that any window can easily be covered; while the designs issued are sufficiently numerous to give the purchaser an extensive choice in style and design. The instructions for affixing the patent Glacier Window Decoration are very simple—the glass is to be cleaned, uniformly moistened with a sponge, and the material applied. When dry it cannot

be removed from the glass; will not crack, curl up, or be affected by heat or moisture. The only care necessary is that of avoiding the air bubbles which might remain underneath; a little rubbing with a soft cloth will ensure their removal and secure what should always be attained, perfect contact with the glass in every part. When a number of pieces are joined together on glass to form a design, the joints may be visible, and to cover these, and to imitate the leads of real glass, slips of black material of proper width are supplied in convenient boxes. These leads should be put on with glue. Of course it is merely an imitation and therefore not comparable with the real, but it may effectively hide ugly realities which are even more objectionable than artistic imitations.

HOUSEKEEPING.

Housekeeping is a comprehensive term. It means the care of nearly everything that has to be done in a house after it has been built and furnished: including keeping the household accounts, directing the servants, cleaning and renovating the house and its furniture; and purchasing, storing, and regulating the supply of food. In the average house these duties devolve upon the mistress, while in large establishments they are relegated to a professional housekeeper, who takes her directions from the mistress and relieves the lady of the house of all attention to detail. As this volume is addressed to householders of the middle class we shall confine our attention to the subject of housekeeping as it presents itself to the mistress who is her own housekeeper and who will often find herself in positions in which common-sense suggestions will be of great help. The housekeeper ought to add to administrative qualities a practical knowledge of how to do everything that in the course of her direction of household affairs she may be called upon to order others to do. Just as the conductor of an orchestra ought to have a practical knowledge of every instrument included in it, and the captain of a ship ought to have a practical knowledge of every duty he may have to order to be done, so the housekeeper ought to know how every domestic duty should be performed, in order that she may be able to secure the respect of competent servants, and instruct those who are ignorant, as well as judge of the efficiency of the work done by those whom she is called upon to direct. Young housekeepers are apt to imagine that all they have to do is to issue orders, and then enjoy the results of their prompt and efficient obedience. A very few weeks of practical housekeeping will serve to dispel this enchanting illusion. The mistress who cannot direct her servants not only what to do but how to do it, will soon find that in a more or less degree they will direct her. Given the requisite knowledge, patience and firm good temper are the best aids to efficient housekeeping, and as engines need oiling in all the parts that suffer friction, so the domestic machinery needs the encouragement of soft words in hard places and generous appreciation amid faithful and arduous service. In housekeeping the advantages of early training can hardly be overrated, and good housekeepers who inherit healthy household traditions owe the perpetuation of their knowledge and experience to the generation which follows them. Care taken in the instruction of young people in the duties of housekeeping is an investment which will bear incalculable profit in the comfort of future households.

How to Make Sensible Housekeepers. Most girls, says Mrs. Henry Ward Beecher, if permitted to be with their mothers when in the kitchen almost from babyhood, love to see the work done, particularly the cooking; and nothing delights them more than to be allowed to attempt to make some simple article themselves. And this early *play* will, in the end, be a *lesson* not easily forgotten. Girls who grow up under such training or indulgence will have no fear of the real care when it comes to them as a duty. They will make good

housewives, with the best prospects of a happy home. We know mothers who freely instruct their very young girls how to make bread, and allow them, at least once a week, to have a loaf of their own baking on the table. Then they are sometimes allowed to make some simple cake, receiving as they proceed the most easy and simple directions from their mother. As girls pass into their teens, some most sensible mothers give each daughter the full care of the housekeeping, for a week at a time of course, guided by their mother's supervision and judgment as to the marketing and expenditure. This is an excellent arrangement, and one of the most important items in their education. There is no greater mistake than feeling that domestic labour, when necessary, or the knowledge of it in all positions, must be incompatible with the highest degree of mental culture or refinement. No women stand higher in position or elegant accomplishment than those who honour themselves and their husbands by a thorough knowledge and oversight of all domestic duties. No one can expect to hire those who will bring the best taste, the nicest attention to order, neatness and economy in little things, into the kitchen, together with a correct knowledge of preparing the simplest meal in a beautiful and attractive manner; and yet all these united have a wonderful power towards making home life happy and prosperous. And the absence of these charms—careless housekeeping, an untidy and unattractive home and poor cooking, have driven many a husband to seek comfort and happiness elsewhere. It is only the mistress of the house, the wife and mother, through her love and union of interest with her husband and children, who, guided by her affection, will labour to bring that charm about her household which springs from systematic labour, scrupulous neatness and economy, a finely-appointed table, with food daintily prepared and served with exquisite taste. Low down as foolish ideas of gentility have been accustomed to place the kitchen department, it has much more to do with the comfort or discomfort, the peace and happiness, or the discord and ill-temper of the whole family, than can be gained from elegant or fashionable parties, and all that etiquette demands in fashionable life. No girl, whether from the lowest or the highest position, is fit to become a wife —a mistress of the home—who has not been carefully educated in all the accomplishments and details of the kitchen.

Income and Expenditure.—A wise man once said, "My wealth consists not in the abundance of my possessions but in the fewness of my wants," and the prayer of the wisest was, "Give me neither poverty nor riches." The proverb has it, "The contented mind is a continual feast," and the Scriptures aver that "godliness with contentment is great gain." Clearly philosophy and religion both teach moderation as the basis of true comfort. To live within one's income is therefore not only one's duty towards one's neighbour, but one's duty towards one's self. Of those who habitually exceed their income, some are guilty of absolute fraud, incurring expenses which they know perfectly well they can never meet. Others subject to fluctuating incomes incur unnecessary expenses, hoping that circumstances will enable them to meet them. Others again exceed incomes which are quite sufficient for their requirements and desires, through sheer inability to manage their own affairs. Many a good income is muddled away with nothing to show for it, in comfort, appearance, or satisfaction, simply from a want of order and method in housekeeping or in keeping household accounts. Where the income is a fixed one this should not be difficult to avoid. To limit oneself in the first instance to necessities and to spend in luxuries only a proportion of what remains when all necessities have been paid for, is clearly the duty of every housekeeper; and this admitted, a very simple system of household accounts ought to show the progress of the expenditure, and enable the housekeeper to check the outgoings by the incomings, and preserve a balance, though

TABLE OF INCOME.

Showing the amount of Income per Calendar Month, Week, and Day, at any sum per Annum from £1 to £1,000.

Per Year.			Per Month.			Per Week.			Per Day.		
£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	0	1	8	0	0	4½	0	0	0¾
2	0	0	0	3	4	0	0	9¼	0	0	1¼
3	0	0	0	5	0	0	1	1¾	0	0	2
4	0	0	0	6	8	0	1	6½	0	0	2½
5	0	0	0	8	4	0	1	11	0	0	3¼
6	0	0	0	10	0	0	2	3¾	0	0	4
7	0	0	0	11	8	0	2	8¼	0	0	4½
8	0	0	0	13	4	0	3	1	0	0	5¼
9	0	0	0	15	0	0	3	5½	0	0	6
10	0	0	0	16	8	0	3	10¼	0	0	6½
11	0	0	0	18	4	0	4	2¾	0	0	7¼
12	0	0	1	0	0	0	4	7½	0	0	8
13	0	0	1	1	8	0	5	0	0	0	8½
14	0	0	1	3	4	0	5	4¾	0	0	9¼
15	0	0	1	5	0	0	5	9¼	0	0	9¾
16	0	0	1	6	8	0	6	1¾	0	0	10½
17	0	0	1	8	4	0	6	6½	0	0	11¼
18	0	0	1	10	0	0	6	11	0	0	11¾
19	0	0	1	11	8	0	7	3¾	0	1	0½
20	0	0	1	13	4	0	7	8¼	0	1	1¼
21	0	0	1	15	0	0	8	1	0	1	1¾
22	0	0	1	16	8	0	8	5½	0	1	2½
23	0	0	1	18	4	0	8	10¼	0	1	3
24	0	0	2	0	0	0	9	2¾	0	1	3¾
25	0	0	2	1	8	0	9	7¼	0	1	4½
26	0	0	2	3	4	0	10	0	0	1	5
27	0	0	2	5	0	0	10	4½	0	1	5¾
28	0	0	2	6	8	0	10	9¼	0	1	6½
29	0	0	2	8	4	0	11	1¾	0	1	7
30	0	0	2	10	0	0	11	6½	0	1	7¾
40	0	0	3	6	8	0	15	4½	0	2	2¼
50	0	0	4	3	4	0	19	2¾	0	2	9
60	0	0	5	0	0	1	3	1	0	3	3½
70	0	0	5	16	8	1	6	11	0	3	10
80	0	0	6	13	4	1	10	9¼	0	4	4½
90	0	0	7	10	0	1	14	7½	0	4	11¼
100	0	0	8	6	8	1	18	5½	0	5	5¾
150	0	0	12	10	0	2	17	8½	0	8	2¾
200	0	0	16	13	4	3	16	11	0	10	11½
250	0	0	20	16	8	4	16	1¾	0	13	8¼
300	0	0	25	0	0	5	15	4½	0	16	5¼
400	0	0	33	6	8	7	13	10¼	1	1	11
500	0	0	41	13	4	9	12	3¾	1	7	4¾
600	0	0	50	0	0	11	10	9¼	1	12	10½
700	0	0	58	6	8	13	9	2¾	1	18	4¼
800	0	0	66	13	4	15	7	8¼	2	3	10
900	0	0	75	0	0	17	6	1¾	2	9	3¾
1000	0	0	83	6	8	10	4	7½	2	14	9½

ever so small, upon the right side. The simplest way of dealing with a fixed income is to deduct from the total amount the *annual* expenses, such as Rent, Taxes, Rates, Gas, Water, Insurance, Season Ticket, and whatever allowance may be agreed upon for the summer holiday, and for clothing and servant's wages; and then, having fixed upon a sum to be banked as a Reserve Fund only to be used in emergencies, and deducted that, divide the remainder by fifty-two and see that no week's housekeeping expenditure exceeds a fifty-second part of the whole. In this connection we give on p. 69 a Table of Income, showing the amount of income per calendar month, week, and day, of any sum per annum from one pound to one thousand pounds, by which it will be easy to see what the daily, weekly, or monthly income is, both before and after the annual expenses have been deducted.

Housekeeping Account Books are published by several firms and at various prices. The young housekeeper cannot do better than procure one of these, for though she may not follow its system in every particular, she will doubtless find it suggestive. On p. 71 we publish a specimen page of one of these books, which will give an idea of their form.

Buying.—In these days of Civil Service and other stores, when it is easy to procure price lists which include every item of domestic requirement, buying is a much easier business than it was formerly when almost every separate article had to be purchased at a different shop, and almost every shop had a different price for the same article. Nowadays the competition among large retailers has brought about an equalization of prices which greatly simplifies the work of the purchaser, for whether the housekeeper deals with stores at a distance or with respectable tradespeople nearer home, the cash prices will, as a rule, be much the same. Of course when credit is taken credit must be paid for, but true economy in housekeeping means a cash payment at a fair price for a good article. Much naturally depends upon the locality in which the householder resides. In out-of-the-way places higher prices will be charged, and it is to a certain extent reasonable that it should be so. In large towns the purchaser has an obvious advantage over his contemporaries in country villages, though even in such cases facilities of carriage tend to equalize matters, though cost of carriage must necessarily increase price. Those who order provisions from a distance lose the opportunity of personal examination before purchase, which is of so much importance to the housekeeper. To give orders and allow tradesmen to send practically what they please is very unsatisfactory buying.

Checking Goods on Delivery.—The good housekeeper will not only choose her own provisions from actual examination, but will also check them on delivery to see that the supplies are in all respects according to order, in quality as well as in weight or measure. This is absolutely necessary if the buyer is to have full value for money paid, for apart from actual fraud, of which of course no respectable tradesman would be guilty, the carelessness of assistants, often working at high pressure, is a frequent cause of mistakes whereby the housekeeper is liable to suffer. A pair of scales, conveniently kept for weighing goods on delivery, will save its own cost sooner or later, and may with great advantage be employed in checking the use as well as the supply of goods. Where two or three qualities of the same class of goods are kept in stock, it is very easy to make mistakes in executing orders, and nothing but careful checking can prevent occasional disappointment. It is almost needless to add that the same watchfulness is necessary in *Checking Tradesmen's Accounts*. No goods should under any circumstances be received without an invoice, and this should be checked immediately, both in its extensions and addition. Great carelessness is often shown in the keeping

HOUSEHOLD EXPENSES WEEK ENDING NOVEMBER 6TH 1897.

	Sunday 31 October.	Brought forward from last Week.	1 Monday.	2 Tuesday.	3 Wednesday.	4 Thursday	5 Friday.	6 Saturday	Totals and Balance.
DAILY RECEIPTS.									
Board.	Baker								
	Butcher								
	Fishmonger & Poulterer								
	Grocer & Cheesemonger								
	Greengrocer								
	Milkman								
	Laundress, &c.								
House.	Coals, Gas, &c.								
	Rent, Taxes, &c.								
	Renewals and Repairs.								
Apparel,	Dress, Draper, &c.								
	Shoemaker								
	Tailor and Hatter								
Sundries.	Doctor and Chemist								
	Donations and Charities								
	Garden and Stable.								
	Travelling								
	Wages								
	Sundries								
Total of each Day's Payments									

Memoranda for the Week.

Cash in hand at end of Week carried to next

of tradesmen's accounts, and when they are allowed to run on indefinitely they often become impossible to check. Cash payments are by far the most economic, but in many cases it is more convenient to take short credit (it is never really convenient to take long credit) and in such cases definite periodical settlements should be made, weekly, monthly, or quarterly, as the case may be, and all points of dispute should be settled immediately upon their arising.

Laundry Bills.—If tradesmen's accounts in general need careful checking, laundry bills require special attention. In some large establishments, to say nothing of many smaller ones, a peculiar if not an original system of arithmetic seems to be employed, and the housekeeper who may have a prejudice in favour of the old established system of figures, will find it very difficult to reconcile the two. This shows itself in two ways, (1) in the counting of articles received and returned, and (2) in the extensions and additions of the bill. Housekeepers who wash at home save themselves a great deal of trouble in this direction, and those who do not, need make very careful lists of the articles sent out to wash, and check the articles very carefully by the list on their return, as well as examine the items of extension and check the addition of the bill. Books of washing lists to facilitate this are published, of which the following specimen page will show the form.

Servants. How to secure and retain them. There can be no reasonable doubt but that a due regard for the comforts of those whose business it is to promote our own, would do something to remove the difficulties, experienced by many householders, in securing good domestic servants. Of course, the superior attractions afforded by factory employment, the larger income, and, more particularly, the greater liberty, will always draw off a large number of those who, a few years ago, devoted themselves entirely to domestic service; and it is only by outbidding these advantages by the greater advantages of superior comfort, that the householder can hope to clear the difficulty so often the source of speculation in domestic circles. And why not? To judge by the actions of some housekeepers, it would seem that the age of slavery has not quite passed away. In almost all but the buying and the selling, the conditions remain the same. The liberty of the unfortunate hireling is reduced to the smallest possible limit, and these brief respites from toil are expected to be cheerfully postponed, or even given up, upon little more than whim or caprice. The smallest, dingiest, and worst-furnished room in the house is considered sufficient for their accommodation, even if they are not required to share it in a way grossly inconsistent with the most elementary principles of sanitary science; and, in short, so little consideration is shown by many, that the wonder is, not that it is difficult to keep servants, but that people should expect them to remain. In this matter, as in so many others, so much depends upon trifles. It costs but little, to put a picture on the wall of a servant's bedroom, and yet the consideration therein shown may reproduce itself in a thousand ways to the comfort of the whole household. Encouragement is less costly even than a picture, and vastly more effective, while appreciation has overcome the greatest difficulties, and accomplished most stupendous ends. There is no nature so obtuse or reserved that it will not respond to those who will take the trouble to convince it that they take a genuine and unselfish interest in its welfare; and, as we cannot rid ourselves of all responsibility concerning those who live under our roofs, it becomes us, as a matter of duty as well as policy, to deal generously in consideration towards those from whom we expect so much. In answer to the question which heads this paper—"How to secure and retain good domestic servants"—we would say,—first, *grow them;* second, *consider them;* third, *encourage them.*

Grow them. Youth is the most plastic time of life, and, given fair material to start with, it will be our own faults if we do not mould it to our liking. The

WASHING LIST.

(This portion to be sent with the clothes).

*From M*_____

*Date,*_____

No.			£.	s.	d.
	PERSONAL.	Aprons			
		Chemises			
		Collars, Ladies'			
		Do. Gent's			
		Cuffs, pairs of			
		Diapers			
		Drawers			
		Dresses			
		Dressing Gowns			
		Handkerchiefs			
		Night Gowns			
		Do. Shirts			
		Petticoats			
		Do. Flannel			
		Shirts			
		Do. Flannel			
		Socks, pairs of			
		Stockings, do.			
		Vests			
	CHILDREN.	Bibs			
		Chemises			
		Frocks			
		Night Gowns			
		Petticoats			
		Do. Flannel			
		Pinafores			
		Shirts			
		Socks, pairs of			
	HOUSEHOLD.	Blankets			
		Counterpanes			
		Bolster Cases			
		Cloths, Tea			
		Do. Kitchen			
		Dusters			
		Pillow Cases			
		Sheets			
		Table Cloths			
		Do. Napkins			
		Towels			
		Do. Kitchen			
		Do. Round			

This portion to be preserved until the correct return of the clothes sent out.

SENT TO LAUNDRESS.

*Date,*_____

No.		
	PERSONAL.	Aprons
		Chemises
		Collars, Ladies'
		Do. Gent's
		Cuffs, pairs of
		Diapers
		Drawers
		Dresses
		Dressing Gowns
		Handkerchiefs
		Night Gowns
		Do. Shirts
		Petticoats
		Do. Flannel
		Shirts
		Do. Flannel
		Socks, pairs of
		Stockings, do.
		Vests
	CHILDREN.	Bibs
		Chemises
		Frocks
		Night Gowns
		Petticoats
		Do. Flannel
		Pinafores
		Shirts
		Socks, pairs of
	HOUSEHOLD.	Blankets
		Counterpanes
		Bolster Cases
		Cloths, Tea
		Do. Kitchen
		Dusters
		Pillow Cases
		Sheets
		Table Cloths
		Do. Napkins
		Towels
		Do. Kitchen.
		Do. Round

best servants are those who most efficiently carry out our wishes; and the servants who are most likely to do this are those who, from long association with us, learn to anticipate our wants. Such a course, undoubtedly, involves trouble, but nothing worth having can be got without effort; and, after all, the trouble involved in teaching a young servant is nothing to that involved in constantly changing old ones! **Consider them.** We are not advocating the idea of "liberty, fraternity, and equality" in the household, for whatever changes the increased facilities of education may make in the relationship of class and class, these are questions of the future which we are not called upon to deal with now; but we are anxious to point out that there are points of equality which must be recognized, if we are to solve the problem which so much perplexes us all. Our domestics are our equals in all that belongs to our common humanity; they are our equals in their hopes, fears, and disappointments; and it is in proportion as we put ourselves in their place, and do as we would be done by, that we shall succeed in attaching them to us in a way that will place them beyond the temptation of a small pecuniary gain. **Encourage them.** We have already pointed out the power of encouragement, and it will suffice now to point out one or two forms that encouragement may take. It is an encouragement to speak the word of commendation for work done well. It is an encouragement to use things prepared for our use and to show our satisfaction in doing so. It is an encouragement to remember a birthday, and otherwise to show that a further interest is taken in the welfare of the employee than that involved in the mere payment of the hire. In the daily papers, from time to time, we see in an obituary notice some such words as these, "For fifty years a faithful servant and *friend* in the family of ————." It is difficult to determine to whom this is the more creditable; to the domestic whose long and faithful services call forth the record, or to those who thus publicly express their obligation; but of this we are certain, that the golden rule 'n this, as in all other cases, holds good, as the basis of the soundest and most permanent understanding between master and servant.

Courtesy in the Kitchen.—Books on etiquette, says a writer in "Harper", do not contain codes for the kitchen. Yet in none of the social relations is fine behaviour more imperative than in the intercourse of mistress with maid. It is a truism that a lady must by virtue of her ladyhood be thoughtful, gentle, and considerate towards her inferiors. But in the case of her servants, the obligation gathers force from the fact that they are, in a measure, defenceless. What she may regard as a just severity of speech, a defensible hastiness of action, on her own part, she would characterise as insolence and bad temper on that of her dependant. The mistress who rails magnifies her office. The maid who retorts is lost. The battle is one of giant and pigmy. "It is excellent to have a giant's strength," pleads that exquisite lady, Isabella, "but it is tyrannous to use it like a giant." And the meanest of all tyrants is the unjust mistress. The right of the servant to civility is as absolute as her right to her wages. She sells her work, not her personality. She is one of the nearest of those "neighbours" whom we are exhorted to love as ourselves. But for ourselves we make excuse, toward ourselves we are patient, with our whole class we forbear. If, then, we are rude toward blundering Bridget, and go smiling to the parlour to greet the visitor whom she had just admitted by mistake, we are guilty not only of unkindness, but of vulgarity. For we pay a deference to position, clothes, and a purse, which we deny to womanhood. We wish the caller in farthest Ind, perhaps. Yet we assume the virtue of hospitality if we have it not—we send her away with a comfortable sense of having conferred a pleasure; we pat ourselves approvingly at having discharged a social duty. All this we ought to do, but not to leave

the other undone. To have one standard of courtesy toward the guest and another toward the servant is to be snobbish. It is not an excuse to say that the maid is provoking, and the lady is not. Though we know that the visitor is dull, stupid, venomous; though her manners are bad and her discourse valueless; though we do not respect her and are sorry when she comes; though we are sure that she will scandalize us to the first acquaintance she meets, yet are we flawlessly polite, because, we say, one cannot forget that one is a lady. But shall we allow Bridget to forget it? She is not more exasperating than our friend Mrs. Grundy. Shall we rend the one and spare the other? And if it were not the obligation of her place, it would be the selfish policy of the mistress to deal always quietly and courteously with her servants.

Self-control is the desideratum. Company manners are not easily assumed. If one is a shrew in her kitchen, she will hardly seem a siren in her parlour. And there are so many sudden exigencies in housekeeping that only that united good-will of head and hands which comes of the habit of forbearance and self-control on the part of the head can meet them with credit and comfort. It was the opinion of the eminent John Newton, who had many a combat with the Apollyon of his temper, that it sometimes requires more grace to bear the breaking of a china plate than the death of an only son. And it is certainly the small daily exasperations of life, whose needlessness makes their sting, that are the touchstone of one's grace. Every mistress knows that the family comfort depends on the serenity of the kitchen. A disturbance of that sensitive atmosphere makes itself felt on the housetop. Even a public rebuke, though it be not an angry one, commonly stirs up strife. Mortification seldom leads to reformation. As a rule, any short-coming of a servant should be silently passed over in the presence of the household, and thoroughly understood in private before reproof is allowed to fall. For sickness or anxiety, or even temper, may make the servant's hand unsteady, or betray her judgment, as it does that of her mistress at odd times. And kindly silence or gentle inquiry will often draw an apology from lips that reproof would seal in sullen silence. If there is any virtue in these humble folk, a constant politeness and consideration will discover it. Humanity, said the wise Bacon, is sooner won by courtesy, than by real benefits. Let us grant that servants are apt to be stupid and stubborn, careless and conscienceless. Certainly these are not traits that mend with scolding, nor are they put to flight by intimidation. If they can be cured, it is only with patience and long-suffering. If they are incurable, their possessors can be sent away. But, alike for the sake of servant and mistress, while they remain in that relation, a studied courtesy should be maintained. Here, as everywhere, the right way is the safe way, and duty and policy are one.

Health of Servants.—Every practitioner, says the *British Medical Journal*, must have remarked the commonness of a certain type among the patients who come to consult him from the ranks of domestic service. We have chiefly in our eye female servants, for these especially exhibit the conditon to be considered, though men and boys also, sooner or later, suffer in a similar way. The fagged and irritable heart, the watery but spastic pulse, atonic dyspepsia, and *malaise*, even apart from the evidence of a pasty skin and history of hard house-work, suffice for the diagnosis of anæmia. It is very common to find that the subjects of this condition have but recently come up from the country. They have exchanged the fresh air, regular hours of work and rest, and plain, wholesome fare of their former homes or service, for the late work, the early waking, and the small, unventilated sleeping-room of a city mansion. The relation between cause and effect is obvious. Hygiene is ignored, and health suffers. What, then, is to be done? It is easy to point to the evil,

but more difficult to devise its cure. We are convinced, however, that much could be accomplished by a reasonable exercise of common sense on the part both of masters and servants. More space, air, and sleep are required. By means of these the frame will be rendered fitter to meet and overcome the generally moderate fatigue of domestic service. With regard to air-space in servants' bedrooms, it should not be very difficult to allot a minimum of 800 cubic feet per individual. Less than this must lead to impairment of health. Ventilation can, as a rule, be maintained even in our capricious climate, if servants can be taught that the window may be kept slightly open at the top without danger from cold. A room without free communication with the outer air readily becomes impure, and is unfit for habitation; a window is a necessity. Seven hours of sleep for men, and eight for women, are generally admitted to be no more than essential, and might, with but very moderate forethought, be allowed by masters and mistresses to their domestics. We have not spoken of recreation. It is often difficult alike for servants and for comparatively independent persons to make due provision for this important factor of health. Something has, no doubt, been done by timely holidays. Measures like these which we have suggested must, if adopted, help and not hinder work, and must increase the well-being and just contentment of that large class on which every other class is, in so great a measure, dependent.

The Duties of Servants vary according to the number kept and the requirements of the household. "Many hands make light work," the proverb says, and where the hands are few and the work hard, system must be employed to economize labour and ensure efficiency.

The General Servant.—The duties of a general servant are *general*. There is little or nothing that has to be done in the way of service in a house that may not under some circumstances become the duty of a general servant. A maid of all work, she is expected to be a Jack of all trades, and unlike the proverbial Jack to be proficient in all departments of her work. That, as a rule, too much is expected of her there can be little doubt, but that if she is efficient and obliging she can command good wages is also true. The **Wages** of a general servant vary from £10 to £18 per annum, according to age and experience, and there can be no doubt that if she is thoroughly efficient and good tempered she is worth the larger amount. Those who are unable to pay the price of efficient service must be prepared to accept less efficient service, and to try and made up the balance of efficacy by personal help. However efficient a general servant may be it will be necessary where only one is kept, for the mistress to share the work to a more or less degree. **Mistress and Maid** will have to agree upon order and method, for where much has to be done by few hands economy of time and labour must be studied. Every day in the week and every month in the year will have its special duties, and nothing must be allowed to interfere with their regular discharges. Someone has said that worry is generally due to work undone, and it is certain that nothing accumulates more rapidly or with more paralysing effect than neglected work. **A Day's Routine.**—"Up in the morning early" is the prime motto of the successful domestic servant, and we might add of the successful mistress too. After opening the kitchen shutters and drawing up the blinds, the fire-place claims the first attention. A few minutes will suffice for lighting the fire, tidying up the hearth, and putting on the kettleful of water for the morning meal. This done the "general" will next tackle the room in which the breakfast will be taken;—the breakfast-room, or dining-room, as the case may be. Here she will open shutters and draw up blinds, and if weather permits open the window that fresh air may sweeten the apartment. If the weather be cold she will then turn her attention to the fire. This lighted,

she will proceed with dust-pan and hard brush to relieve the carpet of crumbs and all other superfluities, after which she will lay the breakfast table and tidy up the room. The hall and door-steps may now be advantageously swept, and if time permits, the staircase. If not cleaned the day before, the boots will now demand attention. Having washed her hands she will now be ready to prepare the breakfast or assist her mistress in preparing it, frying bacon, boiling eggs, cooking porridge and making tea or coffee according to the practice of the family. Breakfast served, the "general" does not wait at table but retires to the kitchen to take her own meal, after which she will probably have time to open all the bedroom windows and turn down the bed-clothes for airing. The breakfast things will then be removed, washed, and put in their places, and the "general" will be ready to arrange with her mistress the special duties of the day. Bed-making and dusting follow, and in these the mistress will as a rule take part, after which she will either direct the cooking arrangements or conduct them so as to leave the servant free to attend to the part of the general house cleaning apportioned to the day. Where the mistress undertakes the duties of the cook, the general will still have the duty of laying the table for dinner, preceding it by sweeping up the hearth and tidying the room. She will then carry the dishes into the dining-room and wait at table during the first helping after which she will retire to the kitchen to prepare the pudding for the table. Having removed the joint from the dining-table she will replace it by the pudding, or second course, whatever it may be, having served which she will commence her own dinner. Dinner over she will remove the dinner things, clear them and put them away in their place for future use. Cooking utensils should be cleaned at the same time and then the kitchen fire-place and hearth. This done, the heavy work of the day will be over, for where one servant is kept late dinners are seldom observed, though city gentlemen sometimes take their dinner while the family take their tea. Early dinner over, therefore, only a few light duties remain, and the general will take an early opportunity of making herself presentable to attend to the hall door bell. After tea she should always have leisure at her own disposal for needlework, reading, or rest. Where a late meal is taken it will usually be a simple one, and the general will find it good policy to wash up all the utensils used before retiring to rest, so as to have a clear kitchen to start with in the morning.

Week by Week.—The ordinary daily routine of the general servant as sketched above allows for the daily discharge of some portion of the household work which only requires to be done once a week, or perhaps less often. To thoroughly clean every room in the house every day would be impossible in many cases, and unnecessary in most. To take one room at a time daily makes matters easy, and satisfies ordinary requirements. Thus the spare time on Monday may be devoted to the dining-room, on Tuesday to the drawing-room, on Wednesday to the morning, or sitting-room, on Thursday and Friday to the hall, staircase and bedrooms, and on Saturday to the kitchen. The principal interruption of the ordinary daily routine is the advent of

Washing Day.—This may be weekly, fortnightly, or monthly, according to the size or convenience of the household. Where only one servant is kept it is clear that on washing days, whether extra help is hired or not, the servant can have but little time for aught besides helping in the special duties of the day. On such occasions a great deal of the ordinary work will have to be done by the mistress, or left undone altogether. When the servant is at the washtub it is not reasonable to expect her to attend to the door bell, run errands, or to be constantly waiting upon her mistress. Indeed, some assistance will often be necessary from the mistress in the duties of drying, starching, and ironing. Where there is a weekly wash and only one servant kept it is clear that little,

if any, of the general house cleaning can be done on the same day. Where the wash is fortnightly, a portion of the day in each alternate week is available for house cleaning purposes. Generally a fortnightly wash is found most convenient, and when properly managed need not be the terrible disturbance to domestic peace and comfort it too frequently is. Where all or most of the washing is put out, of course the ordinary routine of the house is less disturbed.

The Cook.—A cook's duties vary according to the staff of servants kept. Where two servants are kept they are usually a cook and a housemaid, and in such cases the cook performs the duties usually discharged by the mistress, when only a general servant is kept, besides undertaking some duties which in that case are discharged by the general servant. Where a kitchen-maid is kept the cook's duties are considerably lightened. Where only a cook and a housemaid are kept they will naturally divide much of the regular work between them. The cook will light the kitchen fire and prepare breakfast, while the housemaid is preparing the other rooms for the use of the family. The cook will lay the breakfast and afterwards remove the things and clean them for future use. This done, she will, according to arrangement, help the housemaid in such duties as may be agreed upon, such as making beds, etc., after which she returns to the kitchen to prepare for the cooking of the day. Here the mistress usually meets her and gives her instructions as to the several meals of the day. The cook is responsible for the preparation of all food and for the cleanliness of the kitchen and of all cooking utensils. Where only two servants are kept she will generally be responsible for the dining-room also, cleaning it thoroughly once a week if the housemaid regulates it day by day. In some cases the cook will buy or order the provisions, checking quality and quantity on delivery. In other cases the mistress will undertake this responsibility. **A Cook's Wages** vary according to her ability and the size of the household she has to cook for. In ordinary middle-class houses, where good plain cooking only is required, from £14 to £20 per annum is paid to the cook, and in some cases an extra allowance being made in lieu of beer. In houses where a great deal of company is kept and much cooking required, high wages will often be paid for efficient service. When **Engaging a Cook** the mistress should be careful to begin as she means to go on, and to this end should have a clear understanding at the outset on one or two points about which cooks sometimes entertain very decided views. The first of these is as to supremacy in the kitchen. Many cooks resent the interference of the mistress in kitchen matters, and it is well therefore for the mistress at the outset to inform any candidate for appointment as cook that she is accustomed to enter her kitchen whenever she pleases and sometimes likes to amuse herself with a little cooking. The applicant can then please herself about accepting the appointment, but will have no cause for complaint on that account afterwards. Another question to be settled when engaging a cook is that of perquisites. The best way is to pay fair wages for exclusive service and to allow no perquisites as a matter of right. It is always easy to make a present, but it is a dangerous temptation to allow a system which makes it easy for servants to make presents to themselves. Allowing perquisites is not consistent with the economy which all except the rich are bound to observe. Waste in all classes of society is wicked, and constant supervision will be needed with the best of servants if the household is to have the full benefit of the money spent upon it.

The Housemaid has entire charge of the bedrooms as well as the drawing-room and breakfast-room or library. Where only a cook and a housemaid are kept, the housemaid attends to the daily needs of the dining-room, but where a parlour-maid is kept she relieves the housemaid of the duty. Where several housemaids are kept the duties are of course divided among them,

as upper, second, or under housemaids. **The Daily Routine** of a housemaid's duty, says the author of "Everyday Work in the Household," does not vary very much week after week, though each day must have its own particularly appointed work, if all is to go smoothly and in good order. In the morning she must rise early and be down stairs and at work at least an hour before her mistress goes down. She will most likely be required first to call some members of the family, by knocking at their bedroom doors, also may have to place hot water ready to hand for them. This done, if there is only a cook beside herself, the housemaid will have to prepare the room where breakfast is to be, by opening the shutters or drawing up the blinds, and in winter lighting the fire, cleaning the grate, etc. The room must then have the carpet brushed with the small hand-brush and dust-pan, and be generally straightened and put in order; while everything is gone over with a duster. This completed, the housemaid must lay the cloth and set the table for breakfast. By this time, most probably her mistress will be down, when she must assist by taking in the breakfast, and doing any odd things required of her—as there may be some—if the master of the house or any of his sons have to get off early to business. She will then be able to sit down to her own breakfast while the family are eating theirs. As soon as this meal is finished the housemaid goes upstairs to the bedrooms, opens all windows necessary for airing and sweetening the rooms, and turns down the clothes of the beds, leaving one room so as she goes on to another, that each may be done in turn. After emptying the slops, she should go to the bedroom first aired and make up the bed, doing the others in succession afterwards, her own room last of all. She must then return to the principal bedrooms and set everything straight, and wipe all over with a duster. On most days of the week the housemaid will now have to commence the cleaning and brushing of one of the bedrooms. This will fill up her time pretty well until luncheon or dinner, about one o'clock, when, if there is no parlour-maid as well as herself, she will have to leave the bedroom as it is; though by this hour every methodical, industrious woman will have managed to finish, or almost finish, the cleaning of it, and so have the afternoon free for easier and lighter work. She will now be expected to make herself neat and clean for attending to the dining-room and the setting of the table, etc. After waiting more or less as required of her by her mistress, according to whether luncheon or dinner is the rule in the house, she must take away everything, and after her own dinner must return and wash and put away her share of the things used. Every week it falls to the housemaid's share to prepare the soiled linen for the wash, by collecting it together in one place and arranging each sort in heaps, and, when required by her mistress, counting it over, while she herself writes down the quantities on the list. All doubtful clothes should be looked over and mended before the wash, as this makes a wonderful difference in the size of the tears and worn places. When the linen returns, also, the housemaid counts it over, sees that all is right, isolates those articles that require mending, and puts the remainder in the bedrooms of each owner. If she has to put any in drawers or chests, it should be noticed if she places the latest washed things beneath those previously in the drawer, so that the whole set of linen gets used turn and turn about. When the washing and ironing is done at home, the housemaid always assists and takes her share of that work, as soon as she has finished the bedrooms in the early morning. She waits at the luncheon and dinner-table, as usual, and attends to the hall-door bell all day, so as to leave the cook undisturbed at her washing. Whatever the housemaid has to do in the afternoon, if single-handed, she must always be prepared and presentable for answering the front-door bell and showing in visitors. Probably, later on, there

will be tea required, the preparation of which, and the taking in and out, are all performed by the single-handed housemaid. In the mornings, before twelve o'clock, it is generally the custom for the cook to attend to the hall-door bell, as she is supposed at that time to be less engrossed with her work than the housemaid, and if any lady calls she is sure to be either a relative or intimate friend, who does not mind appearances and ceremony. During the evenings, when the housemaid has finished her work about the house, she is allowed to have the rest of the time at her own disposal. Finally, she goes the round of the bedrooms, and puts all ready for the night, turning down the bed-clothes, attending to the wash-stands and the supply of water there, and arranging the rooms comfortably according to requirements.

The Parlour-Maid.—The duties of a parlour-maid are similar to those of a footman and consist of answering the door, ushering in and announcing visitors, laying table for breakfast, luncheon, and dinner, and waiting at the same, cleaning the plate, etc., etc. The parlour-maid should be tall and graceful. In waiting at table she will have to reach forward in serving food or pouring wine; if tall her height will help her, if graceful she will avoid awkwardnesses, be less likely to discommode the visitor she is serving or to spill the viands. She must be self-possessed and not allow the conversation at the table to divert her attention from her duties. She must serve on the left hand at table, except wine, which is served on the right where the wine glasses are placed to receive it. She should be polite especially in answering the door and ushering in visitors, and careful to remember and deliver any messages which may be left for the members of the household or any one who may be staying in the house. Parlour-maids help in the household needlework and often combine with their other duties those of ladies' maids.

The Kitchen-Maid is the cook's lieutenant. She relieves the cook of the scrubbing, the washing up, and a great deal of the rougher work of the kitchen. She also prepares the vegetables for the cook, pealing the potatoes, shelling the peas, etc., etc., etc. Kitchen maids when attentive to their duties and willing to learn, make the best cooks, especially when trained under a cook who thoroughly knows her business and who is willing to impart her knowledge.

The Nurse-Maid needs to be selected as much for her moral qualities as for her knowledge of a nurse-maid's duties, for it is of the highest importance that those who are closely and constantly associating with children at the most impressionable period of their lives should set an example which may be followed by their young charges. The nurse-maid's duties consist of constant attendance upon the children except at such times as they may be in the care of a governess or under the charge of their parents. She awakens them in the morning, baths or washes and dresses them, superintendents their breakfast when it is not taken with the family, and waits upon them when it is; re-dresses them for their morning walk, accompanies them upon the same and on their return undresses them, carefully folds up and puts away their outdoor garments; then handing them over to the care of the governess or if she herself fulfils the duties of a nursery governess, takes them into the nursery for their morning lessons; prepares them for the mid-day meal which is usually their dinner and superintends its service; accompanies them in an afternoon walk in mild weather, re-dressing and undressing them as before; settling them down for their afternoon nap, preparing them for and giving them their tea and after tea superintending their amusement in the nursery, washing them and preparing them for bed. Besides these duties she will have to keep a watchful eye upon the children's wardrobe and employ a busy needle in its service. The nurse-maid's duties are simple, but they are very important to the proper training of young children in the habits of cleanliness, truthfulness and honesty. The nurse

should be cheerful in disposition, fond of children and exercise a wise and patient tact in dealing with them. A firm will, a word that is never broken, and a kind manner are the best aids in discipline. "Little pitchers have long ears", and things should never be said in the presence of children which are not meant to go further. Children should never be allowed to hear their parents criticised from a servant's point of view.

The Nursery Governess.—The duties of a nursery governess vary according to the practises of households. In some cases she has the whole charge of the children including their elementary instruction, in other cases she supplements the nurse's work, being responsible only for the teaching and for such other of the nurse's lighter duties as may be arranged. With the multiplication of servants comes division and subdivision of labour, and though where a full staff of servants is kept, strict lines of demarcation are often observed, any modification of a full staff involves re-arrangement of duties and general agreement as to their discharge.

The Law of Master and Servant.—This is, of course, a very wide subject—so wide that only the merest outline can be given of it. An outline will, however, be quite sufficient to show the principles which the law applies in determining the relations between master and servant, and these principles can be easily applied to particular cases by persons who have little or no special knowledge of law.

I. **The Hiring.**—If there be an express contract between master and servant, it must of course be made either in writing or by word of mouth. It must be in writing if the period of time for which the service is to last exceeds a year; and, supposing the contract were for the life of the servant, it is possible a court might hold it to be invalid unless it were made by deed. For any space of time less than a year the agreement may be, and usually is, effected by word of mouth. It need not be pointed out how desirable it is to fix quite clearly the duration of the service, and the amount of wages to be paid. Common sense ought to suggest this reflection to every one, but it very frequently happens that serious disputes arise on these elementary grounds. If there is no express contract, but only what is called a general hiring, custom determines the duration of the service. Thus, an editor, in the absence of a specific agreement, is entitled to a year's notice. A general hiring of a clerk is a yearly hiring, terminating by three months' notice or three months' salary. A general hiring of a menial or domestic servant is for twelve months, but the service is determinable by a month's notice, or its equivalent in wages. It has been held, by the way, that the housekeeper of a large hotel is not a menial servant, and cannot be dismissed on a month's notice in the absence of express agreement. The fact that the wages are payable at a longer or shorter period may afford a presumption as to the length of notice required, but the principle is, that custom and custom alone regulates the question of notice where no specific agreement has been made between the parties. The measure of damages, in an action for wrongful dismissal, is found by considering what is the usual rate of wages for the employment contracted for, and what time would be lost before a similar employment could be obtained. The law considers that employment in any ordinary branch of industry can be obtained by a person competent for the place, that the usual rate of wages for such employment can be proved, and that when a promise for continuing employment is broken by the master, it is the duty of the servant to use diligence to find another situation. If this could not be done without some delay, and if in the broken contract the payment were fixed on a higher scale than usual, the damages ought to be so fixed as to compensate for the loss of wages during the delay, and for the difference between the new wages and the old. This and nothing more would be the measure of the damages.

II. **The Relation between Master and Servant**—For certain purposes the servant becomes the agent of the master. Whether the servant has the power to bind his master by his contracts turns wholly upon a matter of fact, the nature of the instructions and authority given to the servant. For instance, if I send my servant to a shop to buy me a five-shilling book, I give him the money to pay for it, and I have no account at the shop. The man, we will suppose, gets the book on credit, and spends the money at the nearest public-house. I am not liable for the price of the book, for it was the shopkeeper's duty to find out if my servant had authority to pledge my credit. On the other hand, if I were in the habit of sending him to the shop to get goods on credit, and I gave him on a special occasion money to pay, which money he misapplies, I am liable. The servant was what is called a general agent, authorised to pledge my credit. A servant is entitled to his wages when he is disabled through illness. A master is not bound to provide medicine and medical attendance for his servants, unless they be apprentices; but if the servant is under his roof, and the master sends for a doctor, the master is liable in the absence of a special agreement. The master is liable for the injuries suffered by his servants, if these injuries are due to his negligence, or to that of his agents. The difficulty in the case of "accidents" is to prove negligence. A master has, it is said, the right to reasonably chastise his apprentices, provided this form of compulsory education be not excessive; but police-magistrates, if asked to hear a case of assault and battery, would probably hold very divergent ideas of what "reasonable" chastisement means.

III. **The Determination of the Hiring.**—When notice is given by a master to his servant, it is not necessary that he should assign any reason for giving it. There are many causes indeed which will justify the determination of the contract, without any notice whatever, such as when the servant unlawfully absents himself from his work; when he is incompetent to perform the services he has contracted and undertaken to render: when he neglects or refuses to obey his master's orders; and when he has been guilty of gross moral misconduct and habitual neglect of his work. In such cases he can only sue for the wages which have actually accrued due, and if he is paid monthly, and is dismissed in the middle of the month, he cannot recover the fortnight's wages. He has, I need scarcely say, a remedy if he is wrongfully treated, in an action for unlawful dismissal. A master is not bound to give a servant a character; but, if he does, he is bound to state what he considers to be the strict truth. A false character wilfully given may be the ground of an action for libel or slander; but if the person giving the character believes it to be true, and gave it honestly and fairly, without exaggeration, it is a privileged communication, and no action lies.

The Spring cleaning.—House-cleaning should have no fixed date, but be held entirely subject to the weather. No one, as she values her health and comfort, and the health and comfort of her family, should think of spring cleaning before the middle of April, and not then unless the weather is settled, and gives full assurance that spring has come to stay. The first or second week in May is often early enough. The best way is to go to work mildly, when everything seems propitious, doing "here a little and there a little," until every place becomes part of a renovated whole. Still it may sometimes happen that the work cannot be done in a leisurely fashion. Extra help can be had only at such a time and for so long, so the work of going over the whole house must be done in a certain time. Even when such is the case there is no need of tearing up the entire house at once, hurricane fashion; for to take one or two rooms at a time makes the work much less trying, and disposes of it quite as rapidly. From garret to basement is the order of the day. Various

stowaways in the uppermost region of the house must have an airing, and an examination thorough enough to prove that moths have not commenced ruinous ravages must be made in the old chests, trunks, and boxes which hold extra bedding and clothes.

The Bedrooms.—Everything should be removed from the bedrooms which have been in constant use during the winter. The closets should be cleaned first, and, if possible, the day before the room, or it might even be done several days before. All the clothes should be removed from the closet, and hung out in the air and sun and left there all day; the boxes, etc., removed from the shelves, and looked over, and all the odds and ends—which will accumulate because one does not quite like to throw them away—relentlessly disposed of. If the walls are of hard finish they should be washed over with tepid water. If they are papered they can be rubbed over with a dry cloth and cleaned with stale bread. If the shelves and floors are washed with clear lime-water they will remain delightfully white and pure all the summer. A closet floor should never be carpeted. If the floor is old, oilcloth of a light colour may be put over it; and if the closet is a very large one which is made to answer partly for a dressing-room, a rug may be added.

Cleaning Glass, etc.—The glass over pictures should be cleaned with dry whiting and a woollen cloth. Carved brackets or shelves should have the dust removed from them with a soft brush, and afterwards be well rubbed with a little linseed oil and a woollen cloth. The mirror should be rubbed over with whiting. The mattresses and bedding should be put out where they can have the benefit of air and sun. The carpet is taken up after all the furniture is removed, and put out on the grass to be cleaned. The floors are then swept, and the walls wiped off with a small bag of wheat bran. The windows should be washed with cold water, in which soda has been put. The soda will remove all spots and stains from the glass, and keep it from having a smoky look. Soap should never be used on glass. Clean brass knobs and rods with rotten-stone and sweet oil; or, if the brass is badly tarnished, rub it with a cotton rag, dipped in a solution of oxalic acid; wash off the acid, and polish with whiting. **Moths in carpets.**—The floor should be mopped over with hot water and soap, or with clean lime-water. After it is dry, and before the carpet is put down, wash it round for a distance of six or eight inches from the walls, with a mixture of equal parts of turpentine and camphor, to destroy and keep away the moths. If matting is to take the place of the carpet, the latter should be folded up, and sheets of blotting paper wet with the mixture of turpentine and camphor laid between the folds. If it is then put in a large store box which has been papered over on the inside, and a newspaper with turpentine and camphor placed over the top, it will be secure from moths. After the carpet or matting is put down there is nothing left to do but bring back and arrange the furniture and various trifles, which, as they are all cleaned and dusted, rubbed up and polished, will take but a little while. It is a good plan, if it can be arranged, to let the mattresses and pillows have a few days' sunning. A hair mattress should be thoroughly dusted off with a whisk broom, then gone over again with the whisk broom dampened. The pillows should be washed off with a brush dipped in hot water. A feather bed can be treated in the same manner. If the tick needs washing, scrub it with warm soap-suds, rinse well with clear water, and dry in the sun. It is well to be sure that the pillows and bed are perfectly dry before putting them in use again. **Whitewash.**—If the ceilings are to be whitewashed, it should be done while the carpets are up and the curtains down.

The Reception Rooms.—After the upper stories have been finished, the lower floor comes in for its share of attentions. The same plan—one or two rooms at a time, and each article cleaned as it is taken from its place—should be

followed. If the woodwork is of varnished wood, it will need no cleaning, except rubbing off with clear cold water, or perhaps with linseed oil. If it has been grained and varnished, it may be cleaned in the same way; and if the varnish is marred and scratched, it can be restored to its former good looks by applying turpentine and linseed oil, equal parts of each, well mixed together, and rubbed in with a silk or woollen cloth.

Furniture Polish.—A very good polish for furniture is equal parts of sweet oil, turpentine, and vinegar, mixed together, and applied with a sponge or woollen cloth. **Stains in Mahogany,** may be taken out by the use of spirits of salts and salt of lemons, six parts of the former to one of the latter; mix, and put a few drops on the stains, then rub until the stain is removed.

Moths in Furniture.—If there is any reason to suspect that moths have made inroads in upholstered furniture, it should be sprinkled with benzine. The benzine is put in a small watering pot, such as is used for sprinkling house plants, and the upholstered parts of the furniture thoroughly saturated with the fluid. It does not spot the most delicate silk, the unpleasant odour passes off after an hour or two in the air, and it will completely exterminate the moths. After the moths have been attended to, the wood part of the furniture may be polished with the mixture given above. It is particularly good for polishing mahogany furniture.

Cellars.—Although the cellar comes last, it should receive the most careful attention. Apple and vegetable bins ought always to be made movable, and should now be taken out, scrubbed with soap and water, and left out in the sun for several days. Hanging shelves and cupboards should first be scrubbed with soap, and then be washed off with lime water, and the ceiling and walls whitewashed with a wash made of lime and water to ensure a thorough purifying.

The Restoration of Furniture, including Purifying, Re-Polishing, Re-Stuffing, and the Re-Covering of Chairs, Couches, Settees, and Other Upholstered Goods; the Renovation and Re-Polishing of Sildeboards, Book-cases, Cabinets, Tables, or other pieces of Furniture; Re-Lacquering of Bedsteads, the Purifying and Re-Making of Bedding; Re-Silvering and Re-Gilding Chimney or other Glasses, Cornices, Console Tables, Jardinieres, Picture-frames, and the like, as well as every other description of work incident to the renovation of furniture upon alteration or change of residence is now undertaken by the best furnishing houses and thus the Resources of large Factories, with varied machinery and skilled workmen are made available for work at one time relegated to jobbing houses. A large variety of Materials for Re-Covering purposes can also as a rule be selected from; and all waste in cutting can be carefully avoided. Written Estimates, can be had beforehand for this work including the Cleaning and Re-Dyeing of Carpets, Curtains, Coverings, Blinds, &c., also the chemical cleaning of Upholstered Furniture, without removing the coverings; a, process admirably adapted for Saddle-bags and similar textures.

Making Beds.—In the first place, it is desirable to have a good bed to make. One excellent housekeeper assures us that she has no spring beds in her house, and yet her beds are considered incomparable. This seems hard to believe. Spring beds certainly seem to most people the best foundation to sleep on. There is great choice between the different kinds in vogue, but the length of one's purse generally decides the question of which to get, and a very fair one may be purchased for a moderate sum. Then, if possible, get a thin mattress of wool or cotton, or even straw, to place just above the springs. If more convenient, put a pair of old blankets, or a clean (if time-worn) comfortable one in the place of this thin mattress, the prime object of which is to protect the thick, main mattress from the springs or woven wire which form the foundation upon which we are building. If possible, have for the *pièce de resistance* a good

hair mattress. This mattress should be turned over every day, being made in two parts, in order that this may be the more easily done. Place a blanket between the mattress and the lower sheet, which like all sheets, should be three yards long and two yards and a half wide. Tuck it in first at the top, then at the bottom, then at the sides. "Tuck" does not mean a vague fumbling about in the crack between the mattress and the bedstead. It means a raising up of the former, and a smooth and firm laying of a portion of the sheet—enough to hold it well in place—beneath. The upper sheet should be first tucked in at the bottom. The blankets and counterpane should then be added, and the eiderdown "extra," when such is used, laid neatly across the foot of the bed. Tuck everything in carefully, and you will have made a bed that would make even a tossing "insomniant" rest comfortably, though he could not sleep. The main thing is to lay smoothly the portion of the sheets and blankets to be "tucked" under the mattress, instead of pushing it in a wrinkled wad down between the mattress and bedstead, to be readily displaced when a nervous sleeper turns himself about, and to yield untold discomforts, colds, and nightmares by exposing his bare feet to the outer air, or almost as much discomfort by bringing them in contact with the rough woollen coverings above the sheet. In the morning throw off every particle of the bedding in such a way that fresh outside air, and, if possible, the sunshine shall penetrate every portion of it. Do not allow the bed to be made up for at least an hour—better six hours—after taking it to pieces, and insist upon its being made with equal care every day of the year. Use cotton sheets in winter, and, if practicable, linen ones in summer. Above all things—do not allow the blankets to be put on with the doubled end at the head. They should be adjusted so that one thickness can be readily thrown back if the sleeper so desires. Limitless annoyance has been often caused by neglecting this simple rule. If a feather bed is used, it should be placed on top of a firm, good mattress of almost any reliable kind, and should be even more industriously aired and turned than other kinds. The experienced feather-bed maker knows exactly how to poke and punch the refractory mass of billowy softness into proper shape; but the "green hand" will often find, upon lying down to rest, that, in spite of well-meant efforts to provide different things, the heels are higher than the head. As for pillows, the large, stuffy objects under that name, which are so much affected now-a-days, cannot be so good as softer and lower ones. It cannot be that man was intended to sleep sitting up. Given a clear conscience and a good digestion, a bed such as we have described, and have metaphorically made up, is warranted to yield a comfortable night's sleep.

Moving.—Nothing can be made more difficult, more perplexing and heart-breaking, than moving, if only certain conditions are observed. It makes no difference how early you begin to tear up the old house; how thoroughly you clean the new one; how well you pack—your moving will still be a torture and a terror, unless you work more steadily with your brains than with your hands. The woman, then, who wishes to leave one house and establish herself in a new one with as little sense of upheaval and ruinous volcanic action as possible, is wise if, in the first place, she has her new house thoroughly cleaned, and, not trusting to the owner or agent's assurance that it is in "perfect order," has the kitchen-range, the heater, the water and gas-pipes examined, so that the workmen may not descend on her, and all necessary repairs be started on the first washingday in her new home. The next step is to have her carpets taken up, cleaned, and put down in the empty house—excepting, of course, that for the hall and stairs. The pictures can be hung at the same time. In these days of Pantechnicons and scientific carriage we avoid a great deal of the troubel

and inconvenience suffered by our parents in the extensive packing operations in which they were involved in "flitting" from place to place, but even in these days of removal without packing there are many things which householders will prefer to pack, and there may be many cases in which the Pantechnicon system may not be conveniently available.

Packing.—In packing, or in carrying without packing, the work should be systematically done. Generally speaking the small things will be better packed and the larger things will be better removed without. Gather up all the ornaments, bric-a-brac, and pack them by themselves in marked boxes, so that they may be easily identified and need not be unpacked to find out what they are. Pack the books in order, if possible keeping the shelves separate and marking the packages so that you will know the contents of one shelf from another. Pack up all the superfluous china, bedding, table covers and other things. Mark every bag, bundle, and box to save confusion. Have your furniture put into bagging or protected in any way you think best, and if necessary, mark the articles "Breakfast parlour", "Dining-room", etc., etc., so that they may be delivered directly into the right room on arrival. Pack away everything not absolutely necessary for present use, and be as free from other duties as you can when moving-day comes.

Carrying.—In moving it is common for the timid housekeeper to ask the carman what he will take first. This is a mistake, for the carman will invariably prefer his own convenience to yours. The best way is to insist, where possible, in having the contents of each floor moved separately. If this is done and the articles properly marked, so that the wayfaring man though extemporised carman cannot err, then there ought to be no difficulty in delivering the goods properly. If you leave everything to the carman you will probably have two moves instead of one, one from house to house and another from room to room. He may or may not make a large load, but in every one he is bound to get a specimen from each floor. He leaves the looking-glass in the second story, and his assistant rushes up into the third story and jerks one from the bureau there, and then in the new house he puts both in the sitting-room. He never takes two articles from the same floor if he can help it, and he never puts anything in its natural and obvious place. With the plan suggested, the carpets laid and the pictures hung before the day of moving, and the heavy furniture delivered directly into its proper place on arrival, the work of getting straight in a new house becomes comparatively simple and easy. Remember that among the earliest requirements of the new habitation will be means of obtaining food, lighting, and sleeping and so arrange that the aids to all these shall be early available. Do not flatter yourself that you will remember the contents of all your bundles, bags, parcels, boxes, barrels, tubs, and packages. You will not. There is only one way to avoid endless confusion in such matters, and that is to mark the contents of each package upon the outside.

The Store Room.—In house-keeping as in most other things "the unexpected always happens" and the skill and patience of the housekeeper are often severely taxed when she finds herself suddenly called upon to provide for welcome but unexpected guests. To be forewarned is to be forearmed, but too often the housekeeper has to take the field without warning, and then everything depends upon her storage of ammunition. The store room is the arsenal of the household, and the first duty of the housekeeper in this department of her work is to keep a well selected store upon which she can fall back in the hour of need.

Prejudice in the Store Room.—We begin to think in a way before we begin to learn. The result is that when we begin to learn we have always more or less of prejudice to get over or unlearn. The housekeeper has many of these prejudices to overcome and oftentimes long after the professional cook has given

up some old plan and the best caterers have taken to a new device, the housekeeper will obstinately refuse to avail herself of the convenience afforded her by the new way, and plod on under the load of disadvantages which handicapped the good old days. To follow a course because it is old is but one degree less foolish than to adopt one because it is new. What we want to do is to bring unbiassed intelligence to bear upon all subjects, and apply mature judgment, not prejudice which is immature judgment, to all methods. One of the ways in which the labours of housekeepers have been greatly lightened of late years, and the convenience of households largely facilitated, has been the success with which various kinds of foods have been prepared and preserved in tins. That tinned goods are largely overcoming the prejudice with which they were first received is of course true, to help which we give the following opinion of an expert.

Common sense about tinned goods.—I maintain, says Mr. A. G. Payne, author of "Common Sense Cookery" that there was never a case of any harm accruing from using tinned meats, except from the ignorance and stupidity of the user. We never hear of a case of injury from cooking food in a well tinned saucepan! In using copper vessels the danger arises from the tin wearing off. Yet at the same time you would not leave your soup or gravy in the saucepan to get cold even for one night. What would you think of a cook who boiled a piece of salmon, let it get cold in the saucepan, and remain there for a week? And yet this is the way people commonly treat tinned salmon, lobster, potted fish and meat. You will go to your fishmonger and buy a fresh lobster, and you will, perhaps, speak to the cook as follows: We had better finish up the remains of the lobster for breakfast to-morrow, for it won't keep. The same, too, with a fresh piece of boiled salmon. Then why do you expect the poor tinned lobster or salmon to behave any better? Directly the tin is opened, and the air gets in, of course the perfectly fresh lobster or salmon is as liable to get bad as any other similar fish that has not been tinned. Suppose you boil a piece of salmon and leave it a week in the saucepan. Suppose it makes you ill, can you honestly blame the fishmonger? Certainly not. Suppose you open a tin of salmon, and leave the fish in the tin, too often in a warm sideboard, not a cool larder—if you get ill from eating this, can you blame your grocer? Certainly not. If you act sensibly there is no danger whatever. Open the tin and turn out the contents, then treat the contents like any other fresh meat or fish, and remember that having been in a tin has not endowed it with some magical power of keeping good for ever. There are, I believe, hundreds of good housekeepers who would feel shocked at the idea of leaving the soup all night in the tin saucepan, who yet have failed through sheer thoughtlessness to give their tinned goods a fair chance. Yet there is, perhaps, no modern invention, which has been so useful for domestic purposes, than the preserved food of all kinds—fish, flesh and fowl, as well as fruit and vegetables. Our great-grandmothers had nothing to fall back upon but ham and eggs. With a modest store cupboard reasonably supplied there should be no difficulty in dealing with any likely emergency. Take for instance the following example.

A Housekeeper's Dilemma.—A really good housekeeper says Mr. A. G. Payne, is never taken by surprise. It may perhaps be urged that under some circumstances the best of housekeepers would be helpless. For instance, dinner may have been prepared for two, and your husband brings home someone unexpectedly from the city. You are some way from the shops, you have no one to send out, and, alas! the dinner consists of two whiting, two nice chops, and two roasted apples. A capital dinner certainly for two, but a dreadfully awkward one for three. What is to be done in a case like this? In the first place I am imagining a very

rare case. It is very seldom that there are no remains of previous joints, still it does occasionally happen that really good housekeepers try to have what they call "a clear house." Still, this "clear house," properly speaking, should apply only to the larder and not to the housekeeper's store cupboard. But I have left our housekeeper in an awkward fix. She has her two whiting and two chops, with nothing but the store cupboard to fall back upon; and if, on the present occasion, the cupboard be bare, the poor dog unexpectedly brought home, will, I fear, have none.

Making the best of it.—Every store cupboard, should always contain at least a soup, an *entrèe*, a sweet, and an extra dish for dessert, besides one or two vegetables. There are, of course, preserved soups to be had of almost every description. These are kept in tins, and vary in price from sevenpence to one shilling each; but I would particularly call the attention of housekeepers to the excellent soup that can be made in a quarter of an hour from Crosse and Blackwell's Extract of Meat. If you have a few odds and ends—onion being essential—of vegetables in the house, you can proceed as follows: take a pint of hot water and place it in a saucepan to boil up, then cut up very fine indeed a small onion, a piece of celery, a little carrot, etc., and throw these pieces into the boiling water, and let them boil for at least a quarter of an hour, add a little chopped parsley, pepper, salt, and a dessert spoonful of extract of meat. If you have eggs in the house, three poached eggs (poached separately), can be added at the last moment. If you have a tin of clear soup, a little extract of meat dissolved in it will greatly improve it, and the eggs can be added to the tinned soup as well as any other. If you open a tin of thick soup, if possible add a little extract of meat, a little brown roux to make it thicker, or a little butter and flour mixed together, and about a tablespoonful of sherry. I will, however, first suppose the cupboard to contain the following not very extravagant articles, in addition to the ordinary store of marmalade, pickles, pepper, mustard, etc.; a tin of soup; a tin of meat—say curry: a tin of sardines, a tin of peas, a tin of asparagus, another of apricots or peaches, and one or two little extra dessert dishes. I will also suppose the house to contain a piece of raw bacon for frying. It is also possible that you may have by you a glass of pressed Russian caviare, or perhaps a bottle of tomato sauce or tomato conserve.

An Impromptu Menu.—You now have the choice of a variety of dishes, and can send up, almost directly, a really good dinner. Were I the housekeeper I should direct the cook to go to work as follows, and if possible give a little help;—first, put on a cupful of rice to boil; next, see to the soup, if it is to be made from extract of meat, or else warm up the soup in the tin, in which case we can put the tin of soup as well as the tin of vegetables in a saucepan of boiling water, as all tinned goods can be made hot before they are opened. Now, how about our bill of fare? We have our choice of the following dishes.

Hors-d'œuvre—Caviare, sardines.
Soup—Clear, with or without poached eggs.
Fish—Whiting, fried, with fried parsley.
Entrée—Curried rabbit, mutton cutlets, tomato sauce.

For I would recommend you, as there are only two whiting and two chops, to fillet the whiting and fry the fillets quickly, and serve them with some fried parsley. Then cut the meat from the mutton chop bone. Cut each chop into two, a good thick chop will make two cutlets. These pieces of meat, viz: four cutlets, no bone, the two under cuts, and the two ends can be fried or grilled and covered with tomato sauce, or better still, tomato conserve. This latter is now sold in small bottles by grocers at 3½d. The curried rabbit or chicken should be turned out of the tin into one dish, and half the boiled rice served with it, only handed

separately and on another dish. Next, to continue our bill of fare—

Entremets—Green peas or asparagus

A few slices of bacon can be fried and served with the peas in the same dish and the bacon fat poured over them; or, supposing we had no eggs with the soup, some hard-boiled eggs can be served hot with the hot asparagus and some oiled butter. These go very well together. It is a common dish abroad, especially in Belgium, though I cannot recollect seeing it in England. Next—

Sucrés—Apples and rice. Apricot compote.

The remainder of the rice can be placed round our homely roast apples. A few preserved cherries can be used to ornament the plain white rice border. The apricots or peaches should be piled up neatly in a glass dish, and they also could be ornamented with cherries, or any other kind of preserved fruit that may happen to be in the house, such as crystalized green almonds, which are capital things to have by you for decorating sweets of all kinds.

Cheese—Next, we probably have some cheese in the house, but a really good housekeeper would in addition have a bottle of grated Parmesan cheese in the store cupboard. Put a little in a glass dish with some parsley round it, and hand it round with some butter.

Dessert—We now come to the dessert, and, as I have supposed our guest or guests to be from the City, *i.e.*, full-grown men, you can place, of course, fancy biscuits, almonds and raisins, apples and oranges, on the table to be looked at, but they will not be eaten. If possible, get a few moist and fresh filberts or walnuts. These are always acceptable. But there is one dessert dish you can have by you which will never fail to please. I refer to mixed fruits, preserved in noyeau or brandy. These are not very expensive. A small glass jar, preserved, can be bought, I think, for about 2s. 6d., and they will last some time. The only drawback to them is that they are so universally liked that everybody always takes some. They are suited, like plovers' eggs for the "receptions" where only the "very best people" go. They would never do for poor relations. Another good and excellent dessert dish is pine apple preserved whole.

Impromptu Dishes. Curried Pilchards.—Take a tin of pilchards from the store-cupboard. Open the tin, and pour the oil into a frying-pan, and place the pilchards in a dish, putting them to warm in a slow oven. In the meanwhile take a dessert spoonful or more of curry powder, moisten it in a little cold water, add it to the oil in the frying pan and stir it up. Next take a little cornflour, and moisten that in a little cold water, and add this, spoonful by spoonful, to the oil and curry powder in the frying-pan over the fire, till the "curry sauce" thus made gets as thick as double cream, pour this over the warm pilchards, which must be kept in the oven long enough to get hot through. If you have any dried bay leaves in the house, mix three or four in the sauce in the frying-pan, and serve them with the fish, whole—this dish, which will do after soup, and is a sort of compromise between fish and an *entrée*, can be got ready by a sharp cook in ten minutes. It is equally good for breakfast, luncheon, dinner, and supper.

An impromptu sweet can be made from a tin of peaches or apricots, at a few moments' notice, if you will always have in the house, *ready* for emergencies, a tin of peaches, and say by you three-pennyworth of preserved cherries, and a like amount of green candied angelica. Open the tin of peaches, pile the peaches up in the dish in the shape of a pyramid. Stick a preserved cherry in each of the holes made by piling up the peaches, cut the angelica into thin strips, and stick them in the peaches, with a few thin strips of white almonds, if you have any. If there is time to boil rice, put a border of rice round the edge. At the last moment of all, pour a little of the syrup, coloured pink with a few drops of cochineal, over the whole.

A Dish of Mince can be made ready in a very short time, by sending some raw meat through a sausage machine, and making it hot in a little gravy. This, with a few poached eggs on the top, is far nicer than mince made from meat previously cooked. The mince should be flavoured like ordinary mince. Good housekeepers, who are liable to be "surprised," should always look ahead, and have one or two tins in the store-cupboard ready for these occasions. The essence of good housekeeping is *Forethought.*

Variety in Food.—Perhaps the greatest difficulty experienced by housekeepers in making out their bill of fare for each day says Mr. A. G. Payne is the want of variety of food. This difficulty is chiefly felt in ordering breakfast; and there are doubtless many thousands of families who all the year round depend upon bacon boiled or bacon fried for their morning meal. Marmalade is another stock-dish, and, to quote the label on the pot, it is no doubt "an excellent substitute for butter at breakfast though it is often taken in addition." Here again housekeepers need to remember the various kinds of potted and preserved meats that can be obtained from nearly all grocers, and which have greatly improved of late years. Sixpenny tins can be obtained of potted bloater paste, devilled ham, beef, ham, ham and chicken, Strasbourg meat, tongue, turkey and tongue, paté au diable, game, lobster, salmon, shrimp paste, &c., &c. At a rather higher rate, varying from a shilling to one-and-sixpence upwards, we can have game patés in tins, Oxford brawn, ham and chicken patés, pork patés, veal and ham patés, savoury patés, &c.; and we can go on in an ascending scale till we reach paté-de-foie-gras, patés of larks, woodcocks, snipe, quails, partridges, plovers, all of which are truffled, and can be had in small tins as low as two-shillings-and-sixpence. These are not only great and inexpensive aids to variety, but are also invariable helps in emergency, and hence indispensable properties of the store room.

Seasons of Foods. Meat.—Beef and Mutton are in season all the year round; Veal from February to November; Lamb from March or April to August.; Pork from September to April. **Poultry.**—Chickens are in season from February to October and Fowls all the year round; Ducklings from February to August, and Ducks from August to February; Geese from September to February; Larks from October to December, Pigeons from August to April; Rabbits may be procured all the year round, but they are best during the autumn and winter. Turkeys may be obtained from October to March. **Game.**—The season for Blackcock begins in August and ends in November; Wild Duck is seasonable from November to February; Grouse from August to November: Hares are in season from September to March; Leverets in August and September; Partridges from September to February; Pheasants, Plovers, Snipe, Teal, Widgeon and Woodcock from October to February; Ptarmigan from September to April; Quail from September to February; Venison from September to January. **Fish.**—Bloaters are best from September to February; Cod is in season from November to March. Dory all the year round; Eels are seasonable from June to March; Flounders and Halibut all the year round; Haddocks from August to February; Herrings from May to January; Mackerel are best from April to July; Mullet can be procured all the year; Plaice are best from May to November; Salmon and Shad in the summer; Smelts in the winter, and Soles from April to July; Sprats continue in season from November to March; Sturgeon from April to September; Trout from February to September; Turbot all the year; Whitebait from January to September and Whitings all the year round; Crabs are not so good in May, June and July; Crayfish and Lobsters are in season all the year; Mussels from January to April; Oysters from September to April; Prawns are best from May to December; Shrimps from April to November; Scallops are in season from

January to June. **Fruit.**—English Apples and Pears are seasonable from October to March; Apricots and Strawberries from June to September; Cherries from June to August; Currants and Gooseberries from July to September; Damsons, Nectarines, Peaches, and Quinces in September and October; Hot-house Grapes from September to December, but Foreign Grapes all the year round; Greengages, August and September; Medlars from October to January; Melons from June to November; Oranges are good from November to May; Plums last from August to October; Rhubarb is best in March and April. **Vegetables.**—Artichokes are seasonable from July to October; Jerusalem Artichokes, from November to February; Asparagus is in season from January to July; Broad Beans come in July and last till August; French Beans, May to November; Scarlet Runners, July to October; Beetroot; although best in the autumn is seen for sale all the year; Brocoli of different kinds are seasonable all the year; Brocoli-sprouts from January to May; Cabbages, all the year; Red Cabbages, from October to February; Carrots all the year; Cauliflowers from April to July; Celery is in season from October to March; Endive from September to November; and Horse-radish all the year; Lettuces are best in July and August; Onions and potatoes are always procurable; New Potatoes come in May; we get Radishes from May to September; Sea-Kale from January to May; Savoys from October to March; Spinach all the year; Tomatoes from June to September; Vegetable Marrow from June to October and Watercress all the year, although it is best in Summer.

Seasonable Regimen.—Healthy living, says the *Medical Times*, is under all circumstances and for all people very largely a matter of habit and custom; but no one who has experienced the ease and comfort with which, week after week, a good day's work may be accomplished under a tropical sun when the mid-day meal consists of nothing more substantial than a slice of bread and half-a-dozen bunches of grapes, will deny the advantages which accrue from a liberal infusion of the vegetable element into a hot weather dietary. In England we can never enjoy the flavour of an orange, ripened to perfection on the tree, and shaken, with the dew upon it, from the bough during the stroll before breakfast; but during the summer months we can add to that meal, with economy both of health and purse, some at least of the garden fruits whose best uses we are apt to overlook, as well as the small saladings which make an intermittent appearance at the table. At luncheon again, fruit—always sound and not over ripe, of course—and salad will advantageously form the staple of the *menu;* and the habit of eating fruits with cream or milk enables us to introduce into the system a good supply of light and easily assimilated nourishment with more ease and pleasure than attends the ingestion of some of the grosser forms of food. Dinner is, for most of us, best taken when the brunt of the day's work is over, and should be the most substantial meal. But at dinner fruit is almost invariably offered at the wrong time. The dessert which appears on the table from the beginning, "to lure the appetite from course to course," might well take the place of the soup with which the meal commences. Certainly the most unphysiological and undesirable time for attempting the digestion of raw fruit is at the end of a substantial meal; and it is not the digestive powers only which would benefit by a reversal of our customs in this respect. Fashion and tradition, however, are forces not to be modified at once; and perhaps it will not be until the unremunerative character of some of our older branches of agriculture has driven the English farmer to adopt fruit growing on a large scale, that we shall allow ourselves to appreciate the advantages of that dietetic programme which year after year Nature patiently unfolds before our eyes. Come when it may, we need not fear that our countrymen of that age will suffer in

mind or in body by the change—in temper or in temperance—though the status of their national roast beef be somewhat jeopardised thereby.

Quenching thirst.—Fluids in arge proportion, says Julia Colman, in *Good Health*, are essential to the normal working of the human system. The food must be dissolved, and the saliva, the gastric, pancreatic, and intestinal juices, almost as fluid as water, are freely poured out during this process. The blood carries it to its destination, and keeps the living particles in moist, working condition; and when they are used up and thrown out the blood carries them away. Through the breath, urine, and perspiration, large quantities of fluid carry much of the waste matter out of the system. It is estimated that seven-eighths of the healthy human body are water. How to supply this water safely and in the best manner is a problem well worthy of our careful attention when we consider what fearful mistakes the human family has made in this line.

Water is the most obvious source of supply, but even water requires to be used with discrimination. The running water of large sections of country is greatly impaired for drinking and cooking purposes by the large proportion of lime and other minerals held in solution. We have continual and frightful warnings of the ease and frequence with which water is contaminated in wells by sewage and drainage of various sorts. Rain-water cannot easily be kept pure a long time in reservoirs. Filters are expensive, and not always available for hard water. Freezing does not always purify perfectly, and ice-water is not the safest of drinks, nor the most wholesome. And when large quantities of drink are demanded by rapid perspiration, simple water, even of the best quality, is not found to answer the purpose satisfactorily, as even the most temperate hayers and harvesters practically acknowledge every year.

Fruit.—But this is not all the provision we can safely make in the line of drink. There are such delightful sources of supply in nature, so admirably fitted to cover the whole question—natty little bottles and flasks of the most wholesome, satisfactory, and agreeable fluids—that we wonder they are not sung and praised and talked about far more than they are. We refer, of course, to the juicy fruits which grow more or less abundantly in warm or cold climates, as they are more or less needed or cultivated. Many of those in cold climates are capable of preservation in their own envelopes for use during the unproductive season; while some of those in the tropics, like oranges and lemons, hang on the trees ready for use the whole year. It is no hyperbole to call these precious receptacles of the most delightful liquids, in their curiously devised skins, bottles and flasks; while some of the melons might be called little barrels, in which the charmingly flavoured fluids are stored up in the most portable and inviting form to wait our convenience for days, weeks, and in some cases for months; and then to grace our tables with their bright colours and exquisite shapes, so that art, with all her bright array of glasses and decanters, has never been able to equal them. And then how much more portable! Many sorts can be carried in the pocket or the reticule without danger of breaking; they can be taken in bags or baskets, while the more delicate are easily preserved in cans without any previous expense for fermentation and refining! All this may be poetical enough, but it is also practical. It comes into our every-day life, and it could and should do so much more than it does. If fruits were used more freely, there would be far less thirst. They should be on the table, either cooked or in a natural state, at every meal. A free use of stewed fruits would enable us much more readily to dispense with tea, coffee, and other drinks with our meals; and the fruits are far more wholesome.

Drinking at meals.—One of the greatest objections to drinking at meals is that it prevents the flow of saliva, but the use of fruits promotes it most

freely. Fruits can be used without salt, and commonly they are so used (excepting in the case of tomatoes), a fact which is much in their favour. They make the best kind of a dessert, and should usually be made to take the place of pies and puddings. Some prefer to take them at the commencement of a meal, especially taking an apple or an orange as the first item for breakfast. This is a most commendable practice, and an excellent promoter of the appetite. Those who find a light supper better than a hearty meal can often improve on it by taking only a banana or a baked apple or two; and if it is necessary to sit at the tea-table for social reasons, the conventional dish of fruit can furnish the dietetic substance of the sociability.

Fruit juices also make excellent and natural condiments. A great variety of fruits, especially stewed fruits, can be used with bread to the exclusion of butter. Pies and puddings can be flavoured with lemon juice, and the juices of canned fruits, especially plums. Most delicious pudding sauces can be made from the juices of grapes, oranges, or strawberries, flavoured with pine-apple, etc. The taste soon becomes accustomed to these delicate and refined flavours, especially if the sharp condiments are discarded, and this removes a great exciting cause of thirst, and promotes health, to which all strong condiments are prejudicial.

Fruit v. Water.—Another most noteworthy point in which the free use of fruits is superior to much water-drinking is in the case of the traveller, with whom the water of any new locality is likely to disagree. A free use of fruit will enable the traveller to dispense entirely with any kind of drink, and yet be abundantly supplied with the requisite fluids. People passing through malarious regions, or even living in them, will find the use of fruits a great safeguard. Farmers, and other people who use much drink in hot weather, will find fruit juices, especially lemon juice, much better than vinegar and ginger to mix with the water they drink. (If these are not available, fine oatmeal, mixed in the proportion of a table-spoonful to a tumbler of water, is much more satisfactory than the water alone, because it is food as well as drink.)

Safe Drinking.—The safety of these methods is great, because the person who pursues them thoroughly has his thirst so fully satisfied that he ordinarily does not wish to drink anything. Many people who have tried it faithfully say they do not drink anything for months together. Some of them even contend that man is not naturally a drinking animal; that in view of the great variety and abundance of juicy fruits, the ease with which they can be raised, and the fact that man's original employment was the cultivation of fruits, these afford the best, and under ordinary conditions the only, necessary means for quenching thirst. It is very possible that originally these formed the main supply of the necessary fluids of the human system; and that man, instead of eating the fruits, perverted the gift by expressing the juices and drinking them, and in trying to preserve them in that shape for drink first learned and practised the art of using fermented and other alcoholic drinks. Whether this be true or not, we certainly can learn wisdom by the things they and we have suffered in the line of using fermented fruit juices; and it will be a piece of practical wisdom on our part to avoid all unnecessary causes of thirst, and to take our fruit drinks in the original package, as put up by Dame Nature herself.

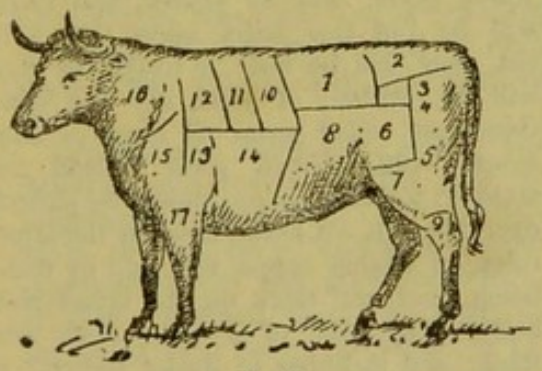
Alcohol.—The *Lancet* gives the following summary of a portion of Sir William Gull's evidence before the Select Committee of the House of Lords on intemperance: Sir William thought that a moderately healthy person, so far from being benefited by alcohol, would be injured as regards the intellect. All alcohol, and all things of an alcoholic nature, injure the nerve tissues *pro tempore*, if not altogether; and are certainly deleterious to the health. I should say from my experience that alcohol is the most destructive agent that we are aware

of in this country. I think there is a great deal of injury being done by the use of alcohol in what is supposed by the consumer to be a most moderate quantity to people who are not in the least intemperate, to people supposed to be fairly well. It leads to degeneration of tissues. It spoils the health, and it spoils the intellect. . . I do not think it is known how alcohol acts on the human body, but I know it is a most deleterious poison. I would like to say that a very large number of people in society are dying day by day poisoned by alcohol, but not supposed to be poisoned by it. I should not be afraid to stop it altogether, in most cases. I should think it highly desirable to stop it altogether. It produces many diseases of the liver, from which arise disordered conditions of the blood, then diseased kidneys, diseased nervous system, or gout, or diseased heart. I hardly know any more potent cause of disease than alcohol. Sir William condemned absolutely all drinking between meals; also 'the eleven o'clock beer' of servants. He magnified water as 'of all dilutents and solvents of food the best.' He distinguished carefully between an habitual drunkard and a dipsomaniac—*i.e.*, the case of mental defect leading to drunkenness. He advocated punishing a mere drunkard, and doing it early. He would publish the name of a man found drunk, and if found a second or more times, he would put the number of times opposite his name for public reprobation. Sir William thought that a better knowledge of the disadvantages of stimulants was needed in order to deal with the whole question of drunkenness."

Choosing Meat.—In choosing either beef or mutton, see that the grain is not coarse, and that the meat presents a fresh appearance, soft to the touch. Both beef and mutton, should be hung as long as possible before cooking, to prevent toughness but veal and lamb are best cooked fresh as in hanging the juices evaporate and weight is lost, it is advisable to buy, when possible, meat already hung. In every kind of provisions the best of the sort goes furthest, cuts to the greatest advantage and affords most nourishment. **Beef.**—Young ox beef is considered the best to buy; when fresh it will be of a good red and will have a smooth grain. There should be a good proportion of fat. The grain of cow beef is closer than that of ox beef, and has not such a bright appearance. In meat from an old animal there is a streak of gristle in the ribs of beef, and the harder this is the older the beef. The sirloin and the five first ribs (called the "fore-rib") are considered the best joints for roasting; the next four ribs (called the "middle rib") and the round are more economical joints. The best joints for boiling are the silver side of the round; the brisket —both suitable for salting—and the leg of mutton or shoulder piece. The best steaks are cut from the rump. Gravies are made from the neck, shin, leg, and the roll under the blade-bone. **Mutton.**—Wether mutton which is considered the best to buy, is of a fine grain, a good colour, and has firm white fat. It is not better for being too young. The most economical joint, although sold at a good price, is the leg. Roasting joints are the haunch—the leg and loin without the flap of the loin—the saddle, consisting of the two loins cut together, the breast and the best end of the neck. The best for boiling are the leg, and neck. For making broth the scrag end of the neck is good, and for stews the breast or neck may be well used. Mutton for roasting may hang as long as it remains sweet, but it should never be allowed to become tainted; that for boiling should be cooked quite fresh. **Pork.**—Good young pork will have a thin rind, and when fresh the flesh will be smooth and cool. The principal joints of pork are the leg, loin, foreloin (called by some the griskin) and sparerib and hand. The spring or boneless part under the loin is nearly always pickled. **Veal** should be chosen from an animal the kidneys of which are covered with white thick fat; the vein in the shoulder

looks blue or bright red in a newly killed calf. **Lamb.**—In choosing lamb one can tell whether it is newly killed or not by the vein in the neck, which will be of a bluish colour in fresh meat; the hindquarter will have a faint smell under the kidneys when the meat is stale. Lamb, when small, is often sold in quarters—the hindquarter consisting of the leg and loin, and the forequarter consisting of the neck, breast and shoulder, but later in the season separate joints are easily procurable.

Animal Physiology.—Though it would be too much to expect that the average housekeeper should study animal physiology, a slight knowledge of Anatomy would certainly facilitate the intelligent use of the various joints that supply the table, to say nothing of the advantage it would give in the process of carving. To help those who are beginners in housekeeping, in this direction, the following diagrams and descriptions are given :—

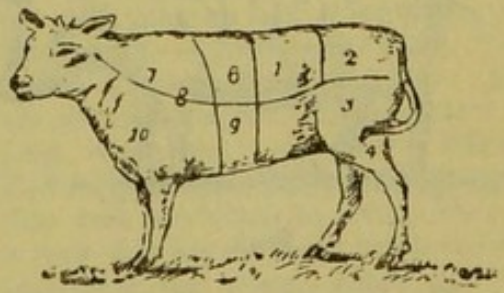


Beef.

Hind-Quarter. 1. Sirloin. 2. Rump. 3. Edge-Bone. 4. Buttock. 5. Mouse-Buttock. 6. Veiny Piece. 7. Thick Flank. 8. Thin Flank. 9. Leg. 10. Fore Rib; (five ribs.)

Fore-Quarter. 11. Middle Rib; (four ribs). 12. Chuck; (three ribs). 13. Shoulder, or Leg of Mutton Piece. 14. Brisket. 15. Clod. 16. Neck or Sticking-Piece. 17. Shin.

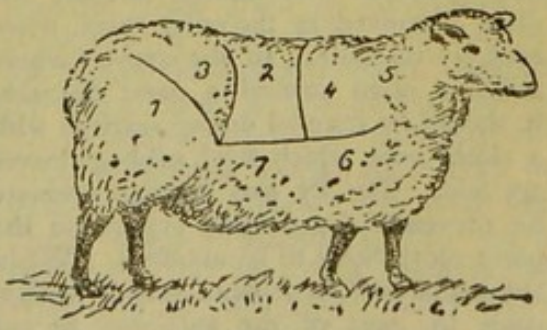
The prime pieces of beef are the Sirloin and the Ribs, the Wing Rib, which is the hindmost, being the most esteemed. These with the Edge or Aitch bone, the Buttock, and the Thick Flank, are roasting joints. The Rump provides prime steaks, of finer flavour and more tender than those from other parts. The Thin Flank is either roasted or stewed, and the Mouse Buttock stewed. The Veiny Piece, Silverside, or Round, is usually salted. The Leg provides soup, gravy, and beef tea. The Shoulder or Leg-of-Mutton Piece supplies stewing-steak or steak for puddings, and the Brisket is usually salted. The Clod, and the Neck or Sticking Piece, are stewed or used in making soup or gravy, as also are the Shin, the Cheek, and the Tail.



Veal.

1. Loin, best End. 2. Loin, Chump End. 3. Fillet. 4. Hind Knuckle. 5. Fore Knuckle. 6. Neck, best End. 7. Neck, Scrag End. 8. Blade Bone. 9. Breast, best End. 10. Breast, Brisket End.

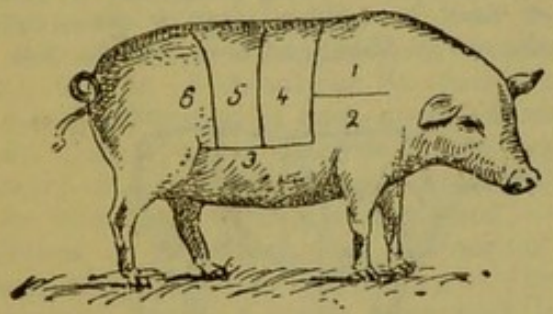
The prime pieces of Veal are the Fillet and the Loin. These with the best end of the Neck, and the Blade Bone, are roasting joints. The Hind Knuckle and the Fore Knuckle are boiled for soup or jelly. The Scrag End of the Neck is stewed. The Breast is either roasted or stewed.



Mutton.

1. Leg. 2. Loin, best End. 3. Loin, Chump End. 4. Neck, best End. 5. Neck, Scrag End. 6. Shoulder. 7. Breast.

The Leg, the Saddle, and the Haunch, are the prime joints of Mutton. These with the shoulder, the Loin, and the best end of the Neck are usually roasted, though the Leg is often boiled and served with caper sauce. The Scrag End of the Neck and the Breast are used for stewing, but the latter is sometimes roasted. A saddle is two Loins, undivided; a Haunch is a Leg and Loin.



Pork.

1. The Sparerib. 2. Hand. 3. Belly or Spring. 4. Fore Loin. 5. Hind Loin. 6. Leg.

The prime joints of the pig are the Hand, the Leg and Fore Loin, and the Sparerib. These are roasting joints. The Hand is either roasted or boiled, the Belly and Spring either salted, roasted, or boiled.

Keeping Meat.—All meat should be carefully examined and wiped with a dry cloth as soon as it comes home. And if flies have blown upon it, the part affected should be cut off. This should be done daily until the meat is dressed as the practice not only serves to preserve the meat long in perfection, but prevents that musty flavour, too often perceived in the outer slices, when brought to table. In the country where meat is often carried a great distance, it should be covered during carriage with a cloth, over which fresh cabbage leaves are laid. The fly may in some measure be prevented by dusting pepper on the parts most likely to be attacked. When sirloins of beef, or loins of veal or mutton come in, part of the suet may be cut off for puddings or to clarify. The fat of a neck or loin of mutton makes a lighter and richer pudding than suet; dripping or clarified suet will baste everything well, except fowls and game, for which butter should be used.

Choosing Poultry, Game, &c. A Turkey-cock.—If young, has a smooth black leg, with a short spur. The eyes will be full and bright, if fresh, and the feet supple and moist. If stale, the eyes will be sunk, and the feet dry. **A Hen-turkey** is tested by the same rules; but if old, her legs will be red and tough. **Fowls.**—If a cock is young, his spurs will be short; they are sometimes cut or pared, to deceive the purchaser. If fresh, the vent will be close and dark. **Pullets** are best just before they begin to lay, when they are full of egg; if old hens, their combs and legs will be rough; if young, they will be smooth. A good **Capon** has a thick belly and large rump; there is a particular fat about the breast, and the comb is very pale. **Geese.**—The bill and feet of a young goose will be yellow, and there will be but few hairs upon them; if old, they will be red: if fresh, the feet will be pliable; if stale, dry and stiff. Geese are called green till three or four months old. Green geese should be scalded: a stubble-goose should be picked dry. **Ducks.**—Choose them by the same rules, of having supple feet, and by their being hard and thick on the breast and belly. The feet of a tame duck are thick, and inclining to dusky yellow; a wild one has reddish feet, which are smaller than those of tame ones. They should be picked dry. Ducklings must be scalded. **Pigeons** should be very fresh; when they look flabby about the vent, and this part is discoloured, they are stale. The feet should be supple; if old the feet are harsh. The tame ones are larger than the wild, and are thought best by some persons; they should be fat and tender; but many are deceived in their size, as a full crop is as large as the whole body of a small pigeon. The wood-pigeon is large, and the flesh dark coloured. **Plovers.**—

Choose those that feel hard at the vent, which shows they are fat. In other respects, choose by the same marks as other fowl. When stale, the feet are dry. They will keep sweet a long time. There are three sorts; the grey, green, and bastard plover, or lapwing. **Hare or Rabbit.**—If the claws are blunt and rugged, the ears dry and tough, and the haunch thick, the animal is old; but if the claws are smooth and sharp, the ears easily tear, and the cleft in the lip is not much spread, it is young. If fresh and newly killed, the body will be stiff, and in hares the flesh pale. But they keep a good while with proper care; and are best when beginning to turn, if the inside is preserved from becoming musty. To know a real **leveret,** look for a knob or small bone near the foot on its fore-leg; if there is none it is a hare. **Partridges.**—If young, the bill is of a dark colour, and the legs yellowish; if fresh, the vent will be firm, but will look greenish if stale. **Pheasants.**—The cock-bird is accounted best, except when the hen is with egg. If young, he has short blunt or round spurs; but if old, they are long and sharp.

Choosing Fish.—In every sort, stiffness, and redness of the gills, and brightness of the eyes, are invariable signs of freshness: thickness of flesh generally marks the good condition of all fish. **Turbot** should be thick, and the belly of a yellowish white; if of a bluish cast, or thin, it is bad. It is in season the greater part of the summer. **Salmon.**—If new, and in season, the flesh is of a fine red (the gills particularly), the scales bright, and the whole fish stiff. When in greatest perfection, there is a whiteness between the flakes, which gives great firmness; by keeping, this melts down, and the fish is more rich. **Cod.**—The gills should be very red; the fish should be very thick at the neck, the flesh white and firm, and the eyes fresh. When flabby, cod is not good. It is in season from the beginning of December till the end of April. **Skate,** if good, is very white and thick. If too fresh, it eats tough, but it must not be kept above two days. **Herrings,** if good, have gills of a fine red, and the eyes are bright; as is likewise the whole fish, which must be stiff and firm. Choose **sprats** by the same rules. **Soles,** if good, are thick, and the belly is of a cream-colour; if they are of a bluish cast and flabby, they are not fresh. They are in the market almost the whole year, but are in the highest perfection about mid-summer. **Whiting.**—The firmness of the body and fins is to be looked to, as in herrings; their high season is during the first three months of the year, but they may be had a great part of it. **Mackerel.**—Choose as whitings. Their season is May, June, and July. They are so tender a fish that they carry and keep worse than any other. **Pike.**—For freshness observe the above marks. The best are taken in rivers: they are a very dry fish, and are much indebted to stuffing and sauce. **Carp** live some time out of water, and may therefore get wasted; it is best to kill them as soon as caught, to prevent this; but if too many are taken from the stew for present use, they may be fed with bread, and kept in a large tub. The same signs of freshness attend them as other fish. **Tench.**—They are a fine-flavoured fresh-water fish, and should be killed and dressed as soon as caught.—When they are to be bought, examine whether the gills are red and hard to open, the eyes bright, and the body stiff. The tench has a slimy matter about it, the clearness and brightness of which show freshness. The season is July, August, and September. **Perch.**—Take the general rules given to distinguish the freshness of other fish. They are not so delicate as carp and tench. **Smelts,** if good, have a fine silvery hue, are very firm, and have a refreshing smell like cucumbers newly cut.—They are caught in the Thames and some other large rivers. **Mullets.**—The sea are preferred to the river mullets, and the red to the grey. They should be very firm.—Their season is August,

Gudgeons.—They are chosen by the same rules as other fish. They are taken in running streams; come in about midsummer, and are to be had for five or six months. **Trout** and **Grayling** are excellent fish, and taken in running streams; but the latter is to be found in only a few counties. In season chiefly in the summer months. **Eels.**—There is a greater difference in the goodness of eels than of any other fish. The true silver-eel (so called from the bright colour of the belly) is caught in the Thames. Those taken in great floods are generally good, but those in ponds have usually a strong rank flavour. Except in the middle of summer, they are always in season. **Flounders.**—They should be thick, firm, and have their eyes bright. They very soon become flabby and bad. They are both sea and river fish. The Thames produces them. They are in season from January to March, and from July to September. **Lobsters.**—If they have not been long taken, the claws will have a strong motion when you put your finger on the eyes and press them. The heaviest are the best, and it is preferable to boil them at home. When you buy them ready-boiled, try whether their tails are stiff, and pull up with a spring: if otherwise, they are not 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. **Crabs.**—The heaviest are best, and those of a medium size are sweetest. If light, they are watery: when in perfection, the joints of the legs are stiff, and the body has a very agreeable smell. The eyes look dead and loose when stale. **Prawns and Shrimps.**—When fresh they have a sweet flavour, are firm and stiff, and the colour is bright. **Oysters.**—There are several kinds; the Pyfleet, Colchester, and Milford, are among the best. The native Milton are fine, being white and fat; but others may be made to possess both these qualities in some degree by proper feeding. When the fish is alive and strong, the shell closes on the knife. They should be eaten as opened, the flavour becoming poor otherwise. The rock oyster is largest, but usually has a coarse flavour if eaten raw.

A Lesson in Cooking.—Christmas is a very good time to commence instruction in cooking. There is no indignity about it under the circumstances. To be ordered to help in the cooking on ordinary occasions might cause rebellious feelings to rise, but there is a magic about Christmas that disarms opposition, and a Christmas pudding appeals irresistibly to the sympathies of youth. To those who desire to take this opportunity for the initiation of young people in the art and mystery of cooking, and to those who desire to learn, we offer the following lesson in the manufacture of **A Rich, Christmas Plum Pudding.** Our first business is to procure the necessary materials, and these include the following **Ingredients:** A pound of Muscatel raisins, half-a-pound of currants, a quarter of a pound of Sultana raisins, half-a-pound of mixed candied peel, half a nutmeg grated, a pound of bread-crumbs, a pound of suet, eight eggs, a quarter of an ounce of pounded bitter almonds, two tablespoonfuls of flour, half-a-pound of moist sugar, a quarter of a pint of brandy, and a pinch of salt. Probably many persons will say that there is not enough spice in this receipt, but more dishes are spoilt from overspicing than from any other cause. Mr. C. E. Francatelli in the preface to his admirable work on high class cooking says, "Simplicity is as essential an element in cookery as it is in other arts. Excess in the quantity and variety of spices and condiments—the bane of English cookery—is especially to be guarded against. Nothing vitiates the palate more than their superabundant use." Another point of importance in the receipt is the use of Muscatel

raisins. The superiority of their flavour over that of other raisins is very marked.

Having procured all our ingredients we now proceed with the following **Preparations.**—The soul of cookery is cleanliness. So we will begin firstly with the grocer's **currants** and wash them thoroughly, then dry them thoroughly, and pick them carefully, that is, remove all the tiny bits of stalks and stones that adhere to them. Secondly, we must stone the **raisins,** that is, take out all the pips. The result of the pudding to a certain extent depends upon the care we take in performing this operation. The best part of the raisin is the pulp, and unless we take care we shall lose a lot of the pulp. Try and get the pips away as clean as possible. Thirdly, we have to slice up the **candied peel.** In doing this we should endeavour to cut the peel as thin as possible. Good cooking very much depends upon how much pains we take. For instance, take a cucumber; suppose we carefully peel off the green outside and then cut it into thin slices, no thicker than a five-pound note, and place it neatly spread out on a glass dish. What a difference to a cucumber cut up just as it is in thick slices. Indeed, it is high-life and low-life. We somehow know the former will be dressed with pure olive oil, to assist in bringing out the flavour of a salmon; the latter means vinegar, cheese, and, oh horror!—a knife, but no fork. So too, with our candied peel, is our pudding going to turn out high class or low. Fourthly, we have to chop the **suet;** and I would here remind you that the suet should be hard beef suet, the suet in fact that goes inside a sirloin of beef. There is a great art in chopping suet. It should be chopped fine, and care must be taken to avoid having any large pieces, which would make their appearance in the pudding in the shape of huge lumps of hot fat. In chopping suet beginners will often find that the suet has a tendency to cling to the knife. This difficulty is immediately got rid of by adding a little flour to it. Chop the suet on a clean chopping board and chop it rather fine, that is, go on chopping till the biggest lump left is not quite so big as a pea. Of course a good deal will be almost a powder. Fourthly, make the **bread-crumbs.** For this purpose you will want some stale bread, and by far the best and easiest way to make them is to rub the bread through a wire sieve. This ensures the crumbs being all the same size.

Our next business is that of **Mixing the Pudding.**—Take a large basin and mix all the dry ingredients together, namely, the chopped suet, the flour, the bread-crumbs, the stoned raisins, the currants, the sliced candied peel, the sugar, the grated nutmeg, and the Sultana raisins; sometimes these will require washing and drying like the currants. Also add the quarter of an ounce of pounded bitter almonds, taking care that this is thoroughly mixed in with the rest. Add also the salt, say a saltspoonful. Be sure and mix it all well together, as it is far easier to mix in the dry state than in the moist. Next take eight good sized **eggs.** If they are small take nine, and break them one by one into a cup, and then turn them into a basin. The reason that you break them separately into a cup first is in case of accidents; that is, if one egg should happen to be bad, you would not spoil the whole lot. Having broken our eggs and seen that each one is perfectly fresh, we next beat them well up till they froth and are perfectly liquid, that is, if you pass a fork through them the mixture will not hang from the prongs. In beating up eggs it is an assistance to add a very little drop of hot or nearly boiling water. Now add the brandy to the eggs, and mix it well up with them; then moisten the ingredients in the basin with the eggs and brandy, and keep stirring them for a long time with a large wooden spoon. This mixing requires patience. The first impression will be that you have not got nearly enough moisture,

and impatient beginners are often too apt to say, "Oh, put in some more brandy." However, do not give up too soon. Keep on stirring, and you will find that the mixture seems to get moister and moister. If after a good time you find that it really is not moist enough, you can, of course, put more brandy if you like, but this is rather expensive. A very good thing to add to a Christmas pudding is port, sherry, or beer. Only be careful not to make it too moist.

Consistency.—As soon as the pudding has been got to the right consistency, it is ready for boiling in a cloth. But first of all, what is the right consistency? This is rather difficult to describe, and we are not supposed to have any experience. We'll say the consistency of mortar, or, if anything, not quite so moist.

The Pudding Cloth.—The most important thing about the cloth is to have it perfectly clean and perfectly free from holes; therefore, in the case of a really good expensive Christmas pudding—like the one we are making—it is well worth while to have a new cloth on purpose. You never can tell for certain about pudding cloths that have been washed, or how they have been washed. Soap may have been used. Indeed it often is. In any case, whether the cloth is new or whether it has been used before, take care and have the cloth well scalded. This is generally done by pouring boiling water on to the cloth. The best way to make sure of a cloth being all right is to boil it for a few minutes in a saucepan. There is a lot of impurity in a new cloth, as you will find if after boiling one for a few minutes you look at the water in which it has been boiled. Now rinse the cloth in some cold water and wring it out.

Potting the Pudding.—Having got a clean cloth spread out the cloth flat and butter it; not all over, but the part of the cloth only which is likely to come in contact with the pudding. The quantity I have given above is sufficient to make about two good sized puddings, so we shall want two cloths; and it is often advisable, when two puddings are made, to make one rather larger than the other, reserving the big one of course for Christmas-day. Butter the cloth in a circle, reaching within, say, an inch of its sides; and then having spread the cloth just as if we were buttering a piece of bread, flour it all over where it is buttered. The reason why we butter and flour our cloth is to prevent the pudding sticking to the cloth. In the case of common puddings—such as plain suet puddings—it is not necessary to butter the cloth at all, but only to flour it; but in the case of an expensive Christmas pudding, which has to boil for very many hours, the butter is an extra precaution. Now take an empty basin and put the cloth in it, so that the ends and sides of the cloth hang over the edges of the basin. Next fill the inside with the pudding, and having put sufficient in, pull up the cloth all round and tie it together very tight about an inch above where the pudding reaches. This will give the pudding room to swell. In tying up the pudding twist the string round and round, and be sure the string is strong enough. Our reason for doing this is to make sure that the water will not make its way into the pudding and spoil it. The cloth should be tied very tight, indeed; but you should allow some little room for the pudding to swell, or it will be heavy.

Boiling the Pudding.—Have ready a large saucepan of boiling water, and take care that the water really boils. The pudding should never be plunged into merely hot water, but into *boiling* water. Lest the pudding should stick to the saucepan place a saucer or plate on which the pudding can rest at the bottom of the saucepan. When this is done there is no fear. Let the saucepan remain on the fire till the water begins to boil, and then let the pudding boil gently, and keep it boiling the whole time. How long should a Christmas pudding boil? As a rule, the answer to this question is—the longer the better. Suppose we make our pudding in the morning, and get it done by one o'clock, when we put it

on to boil. Let it boil gently till nine o'clock at night. Then take it out, and hang it up in the cloth, putting something underneath it to catch the drippings. Let it hang till the day it is wanted. Suppose we dine on Christmas-day, at four o'clock, then put the pudding on to boil gently the first thing in the morning. What we want in a good Christmas pudding is to taste the fruit; and the longer it boils the more will the flavour of the raisins, currants, candied peel, etc., impregnate the whole.

Serving the Pudding.—In order to serve the pudding with ignited brandy you must proceed as follows. Turn the pudding out on a hot dish. Fill a gravy-spoon with brandy, and hold a lighted wooden spill under it till the brandy takes light. Remember cold brandy will not burn. Then pour the contents of the spoon over the pudding. If any more brandy is wanted it can be put into the dish, as the dish is hot. Last and not least, caution whoever waits at table to carry the dish containing the pudding and ignited brandy very steadily. A few drops spilt over a dress might cause an awful disaster; in fact it is safest to light the brandy in the room after the pudding has been put on the table if the party be a family one, as is probably the case on Christmas-day. Stick a piece of holly containing red berries in the top of the pudding, but take this out while the brandy is burning. Serve with sweet sauce.

Sweet Sauce.—To make a pint of sweet sauce, take a pint of water and put it on the fire to boil, with a strip of lemon peel. After the peel has been in the boiling water for two or three minutes take it out. In the meanwhile put about a tablespoonful of flour in the oven on a plate, with enough butter to absorb it; mix the butter and flour together with a spoon till there are no lumps, and then add this gradually to the boiling water till it becomes of the consistency of cream. Now gradually dissolve in this thin melted butter a quarter of a pound of butter, but do not let it boil. Then add sufficient white sugar to make it sweet, the quantity depends upon the taste. When the sugar is thoroughly dissolved, add a small glass of rum and two of brandy, and serve the sauce hot, in a tureen with the pudding. A "suspicion" of nutmeg may be added to the sauce, but no more.

Table Laying.—Most people of taste and refinement would prefer a homely meal well served to a rich repast ill-cooked or carelessly placed upon the table. There is much that is appetising about mere appearance, and that which offends the eye is not likely to propitiate the palate. It is important therefore to give careful attention to the preparation of the table as well as of the good things we place upon it. **The Table-Cloth** should be of snowy whiteness and should be renewed directly it becomes soiled. Snow itself is only beautiful while it remains fresh and untrodden, and a table-cloth which bears evidence of former meals is perhaps of all unsightly things the most unsightly. Mats may be sometimes used to hide the signs of accidents, as may Five-o'clock tea clothes neatly arranged, but of course this should only be done when an otherwise spotless table-cloth is in use. **Table Decorations** naturally begin with the centre of the table, and here we mark another difference between the old order of furnishing and the new. The heavy ornaments which decorated the dinner tables of our grandfathers and at the same time obscured the view of their guests, have given place to the lighter and more beautiful adornments of **Flowers and Ferns.** Though elaborate floral decorations are costly, especially in winter, much may be done in the way of table ornament without involving any very great outlay in money. The chief necessity is not costly exotics, but good taste in the arrangement of whatever flowers and greenery may be available for the purpose. A very moderate garden will supply all that is necessary in the summer time, and a small conservatory will suffice for the supply of ordinary winter decorations. Ferns and flowers in ornamental pots may be kept for the purposes of table

ornament with little trouble, and cut flowers will keep much longer than they ordinarily do if the water is changed and the ends of the stalks are cut off below the surface of the water so that the air does not reach the wounded part. **Fairy Lamps** form a very simple and very popular means of table decoration and certainly present a very pretty and pleasing effect when placed among the other decorations of the table. They are made of glass, china, and porcelain, of various colours and qualities, and range from low prices upwards. **China and Glass** form the most decorative articles of table furniture, and here again we find good taste more important than large expenditure. In few departments of English manufacture has so much progress been made of late years as in the ceramic art, and it is now possible to purchase for a very small sum dinner services which are worth their cost for decorative purpose, to say nothing of their utility. With all the modern improvements working for our comfort it is much more often want of sense than want of means which involves us in inconvenience and discomfit. "Cheap and nasty," is an old and useful phrase, but the words are not synonymous in our day, for refinement and good taste are equally available for the cottage and the hall. **Glass** always adds a pretty effect to the table, especially where glasses of different colours are used, and here too very handsome services may be purchased at very moderate prices. Cut glass gives a sparkle to the table which nothing else supplies. Glass ornaments also add cheerfulness and beauty to the appearance. Some authorities recommend the boiling of new china and glass before using as calculated to render them less brittle. When this is done the articles should be placed in cold water and allowed to boil gradually, and then put aside to cool, the articles not being disturbed until quite cold. Wine Glasses are set on the right hand of the seat, beside the knives, and should be three in number, the tallest glass the furthest from the edge of the table. The three glasses are respectively for sherry, claret, and champagne. The sherry glass is a crystal cut glass, the claret glass is a plain coloured glass, the champagne glass is usually a crystal cut glass, wide and shallow. **Silver or Electro-plated Cruets** again combine usefulness with ornament. The large cruets of our fathers are less used now than formerly, small cruets placed about the table being found more convenient. A small salt-cellar is often placed beside every plate. It is almost and yet not quite unnecessary to say that these should be frequently changed and cleaned.

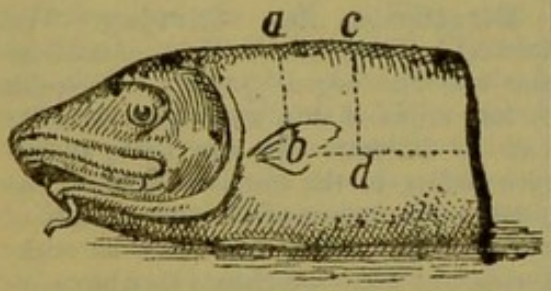
Table Cutlery adds much to the appearance of the table when it is kept scrupulously bright and clean. Knives are laid to the right of the seat, and forks to the left, a dessert spoon and fork forming a bridge across the top from knives to forks, of course without touching either. The spoon and fork will be reversed, that is to say the boat of the spoon will be to the left hand and the prongs of the fork to the right. The number of knives and forks set for each seat will vary with the number of courses, but it is never well to crowd the table with too many, as extra knives and forks can easily be laid between the courses. Fish knives and forks are only used for fish. **Dinner Napkins** should be provided for each seat, and may be folded in various fantastic shapes in which they add to the appearance of the table. One of the best shapes is that resembling a Mitre, in which a French roll or a piece of bread cut square and thick is often placed. This is placed between the knives and forks in front of the seat. For family use napkins are kept from meal to meal and to preserve their identity are rolled up and placed in napkin rings bearing the initials of the user or some other mark whereby they may be identified. **Serving** can always be best performed when the carving is done at a side table. When the carver takes the head of the dining-table the table will have to be specially laid with that view, and there will necessarily be less room for

ornament. Dinner mats will then be required for the dishes, and carving knives, forks, and rests will have to be added. In serving, everything should be offered to the guest on his right hand. All extras of glass and cutlery as well as of plates, fruit knives, etc., required for dessert, should be kept upon the sideboard ready for use. Extra table spoons are often placed across the corners of dining tables, reversed, with a small cruet or salt-cellar between them. **Overcrowding** ought never to be either on or at the table, hence the table should not be over-decorated and the chairs should not be placed too near together. **Tea-Tables** are less elaborate but may be made quite as pretty and attractive. Here stands for tea- and coffee-pots must not be forgotten, nor the tea cosie, nor the spirit-lamp for keeping the water hot.

Carving.—In cutting out a garment it is very easy to cut to waste, and in cutting up a joint of meat it is equally easy to be extravagant. Economy in buying and cooking are largely neutralised if economy is not observed in carving and serving. Economy does not consist of stinting the supplies of the table, but of making the most of the materials provided. A skilful carver will get a great deal more off a joint and present it in a far more appetizing and satisfying manner than one who has no skill in this necessary and useful art. It was said of a famous chef that he could have covered London Bridge with slices from a single ham. It is not recorded that he ever tried and in the absence of experiment his ability to accomplish such a feat may well be doubted, but that a good carver can make a joint go much further than a bad carver can will not be disputed. For a number of reasons the carving for the family usually devolves upon the Lady of the house, the mid-day meal being necessarily taken during the absence of "the master." One gentleman known to the writer used to say that he relegated the duty to his wife because "he liked her to be a help meat." Whoever undertakes the duty must needs give some little attention to the requirements of the art. Three things among others are essential to good carving: 1. a knife that will cut; 2. a joint with a slice on it; and 3. a slight knowledge of anatomy in applying the one to the other. Assuming the possession of the two former we will now proceed to give suggestions for the latter.

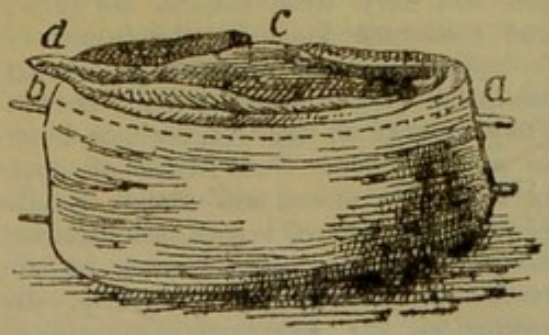
Directions for Carving.—The carving-knife should be light, of medium size and fine edge. **Joints.**—Strength is less required than address in using it: and to facilitate this the cook should give orders to the butcher to divide *the joints* of the bones of all carcass-joints of mutton, lamb, and veal (such as neck. breast, and loin); which may then be easily cut into thin slices attached to the adjoining bones. If the whole of the meat belonging to each bone should be too thick, a small slice may be taken off between every two bones. The more fleshy joints (as fillet of veal, leg or saddle of mutton, and beef) should be helped in thin slices, neatly cut and smooth; letting the knife pass down to the bone in the mutton and beef joints. The dish should not be too far off the carver; as it gives an awkward appearance, and makes the task more difficult. Attention should be paid to help every one to a portion of the part of the joint considered the best. **Fish.**—In helping fish, take care not to break the flakes; which in cod and very fresh salmon are large, and contribute much to the beauty of its appearance. A fish-knife, not being sharp, divides it best on this account. Help a part of the roe, milt or liver, to each person. The heads of carp, part of those of cod and salmon, sounds of cod, and fins of turbot, are likewise esteemed niceties, and are to be attended to accordingly. **Poultry.**—In cutting up any wild-fowl, duck, goose, or turkey, for a large party, if you cut the slices down from pinion to pinion, without making wings, there will be more prime pieces.

A Cod's Head.—Fish in general requires very little carving, the fleshy parts being those principally esteemed. A cod's head and shoulders, when in season, and properly boiled, is a very acceptable and handsome dish. When served, it should be cut with a fish-trowel. The parts about the back-bone on the shoulders are the most firm and the best. Take off a piece quite down to the bone, in the direction *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*,



putting in the spoon at *a*, *c*, and with each slice of fish give a piece of the sound, which lies underneath the back-bone and lines it, the meat of which is thin, and a little darker coloured than the body of the fish itself: this may be got by passing a knife or spoon underneath. About the head are many delicate parts, and a great deal of the jelly kind. The jelly part lies about the jaw-bones, and the firm parts within the head. Some are fond of the palate, and others the tongue, which likewise may be got by putting a spoon into the mouth.

Edge-bone of Beef.—Cut off a slice an inch thick all the length from



a to *b*, as in the above figure, and then help. The soft fat which resembles marrow lies at the back of the bone, below *c*; the firm fat must be cut in horizontal slices at the edge of the meat *d*. It is proper to ask which is preferred, as tastes differ. The skewer that keeps the meat properly together when boiling is here shown at *a*. This should be drawn out before the joint is served up; or, if it is necessary to leave a skewer in, use a silver one.

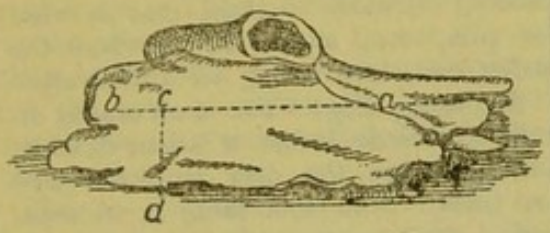
Sirloin of Beef may be begun either at the end, or by cutting into the middle. It is usual to inquire whether the outside or the inside is preferred. For the outside the slice should be cut down to the bones; and the same with every following helping. Slice the inside likewise, and give with each piece some of the soft fat. The inside done as follows eats excellently: Have ready some shalot-vinegar boiling hot: mince the meat large, and a good deal of the fat; sprinkle it with salt, and pour the shalot-vinegar and the gravy on it. Help with a spoon, as quick as possible, on hot plates.

Round or Buttock of Beef is cut in the same way as fillet of veal, described in the next paragraph. It should be kept even all over. When helping the fat, observe not to hack it, but cut it smooth. A deep slice should be cut off the beef before you begin to help, as directed above for the edge-bone.

Fillet of Veal.—In an ox this part is round of beef. Ask whether the brown outside be liked, otherwise help the next slice. The bone is taken out, and the meat tied close, before dressing; which makes the fillet very solid. It should be cut thin, and very smooth. A stuffing is put into the flap, which completely covers it; you must cut deep into this, and help a thin slice, as likewise of fat. From carelessness in not covering the latter with paper, it is sometimes dried up, to the great disappointment of the carver.

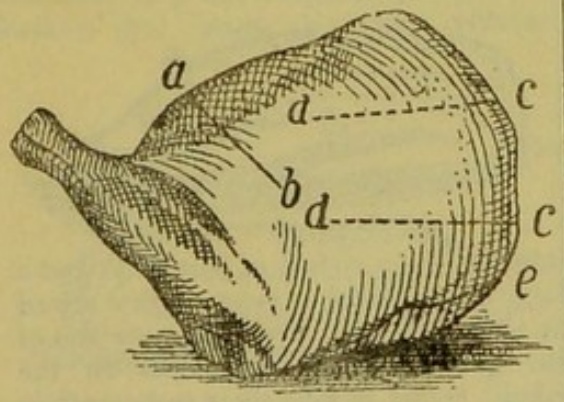
Breast of Veal.—One part (which is called the brisket) is thickest, and has gristles; put your knife about four inches from the edge of this, and cut through it, which will separate the ribs from the brisket. Ask which is chosen, and help accordingly.

Calf's Head has a great deal of meat upon it, if properly managed. Cut slices from *a* to *b*, letting the knife go close to the bone. In the fleshy part, at the neck end *c*, lies the



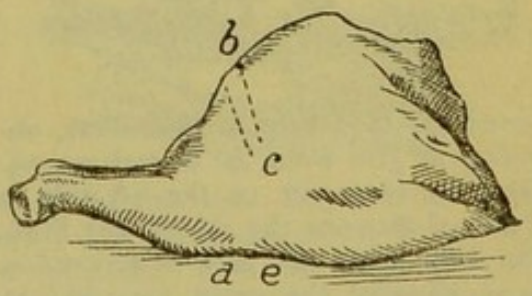
throat sweetbread, which you should help a slice of from *c* to *d* with the other part. If the jaw-bone be taken off, there will be found some fine lean.

Shoulder of Mutton.—This is a very good joint, and by many preferred to the leg; it being very full of gravy, if properly roasted, and producing many nice slices. The figure represents it as laid in the dish with its back uppermost. When it is first cut, it should



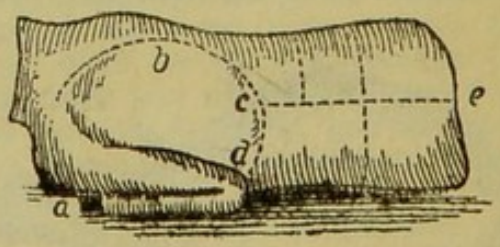
be in the hollow part of it, in the direction of *a*, *b*, and the knife should be passed deep to the bone. The prime part of the fat lies on the outer edge, and is to be cut in thin slices in the direction *e*. If many are at table, and the hollow part cut in the line *a*, *b*, is eaten, some very good and delicate slices may be cut out on each side the ridge of the blade-bone, in the direction *c*, *d*. The space between these two dotted lines is that in which the edge or ridge of the bladebone lies, and cannot be cut across.

Leg of Mutton.—A leg of wether mutton (which is the best flavoured) may be known by a round lump of fat at the edge of the broadest part, The best part is at *b*. Begin to help there, by cutting thin deep slices to *c*. If the outside is not fat enough, help some from the side of the broad end in slices. This part is most juicy; but many prefer the knuckle, which in fine mutton will be very tender though dry. It is usual to give choice, and serve accordingly. Mutton should be cut thicker than beef not too thick. The cramp-bone is a favourite part with



some people. To cut out the cramp-bone, take hold of the shank with your left hand, and cut down to the thigh-bone at *e*; then pass the knife under the cramp-bone in the direction *e d*.

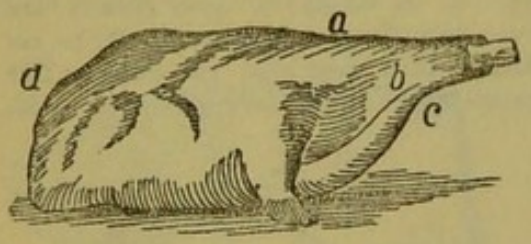
A fore Quarter of Lamb.—Separate the shoulder from the scoven (which is the breast and ribs), by passing the knife under in the direction of *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, in the figure; keeping it towards you horizontally, to prevent cutting the meat



too much off the bones. If grass lamb, the shoulder being large, put it into another dish. Squeeze the juice of half a Seville orange (or lemon) on the other part, and sprinkle a little salt and pepper. Then separate the gristly part

from the ribs in the line *e*, *c*; and help either from that, or from the ribs, as may be chosen.

Haunch of Venison.—Cut down to the bone in the line *a*, *b*, *c*, in the figure, to let out the gravy; then turn the broad end of the haunch toward you, put in the knife at *b*, and cut as deep as you can to the end of the

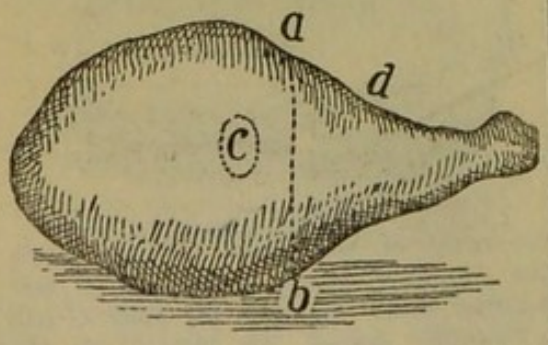


haunch *d*; then help in thin slices, observing to give some fat to each person. There is more fat on the left side of *c* and *d* than on the other: and those who help must take care to proportion it, as likewise the gravy, according to the number of the company.

Haunch of Mutton is the leg and part of the loin, cut so as to resemble haunch of venison, and is to be helped at table in the same manner.

Saddle of Mutton.—Cut long thin slices from the tail to the end, beginning close to the back-bone. If a large joint, the slice may be divided. Cut some fat from the sides.

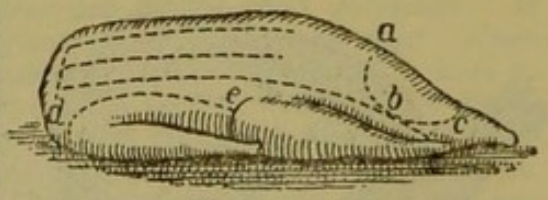
Ham may be cut three ways; the common method is, to begin in the middle, by long slices from *a* to *b*, from the centre through the thick fat. This



brings to the prime at first; which is likewise accomplished by cutting a small round hole on the top of the ham as at *c*, and with a sharp knife enlarging that by cutting successive thin circles: this preserves the gravy, and keeps the meat moist. The last and most saving way is, to begin at the knuckle end, and proceed onwards. Ham that is used for pies, etc., should be cut from the under side, first taking off a thick slice.

Sucking Pig.—The cook usually divides the body before it is sent to table, and garnishes the dish with the jaws and ears. The first thing is, to separate a shoulder from the carcass on one side, and then the leg. The ribs are then to be divided into about two helpings; and an ear or jaw presented with them, and plenty of sauce. The joints may either be divided into two each, or pieces may be cut from them. The ribs are reckoned the finest part; but some people prefer the neck-end, between the shoulders.

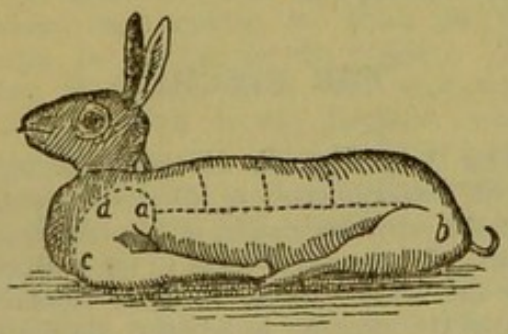
Goose.—Cut off the apron in the circular line *a*, *b*, *c*, in the figure and pour



into the body a glass of port wine, and a large tea-spoonful of mustard, first mixed at the sideboard. Turn the neck end of the goose towards you, and cut the whole breast in long slices endways from one wing to another; but only remove them as you help each person, unless the company is so large as to require the legs likewise. This way gives more prime bits than by making wings. Take off the leg, by putting the fork into the small end of the bone, pressing it to the body, and having passed the knife at *e*, turn the leg back, and if a young bird, it will easily separate. To take off the wing, put your fork into the small end of the pinion, and press it close to the body; then put in the knife at *e*, and divide the joint, taking it down in the direction *d*, *e*.

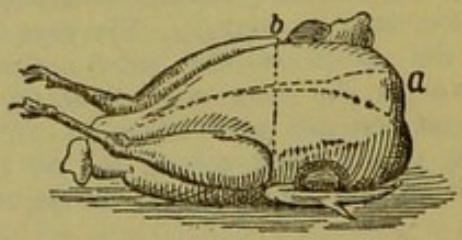
Nothing but practice will enable people to hit the joint exactly at the first trial. When the leg and wing of one side are done, go on to the other; but it is not often necessary to cut up the whole goose, unless the company be very large. There are two side-bones by the wing, which may be cut off; as likewise the back and lower side-bones: but the best pieces are the breast and the thighs after being divided from the drum-sticks.

Hare.—The best way of cutting a hare is, to put the point of the knife under the shoulder at *a*, as in the figure below, and cut all the way down to the rump, on one side of the back-bone, in the line *a*, *b*. Do the same on the other side, so that the whole hare will be divided into three parts. Cut the back into four, which, with the legs, is the part most esteemed. The shoulder must be cut off in a circular line, as, *c*, *d*, *a*: lay the pieces neatly on the dish as you cut them; and then help the company, giving some stuffing and gravy to every person.



This way can only be practised when the hare is young: if old, do not divide it down, which will require a strong arm; but put the knife between the leg and back, and give it a little turn inwards at the joint; which you must endeavour to hit, and not to break by force. When both legs are taken off, there is a fine collop on each side of the back; then divide the back into as many pieces as you please, and take off the shoulders, which are by many preferred, and are called the sportsman's pieces. When every one is helped, cut off the head; put your knife between the upper and lower jaw, and divide them, which will enable you to lay the upper flat on your plate; then put the point of the knife into the centre, and cut the head into two. The ears and brains may be helped then to those who like them. Carve **Rabbits** as directed the latter way for hare; cutting the back into two pieces, which with the legs are the prime.

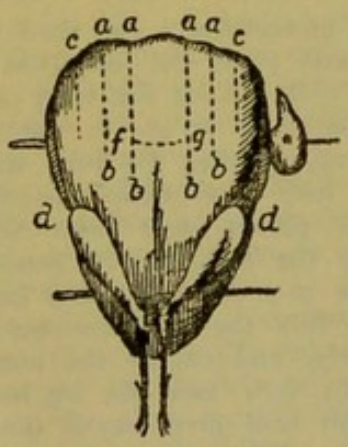
A Fowl.—A boiled fowl's legs are bent inwards, and tucked into the belly; but before it is served, the skewers



should be removed. Lay the fowl on its back; and place the joints, as cut off, on the dish. Take the wing off in the direction of *a* to *b*, in the annexed engraving, dividing the joint with your knife; and then with your fork lift up the pinion, and draw the wing towards the legs, and the muscles will separate in a more complete form than if cut. Slip the knife between the leg and body, and cut to the bone; then with the fork turn the leg back, and the joint will give way if the bird is not old. When the four quarters are thus removed, take off the merrythought from *a*, and the neck-bones. The next thing is, to divide the breast from the carcass, by cutting through the tender ribs close to the breast, quite down to the tail. Then lay the back upwards, put your knife into the bone half-way from the neck to the rump, and on raising the lower end it will separate readily. Turn the rump from you, and very neatly take off the two sidesmen, and the whole will be done. As each part is taken off, it should be turned neatly on the dish: and care should be taken that what is left goes properly from table. The breast and wings are looked upon as the best parts; but the legs are most juicy, in young fowls. After

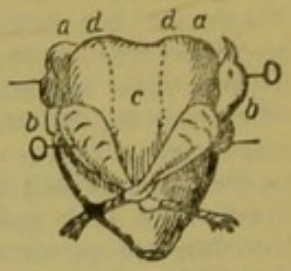
all, more advantage will be gained by observing those who carve well, and a little practice, than by any written directions whatever. As in so many other things, experience is the best teacher and practice makes perfect. Good carving is essential if the most is to be made of viands carved and the food is to be presented in an appetizing form.

A Pheasant.—The bird in the annexed engraving is as trussed for cooking, with its head under one of its wings. When the skewers are taken out, and the bird served, the following is the way to carve it. Fix your fork in the centre of the breast; slice it down in the lines *a*, *b*; take off the leg on one side at *d*; then cut off the wing on the same side in the line *c*, *d*. Separate the leg and wing on the other

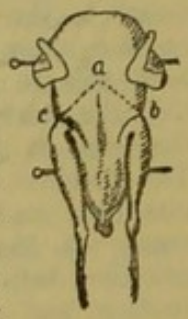


side, and then cut off the slices of breast you divided before. Be careful how you take off the wings; for if you should cut too near the neck, you will hit on the neck-bone, from which the wing must be separated. Cut off the merrythought in the line *f*, *g*, by passing the knife under it towards the neck. Cut the other parts as in a fowl. The breast, wings, and merrythought, are the most esteemed; but the leg has a higher flavour.

Partridge.—The partridge is here represented as just taken from the fire; but before it is served up, the skewers must be withdrawn. It is cut up in the same manner as a fowl. The wings must be taken off from *a* to *b*, and the merrythought from *c* to *d*. The prime parts of a partridge are the wings, breast, and the merrythought; but the bird being small, the two latter are not often divided. The wing is considered as the best, and the tip of is reckoned the most delicate morsel of the whole.



Pigeons.—Cut them in half, either from top to bottom, or across. The lower part is generally thought the best; but the fairest way is to cut from the neck to *a*, rather than from *c* to *b*, by *a*, which is the most fashionable. The figure represents the back of the pigeon; and the direction of the knife is in the line *c*, *b*, by *a*, if the latter plan is adopted.



THE KITCHEN.

The Importance of the Kitchen.—A well regulated and efficient kitchen is at the very foundation of domestic comfort. To no other room in the building is the whole house so much indebted as to the kitchen; in no other domain in Christendom can "the greatest happiness of the greatest number" be so readily and effectually promoted. In the kitchen we have the well-spring of household regularity, the fountain of domestic cleanliness and the source from whence we have our food supplies in an appetizing and health sustaining condition. In thus promoting regularity, cleanliness and health the well ordered kitchen does more than all the house besides to secure the good comfort and the good humour of the household. Several conditions are necessary to an efficient kitchen. 1. Suitable accommoda-

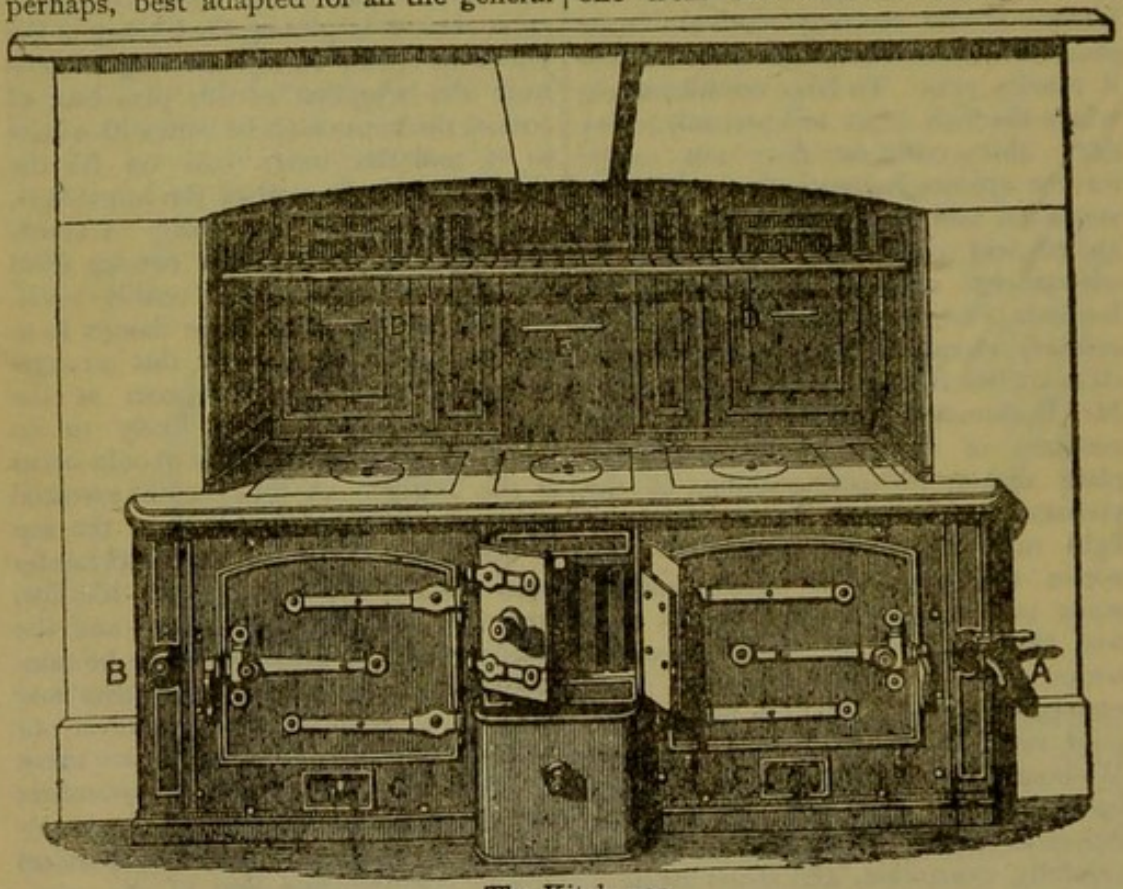
tion for the work to be done and 2. proper mechanical aids to facilitate its progress. 3. an adequate supply of materials for use and 4. willing and intelligent service in their manipulation. These four conditions we shall endeavour to deal with in the following pages and in the order given.

The Situation of the Kitchen.—If institutions were always valued for their practical benefit to mankind, the kitchen would certainly receive a larger share of attention and consideration than it usually gets. To large establishments where the rich "fare sumptuously every day" this criticism does not apply, for the epicure knows quite well that a successful table can only be provided by an efficient cook under favourable circumstances, and is always ready to facilitate the conditions necessary to culinary success. The ordinary middle-class kitchen is, however, not so favoured. Mr. Buckmaster says: "To ensure the certainty of success in cooking good plain dishes, to say nothing of the preparation of artistic ones, plenty of light must be admitted to the room where the cooking is done, and be made to fall full on the fireplace. To free the house from that unpleasant odour, which is too frequent when arrangements for a meal are being made, good ventilation is an absolute necessity. Without these two essentials, air and light, 'God's free gift to all,' the domestic duties of a house become painfully wearisome, and, from being a pleasant occupation, are rather made a disagreeable necessity. No architect would think of building a workshop without taking proper precautions to ensure the highest convenience to those who worked in it; but a kitchen, which is the workshop of a house, is constructed without any consideration being given to the most important necessities, and if it be put well out of sight, every essential is considered accomplished. Those who happen to have the construction of a kitchen under their own care, will do well to see that it is in close proximity to an abundant water supply; that it can be easily reached from the garden, so as to ensure all refuse being taken out of the house; and that it is sufficiently remote from the sitting-rooms, to prevent their being affected by unpleasant smells, while sufficiently near to ensure the food being brought hot to the table."

A great deal of attention has been given of late to the locale of the kitchen and experiments have been tried with great success in placing the kitchen at the top of the house. Many advantages follow from the adoption of this plan but, of course, the house must be built with a view to it, and the water laid on for the purpose. At the top of the house light and ventilation are easily secured, and the hot water supply coming from the top is much more readily available for general use. The danger from fire is also minimized by this arrangement as should a fire occur at the top of the house it is likely to do much less damage than if it should occur at the bottom. A lift becomes essential when the kitchen is placed at the top of the house. But, as Mr. Buckmaster says, "to most people a kitchen, like life, must be taken as it is found, and the disadvantages it possesses must be compensated for by extra cheerfulness and industry." Assuming that whatever our facilities or disabilities may be, we mean to make the most of our opportunities we will proceed under Mr. Buckmaster's leadership to consider some mechanical aids to cooking, and first of all—

Stoves and their Uses.—Unless great care is taken in its selection, and sharp vigilance exercised on the workmen while it is being put up, the kitchen-range will be continually failing in some essential part, and requiring constant repair, and will be an unending source of worry and expense. It should be carefully borne in mind, in the purchase of this as well as in other matters, that the difference of a few pounds often determines the comfort and happiness of a household. **Open Fire Ranges** still seem to some most suited for our English habits, they preserve the old

association of the past, and serve as a reminder—though a very narrow one—of the time when yule-logs and not Christmas cards commemorated our annual feast. But we live in an age of progress, and **the Kitchener** or closed stove has, since its introduction some years back, made such advance in public favour that few houses are now considered complete without one. It is, perhaps, best adapted for all the general purposes of a middle-class family, it combines a power of effecting a great variety of work with a perfect freedom from sootfalls and smoke, and in its large heated surface provides a facility for finely regulating the heat required, which could never be offered by its old rival, the open range. It labours, however, under the disadvantage of making a kitchen excessively hot, no thorough ventilation being obtained; and should anything happen to boil over, or be accidentally spilt, this defect prevents the smell being carried off, and the unpleasant odour gradually permeates the entire house. Kitcheners are rather complicated in their construction. Great care and intelligence are consequently required in their management, and unless scrupulous cleanliness is observed in every detail concerning them, they will soon get out of order, and become practically useless. As almost all patents are similar in the essentials, and differ one from the other in trifling details,



The Kitchener.

no particular stove can be specified as the best. The accompanying engraving represents the kind of stove best suited for general use. A is one of the taps to the boiler, which lies at the back. B is a stop which can be taken out and replaced by tap A, should that arrangement be the most convenient. C marks the entrances to the flues. D, the two oven dampers. E, the fire damper. **Dimensions.**—For a room fifteen feet square, a range about five feet long by two broad should be obtained; this is the size most generally sold, and

it possesses, in consequence, all the most recent improvements; the price, if well made and properly fitted up, will not be less than twenty pounds, for many advertised at lower prices are either faulty in construction, or lack some extra convenience, the presence of which would amply compensate for a higher price. In **Placing the Stove** especial care must be taken to observe that the plates connecting it with the wall are securely fastened, and that the dampers are not impeded in their action by the carelessness of workmen, who so arrange them that a projecting brick precludes the possibility of their being opened or shut. A little care exercised before the arrangements for position are finally concluded, will often save a great deal of future inconvenience. Having ensured the stove being properly placed, the next care is **Lighting and Maintaining the Fire.**—It will be found that the surface of the grate is sufficient for roasting an ordinary joint; but, unless this is regularly required, a great economy of fuel will be gained by placing a false bottom to remove about a quarter of the entire grate; and the fire, thus modified, will be ample for heating the two side ovens, the top plate, and the boiler. **As regards Fuel,** a coarser coal, of a harder type than that used in open ranges, will be most suitable; it is both less expensive and more heating than ordinary coal; but as it burns to a fine ash, which readily flies over the room, it can only be used in closed fires: coke can also be used with advantage. After cooking is over, the fire may be made up with cinders, small coal, and rubbish, which could not be used with so much advantage in an open range. The quantity of fuel consumed daily depends entirely on the cook. It should be remembered that, after a certain point, all increase of heat benefits the chimney alone, and whenever a roaring is heard in the stove, waste of heat is being effected and the damper should be closed to such an extent as to just prevent this.

As reference has just been made to the power of cooking joints, possessed by these stoves, it will be as well to remark that the whole forces of the fire are chiefly directed to warming the ovens and boiler, and, if the door be opened, great care must be taken to preserve the external warmth, and constant attention must be paid to the condition and construction of the fire, for the grate is generally so adapted as not to burn freely with the door open, the draught necessary for its existence being thus destroyed. Some stoves are, however, now constructed for the purpose of combining the qualities required, providing a large roasting surface as well as the heated ovens, these are not to be recommended, as the force of the fire in front is purchased at the expense of the ovens and boiler behind. Having considered the fire, we must turn to its inevitable concomitant, the soot. **Soot** will be found to accumulate in no small quantities within the flues; and, unless these are regularly and thoroughly cleaned, the necessary draught is destroyed; the fire in consequence burns feebly, and the working of the entire stove is rendered nearly impossible. The periods at which sweeping the flues is required vary with the use of the fire and the quality of fuel; in ordinary daily use the soot should be removed weekly.

On each side of the grate, as shown in the engraving, is a large oven fitted with two or three movable trays, it is best to decide on one as the pastry, the other as the meat oven, and having made the choice to adhere to it firmly. To regulate the heat of these ovens, resource must be had to the dampers, as this is their special function; each of the side dampers have the ovens beneath them, under their especial care, and conveying the heat of the fire to one side or the other is at once effected by pulling out the damper over the oven in want of heat.

Some are of opinion that roasting can be done quite as well in the roaster of a kitchener as before an open fire, but to procure excellence in roasting, constant basting is required, which cannot

be done conveniently in an oven, and what is not easily done is easily neglected. In each stove, experience will shew the most suitable places for different dishes; in some, the upper part of the oven is the hottest; but in others, arrangements are made for equally heating the whole. After any dish has been cooked, the shelf or tray on which it has rested must be scrupulously cleaned, especially in the case of baked meats, for some of the juices of the meat will be sure to fall over, and unless removed before the oven is again heated they will make their presence painfully evident, by creating a most unpleasant odour. This point, which seems almost trifling in its insignificance, must be rigorously insisted upon, for few servants will take trouble of their own accord, and the discomfort arising from the neglect of this and other details is by no means slight.

The top plate is, perhaps, the most important feature, as it is the distinguishing characteristic of the kitchener cooking stove. This, in the size we have taken as a model, has an area of ten square feet, and the convenience afforded by this large heated surface is inestimable—even in the most remote corners, pots can be kept simmering, and the trouble arising from a sooty saucepan becomes a bugbear of the past. The top has also several movable plates, so that in case any water requires rapidly raising to a high temperature, the kettle or saucepan can be placed in absolute contact with the live embers; but this is not to be recommended as a general custom, for, except in the case of kettles with bottoms specially adapted for fitting closely, it admits smoke into the room in no small quantities. Grilling and frying are sometimes effected in the same way, but perfection in the former art can only be obtained in the old fireplace. Previous to using the fire for this purpose, choice must be exercised in the selection of fuel, as the coarser and commoner substances mentioned above as useful for creating and sufficient for maintaining the general heat of the stove, burn sluggishly and with a foul smoke when the doors are opened, in consequence of which defects, a suitable clear fire can rarely be obtained with them; also the same disadvantage attends the opening of these holes as ensues on opening the door of the grate—the heat is taken from the ovens and boilers, the draught destroyed, and the fire consequently weakened.

At the back of the entire stove, and in some cases partly girdling it round, like a jacket, is the boiler, and the power of thoroughly heating this is one of the special recommendations of the "Kitchener." It is chiefly effected by passing the warm air round it. A common mistake is made in considering that the fire itself is the direct heat-producing source, whereas the air, which in an ordinary fireplace carries six-sevenths of the heat up the chimney, is the direct means of giving the requisite heat to the ovens and boilers.

Taps can be placed to draw off the water in the kitchen, scullery, or any place used as convenient for cleansing the dirty ware. The boiler should be connected with a cistern, from which it can be automatically filled by the simple arrangement of a ball-tap; it is always best to see that the means of filling the boiler are constructed on this principle, for although when hot water is drawn its place is taken by that at a lower temperature, and so the general warmth of the entire amount is reduced, yet the heat thus obtained, as a rule, proves sufficient for all purposes, and the immunity granted from the danger of boilers bursting, through the negligence of servants forgetting to fill them, is an ample recompense for such a slight disadvantage. The inconvenience derived from this principle is almost entirely obviated by arrangements now often made to place the supply cistern in the chimney or near the fire, so that its water is partially warmed, and the influx to the boiler is not of a very chilling character.

The power of the fire to heat water varies with each stove. The one in

the illustration is adapted to heat a boiler of fifteen gallons, and keep warm a tank containing sixty, thus providing a supply of warm water sufficient to furnish a bath room and a lavatory, apart from ordinary use. The advantages thus gained will be thoroughly appreciated by those who have experienced the inconvenience caused by living in a house where all the warm water is conveyed upstairs by hand.

Over the top plate are frequently placed several transversal bars on which all plates, dishes, etc., necessary for the coming meal, can be warmed—a great improvement on the method of washing over with warm water, placing in front of the fire or in the oven, where they were frequently broken—the only expedients for heating crockery offered by the open range.

In houses, where it is possible, the greatest convenience will be gained by having both an open range and a closed stove, the former for roasting, grilling, etc., the latter for the fine delicate work, to effect which the hot plate is required.

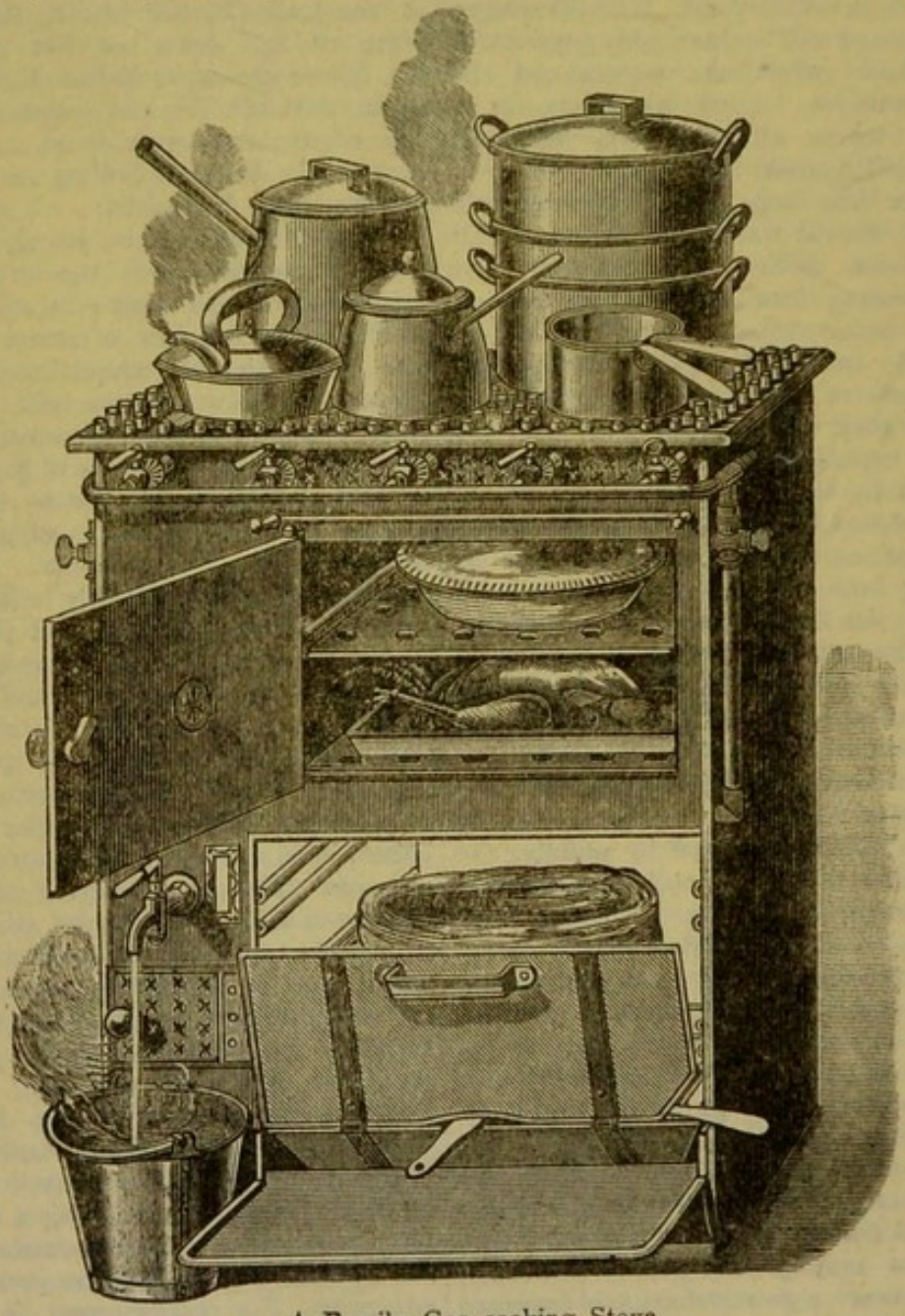
In all work done with closed stoves, it should be recollected that their principle of action is entirely different from the open range; as already stated, the heat is chiefly obtained by utilizing the heated-air lost in an ordinary grate, and the proper regulation of this air is accomplished by the dampers.

As the kitchener is more complicated in its construction, so greater intelligence must be exercised in its use; in the hands of a slovenly, careless servant, it will become, instead of a benefit, an enormous expense. If, however, a servant knows, as she ought to know, the elementary principles of heat, and the construction of a range, she would be able to manage her fire economically, and procure a great reduction of expense; but if she does not or will not understand the use of the dampers, and will not keep the flues constantly clear, then a kitchener becomes a furnace, and is the most expensive form of range procurable.

Convertible Stoves.—The O'Brien convertible open and close fire arrangement is perhaps the best form of combined open and close fire in the market. The alteration from close to open fire is effected by opening two small doors at the back (E) and placing the centre piece of fire cover or hot plate on the flat of the stove below E, which is made movable for the purpose on the top of the two open doors. A kettle or pot can be kept boiling on the top of this plate if desired.

Gas Stoves are now largely used for cooking purposes, and the more enterprising of the gas companies offer great facilities for the hire of stoves at very low rates, so that almost any housekeeper can now procure one at very small cost. Opinions will probably differ as to the relative economy of gas or coal as fuel, but there can be no doubt as to the superior cleanliness of gas or of its greater economy in labour. If a gas cooking stove is thoroughly looked after, is used for cooking *only*, and then only just so much of it as may be necessary for the cooking in progress, and the gas is turned off directly after the cooking is done, there is no reason why gas cooking stoves should not be as economic as they are convenient. They may be purchased in all sizes and prices from £1.17.6 upwards. The accompanying engraving represents a large family gas stove, such as would cost about £9 to purchase, but which can be hired from some of the gas companies for about 3/- per quarter. Smaller gas cooking stoves can be hired as low as 1/6 per quarter. Bachelor cooking stoves can be purchased for £1.5.0. **Gas Stoves for Heating Purposes** are made to very handsome designs and of sizes to meet all requirements. Where occasional fires are wanted they are both convenient and economic. For sitting-rooms in which fires are burning continuously for twelve, fourteen, or sixteen hours per day, gas is undoubtedly a dearer fuel than coal, and cannot be recommended on the score of economy, except in so far as servants' labour and dust are saved. There can, however, be no doubt of the economy

of gas fires for bed-rooms and drawing-rooms, etc., where only an *occasional* fire is required, and where a fire may be lighted for an hour or two at a cost of a penny or twopence for gas, entailing no servants' labour the following morning for cleaning. Very pretty gas stoves can be bought for 21/-; very handsome designs for £3.



A Family Gas cooking Stove.

Mechanical Aids to Cooking.—In the kitchen as elsewhere mechanical aids are intended to facilitate and economize labour, and intelligence is as necessary in cooking with the most refined as with the most clumsy appliances. The earliest form of cooking utensil known was made of earthenware, of which the common pipkin may be regarded as a type; and we appear likely, after having passed through the age of metal, to return to a somewhat modified form of our ancestors' notions in the shape

of vessels made of porcelain. **Porcelain Vessels** are strongly to be recommended for household use, a little care will prevent their breaking, and the advantages they possess over ordinary saucepans in cleanliness of action are undeniable. Their great rivals are enamelled saucepans, and these seem at first sight almost the more attractive, as they appear to combine the substantial strength of the old pot with the convenient cleanliness of the new; but, unfortunately, the heat of the fire causes the metal and the enamel to expand and contract in an irregular degree, and this difference in expansive power makes the lining of the saucepan crack and break away from the base, thereby allowing pieces of enamel to come off into the cooking, and rendering the food extremely liable to be scorched and burnt. No fear need be entertained, on the other hand, about the endurance of the porcelain pans. If properly tempered, they will bear to be subjected to the fiercest heat, care only being required to see that when hot they are not plunged into cold water, and that when cold they are not placed suddenly on a hot fire. **Warren's Pot.** Though porcelain vessels increase the general elegance of kitchen utensils they do not go very far to economize labour. A far more important step has been made in that direction by a cooking pot which bears the name of its inventor, Captain Warren, and this introduces us into an entirely new era in culinary history. The earliest method of cooking was undoubtedly roasting. This seems to us almost inseparable from the existence of a fire, and so simple and obvious as to recommend itself in some elementary form to even the most untutored barbarian. Yet Charles Lamb tells us it was the result of a most disastrous accident, and draws a fine picture of a horrified parent finding his son eating roast pork instead of raw pig. Boiling succeeded, after some interval, this primitive method of preparing food. Its introduction was necessarily delayed by a want of proper utensils, and we have no doubt that the venturesome man who first attempted to render flesh palatable by immersing it in boiling water was regarded by his friends with the same horror and astonishment as was Sir Walter Raleigh when first seen by his servant enjoying a soothing weed. From these two original stocks spring nearly all the varieties of modern cooking; baking, grilling, frying, &c., being developments of the one, as soups, hashes, stews, &c., are of the other. More recently, however, a new system has come into use in which neither live embers nor boiling water are the direct agents, but to perfect which both are required; for we can now cook our food as we drive our trains and work our mills, by the agency of steam. Warren's pot is one of the media by which this can be effected, but an erroneous impression would be left were we to state this power as its essential principle; it is only in the upper chamber of this invention that the steam is actually admitted, the lower one being heated by contact with boiling water. To people whose time is so occupied that little of it can be spared for the kitchen, this appliance is a most inestimable boon, as it possesses the power of cooking the entire amount of a plain dinner, consisting of joint and vegetables, without needing constant supervision. The general arrangement is that of three pans fitting closely one inside the other; the bottom of these three has to be partially filled with water, which must be raised to and kept at boiling temperature, and so replenished as to be in continual contact with the bottom of the second pan, which is intended to contain the meat about to be cooked; the steam from the boiling water is then caused, without passing through the second pan, to discharge itself into the third, and by its means vegetables, &c., may be prepared.

At first sight, it may appear as though the advantages gained by this expedient are rather vague and trivial, but a closer inspection into the principle of cooking meat shows that, not only is this method the most convenient, but that at the

same time it possesses the charm of being the most economical.

It is a well-known fact, easily demonstrated by experiment, that meat cooked by the ordinary methods of roasting or boiling loses a considerable amount of substance by the evaporation of its juices —a loss which in some instances approaches a third of the entire weight. This waste is to a great extent avoided by preparing food in Captain Warren's pot; the juices, which are highly nutritious, are by this means returned to the meat, and at a temperature sufficient to cook in the most perfect manner. A joint of meat weighing 10 lbs., to be thoroughly cooked, should be laid in the middle chamber of the pot for about the space of three hours, after which time, to gain strength of flavour, it should be placed before a brisk fire for about twenty minutes; this will impart a rich brown appearance as of ordinary roast meat. Experience has shown that nearly a pint of gravy, which is the ordinary loss by evaporation, is in this way saved.

Fish, soups, hams, game, can all be cooked in a similar manner, with a like saving of nutriment. In preparing fish for table it is well to add a little butter, pepper, and salt, before cooking, as in ordinary frying, for this brings out and strengthens the flavour. Half-an-hour is generally enough time for them, but of course no fixed length of time can be definitely stated as sufficient or necessary for all cases, individual experience and observation is the only sure test.

Though this substitute for roasting recommends itself to many, both on account of its demanding less attention and procuring a diminution in the household bills, yet it is in the boiling of meat that this invention shows most to advantage. This will doubtless sound very strange to those whose ideas of boiling are confined to the immersing of meat in a saucepan of water and leaving it to boil "till it is done," and will need some explanation.

When meat is subjected to the influence of boiling water, all the surface albuminoids become hard and coagulated, and no amount of subsequent boiling will ever free the meat from being tough and unpalatable. Experiment has proved that 180 degrees Fahrenheit is the temperature best suited for rendering the meat tender and digestible, thus providing all the conditions necessary for perfect cooking. This temperature is very difficult to be constantly maintained in an ordinary saucepan, for, unless great care be exercised, it will, from the increased or diminished strength of the fire, rise above or fall below the required point, and thus spoil whatever is being cooked. Warren's pot, however, at once abolishes this necessity for continual vigilance, as the water in the inner vessel never reaches the high temperature of the water without, but remains continually a little below, thus it is only necessary for the bottom pan to be kept constantly boiling to ensure the proper regulation of heat for the vessel in which the actual cooking takes place. It is but fair to state, when mentioning the capabilities of this invention to cook simultaneously meat and vegetables, that in many cases—either owing to the faulty fitting of the two vessels, or the porous character of the metal used in their construction—the food in the upper chamber is found to be tainted with the flavour of the meat in the lower, and this is to some people no slight defect. After use, especial care must be taken to thoroughly cleanse the entire vessel, and when clean it must be allowed to stand open until next required. This latter precaution is as important as the former, for the vapour from the meat clings closely to the walls of the compartment in which it is cooked, and, unless removed directly after use, it will remain until the next joint is prepared, when the heat will again liberate and blend it with that of the food being then prepared.

The Bain-Marie Pan.—The principle made popular by Captain Warren's ingenious invention is one with which many people have been for some time thoroughly conversant, and which cannot be too highly recommended. Perhaps its best illustration is the "Bain-Marie"

pan. This is not nearly so much used in England as its merits deserve, but the hardest place to procure a good reception or fair trial for a new invention is an English kitchen. Most mistresses are totally indifferent and careless about the condition and quality of their cooking apparatus, and the servants, through ignorance, and prejudice, which is the child of ignorance, view with distrust and disapproval the introduction of any new invention, preferring rather to continue the use of an old utensil they know than fly to others which they know not of. In serving a large dinner the "Bain-Marie" pan is indispensable. It consists of a large tray, which is filled with hot water, and stands on the hot-plate of a kitchener. Herein are placed the saucepans containing the entrées, gravies, sauces, &c., which are all kept at the proper temperature, without the risk of any of the dishes burning, boiling over, or losing their flavour. As the dinner hour for which guests accept, and the hour at which they arrive, are generally separated by a wide interval, it is most important to have the power of keeping continually ready a number of dishes, and no method is so sure of maintaining the freshness of taste as the employment of the "Bain-Marie" pans. The best material for their construction is copper. When made of this their cost is about seven guineas. Cheaper ones are sold, made of block tin, but their use is not to be recommended.

Milk Saucepans.—While mentioning this principle of cooking apparatus, it will be as well to take a passing notice of some milk saucepans which have been recently introduced, and are gaining by their merits a general and well deserved reception. Their construction is that of an ordinary saucepan, which is filled with boiling water, and contains a porcelain vessel which holds the milk, and this is heated in the manner indicated above. The advantage this possesses over the ordinary method of boiling in a plain or enamelled saucepan, consists chiefly in the freedom from burning which it ensures; and the milk not adhering to the inside, there is no danger of scorching to saucepans. Such saucepans can be advantageously used for making melted butter, or preparing arrowroot, etc.

The Digester is another important article of comparatively recent introduction. This is an improved and most invaluable kind of stock-pot, which, in some form or another, should be possessed by every household, for whenever there is not soup made there is waste effected, and to throw meat bones away after they have only been once cooked is the height of folly and extravagance. The composition of bones, roughly speaking, is gelatine and phosphate of lime. The former of these substances is highly nutritious, and the foundation of all stock. It cannot, however, be extracted at the ordinary temperature of boiling water, but requires much greater heat. The object of the "Digester" is to provide this heat. This it effects by possessing a lid which screws down tightly on to the body of the vessel, thus preventing the escape of steam, whose heat, in consequence, continually rises, and by rising heightens in a considerable degree the temperature of the water, and so extracts from the bones much of that nutriment which boiling heat would not disturb.

Other Mechanical Aids.—Many other smaller inventions might also be recommended, but to describe in detail the common utensils for daily use in the kitchen is unnecessary. Any book on cookery possesses a complete list, containing all that are necessary, and many that are not. Personal judgment must be so exercised in purchase as to accommodate the wants to the means; but if ever so few things be bought, take care to see that they are the best of their kind. To buy cheap kitchen utensils is not economy, but extravagance. Cheap knives, made of soft iron or lead, a saw made of tin-plate, imperfectly tinned enamelled saucepans, skewers of soft wire, clocks which will not keep time, scales which are inaccurate, and all shams, should be studiously avoided.

Every article that pretends to be what it is not is a falsehood, and exercises a bad moral influence on the people who use it.

COOKING.

Cooking past and present.—In all nations the progress of civilization has been accompanied, if not actually marked, by the higher development of methods for preparing food. This development, though not increasing by regular and progressive stages, but seeming, like the waves, to flow backwards while the tide rolls on, has, like the tide itself, flowed steadily forward with the progress of the minds and habits of men. Now probably half the labour of the human race is occupied in producing food; and, if this food is wasted in extravagance or destroyed by ignorance, the toil which has been spent in its production is wilfully lost. In the earliest state of barbarism, in the most primitive condition of man, the knowledge of making and preserving a fire was always possessed, and one of the first uses of that fire was the preparation of food. It was soon discovered that the condition in which natural substances were found was often unwholesome, occasionally poisonous, and always difficult of digestion. Thus man, in his primitive condition, possessing weaker digestive organs than the animals, was forced to use the resources of his mind to provide for the weakness of his body. To this cause (the old struggle of man against his natural surroundings, and the effort at self-preservation, both by physical labour and intellectual activity) we owe, in the first instance, all the comforts and conveniences which we now possess, and which seem to us necessary parts of our existence. The fight now lies, not, as formerly, against the natural forces, but against the artificial conditions which have been imposed on us by increase of population. The skill which was once exerted solely to prepare the food must now be used to economise it; and the difficulty now to be overcome is, to so adapt the cooking to the natural habits and productions of our country as to combine in the highest degree utility with economy. For some time our insular prejudice rose up against the introduction of soups and stews, and the wisdom of the French peasant, in thus endeavouring to produce the greatest possible amount of comfort and nourishment from the small means at his command, was regarded with ridicule and treated with scorn. These feelings are gradually dying away, and more sensible views obtain. Cookery is as much a manipulative art as chemistry, and the knowledge of it cannot be obtained by merely listening to lectures and reading receipts; but by constant work in the kitchen itself, and by the practice of the principles when learnt, remembering that patience is the handmaid of perfection, and that it is only by repeated failures that we gain success.

Common Sense about Cooking.—Those who are disposed to undervalue the importance of a sound knowledge of cooking cannot be too early convinced of their error, for in all classes comfort and happiness largely depend upon good wholesome cooking. Nothing is so provocative of ill temper and ill health as good food badly cooked. Young women utterly ignorant and careless of domestic duties often think themselves fully qualified to undertake the duties and responsibilities of married life, while at the same time regarding it as derogatory to their dignity to cultivate the knowledge on which, unless their husbands are very wealthy, the happiness of their homes must necessarily depend. The idea that cooking a dinner cannot be associated with high refinement is false and vulgar, no honest occupation is degrading, and true refinement cannot be stifled by an atmosphere of hard work. In some way or another work is the necessary lot of man, and without it no life can be happy or useful. Different circumstances alter and arrange the conditions of each person's labour. One ploughs the field, another grinds the corn, a third makes the bread; but on each and all the

imperative command is laid, "if a man will not work, neither shall he eat." A woman's labour is as unceasing and necessary as a man's. Man provides the means of sustenance; it is the duty of a woman to so regulate and control by actual supervision, the domestic arrangements as to avoid all waste, and ensure comfort. The dignity of the one is not a whit inferior to that of the other, and if this fact were only fully recognized, if people would properly appreciate the true honour of a woman's work, and the disgrace of a woman's idleness, we should rarely have the dissatisfied complaints now only too common at our tables. Unfortunately married women are not always very teachable, and the more they need knowledge the less disposed are they to receive it; for ignorance prefers to remain in darkness, and hates the light of wisdom as bats and owls dislike the light of day. Full of whims, prejudices, and fancies, they regard all new methods with suspicion, and any friendly instruction is often deemed an unwarrantable interference. Hoping that this is not the feeling of those who read this book, we will endeavour in this and following articles to explain some of the more elementary principles of preparing food which are of daily use. And to begin at the beginning, we will first take roasting and boiling, and proceed afterwards with soups, stews, hashes, etc.

Roasting appears the method most suited for developing to the full all the flavours of the meat; a good and carefully-regulated fire is necessary to obtain perfection in this art. It should be so constructed as to be clear and brisk when the meat is first put down, and thus the external albuminoids may be coagulated and form a surface through which the juices may be unable to flow freely. If this fierce heat be continued the meat will burn, hence the temperature must be gradually lessened, without allowing the fire to become hollow and low. To attain this, careful preparation of the fire must be made before cooking is attempted. Many mistakes and failures are due to a neglect of this precaution; the meat frequently coming to table quite black outside, and almost raw within, or so dry and tasteless as to suggest sawdust and shavings as a pleasant alternative.

Larding is simply stitching little strips of fat into meat to prevent the outside from becoming dry. With shut-up stoves the process of basting is extremely difficult, and cannot be performed without the risk of cooling the oven. To obviate this the process of larding is resorted to. A number of small strips of bacon, or pork fat, a little over an inch long and about a quarter of an inch, or rather less, in thickness, are prepared, and these are sewn into the meat with a larding needle. The larding-needle is a small piece of steel, shaped like a conical needle, there being a point at one end, and the other end being hollow—the hollow end being rather less than a quarter of an inch in diameter. This is split up, so that it will expand or shut up with a little pressure. A small strip of bacon is stuck into the big end of the needle, and, by a little pressure of the finger, the piece of bacon is held tight. The cook now takes a stitch through the meat with the needle, bringing it out from the flesh about three-quarters of an inch from where it entered. The depth of the stitch should be rather less than half an inch. By a little ingenuity, in pressing the needle, the strip of fat bacon can be directed through the flesh, so that the fat will stick out at both ends. By removing the pressure on the needle, the piece of fat is instantly let go. In the case of a piece of meat, or the breast of a turkey, hare, guinea fowl, etc., it is very greatly improved by having thin pieces of fat bacon or pork stuck through it. The pieces should be stuck in from half to three-quarters of an inch apart. In larding, cooks would do well to remember which way the joint will be eventually cut. For instance, in larding the breast of a turkey the pieces of fat should be placed in crossways; then when the slice is cut it will contain little round spots

of fat near the edge. Were the strips of fat to be put in lengthways,—that is, the same way in which the joint is cut,—of course the slices would exhibit strips of fat an inch or more in length, which would not be so pleasant.

Baking exactly reverses the process employed in roasting. The heat is gradually raised instead of lowered, and consequently the meat is never so tender and easily-digested as when roasted. No reliable time can be given for roasting, because the nature and qualities of the meat vary. About two hours for seven pounds of beef, and one hour and three-quarters for a leg of mutton of the same weight, or, roughly speaking, about a quarter of an hour to the pound will be generally found sufficient. If the fire be constructed as just explained, it will be found that very little of the juice of the meat will escape, and as continual basting is absolutely essential to develop the flavours of the meat, and prevent scorching, some dripping must be placed in the pan a little while before the meat is set down; this will rapidly dissolve, and mixing with some of the juice, which must escape from the joint, will form not only a useful substance for basting, but also the foundation of an excellent gravy. To tell when the meat is done, press the fleshy part with a spoon, when, if the meat yield to the pressure it will be sufficiently cooked; in the case of poultry or game, the flesh of the leg may be tried in the same way. When the meat is nearly done, sprinkle it over with a little salt, and put the ends of the joint to the fire. If the meat is required to be frothed, dredge, very lightly, a little well-dried flour over the surface, and give it time to crisp.

Boiling.—The other method of which we will now treat, forms, with roasting, the two standard ways of cooking; boiling is by far the easiest and most wholesome manner of cooking yet discovered, but even in this simple process care must be taken, or the meat will be spoiled. The saucepan in which the meat is placed should be very clean, and to secure this important point it must be well washed and scoured; if the pan be enamelled, it should be scoured with wood ashes in preference to sand, since they do not scratch and tear the lining, and the alkali of the ash, uniting with the grease of the pan, forms a soap, and thus effects what no amount of grit or water alone could possibly accomplish. The saucepan must be filled sufficiently full for the water to well cover the meat; at the bottom place a plate or saucer, this allows the water to gain free access to every part of the meat, and prevents it sticking to the bottom. If procurable, clear rain water is the best to use; raise this to boiling heat, and then place the meat in it; this will of course instantly lower the temperature of the water, wait therefore till it again boils, and then, after three minutes, draw the saucepan to one side, and continue the cooking at a temperature of about 170° or 180° Fahrenheit, *i.e.*, about 30° or 40° below the boiling point. The advantage gained in first placing the meat in boiling water and then reducing the temperature, is the same as that explained above, namely, to coagulate the surface albuminoids and thus form a coat through which the juices cannot freely pass. When the temperature is lowered in accordance with the directions given above, take care not to be misled by what ignorant people term gently boiling; the heat at which the bubbles of air are released is absolutely the same whether the surface of the water shows only a gentle or a boisterious bubbling. A quarter of an hour for a pound of meat, and a quarter of an hour over will generally be found sufficient to thoroughly cook it; but if the weight is above six pounds, allow half an hour over. It is impossible to boil anything without a scum rising, which must in all cases be well skimmed off, or it mixes with the food, spoiling both its appearance and its flavour. As the water in which meat is cooked will always draw off and absorb some of the juices and nutriment, it should be carefully preserved and made the foundation of a soup.

The Use of Remnants.—In this article we intend to offer some hints as to the disposal of the remnants of our meals. Everyone knows it is easier for a general to lead an army forward than to conduct a retreat; and so it will be found that greater skill can be displayed in employing the cold pieces of meat in such a way as to render them attractive alike to the palate and to the eye, than in serving up for the first time an untouched joint. It is said that hashed mutton and stews drive men to the clubs, and are the horror of sons and husbands; but this arises from their not being properly prepared. It must always be borne in mind that cooking is not merely a method for providing fuel for the engine that works human machinery, but an art which should appeal to the eye as well as to the appetite, and supply gratification equally for both. Nothing is more uninviting than the apparition of yesterday's joint, perhaps decorated with parsley, which only seems to throw its frightful ugliness into stronger relief; and it is little to be wondered at if the presence of this, accompanied with mashed potatoes and a few pickles, is considered by most men a sufficient reason for absenting themselves from home, and leaving to be consumed by the wife and children what they themselves would scarcely condescend to touch. No more pernicious principle than this could be introduced into a household; yet it may easily be avoided by a little forethought and care, and a frequent cause of domestic discord thus removed. Cold mutton is a food which Thackeray declared to be quite incapable of supporting affection, and it must be owned that this and the alternative of greasy messes, dignified by the name of hashes, are not very inviting to a man after a hard day's work. But if a home is properly conducted, there should be no place where a man can obtain greater comfort and happiness, and satisfaction, both in mind and body, than in the home with his wife and children; and what is good enough for them to eat, should be good enough also for him. In a family the dinner should be made the daily humanizing influence of the household. There is, at this meal, a peculiar freedom, never obtained at other times; and an opportunity is then afforded of reaching the thoughts and feelings of the children, which cannot be too highly appreciated. It should be the study of a wife to render the plainest food varied in character and attractive in appearance; and she has a right to expect in return the encouraging love of her husband, and a kindly interest in all the monotonous details of domestic life. This will render easy the most severe drudgery, and will procure that happiness and comfort which wealth cannot purchase or rank command. In spite of the want and suffering which swarms around us on every side, we are still the most extravagant of civilized nations in all matters connected with food. But our extravagance lies not so much in what we cook as in what we waste; the bones which are given to dogs, or "put out for the cats," the scraps and trimmings of meat which are discarded as useless, the liquor in which meat has been boiled, and which is often thrown away as "dirty," all these contain nourishing properties almost equal to the roast joint served up to table; and to discard them as worthless, or only fit for the lower animals, is both wasteful and wicked. It is often thought that meat twice cooked is spoiled; and there is no doubt that often when it appears at the table a second time, much of its taste and flavour depends on the gravy with which it is served; and this disadvantage is often heightened by the meat being fibrous and stringy; but all these drawbacks may be partially if not entirely removed by not putting the meat into the gravy at once, but by heating the gravy first and then laying in the meat afterwards—a precaution slight in appearance, but important in results. In cutting up the meat, take care to ensure as far as possible all the pieces being of the same size and thickness; and should any part be more

underdone than another, allow it longer time in the gravy. The following receipt gives all the details necessary to be observed. Mutton has been taken as the most suitable meat for use.

Hashed Mutton.—Cut up neatly from a leg of mutton, or other joint, all the meat, in slices of about the same size; remove all fat, skin, and bone, and every piece which is burned or blackened by the fire, or the hash will have a strong, disagreeable flavour. The parts not used for hash may go into the stockpot. Melt in a quart stewpan an ounce of sweet butter, add two finely-minced eschalots and a dessert-spoonful of flour, and stir for five minutes or until it is brown. Now add two gills of stock, salt if necessary, half a teaspoonful of whole pepper, one clove, three allspice, a small *bouquet garni*, a teaspoonful of walnut ketchup or half the quantity of Worcester sauce, and a table-spoonful of tomato sauce. Stir continually till the contents come to the boil; boil five minutes; strain into another stewpan, and let the sauce cool before adding the meat, or it will harden. When cool, lay in the pieces of meat, place the stewpan over the fire, occasionally shake, but be careful not to let the hash boil. As soon as the meat is sufficiently warmed through, serve with small pieces of bread fried in butter or dripping. The judgment must, of course, be exercised in not introducing flavours which would be distasteful to the peculiar fancies of certain individuals; and if these and similar precautions be observed, much of the antipathy to hashes would disappear, and no one who was not dyspeptically bad-tempered would be able to quarrel with the dish. To prepare **Hashed Beef** follow the directions given for Hashed Mutton.

Stewing is the basis of what are called "made dishes," and possesses over other methods of cooking the advantage of rendering tender even the coarsest and toughest parts of the meat. The perfection of stewing depends on the slow process by which the cooking is accomplished; great haste in all matters generally signifies less speed, but in this case it means no speed at all, but absolute failure. No definite rule can be given, all must depend on the care and intelligence of the cook. The lid of the saucepan should be removed as little as possible; and to secure this, shake the saucepan gently instead of stirring its contents. Stewing is the most economical kind of cooking, the flavour and nourishment of all the materials are fully secured, and if the dish be not too highly seasoned, the meat is made tender, savoury, and easy of digestion. The most typical example of stewing is Irish stew, of which we add a receipt. A number of other methods can be obtained from this by altering a few particulars and exercising judgment so as not to adhere too slavishly to every detail.

Irish Stew.—Take a neck of mutton and trim off most of the fat, and cut into as many cutlets as you have bones; shape them and sprinkle with pepper. Peel six moderate sized onions; and for every pound of meat take one pound of potatoes. Blanch or parboil (which is the same thing) the vegetables separately, and cut them into slices. Take a clean three-quart stewpan, and add half a pint of water or stock. Arrange a layer of potatoes at the bottom of the stewpan, then cutlets, then onions, then potatoes, then cutlets, then onions, and finish the top with a good layer of potatoes. A rasher or two of bacon or ham is a valuable addition. Stew very slowly till the cutlets are done. Have sufficient stock or water to prevent the stew from burning. Scrag end, or inferior pieces of meat, or the remains of previously cooked meat, may be used; and, if the mutton is not very fat, add a little butter or dripping to the contents of the stewpan.

Soups.—After these methods of cooking, and means of disposing of pieces, comes an entirely different one, which, though we have placed it last in this connection is by no means the least. In what we have previously written the meat itself has always been

served up to table, but in the methods now to be described all the nourishment of the meat is extracted and served up as soup. The basis of all soup is a sound stock. This is best prepared in the digester; but, to those who are obliged to dispense with this useful article, a saucepan can take its place.

Beef Stock.—To make three quarts of good beef stock, put into a saucepan or stockpot two pounds of fresh shin of beef, half-a-pound of bones broken into pieces, with seven pints of clean rain water, if you have it. Let the contents come slowly to the boil. Remove all the scum by frequent skimming. The addition of a little cold water at intervals will facilitate the rising of the scum by altering the specific gravity of the water; if the scum be not removed it will partially redissolve, and spoil the clearness and flavour of the stock, and you will have the trouble of clarifying. After well skimming, add the following: one ounce of salt; one onion, weighing five ounces, with *two*, or at most *three*, cloves stuck in it; leeks, say five ounces; half a head of celery, weighing half-an-ounce; turnip cut into quarters, weighing five ounces; carrot sliced, weighing five ounces; parsnip sliced, weighing one ounce; one teaspoonful of whole pepper. The contents must now simmer at 180° to 200° for four or five hours. Remove the fat by skimming, which, when cold, can be used for frying or other purposes. Take out the meat, vegetables, and bones, and strain the stock into an earthenware vessel or large basin, and keep it in a cool place, free from dust; a piece of muslin gauze may be placed over it. Any remaining fat can be removed in a solid state when the liquor is cold. Stock soup, broth, or stew, should always be kept in earthenware vessels. The vegetables should not remain longer in the stock than is necessary to properly cook them, as they afterwards absorb the flavour. In spring and summer, when vegetables are young, they cook in less time, but a stock may be, and often is, prepared without vegetables, when the flavour is more delicate. Be careful not to disturb the sediment in pouring from one vessel to another. Always prepare your stock a day or two before it is required. When the stock has once been prepared, making soup is a comparatively easy task, which the few appended recipes will clearly explain.

Pea Soup (to make two quarts).—*Ingredients:* half a pound of split peas, one Spanish onion, two ounces of dripping, dried herbs, three pints of stock. Take half a pound of good split peas, wash them in several waters, and let them soak all night in a pint of water; put two ounces of good butter or sweet dripping into a saucepan, when it is melted add the peas, well drained from the water, with a lump of sugar about the size of a walnut; stir frequently; as they begin to thicken add, from time to time, a gill of water; when they have been on the fire about an hour, add a Spanish onion, or two or three common ones, shredded very finely; half a teaspoonful of dried herbs, and half a teaspoonful of dried mint; add water as it thickens; let all boil gently for two hours; stir frequently to prevent burning; rub the peas through a coarse sieve; return the pulp to the saucepan, with three pints of good stock, add salt and pepper to taste; boil five minutes, and it is ready. This soup may be made with mutton broth, or with the liquor in which beef has been boiled, if not too salt; then the water may be omitted and the broth used instead. Split peas will never soften in hard or salt water. When the liquor from salt pork or beef is used, the peas should be boiled in soft water. If the soup is required to be very thick, use one pound of peas instead of half a pound. *Precaution.*—This soup will require frequent stirring.

Scotch Broth.—Take a neck of mutton, and trim it as for cutlets; remove seven of the cutlets and put them aside on a dish; put the remaining part of the neck into a saucepan with two quarts of soft, cold water; add two onions, one

with two cloves stuck in; when the water is just on the boil, skim; add altogether half a pint of the following vegetables, made up of about equal quantities: carrots, turnips, leeks, and onions, cut up into quarter-inch dice; simmer for three hours; add pepper and salt to taste; scald two ounces of Scotch barley, finish cooking it in water, with a little butter and salt; put the chops into another stewpan with some of the broth or stock; slowly cook them; drain the barley and put it into the tureen with the cutlets; remove the neck of mutton on to a dish; pour the broth into the tureen, add a dessert-spoonful of coarsely chopped parsley previously scalded. *Precautions.*—Do not boil after adding the vegetables. Have the barley ready soaked for two hours before scalding.

Mutton Broth (to make two quarts).—Take two pounds of scrag of mutton, put it into a large basin, cover with cold water and a little salt to remove the blood; let it remain one hour; put it into a stewpan with two quarts of water, with either one ounce of Scotch barley or rice, or oatmeal according to taste, and one onion; let it come to the boil slowly; skim; add two turnips cut into quarters; let the contents simmer for two hours. A little chopped parsley or petals of marigolds are sometimes added; season with salt only; strain into the tureen; serve the meat as a separate dish, with parsley and butter or caper sauce. For sick persons this broth should be prepared without vegetable flavour, and carefully freed from fat. *Precautions.*—This broth should be prepared slowly and not too strong with turnip.

Beef Tea.—Take 1 lb. of the roll of beef from under the bladebone, cut up the meat in very thin slices, removing every particle of fat. Put this in a large jar and add 1 pint of cold water. Cover the jar with a saucer and let stand for at least three hours. Stand this jar in a saucepan of water, and let it remain on the fire until the beef tea changes to a brownish colour. Strain the liquid from the meat and add salt to liking.

Julienne Soup.—Take some carrots, turnips, onions, leeks, and celery; cut them into little ribbons of the same size—say about an inch and a quarter in length and very narrow—so that they may cook equally—fry the carrots in some butter, and then pour over them boiling stock; add the other vegetables and let all stew for an hour. For two quarts of stock allow ½ lb. carrots, ½ head celery, ½ lb. turnips, 3 leeks, ½ lb. onions, and two ounces of butter. In summer you may add green peas, asparagus tops, French beans, some lettuce or sorrel.

Mullagatawny Soup may be made with fowl, rabbit, calf's head, breast of veal or even tinned meat. The following is made with fowl or rabbit, which should be cut up into pieces and browned a little. Lay in your stewpan some rashers of lean bacon; put in the pieces of meat with a few onions, which have been cut into slices and fried, one clove of garlic and about two quarts of stock. Let all simmer, and when the meat is quite tender add to it a batter made of two tablespoonfuls of curry powder; pound a few almonds and add these too; season, and flavour with lemon juice or mango juice to taste.

Mock Turtle Soup. Four receipts. 1. Take a calf's head with the skin on, cut it in half, and clean it well; then half boil it, take all the meat off in square bits, break the bones of the head, and boil them in some veal and beef broth to add to the richness. Fry some shalot in butter, and dredge-in flour enough to thicken the gravy; stir this into the browning, and give it one or two boils; skin it carefully, and then put in the head; put in also a pint of Madeira wine, and simmer till the meat is quite tender. About ten minutes before you serve, put in some basil, taragon, chives, parsley, Cayenne pepper, and salt, to your taste; also two spoonfuls of mushroom-ketchup, and one of soy. Squeeze the juice of a lemon into the tureen, and pour the soup upon it. Add forcemeat-balls. 2. **A cheaper way.**—Prepare half a calf's head, *without* the skin, as above: when the meat is cut off, break the bones, and

put them into a saucepan with some gravy made of beef and veal bones, and seasoned with fried onions, herbs, mace, and pepper. Have ready two or three ox-palates boiled so tender as to blanch, and cut into small pieces; to which a cow heel, likewise cut into pieces, is a great improvement. Brown some butter, flour, and onion, and pour the gravy to it; then add the meats as above, and stew. Half a pint of sherry, an anchovy, two spoonfuls of walnut-ketchup, the same of mushroom-ketchup, and some chopped herbs as before. Add forcemeat-balls. 3. **Another way.**—Put into a pan a knuckle of veal, two fine cow-heels, two onions, a few cloves, peppers, berries of allspice, mace, and sweet herbs; cover them with water, then tie a thick paper over the pan, and set it in an oven for three hours. When cold, take off the fat very nicely, cut the meat and feet into bits an inch and a half square, remove the bones and coarse parts; and then put the rest on to warm, with a large spoonful of walnut and one of mushroom-ketchup, half a pint of sherry or Madeira wine, a little mushroom-powder, and the jelly of the meat. When hot, if it wants any more seasoning, add some; and serve with hard eggs, forcemeat-balls, a squeeze of lemon, and a spoonful of soy. 4. **Another method.**—Stew a pound and a half of scrag of mutton, with from three pints of water to a quart, then set the broth on, with a calf's foot and a cow-heel, cover the stew-pan tight, and simmer till you can cut off the meat from the bones in proper bits. Set it on again with the broth, a quarter of a pint of Madeira wine or sherry, a large onion, half a tea-spoonful of Cayenne pepper, a bit of lemon-peel, two anchovies, some sweet herbs, eighteen oysters cut into pieces, and then chopped fine, a tea-spoonful of salt, a little nutmeg, and the liquor of the oysters: cover it tight and simmer three quarters of an hour. Serve with forcemeat-balls, and hard eggs in the tureen. An excellent and very cheap mock-turtle may be made of two or three cow-heels baked with two pounds and a half of gravy-beef, herbs, etc., as above, with cow-heels and veal.

Macaroni Soup.—Boil a pound of the best macaroni in a quart of good stock till quite tender; then take out half, and put it into another stew-pot. To the remainder add some more stock, and boil it till you can pulp all the macaroni through a fine sieve. Then add together that, the two liquors, a pint or more of cream boiling hot, the macaroni that was first taken out, and half a pound of grated Parmesan cheese; make it hot, but do not let it boil. Serve it with the crust of a French roll cut into the size of a shilling.

White Soup.—In hot weather there are few things more appetising to commence dinner with than good white soup. All white soups depend on one base—an admixture of good white stock and boiling milk. To make good white soup take a pint of some good stock; for example, the jelly formed by boiling down chicken bones. This should be flavoured with onions and one or two other vegetables, celery or celery seed, according to the time of year, being essential. Boil the milk by itself before you add it to the stock. Have ready a small quantity of cold milk—say a tablespoonful—in a cup. Place the saucepan on the fire, and when the milk begins to foam you know it boils. Wait till the foam rises. Now you know that it all boils. Two or three seconds longer, and it will all be in the fire. At one and the same moment remove the saucepan from the fire and dash in the little drop of cold milk. Now you have milk of a distinctive flavour. Add this to the stock, and to make vegetable marrow soup, take a marrow, and boil it separately in a little water. Vegetable marrow itself contains so much water that, were you to boil it in the stock, it would weaken the stock. When it is nearly tender, take it out, and cut it up into small pieces. Of course it must be previously peeled and the pips taken out. Pass the whole through a wire sieve, and if not sufficiently thick, add a little butter and flour, and let it boil.

Vegetable Soup.—Peel and slice six large onions, six potatoes, six carrots, and four turnips; fry them in half a pound of butter, and pour on them four quarts of boiling water. Toast a crust of bread as brown and hard as possible, but do not burn it; put that, some celery, sweet herbs, white pepper, and salt to the above; stew it all gently four hours, then strain it through a coarse cloth: have ready sliced carrot, celery, and a little turnip, and add to your liking, and stew them tender in the soup. If approved you may add an anchovy, and a spoonful of ketchup.

Cabbage Soup, when made from young white summer cabbages, is extremely good. Cabbages require a certain amount of grease. Accordingly I have chosen the opportunity for giving cabbage soup when we have some stock by us in which we have boiled a piece of bacon—in fact, we have what may be termed some greasy stock. The water that has boiled pickled pork, bacon, etc., should never be thrown away; and economical housekeepers would do well to bear in mind how it can be utilised. Boiled bacon and cabbage is an old seafaring dish. Make the soup as follows: first, take some greasy stock, place it in a saucepan, put it on the fire, and let it boil. While it is boiling, cut up and place in it half-a-dozen leeks or onions; leeks are more delicate in flavour. Add, of course, a little pepper and salt. Next take a large summer cabbage, trim off the outside leaves, cut it in halves, and throw it into some plain boiling water, where it must remain till nearly tender. When nearly tender, take it out, strain it off, and throw away the water in which it has been boiled. Next slice up the cabbage crossways, place it in the greasy stock, and serve. You now have really admirable soup; and when the cabbage is nice and white inside, this is really a most agreeable dish. Still better cabbage soup can be made by taking good white stock, made from boiling milk and good stock; and, after boiling the cabbage as we have already done, place it in this.

Onion Soup.—Into the water that has boiled a leg or neck of mutton put carrots, turnips, and (if you have one) a shank-bone, and simmer two hours. Strain it on six onions, first sliced and fried of a light brown, simmer three hours, skim it carefully, and serve. Put into it a little roll, or fried bread.

Green-pea Soup.—In shelling the peas, divide the old from the young; put the old ones, with an ounce of butter, a pint of water, the outside leaves of a lettuce or two, two onions, pepper, and salt, to stew till you can pulp the peas; and when you have done so, put to the liquor that stewed them some more water, the hearts and tender stalks of the lettuces, the young peas, a handful of spinach cut small, and salt and pepper to relish properly, and stew till quite soft. If the soup is too thin, or not rich enough, either of these faults may be removed by adding an ounce or two of butter, mixed with a spoonful of rice or wheat-flour, and boiled with it half an hour. Before serving, boil some green mint, shred fine, in the soup. When there is plenty of vegetables, no meat is necessary; but if meat be preferred, a pig's foot, or ham-bone, etc. may be boiled with the old peas, which is called the stock. More butter than is mentioned above may be used with advantage, if the soup is required to be very rich. When peas first come in, or are very young, the stock may be made of the shells, washed and boiled till they will pull with the above: more thickening will then be wanted.

Hare Soup.—Take an old hare that is good for nothing else, cut it into pieces, and put to it a pound and a half of lean beef, two or three shank-bones of mutton well cleaned, a slice of lean bacon or ham, an onion, and a bunch of sweet herbs; pour on it two quarts of boiling water; cover the jar into which you put these, with bladder and paper, and set it in a kettle of water. Simmer till the hare is stewed to pieces; strain off the liquor and give it one boil, with an anchovy cut into pieces; and add a spoonful of soy, a little Cayenne, and

salt. A few fine forcemeat-balls, fried of a good brown, should be served in the tureen.

Stock for brown or white Fish Soups. Take a pound of skate, four or five flounders, and two pounds of eels. Clean them well, and cut them into pieces: cover them with water; and season them with mace, pepper, salt, an onion stuck with cloves, a head of celery, two parsley-roots sliced, and a bunch of sweet herbs. Simmer an hour and a half closely covered, and then strain it off for use. If for brown soup, first fry the fish brown in butter, and then do as above. It will not keep more than two or three days. This stock will be found very useful in preparing the various kinds of fish soups in use.

Gravies.—Gravy may be made quite as good of the skirts of beef, kidney, or milt, or of the liver of a fat ox, as of any other kind of meat, if cut in pieces, fried with onions, and seasoned with herbs and spices, as other gravies. Gravy may also be made of the knuckle of dressed mutton, if much be not required. The bones and pieces of meat cut off to make joints appear well, called trimmings, as likewise those of fowls, may be made by a skilful cook to answer the same purpose. All the shank-bones of legs and shoulders of mutton should be thrown into water, and, after good soaking and brushing, be long boiled: the water in which they are done will add greatly to the richness of gravy, as does the jelly of cow-heels. The latter must lie all night in water, which causes the jelly to be a good colour. When these have been boiled three hours, and allowed to become cold, let the fat be carefully taken off; and when apparently quite clear, lay some white paper upon it, rubbing it close with a spoon, to remove every particle of grease, and it will be as pure as the jelly of a calf's foot. Tarragon and knotted marjoram, by some called London thyme, give the flavour of French cookery, and are a great improvement to gravies, but should be added only a short time before serving. **Gravy that will keep.**—Cut lean beef thin, put it into a frying-pan without any butter or fat, and set it on a fire covered, but take care it does not burn: let it stay till all the gravy that comes out of the meat is dried up into it again, often shaking it; put as much water as will cover the meat, and let that stew away. Then put to the meat a small quantity of water, herbs, onions, spice, and a bit of lean ham: simmer till it is rich, and keep it in a cool place. Do not take off the fat till it is to be used. **Another way.**—Lay meat at the bottom of a stew-pan, with two or three ounces of butter, and herbs and roots strewed over it: cover close, and set it on a slow part of the stove. When the gravy is drawn out, shake it into the meat, and let it remain till nearly dried up again; then add as much water as required. **Clear Gravy.**—Slice beef thin; broil a part of it over a very clear quick fire, just enough to give colour to the gravy, but not to dress it: put that and the raw into a very nicely tinned stew-pan, with two onions, a clove or two, whole black peppers, berries of allspice, and a bunch of sweet herbs: cover it with hot water, give it one boil, and skim it well two or three times; then cover it, and simmer till quite strong. **Gravy for a Fowl.**—Wash the feet nicely, and cut them and the neck small; simmer them with a little bread browned, a slice of onion, a bit of parsley and thyme, some pepper and salt, and the liver and gizzard, in a quarter of a pint of water, till half-wasted. Take out the liver, bruise it, and strain the liquor to it. Then thicken it with flour and butter, and add a tea-spoonful of mushroom ketchup, and it will be very good. **Savoury Jelly, to put over cold Pies.**—Make it of a small bare knuckle of leg or shoulder of veal, or a piece of scrag of that, or mutton; or, if the pie be of fowl or rabbit, the carcases, necks, and heads, added to any piece of meat, will be sufficient, observing to give consistence by cowheel or shanks of mutton. Put the meat, a slice of lean ham or bacon, a faggot of different herbs, two blades of mace, an onion or

two, a small bit of lemon-peel, and a tea-spoonful of Jamaica pepper bruised, and the same of whole pepper, and three pints of water, in a stew-pot that shuts very close. As soon as it boils skim it well, and let it simmer very slowly till quite strong; strain it, and when cold take off the fat with a spoon first, and then, to remove every particle of grease, lay a clean piece of cap or blotting-paper on it. When cold, if not clear, boil it a few minutes with the whites of two eggs (but don't add the sediment), and pour it through a sieve, with a napkin in it, which has been dipped in boiling water, to prevent waste.

Sauces. Sauce for Wild Fowl.—Simmer a tea-cupful of port wine, the same quantity of good meat gravy, a little shalot, a little pepper, salt, a grate of nutmeg, and a bit of mace, for ten minutes; put in a bit of butter and flour, give it all one boil, and pour it through the birds. In general they are not stuffed as tame, but may be done so if liked. **Sauce for Fowl of any sort.**—Boil some veal gravy, pepper, salt, the juice of a Seville orange and a lemon, and a quarter as much of port wine as of gravy: pour it into the dish, or a boat. **Mushroom Sauce, for Fowl or Rabbits.**—Wash and pick a pint of young mushrooms, and rub them with salt, to take off the tender skin. Put them into a sauce-pan with a little salt, some nutmeg, a blade of mace, a pint of cream, and a good piece of butter rubbed in flour. Boil them up, and stir them till done; then pour the sauce round the chickens, etc. Garnish with lemon.—If you cannot get fresh mushrooms, use pickled ones done white, with a little mushroom powder with the cream, etc. **Lemon white Sauce for boiled Fowls.**—Put the peel of a small lemon, cut very thin, into a pint of sweet rich cream, with a sprig of lemon-thyme, and ten white pepper-corns. Simmer gently till it tastes well of the lemon: then strain it; and thicken it with a quarter of a pound of butter, and a dessert-spoonful of flour rubbed in it. Boil it up; then pour the juice of the lemon strained into it, stirring it well. Dish the chickens, and then mix a little white gravy, quite hot with the cream, but don't boil them together: and salt to your taste. **White Sauce for Fricassee of Fowls, Rabbits, White Meat, Fish, or Vegetables.**—It is seldom necessary to buy meat for this favourite sauce, as the proportion of that flavour is but small. The water that has boiled fowls, veal, or rabbit; or a little broth, that may be in the house; or the feet and necks of chicken, or raw or dressed veal, will suffice. Stew with a little water any of these, with a bit of lemon peel, some sliced onion, some white pepper-corns, a little pounded mace, or nutmeg, and a bunch of sweet herbs, until the flavour be good, then strain it, and add a little good cream, a piece of butter, and a *little* flour: salt to your taste. A squeeze of lemon may be added after the sauce is taken off the fire, shaking it well. Yolk of egg is often used in fricassee, but if you have any cream it is better; and the former is apt to curdle. **Liver Sauce.**—Chop boiled liver of rabbits or fowls, and do it as directed for lemon sauce, (see next col.) with a very little pepper and salt, and some parsley. **Egg Sauce.**—Boil the eggs hard, and cut them into small pieces; then put them into melted butter. **Onion Sauce.**—Peel the onions, and boil them tender: squeeze the water from them, then chop them and add them to butter that has been melted rich and smooth, as will be hereafter directed, but with a little good milk instead of water; boil it up once, and serve it for boiled rabbits, partridges, scrag or knuckle of veal, or roast mutton. A turnip boiled with the onions makes them milder. **Bread Sauce.**—Boil a large onion, cut into four, with some black pepper and milk, till the onion is quite a pap. Pour the milk strained on grated white stale bread, and cover it. In an hour put it into a sauce-pan, with a good piece of butter mixed with a little flour; boil the whole up together, and serve. **Tomato Sauce, for hot or cold Meats.**—Put tomatoes, when

perfectly ripe, into an earthen jar; and set them in a slow oven, to remain there until they are quite soft; then separate the skins from the pulp, and mix with capsicum-vinegar, and a few cloves of garlic pounded, which must both be proportioned to the quantity of fruit. Add powdered ginger and salt to your taste. Some white-wine vinegar and Cayenne may be used instead of capsicum-vinegar. Keep the mixture in small wide-mouthed bottles, well corked, and in a dry cool place.

Apple Sauce, for Goose and Roast Pork.—Pare, core, and slice, some apples; and put them in a stone jar into a saucepan of water, or on a hot hearth. If on a hearth, let a spoonful or two of water be put in to hinder them from burning. When they are done, bruise them to a mash, and put to them a bit of butter the size of a nutmeg, and a little brown sugar. Serve it in a sauce-tureen.

Sauce Piquante.—Chop some onion, some gherkins, and some capers—say a teaspoonful of each when chopped—place them in a frying-pan on the fire in a very little vinegar, and some pepper, and let them remain on the fire till the vinegar boils away, but do not let them get dry. Then add some thick brown gravy—say a quarter of a pint—and let them boil in this for ten minutes or a quarter of an hour, and then the sauce is ready to serve. The chief secret in making sauce piquante is in letting the vinegar boil away. A very great improvement, when possible, is to let a couple of bay leaves and a sprig of thyme boil with the vinegar; but these should be taken out before the sauce is served. **Mustard Sauce** is served with fresh herrings. Make a *small* quantity of good butter sauce, *i.e.*, in which there is five or six times as much butter as flour. When fairly thick, add a few spoonfuls of made mustard and a little cayenne pepper—soluble cayenne is far the best. If you have a pot of French mustard in the house, you can add a spoonful of it with the English mustard.

Horse-radish Sauce.—To make this, proceed as follows: Grate a good-sized stick of horse-radish. Add this to a quarter of a pint of milk, a dessert-spoonful of Swiss milk, a tablespoonful, or rather more, of vinegar, and a good-sized teaspoonful of made mustard; stir the whole well together. The sauce is, of course, cold; and the more grated horse-radish added to it the better.

Dutch Sauce.—To make Dutch sauce take a quarter of a pint of good clean stock, which, when cold, would be a jelly even in summer time. Next take the yolks of three eggs, beat them up, and gradually add to the beaten eggs the hot sauce. When all of it has been added, place it in a small jug, after dissolving in it about an ounce of butter and flavouring it with a little pepper and salt. Then place the jug in boiling water, and stir the sauce until it gradually becomes thick like a custard. To this may be added a small quantity of tarragon vinegar, if the sauce is intended for fish, or a little lemon juice as well as a little finely-chopped parsley, and one or two fresh tarragon leaves may be chopped up very finely with the parsley.

Lemon Sauce.—Cut thin slices of lemon into very small dice, and put them into melted butter; give it one boil, and pour it over boiled fowls.

Oyster Sauce.—Save the liquor in opening the oysters; and boil it with the beards, a bit of mace, and lemon-peel. In the mean time throw the oysters into cold water, and drain it off. Strain the liquor, and put it into a sauce-pan with them, and as much butter, mixed with a little milk, as will make sauce enough; but first rub a little flour with it. Set them over the fire, and stir all the time; and when the butter has boiled once or twice, take them off, and keep the saucepan near the fire, but not on it: for if done too much, the oysters will be hard. Squeeze a little lemon-juice, and serve. A little cream is a great improvement. Observe, the oysters will thin the sauce, so put butter accordingly.

Lobster Sauce—Pound the spawn, and two anchovies pour on them two spoonfuls of gravy;

strain all into some melted butter, made as directed below: then put in the meat of the lobster, give it all one boil, and add a squeeze of lemon. **Another way.**—Leave out the anchovies and gravy; and do it as above, either with or without a little salt and ketchup, as you like. Many prefer the flavour of the lobster and salt only. **Shrimp Sauce.**—If the shrimps are not picked at home, pour a little water over them to wash them: put them to butter melted thick and smooth, give them one boil, and add the juice of a lemon. **Anchovy Sauce.**—Chop one or two anchovies without washing, put them to some flour and butter, and a little drop of water; stir it over the fire till it boils once or twice. When the anchovies are good, they will be dissolved; and the colour will be better than by the usual way **Melted Butter.**—Mix in the proportion of a tea-spoonful of flour to four ounces of the best butter, on a trencher. Put it into a small saucepan, and two or three table-spoonfuls of hot water, boil quickly a minute, shaking it all the time. Milk used instead of water requires rather less butter, and looks whiter. **Caper Sauce.**—Follow the directions for making *melted butter* and add chopped capers. **Parsley and Butter.**—This is melted butter to which must be added chopped parsley. **Black Butter.**—To make black butter, I would recommend as follows:—Take a couple of ounces of butter, and melt it in a frying-pan, and keep it on the fire till the butter turns a rich, brown colour, like the outside of a horse chestnut. Then take it off the fire, and, after waiting for a few minutes for the butter to get below the temperature of boiling water, add to it a tea-spoonful of chopped capers, with a little of the liquor or vinegar in which the capers are preserved, a teaspoonful of mushroom ketchup, and a teaspoonful of Harvey's sauce; if you have not the latter by you, put double the quantity of ketchup. Those who like sauces acid—and there are some persons who will swim their plates in vinegar, with cold, roast beef—can easily add vinegar afterwards. In addition, a little black pepper will be found an improvement. **Mint Sauce.**—Chop some mint very fine; put it into a boat and cover with good brown vinegar to which a little coarse sugar has been added. **Nasturtiums, for Capers.**—Keep them a few days after they are gathered, then pour boiling venegar over them, and when cold, cover. They will not be fit to eat for some months, but are then finely flavoured and by many preferred to capers. **Forcemeat,** whether in the form of stuffing-balls, or in patties, plays an important part in good cooking by the flavour it imparts to whatsoever dish it is added to, if properly made. Exact rules for the quantity cannot easily be given; but the following observations may be useful, and habit will soon give knowledge in mixing it to the taste. **Forcemeat, to stuff Fowls or Meat.**—Shred a little ham, or gammon, some cold veal, or fowl, some beef-suet; a small quantity of onion, some parsley, very little lemon-peel, salt, nutmeg, or pounded mace, and either white pepper or Cayenne, and bread crumbs. Pound it in a mortar, and bind it with one or two eggs beaten and strained. For forcemeat patties, the mixture as above. **For cold savoury Pies.**—The same; only substituting fat, or bacon, for suet. The livers, (if the pie be of rabbit or fowls) mixed with fat and lean of pork, instead of bacon, and seasoned as above, are excellent. **Brown Roux** for thickening gravies and sauces is made by baking or frying butter and flour together until it becomes a nice brown colour. When making this thickening stir it very slowly to prevent its becoming burnt. It can be put in a jar ready for use and will keep good for some time. **Browning to colour and flavour Made-dishes.**—Beat to powder four ounces of double-refined sugar, put it into an iron frying-pan, with one ounce of fine fresh butter, mix it well over a clear fire, and, when it begins to froth, hold it up higher; when of a very fine dark brown, pour in a small quantity of port wine which may increase to a pint by very slow degrees, stirring all the time.

Put to the above half an ounce of Jamaica, and the same of black pepper, six cloves of shallots peeled, three blades of mace bruised, three spoonfuls of mushroom, and the same of walnut ketchup, some salt, and the finely-pared rind of a lemon; boil gently fifteen minutes, pour it into a basin till cold, take off the scum, and bottle for use. **Rice Edging, for a Curry, or Fricassee.**—After soaking and picking fine Carolina rice, boil it in water, and a little salt, until tender, but not to a mash; drain, and put it round the inner edge of the dish, to the height of two inches; smooth it with the back of a spoon, and wash it over with yolk of egg, and put it into the oven for three or four minutes, then serve the meat in the middle.

Dressing Meat.—There are many ways of dressing meat and it is to be regretted that many cooks and housekeepers do not avail themselves of the full variety that is open to them. General directions as to Roasting, Baking, Boiling etc. are given on pp. 119-120 to which the following directions as to special dishes may be added. **Beef Salted to eat cold.**—Rub eight or ten pounds of a brisket with a pound of common salt, eight ounces of coarse sugar, two ounces of bay-salt, and one ditto of saltpetre, all in fine powder. Rub and turn it every day for a fortnight; boil slowly till tender; lay a weight upon it until cold. **A Fricandeau of Beef.**—Take a nice bit of lean beef; lard it with bacon seasoned with pepper, salt, cloves, mace, and allspice. Put it into a stew-pan with a pint of broth, a glass of white wine, a bundle of parsley, all sorts of sweet herbs, a clove of garlic, a shallot or two, four cloves, pepper and salt. When the meat is become tender, cover it close: skim the sauce well, and strain it: set it on the fire, and let it boil till it is reduced to a glaze, and glaze the larded side with this. **Pressed Beef.**—Salt a bit of brisket, thin part of the flank, or the tops of the ribs, with salt and saltpetre five days, then boil it gently till extremely tender: put it under a great weight, or in a cheese-press, till perfectly cold. It eats excellently cold, and for sandwiches. **Collared Beef.**—Choose the thin end of the flank of fine mellow beef, but not too fat; lay it into a dish with salt and saltpetre, turn and rub it every day for a week, and keep it cool. Then take out every bone and gristle, remove the skin of the inside part, and cover it thick with the following seasoning cut small: a large handful of parsley, the same of sage, some thyme, marjoram, and pennyroyal, pepper, salt, and allspice. Roll the meat up as tightly as possible, and bind it, then boil it gently for seven or eight hours. A cloth must be put round before the tape. Put the beef under a good weight while hot, without undoing it: the shape will then be oval. Part of a breast of veal rolled in with the beef looks and eats very well. **Beef-steak and Oyster Sauce.**—Strain off the liquor from the oysters, and throw them into cold water to take off the grit, while you simmer the liquor with a bit of mace and lemon-peel; then put the oysters in; stew them a few minutes; add a little cream, if you have it, and some butter rubbed in a bit of flour; let them boil up once; and have rump-steak, well seasoned and broiled, ready for throwing the oyster-sauce over, the moment you are to serve. **Beef-steaks of underdone Meat.**—Cut them an inch and a half thick, with a good deal of fat; lay them on the grid-iron over a quick fire, turn often, and as soon as brown lay them on a very hot dish adding some of the gravy of the meat, and a spoonful of ketchup. When taken off the fire, put salt and pepper. If seasoned while broiling the meat will be hardened, and the juices wasted. The steaks may be served on chopped cabbage, warmed with butter, pepper and salt. Or the steaks as before, and the cabbage in a separate dish, with sliced fried potatoes round it. **Beef-Collops.**—Cut thin slices of beef from the rump, or any other tender part, and divide them into pieces three inches long; beat them with the blade of a knife, and flour them. Fry the collops quick in butter two minutes; then lay them

into a small stew-pan, and cover them with a pint of gravy; add a bit of butter rubbed in flour, pepper, salt, the least bit of shallot shred as fine as possible, half a walnut, four small pickled cucumbers, and a tea-spoonful of capers cut small. Take care that it does not boil; and serve the stew in a very hot covered dish. **Potted Beef.**—To make potted beef the following ingredients will be necessary: 1 lb. of the roll of beef under the bladebone, 1 dessert-spoonful of water, 2 oz. butter, salt and pepper, 12 cloves, 12 peppercorns. Put the water in a jar. Cut the beef in pieces and place it in the jar with the cloves and peppercorns. Put this jar in a saucepan of boiling water and let it remain on the fire for three hours. Pass the meat twice through a mincing machine, add the gravy, and pepper and salt to liking; put into small glass dishes. Melt the butter and put it over the meat. **Fricassee of cold Roast Beef.**—Cut very thin slices of underdone beef, shred a handful of parsley very small, cut an onion into quarters, and put all together into a stew-pan, with a piece of butter and some strong broth; season with salt and pepper, and simmer very gently a quarter of an hour: then mix into it the yolks of two eggs, a glass of port wine, and a spoonful of vinegar; stir it quickly over the fire a minute or two, and turn the fricassee into it. **Minced Beef.**—Cut up any remnants of cold beef into small pieces, rejecting all fat and gristle. Put a little well flavoured stock into a saucepan; thicken it with a little flour and put in a small piece of butter; let it boil up a minute or two, then draw the saucepan to the side and add the meat; let it stand for about half an hour or more until the meat gets quite hot, but do not let it boil after the meat is put in or it will be hard; if you have any gravy left over from the roast add that. Turn out in a flat dish and serve with sippets of toast round. **Mince (to use up cold meat).**—Take 1 lb. cold meat, ¾ teacupful rice, ½ pint of gravy, pepper and salt, mashed potatoes. Boil the rice in a quart of boiling water for twenty minutes. Cut up the meat very finely and season it. Strain off the rice, add the meat and gravy to it, and make very hot but do not let boil, for the meat would then become hard and indigestible. Mash some potatoes, get a large jar, place it on a dish and press the potatoes round the outside of it, then take the jar away and fill the hole which it leaves with the mince. **To cure and boil Ox Tongues.**—Cut off the root, but leave a little of the kernel and fat; sprinkle some salt over it, and leave to drain until next day; make a mixture of common salt, coarse sugar, and saltpetre allowing for every tongue a large spoonful each of salt and sugar and half a spoonful of saltpetre; rub this mixture well into the tongue every day for a week, then add another spoonful of salt. If cured in this way a tongue will be ready in a fortnight; but if it is only turned in the pickle every day, it will not be too salt in four or five weeks. When you wish to dry a tongue attach to it a label bearing the date, and hang it in a dry place. When it is to be dressed, if hard it may require soaking three or four hours before boiling. Allow five hours for boiling, but if it should be extremely tender before that time it can easily be kept hot. The skin must be removed after boiling. **Ox Foot.**—The foot must be put on to stew the day before, early, with a carrot, turnip, onion, and celery trimmings if possible, and it must stew gently till the meat literally drops off the bone. Take out the meat, which is perfectly tender, leaving the bone behind, and make a little sauce as follows: Take some of the stock, for now it is stock, in which the foot has been boiled; take say a pint, and boil it down till it is only a third of a pint; add to it a teaspoonful of chopped parsley and a teaspoonful of mixed sweet herbs, sold in bottles, containing marjoram and basil. Thicken this with a little arrowroot, and add a very little boiled milk; then add a beaten-up egg, and stir it over the fire till the sauce is nice and thick. A little

yellow vegetable colouring matter or egg powder, or—still better, only it is rather extravagant—two or three yolks of eggs are a great improvement. The sauce should look thick and yellow. Let the meat of the foot be warmed up in this sauce. **Bullock's heart.**—Wash it carefully; stuff as hare; and serve with rich gravy, and currant-jelly sauce. **Marrow Bones.**—A couple of marrow-bones is amply sufficient for four people. The butcher should be made to cut the bones so that they will stand exactly upright. The top of the marrow should be covered over with a little flour-and-water paste. They should then be placed in a saucepan of boiling water, the tops of the bones standing an inch and a half above the water, and boiled gently for about an hour. A napkin should be wrapped round each before sending to table, and a couple of slices of very hot toast should be served with them. Take care that the water from the bone does not soak into the toast. The toast had better be put upright between the two bones. The bones should be served quickly, and the marrow should be raked out on to the toast, and spread lightly with a couple of forks, a little salt and pepper being added. The secret of good marrow toast is to serve it very hot. The marrow makes good puddings. **Tripe** may be served in a tureen, stewed tender with milk and onions; or fried in bits dipped in batter. In both the above ways, serve melted butter for sauce. Or cut the thin part in oblong bits, and stew in gravy; thicken with butter rolled in a very little flour, and add a spoonful of mushroom ketchup. Or boil it tender in milk, and serve in white sauce. **Suet.**—This necessary article is often very scarce, from the great demand; and, as it soon becomes tainted, care is especially required to preserve it in perfection. Let it be examined as soon as it comes in, and every bit of kidney and kernel, or skin, be taken out; separate the solid parts from the skinny and loose; use the latter first, and lay the other, when wiped dry, into a jar, and cover it with salt and water. It will keep thus for a month or two, for stuffing, puddings, etc., but should be soaked first in plain water. **Veal.**—Veal should be cooked while quite fresh but if there is a danger of it not keeping until it can be used, wash it thoroughly, and boil the joint ten minutes, putting it into the pot when the water is boiling hot; then put it in a very cool larder. Or it may be plunged into cold water till cool, and then wiped and put by. **Leg of Veal.**—Let the fillet be cut large or small, as best suits the number of your company. Take out the bone, fill the space with a fine stuffing, and let it be skewered quite round; and serve with the large side uppermost. When half roasted, if not before, put a paper over the fat; and take care to allow a sufficient time, and put it a good distance from the fire, as the meat is very solid; serve with melted butter poured over it. **Shoulder of Veal.**—Cut off the knuckle, for a stew or gravy. Roast the other part with a stuffing; and basting well. Serve with melted butter. The blade-bone, with a good deal of meat left on, eats extremely well with mushroom or oyster-sauce, or mushroom ketchup in butter. **Knuckle of Veal** may be boiled and served with onion sauce, and is usually eaten with bacon and greens. It should be garnished with chopped parsley. **Neck of Veal.**—The scrag end may be either boiled and served with onion sauce or parsley and butter; stewed with whole rice, small onions and peppercorns in a very little water; or boiled and eaten with bacon and greens. The best end may be either roasted, broiled as cutlets or made into pies. **Collared Veal, to eat hot.**—Bone a piece of the breast, and lay a forcemeat over it of herbs, bread, an anchovy, a spoonful or two of scraped ham, a very little mace, white pepper, and chopped chives; then roll, bind it up tight, and stew it in water or weak broth. Let the colour be preserved, and serve it in veal gravy, or fricassee sauce, with mushrooms, and artichoke bottoms. **Curried Veal.**—Cut part of a breast of veal into pieces about three inches long, and two wide; fry them in butter of a light brown,

with an onion chopped fine. While hot, rub them well over with two tablespoonfuls of curry-powder. Put into a stew-pan, and add some good veal broth, pepper, salt, and an ounce of butter, and stew, very slowly, till the meat is quite tender, serve with boiled rice round the dish. **Veal-rolls of either cold Meat or fresh.**—Cut thin slices; and spread on them a fine seasoning of a very few crumbs, a little chopped bacon or scraped ham, and a little suet, parsley. and shallot (or instead of the parsley and shallot, some fresh mushrooms stewed and minced), pepper, salt, and a small piece of pounded mace. This stuffing may either fill up the roll like a sausage, or be rolled with the meat. In either case tie it up very tight, and stew very slowly in gravy and a glass of sherry. Serve it when tender, after skimming it nicely. **Minced Veal.**—Cut cold veal as fine as possible, but do not chop it; put to it a very little lemon-peel shred, two grates of nutmeg, some salt, and four or five spoonfuls of either a little weak broth, milk, or water; simmer these gently with the meat, but take care not to let it boil; and add a bit of butter rubbed in flour. Put sippets of thin toasted bread, cut into a three-cornered shape, round the dish. Fried crumbs of bread lightly strewed over, or served in little heaps on the meat, are an improvement to the look and flavour: a little shred of shallot may occasionally be added. **Veal Cutlets.**—Cut slices about three quarters of an inch thick, beat them with a rolling-pin, and wet them on both sides with egg: dip them into a seasoning of bread-crumbs, parsley, thyme, knotted marjoram, pepper, salt, and a little nutmeg grated; then put them into papers folded over, and broil them; and have in a boat melted butter, with a little mushroom ketchup. **To boil Calf's Head.**—Clean it thoroughly and soak it in water, that it may look very white; take out the brains to make a little dish. Boil the head extremely tender; then strew it over with crumbs and chopped parsley, and brown them; or, if liked better, leave one side plain. Bacon and greens are to be served to eat with it. The brains should be soaked in cold water, then boiled; and then mixed with melted butter, scalded sage chopped, pepper, and salt. If any of the head is left, it may be hashed next day, and a few slices of bacon just warmed and put round. **To hash Calf's Head.**—Cut off the meat in slices, half an inch thick, and two or three inches long; brown some butter, flour, and sliced onion, and throw in the slices with some good gravy, give it one boil, and skim it well, and set it in a moderate heat to simmer till very tender. Season with pepper, salt, and Cayenne, at first; and ten minutes before serving, throw in some shred parsley; just before you serve, add the squeeze of a lemon. Garnish with forcemeat-balls, and bits of bacon rolled round. **Stewed Calves' Feet** are always best when prepared the day before. The feet should be first thoroughly scalded and cleansed and may be chopped in half. Boil, two feet, with sufficient water to cover them, in a stewpan or saucepan. Put in a small onion, or a couple of slices out of the middle of a large one, a small bunch of parsley, and any trimmings of vegetables, such as carrots, turnips, celery, that may be at hand. The feet should now be allowed to stew gently till the meat literally drops from the bone. When this is the case, take the feet out of the saucepan and place the meat on a plate. Now chop up what remains of the bone, place it back in the saucepan, and let it boil steadily with the strained off liquor till the whole amount is reduced to rather less than half-a-pint. Then strain this liquor off again into a small basin, thicken this liquor, after having flavoured it with a little pepper and salt, with three or four yolks of eggs, till the sauce resembles a good thick rich custard. As a rule, however, three well-beaten-up eggs will be sufficient, only the cook must bear in mind that, just as in making custard, should she heat the sauce over the boiling point, it will curdle. When the sauce has got the consistency of good thick custard,

throw in half a teaspoonful of chopped blanched parsley, warm up the meat of the calves' feet in this thick yellow sauce, and as soon as it is sufficiently hot send it to table. **Veal Kidney.**—Chop veal-kidney, and some of the fat; add a little leek or onion, pepper, and salt; roll it up with an egg into balls, and fry them. **Calf's Heart.**—Stuff and roast the same as beef heart; or, being sliced and seasoned, make it into a pudding, as directed for steak or kidney pudding. **Calf's Liver.**—Slice it, season with pepper and salt, and broil nicely; rub a bit of cold butter on it, and serve very hot, with small slices of fat bacon. **Sweetbreads**, for every mode of dressing, should be prepared by half boiling, and then putting them in cold water. This, called blanching, makes them whiter and thicker, as well as firmer. **To serve plain.**—Do as above; wet with egg, and sprinkle crumbs, salt, pepper, and chopped parsley, and finish dressing in a Dutch oven. Serve with melted butter, with or without a little mushroom ketchup. **Sweetbreads roasted.**—Parboil two large ones; when cold, lard them with bacon, and roast them in a Dutch oven. For sauce, plain butter and mushroom ketchup. **Mutton.**—For roasting, mutton should hang as long as it will keep, the hindquarters especially, but not so long as to taint; for, whatever fashion may authorise, putrid juices ought not to be taken into the stomach; but, by due care and a good larder, meat may be hung long, to the great improvement of its flavour. Mutton for boiling will not look of a good colour if it has hung long. **Leg of Mutton.**—If roasted, serve to eat with it currant jelly, or onion sauce, salad, and potatoes. **Boiled Leg of Mutton.**—Boil it in a cloth. Serve with caper-sauce, mashed turnips, greens, and carrots. Or, for a small family, two dressings may be made thus:—cut off a fillet, as of veal, to roast. The knuckle may be stewed with rice or barley for broth. **Neck of Mutton** is particularly useful, as so many dishes may be made of it; but it is not advantageous for the family. The bones should be cut short, which the butchers will not do, unless particularly desired. The best end of the neck may be boiled, and served with turnips; or roasted. The scrag may be stewed in broth; or with a small quantity of water, some small onions, a few peppercorns, and a little rice, and served together. **Loin of Mutton Roasted:** if cut lengthwise as a saddle, some think it eats better. Or for steaks, pies, or broth. **To roll Loin of Mutton.**—Hang the mutton till tender; bone it; and lay a seasoning of pepper, allspice, mace, nutmeg, and a few cloves, all in fine powder, over it. Next day prepare a stuffing as for hare; beat the meat, and cover it with the stuffing; roll it up tight, and tie it. Half-bake it in a slow oven; let it grow cold; take off the fat, and put the gravy into a stew-pan; flour the meat, and put it in likewise; stew it till almost ready; and add a glass of port wine, some ketchup, an anchovy, and a little lemon pickle half an hour before serving; serve it in the gravy, and with jelly sauce. A few fresh mushrooms are a great improvement; but if to eat like hare, do not use these, nor the lemon-pickle. **Mutton Chops** should be cut from a loin or neck that has hung; if from a neck, the bones should not be long. They should be broiled on a clear fire, seasoned when half-done, and often turned; take them up into a very hot dish, rub a bit of butter on each, and serve very hot the moment they are done. **Mutton, or Lamb, Chops and Cucumbers.**—Quarter cucumbers, and lay them into a deep dish, sprinkle them with salt, and pour vinegar over them. Fry the chops of a fine brown, and put them into a stew-pan; drain the cucumbers, and put over the steaks; add some sliced onions, pepper, and salt; pour hot water or weak broth on them; stew, and skim well. If the gravy be not thick enough, put in a bit of butter rolled in a little flour. **Lamb** when quite young is generally bought in quarters, but later in the season separate joints may be easily procured. Lamb should not be hung

before cooking, as by keeping it loses its flavour. It is generally roasted, and served with mint-sauce, and eaten with green peas, spinach, or cauliflowers. **Lamb Cutlets with Spinach.**—The steaks should be cut from the loin, and fried; stew the spinach and put into the dish first, then arrange the cutlets round it. **Lamb's Head and Hinge.**—Boil the head separately until it is very tender. Have ready the liver and lights three parts boiled and cut small; stew these in a little of the water in which they were boiled; season and thicken with flour and butter and serve as a mince round the head. **Lamb's Fry** should be fried a good colour, and served with dried or fried parsley over it. **Lamb's Sweetbreads** should first be soaked in cold water for an hour, then to make them firm they should be thrown into boiling water and stewed gently for a quarter of an hour. They should then be taken up and drained in a cloth: then brushed over with beaten yolk of egg, covered with bread crumbs and browned either by being fried, or roasted before the fire. **Roast Leg of Pork.**—Choose a small leg of fine young pork. Score it by cutting round the skin; cut a slit near the knuckle with a sharp knife, and fill the space with chopped sage and onion seasoned with pepper and salt; serve with apple sauce and potatoes. **Boiled Leg of Pork.**—Put in salt for eight or ten days, when it is to be dressed weigh it; let it lie in cold water for half-an-hour, to whiten it; boil in a good quantity of water, and allow for every pound of meat a quarter of an hour and then half an hour over from the time it boils up. Some boil it in a floured cloth. Serve with pease-pudding and turnips. **Pork Chops** should be cut from the loin or neck and not too thick, pepper and broil them, turning them often; when nearly done, add salt, rub a bit of butter over and serve as soon as taken from the fire. **Roast Sucking Pig.**—The pig should be cooked quite fresh. Make a stuffing for the inside with breadcrumbs, sage, pepper, and salt, and be sure to skewer the legs back so that the heat can get to the under parts of the pig. Thoroughly dry it before a brisk fire, then rub it in every part with butter which should be ready in a cloth; dredge as much flour over as will possibly lie, and do not touch it again until ready to serve; then very carefully scrape off the flour with a blunt knife; rub it well with the buttered cloth and whilst at the fire take off the head. Take up the pig and divide it in halves down the back and arrange on the dish with the two backs towards each other, and garnish with a half head at each end and one ear each side. The brains should be chopped, and mixed with the stuffing, the gravy from the pig, and some fine melted butter in which is a very little flour, or, if preferred, about half a pint more of good gravy. Serve this sauce all in the dish with the pig, or let some of it go to table in a tureen. In some places the pig, if very small, is served without being divided into halves, the head only being cut off to garnish. **Pettitoes.**—Boil these with the liver and the heart very gently in a little water; and divide each foot in halves; make a mince of the meat and simmer this and the feet till the latter are quite tender; thicken with a bit of butter, a little flour, a spoonful of cream and a little salt and pepper; give it a boil up, pour it over a few sippets of bread, and arrange the feet on the mince. **To prepare Pig's cheek for boiling.**—Cut off the snout and clean the head; divide it in halves, and take out the brains and eyes; sprinkle the head with salt and let it drain twenty-four hours; then let it lie in a mixture of common salt and saltpetre for eight or ten days, when it will be ready for cooking; wash it and simmer it until tender. **To dry Pig's Cheek.**—Cut off the snout, remove the brains, and split the head taking off the upper bone to make the chawl a good shape; rub it well with salt and leave it until next day; then take away the brine and salt it

again the following day; cover the head with half an ounce of saltpetre, two ounces of bay-salt, a little common salt and four ounces of coarse sugar. Let the head remain in the pickle for ten days, during which time it should be often turned. When pickled smoke it for a week like bacon. **Brawn made of Pig's Head.**—Split the head, take out the brains, cut off the ears, and sprinkle it with a little common salt for a day, then drain it; salt it well with common salt and saltpetre three days, then lay the salt and head in a little water, and leave it for two days. Wash it, and boil it till the bones will come out, skin the head and tongue and then quickly chop them up, season with pepper, salt, and a little mace or some allspice berries. (Many people add chopped sage to the pepper and salt for seasoning, instead of the mace or allspice.) Press the whole into a dish or mould and when cold it will turn out as brawn. **Pig's Harslet.**—The old fashioned way was to wash and dry some liver, sweetbreads, and fat and lean pork, beating the latter to make it tender; season with pepper, salt, sage, and a little onion shred fine, when mixed put all into a caul and fasten up with a needle and thread. Roast it on a hanging-jack or by a string. Some cooks merely cut the harslet into slices and fry. **To pickle Pork.**—Some people pickle their pork by laying it in a strong brine merely of salt and water and leaving it for about ten days. Others prefer the following method:—Get ¼ lb. of saltpetre and a good deal of common salt. After suitable pieces have been cut from the pig, rub these with salt, and lay them in the pickling pan with a little salt and saltpetre between the pieces; as the salt gets melted on the top put on more; then see that the meat is well under the brine and exclude the air from the pan and it will keep good for a very long time. **To cure Hams.** Let them hang a day or two; then sprinkle salt over and leave them to drain until next day; pound and mix together, an ounce and a half each of saltpetre and bay-salt, half an ounce of salt-prunella, one pound of common salt and the same quantity of coarse sugar; rub the mixture into each ham, and turn it every day for four days; then, omitting the rubbing, turn every day for three weeks if the ham is small, but if large it will take a week longer; before drying cover with bran, then smoke for 10 days by hanging the ham in a chimney where wood only is burnt. Many persons thoroughly dry their hams by hanging them in the kitchen, but do not smoke them. **To cure Bacon.**—After cutting off the hams salt the flitches six days, then drain them; mix 1 lb. of common salt with ¼ lb. of bay-salt, three ounces of saltpetre, and 1 lb. of coarse sugar for each pig. Rub the mixture well in and turn the meat every day for a month, then drain and smoke it for a few days, or it may be dried by hanging in the kitchen away from the fire. Bacon for larding should not be cured with saltpetre. **Lard.**—Take away all skin from the flair or flead, cut the fat into small pieces and put it in a jar which should be placed in a saucepain of boiling water. Place over a bright fire and let it simmer gently until all the fat has been extracted. Pour off from the sediment into small jars and keep in a cool place. Lard may be refined, and made fit for toilet use, by boiling water being poured over it, and by repeating the process as the lard gets cold; this removes the salt from the grease.

Meat Puddings, Pies, Patties, etc. —**Suet Pudding.**—Put 1lb. of flour and a little salt in a basin; add ½lb. of suet chopped very finely. Mix with water and put into a well floured cloth to boil for three hours. **Suet Dumplings.** —Make as for suet pudding and drop into boiling water, or into the boiling of beef: or you may boil them in a cloth. **Yorkshire Pudding.**—Ingredients: ¼ lb. flour, ¼ teaspoonful salt, 1 egg, ¼ pint of milk. Break the egg into the flour, put a little milk, beat up and add milk at intervals. Beat well and let stand for ¼ or ½ an hour. Pour into a greased tin and bake in a quick oven until brown. **Toad-in-the-hole.**—Put some smooth

batter, made as directed for *Yorkshire Pudding*, into a pie-dish and place in the batter pieces of steak and kidney. Bake in the oven for an hour and a half. **Steak and Kidney Pudding.**—Make a dough of ½lb. flour and 3oz. chopped suet mixed with water. Roll out on a well floured board and line a greased basin with the dough, cutting off the pieces which hang over. Put 2 tablespoonfuls of flour on a plate and season it highly with pepper and salt; then cut up a pound of steak and ½lb. of kidney into small pieces, and roll each piece in the flour. Fill the basin with the meat and add a cup full of water to form the gravy. Cover the top with dough which must lap the lining of the basin. Tie a cloth round the basin and boil for four hours. **Beef-steak Pie.**—Cut the steak into pieces and when seasoned put them in a dish with puff paste round the edges; put a little water in the dish, and cover it with a good crust. **Veal Pie.**—Take some of the middle, or scrag, of a small neck; season it; and either put to it, or not, a few slices of lean bacon or ham. If it is wanted of a high relish, add mace, Cayenne, and nutmeg, to the salt and pepper; and also forcemeat and eggs; and if you choose, add truffles, morels, mushrooms, sweetbreads cut into small bits, and cocks'-combs blanched, if liked. Have a rich gravy ready, to pour in after baking.—It will be very good without any of the latter additions. **Excellent Pork Pies, to eat cold.**—Raise common boiled crust into either a round or oval form, as you choose, have ready the trimming and small bits of pork cut off when a hog is killed; and if these are not enough, take the meat off a sweet bone. Beat it well with a rolling-pin; season with pepper and salt, and keep the fat and lean separate. Put it in layers, quite close up to the top: lay on the lid: cut the edge smooth round, and pinch it; bake in a slow oven as the meat is very solid. Directions for raising the crust are given. The pork may be put into a common dish, with a very plain crust; and be quite as good. Observe to put no bone or water into pork pie, the outside of the pieces will be hard, unless they are cut small and pressed close. **Mutton Pie.**—Cut steaks from a loin or neck of mutton that has hung; beat them, and remove some of the fat. Season with salt, pepper, and a little onion; put a little water at the bottom of the dish, and a little paste at the edge; then cover with a moderately thick paste. Or raise small pies, and breaking each bone in two to shorten it, season, and cover it over, pinching the edge. When they come out, pour into each a spoonful of gravy made of a bit of mutton. **Squab Pie.**—Cut apples as for other pies, and lay them in rows with mutton-chops: shred onion and sprinkle it among them, and also some sugar. **Chicken Pie.**—Cut up two young fowls; season with white pepper, salt, a little mace, and nutmeg, all in the finest powder; likewise a little Cayenne. Put the chicken, slices of ham, or fresh gammon of bacon, forcemeat-balls, and hard eggs, by turns in layers. If it is to be baked in a dish, put a little water; but none if in a raised crust. By the time it returns from the oven, have ready a gravy of knuckle of veal, or a bit of the scrag with some shank-bones of mutton, seasoned with herbs, onion, mace, and white pepper. If it is to be eaten hot, you may add truffles, morels, mushrooms, etc., but not if to be eaten cold. If it is made in a dish put as much gravy as will fill it; but, in raised crust, the gravy must be nicely strained, and then put in cold as jelly. To make the jelly clear, you may give it a boil with the whites of two eggs, after taking away the meat, and then run it through a fine lawn sieve. *Rabbits*, if young and in flesh, do as well; their legs should be cut short, and the breast-bones must not go in, but will help to make the gravy. **Giblet Pie.**—After very nicely cleaning goose or duck giblets, stew them with a small quantity of water, onion, black pepper, and a bunch of sweet herbs, till nearly done. Let them grow cold, and if not enough to fill the dish, lay a beef, veal, or two or three mutton

steaks, at bottom. Put the liquor of the stew to bake with the above; and when the pie is baked, pour into it a large teacupful of cream. Sliced potatoes added to it, eat extremely well. **Pigeon Pie.**—Rub the pigeons with pepper and salt, inside and out; in the latter put a bit of butter, and, if approved, some parsley chopped with the livers, and a little of the same seasoning. Lay a beefsteak at the bottom of the dish, and the birds on it, between every two, a hard egg. Put a cup of water in the dish; and if you have any ham in the house, lay a bit on each pigeon: it is a great improvement to the flavour. Observe, when ham is cut for gravy or pies, to take the under part rather than the prime. Season the gizzards, and two joints of the wings, and put them in the centre of the pie; and over them, in a hole made in the crust, three feet nicely cleaned, to show what pie it is. **Partridge Pie.**—Pick and singe four partridges; cut off the legs at the knee; season with pepper. salt, chopped parsley, thyme, and mushrooms. Lay a veal steak, and a slice of ham, at the bottom of the dish: put the partridge in, and half a pint of good broth. Put puff paste on the ledge of the dish, and cover with the same; brush it over with egg and bake an hour. **Game Pies.**—The secret of making a good game pie is the same, whatever kind of game is used. We will suppose the housekeeper to have obtained a breast of venison, which can often be bought at from 8d. to 10d. a pound, and that it has been "well hung," without being positively "high," for venison intended for a pie will not bear keeping so long as that to be roasted before an open fire. First cut all the meat off the bones, and remove carefully every particle of skin. What little fat there is should be carefully treasured. Next, place the bones in some good strong gravy, which should not be thickened, but such as, when cold, will form a hard jelly. Take a large deep pie dish, and line it alternately with a layer of venison, cut about an inch thick, a thin layer of force-meat, a layer of ham cut in very thin slices, then again venison, force-meat, and ham, and so on up to the top of the dish. The meat should be piled up as high as possible, and the top layer of the whole should consist of fat ham or bacon only. Now fill the dish with gravy up to the brim, and place it in the oven for about half an hour or three quarters of an hour, taking care occasionally to baste the meat at the top with the gravy, as otherwise it would get too dry. Next have ready three or four hard-boiled eggs cut in slices. Now take the pie out of the oven, carefully remove the top, and take out some of the interior. Place some of the slices of hard-boiled eggs with the meat, replace those pieces that were originally piled up in the centre on the top, near the bottom; and pile up some of that which has been exposed to the gravy, at the top; taking care again that the top layer is entirely thin fat ham or bacon. Now cover the whole with a rich crust of puff paste, ornament the edge by crimping it round with a fork, and place some ornamental leaves of paste on the top. Replace the pie in the oven, and let it bake till the outside is thoroughly done. After it is partly done, the outside can be washed over with a brush, dipped in well-beaten-up yolk of egg. This will help to give it that rich, dark, mahogany colour, which every meat pie should have. In the meantime, however, some portion of the gravy should have been reserved, and great care should be taken that this gravy, when cold, is such as will form a hard jelly. When the pie is done, take it out of the oven, and when nearly cold, fill it right up to the top of the crust with the remainder of the gravy, pouring it through a little funnel in the centre of the crust at the top. This gravy should be poured in when nearly on the point of setting. By this means, when the pie is cut, the whole mass from the crust down to the bottom of the dish will be a firm, rich jelly. When the pie is thoroughly cold, it is fit to send to table. Should there be any difficulty in getting the gravy sufficiently strong to set, any kind

of chicken bones, or bones of any description, will greatly help to make the gravy a jelly, though not necessarily to improve its flavour. Should there be no bones at hand, of course a very simple means of ensuring the gravy being a jelly is to add a small quantity of gelatine. It is always best to test the gravy to see whether it will set, by placing a little on a saucer, and putting it in a cool place for a short time. Nearly all game pies are made on this principle. For instance, instead of the flesh of venison, we might have used the flesh of a hare, when, of course, the bones of the hare would have been stewed in the gravy, instead of the venison bones. That very great delicacy, known as **Yorkshire Pie**, is simply pie made on this principle, in which the meat consists of almost every kind of game that can be obtained. In every case, however, forcemeat is absolutely essential to success, and considering the price of calves' liver and bacon, this forcemeat is by no means expensive. **Forcemeat for Game Pies.**—There is but one kind of force-meat that can be used, namely, liver force-meat. Take half a pound of calves' liver, cut it up into small pieces, with an onion or three beads of garlic, and place it in the frying pan with an equal quantity of fat bacon, or, still better, fat ham. Fry the liver in the fat till it is thoroughly cooked. I may here add that if you can obtain half a dozen ordinary sized mushrooms, they should be peeled, and added to the mixture. They will be a great improvement, but are not absolutely necessary. Next, take the contents of the frying pan, when the liver is cooked, and rub the whole through a wire sieve, or send it through a sausage machine, or pound it in a pestle and mortar. Then add half a teaspoonful of what is known as aromatic flavouring herbs, and the same quantity of cayenne pepper. These herbs can be made at home, by mixing together one ounce of white peppercorns, an ounce of dried cloves, half an ounce of marjoram, half an ounce of basil, half an ounce of thyme, half an ounce of powdered nutmeg, half an ounce of powdered mace, and a quarter of an ounce of dried, powdered bay leaves. All these should be finely pounded in a mortar, and sifted through a fine sieve, and put by carefully in a stoppered bottle for use. This is, of course, a very troublesome process, and the most convenient way of obtaining these aromatic herbs is to buy them ready-made in bottles. They are now to be obtained from all grocers, under the name of "herbaceous mixture." These herbs possess the great advantage of giving a gamey flavour to any kind of meat to which they may be added. **Imitation Game Pie.**—A very excellent imitation game pie can be made by substituting the cheaper rabbit for the game itself. In this case, as the rabbit does not possess a gamey flavour, we must assist it by adding double the quantity of the "herbaceous mixture" or aromatic herbs. The rabbit should be first par-boiled; the whole of the meat must be carefully cut from the bones, and every particle of skin removed. The bones should be replaced in the liquor in which the rabbit was originally boiled, which should be some really good stock, and the whole boiled for a long time, until only just sufficient gravy for the pie dish is left, and this gravy should, of course, form a very hard jelly when cold. The rabbit, sliced ham, and forcemeat, should then be placed in a dish, the gravy added, and the meat piled up, covered with a layer of fat ham or bacon, and well covered over with a good thick layer of puff paste at once, as, owing to the rabbit having been par-boiled, it will not be necessary to cook it for a short time in the oven before adding the pastry to it. In making a rabbit pie, it is best to avoid using any hard-boiled eggs. On the other hand, a good brimming teaspoonful of finely-chopped parsley should be mixed in with the gravy, and stirred up before the gravy is put into the pie. It is needless to say the gravy should be rather highly seasoned with pepper and salt, using good black pepper. In all kinds of meat pie a considerable quantity of black

pepper is necessary. Cayenne pepper should be avoided except for the forcemeat. These cold pies will be found admirable for breakfast, luncheon, and supper.

Rissoles, in a well-ordered house, should correspond to the resurrection pie of our school days, or rather, perhaps, our father's school days. Cooks should remember that rissoles are all the better for the variety of meats they contain. You can mix beef, mutton, pork, veal, chicken, ham, tongue; in fact, any kind of meat, except high game. Only remember to have them moist, and for this purpose treasure up bacon fat. When there is fried bacon for breakfast, take care of all the pieces, if any, that come down. In making rissoles, cold bacon is invaluable. If you want the rissoles very good, allow a small tin of mushrooms. The flavouring required is onion, in moderation, plenty of parsley, a careful and judicious use of thyme, and, above all, not too much egg. Only use just sufficient egg to bind the minced meats, etc., together. Too much egg will make the rissoles hard and unpalatable. **Rissoles of Beef.**—Mince finely some lean cold meat; mix it with some breadcrumbs—allowing ½ lb. of crumbs to 1 lb. of meat—some chopped herbs, and pepper and salt to taste; bind the ingredients together with one or two eggs; form into cones or balls and fry them until they are brown. Some cooks dip them in egg and breadcrumbs before frying them. Send the rissoles to table with gravy in the dish or garnished with fried parsley, and accompanied with some gravy in a tureen. **Fried Patties.**—Mince a bit of cold veal, and six oysters, mix with a few crumbs of bread, salt, pepper, nutmeg, and a very small bit of lemon-peel—add the liquor of the oysters; warm all in a saucepan, but do not boil; let it go cold; have ready a good puff-paste, roll thin, and cut it in round or square bits; put some of the above between two of them, twist the edges to keep in the gravy, and fry them of a fine brown. Wash all patties over with egg before baking. **Oyster Patties.**—Put a fine puff-crust into small patty-pans, and cover with paste, with a bit of bread in each; and against they are baked have ready the following to fill with, taking out the bread. Take off the beards of the oysters, cut the other parts in small bits, put them in a small saucepan with a grate of nutmeg, the least white pepper and salt, a morsel of lemon-peel, cut so small that you can scarcely see it, a little cream, and a little of the oyster-liquor. Simmer a few minutes before you fill. Observe to put a bit of crust into all patties, to keep them hollow while baking. **Beef Patties.**—Shred under-done dressed beef with a little fat, season with pepper, salt, and a little shallot or onion. Make a plain paste, roll it thin, and cut in shape like an apple puff, fill it with mince, pinch the edges, and fry them a nice brown. The paste should be made with a small quantity of butter, egg, and milk.

Dressing Poultry and Game.—Poultry should be carefully picked, and the hair well singed with white paper. The cook must be careful in drawing poultry of all sorts not to break the gall bag, as any part of the bird touched by the gall will have a bitter taste, no matter how it may be washed. A fowl will look more plump and compact if the breastbone be broken after it is picked. Wild fowl should be roasted before a brisk fire. Let them be done of a fine yellow colour, if cooked too much the fine flavour will be lost. They require less roasting than tame fowls All sorts should be continually basted. **Turkeys.**—These should not be cooked until they have hung at least three or four days. **Boiled Turkey.**—When the bird is plucked draw it carefully and singe with white paper; after it has been washed inside and outside it must be thoroughly dried with a cloth. Remove the head and neck and draw the sinews of the thighs; the legs should be cut off at the first joint; make a stuffing as directed under forcemeat and put it into the crop, fasten up the skin and boil in a floured cloth to keep it white. Serve with oyster sauce or liver and lemon

sauce. Young hen turkeys are considered best for boiling. **Roast Turkey.**—The sinews of the legs should be drawn, whichever way it is dressed. The head should be twisted under the wing; and in drawing it, take care not to tear the liver, nor let the gall touch it. Put a stuffing of sausage-meat; or, if sausages are to be served in the dish, a bread-stuffing. As this makes a large addition to the size of the bird, observe that the heat of the fire is constantly to that part; for the breast is often not done enough A little strip of paper should be put on the bone, to hinder it from scorching while the other parts roast. Baste well and froth it up. Serve with gravy in the dish, and plenty of bread-sauce in a sauce-tureen. Add a few crumbs, and a beaten egg to the stuffing of sausage-meat. **Boiled Fowl.**—For boiling, choose those that are not black-legged. Pick them nicely, singe, wash, and truss them. Flour them, and put them into boiling water. Serve with parsley and butter; oyster, lemon, liver, or celery-sauce. If for dinner, ham, tongue, or bacon, is usually served to eat with them; as likewise greens. **Boiled Fowl and Rice.**—Stew the fowl very slowly in some clear mutton-broth well skimmed; and seasoned with onion, mace, pepper, and salt. About half an hour before it is ready, put in a quarter of a pint of rice well washed and soaked. Simmer till tender; then strain it from the broth, and put the rice on a sieve before the fire. Keep the fowl hot, lay it in the middle of the dish, and the rice round it without the broth. The broth will be very nice to eat as such, but the less liquor the fowl is done with the better. Gravy, or parsley and butter, for sauce. **Roast Fowls.**—Serve with egg-sauce, bread-sauce, or garnished with sausages and scalded parsley. **Chicken or Rabbit Curry.**—Cut up a chicken or young rabbit; if chicken, take off the skin. Roll each piece in a mixture of a large spoonful of flour, and half an ounce of curry-powder. Slice two or three onions, and fry them in butter, of a light brown: then add the meat, and fry all together till the meat begins to brown. Put it all into a stew-pan, and pour boiling water enough just to cover it. Simmer very gently two or three hours. If too thick, put more water half an hour before serving. If the meat has been dressed before, a little broth will be better than water; but the curry is richer when made of fresh meat. **Roast Ducks.**—Serve with a fine gravy; and stuff one with sage and onion, a dessert-spoonful of crumbs, a bit of butter, and pepper and salt; let the other be unseasoned. **Boiled Ducks.**—Choose a fine fat duck; salt it two days, then boil it slowly in a cloth. Serve it with onion-sauce, but melt the butter with milk instead of water. **Stewed Ducks.**—Half-roast a duck; put it into a stew-pan with a pint of beef gravy, a few leaves of sage and mint cut small, pepper and salt, and a small bit of onion shred as fine as possible. Simmer a quarter of an hour, and skim clean; then add nearly a quart of green peas. Cover close, and simmer nearly half an hour longer. Put in a piece of butter and a little flour, and give it one boil; then serve in one dish. **Hashed Ducks.**—Cut a cold duck into joints; and warm it, without boiling, in gravy, and a glass of port wine. **Roast Goose.**—After it is picked, the plugs of the feathers pulled out, and the hairs carefully singed, let it be well washed and dried, and a seasoning put in of onion, sage, and pepper and salt. Fasten it tight at the neck and rump, and then roast. Put it first at a distance from the fire, and by degrees draw it nearer. A slip of paper should be skewered on the breast-bone. Baste it very well. When the breast is rising, take off the paper; and be careful to serve it before the breast falls, or it will be spoiled by coming flat to table. Let a good gravy be sent in the dish.—Gravy and apple-sauce; gooseberry-sauce for a green goose. **To stew Giblets.**—Do them as directed for giblet-pie p. 138 (under the head pies); season them with salt

and pepper, and a very small piece of mace. Before serving, give them one boil with a cup of cream, and a piece of butter rubbed in a tea-spoonful of flour. **Pigeons** may be dressed in so many ways, that they are very useful. The good flavour of them depends very much on their being cropped and drawn as soon as killed. No other bird requires so much washing. Pigeons left from dinner the day before may be stewed or made into a pie; in either case care must be taken not to overdo them, which will make them stringy. They need only be heated up in gravy made ready, and forcemeat-balls may be fried and added, instead of putting a stuffing into them. If for a pie, let beef-steaks be stewed in a little water, and put cold under them, cover each pigeon with a piece of fat bacon, to keep them moist. Season as usual, and add hard boiled eggs in slices. **Roast Pigeons** should be stuffed with parsley, and served with parsley and butter. Peas or asparagus should be dressed to eat with them. **Game.**—Game ought not to be thrown away even when it has been kept a very long time; for when it seems to be spoiled it may often be made fit for eating, by nicely cleaning it, and washing with vinegar and water. If there is danger of birds not keeping, draw, crop, and pick them; then wash in two or three waters, and rub them with salt. Have ready a large saucepan of boiling water, and plunge them into it one by one, drawing them up and down by the legs, that the water may pass through them. Let them stay five or six minutes in; then hang them up in a cold place. When drained, pepper and salt the insides well. Before roasting, wash them well. Lumps of charcoal put about birds and meat will preserve them from taint, and restore what is spoiling. **Grouse.**—Roast them like fowls, but the head should be twisted under the wing. They must not be overdone. Serve with a rich gravy in the dish, and bread-sauce. The sauce for wild fowl, as will be described hereafter under the head of sauces, may be used instead of common gravy. **To roast Wild Fowl.**—The flavour is best preserved without stuffing. Put pepper, salt, and a piece of butter, into each. Wild fowl require much less dressing than tame; they should be served of a fine colour, and well frothed up. A rich brown gravy should be sent in the dish; and when the breast is cut into slices, before taking off the bone, a squeeze of lemon, with pepper and salt, is a great improvement to the flavour. To take off the fishy taste which wild fowl sometimes have, put an onion, salt, and hot water, into the dripping-pan, and baste them for the first ten minutes with this; then take away the pan, and baste constantly with butter. **Pheasants and Partridges.**—Roast them as turkey; and serve with a fine gravy, and bread-sauce. When cold, they may be made into excellent patties, but their flavour should not be overpowered by lemon. **Woodcocks, Snipes, and Quails** keep good several days. Roast them without drawing, and serve on toast. Butter only should be eaten, with them, as gravy takes off from the fine flavour. The thigh and back are esteemed the most. **Plovers' Eggs** are a nice and fashionable dish. Boil them ten minutes, and serve either hot or cold on a napkin. **Guinea and Pea-Fowl** eat much like pheasants. Dress them in the same way, *i.e.* as turkeys. **Hares** if properly taken care of will keep a great time, and even when the cook fancies them past eating, may be in the highest perfection; which if eaten when fresh killed they are not. As they are usually paunched in the field, the cook cannot prevent this; but the hare keeps longer, and eats much better, if not opened for four or five days, or according to the weather. If paunched, as soon as a hare comes in it should be wiped quite dry, the heart and liver taken out, and the liver scalded to keep for the stuffing. Repeat this wiping every day; mix pepper and ginger, and rub on the inside; and put a large piece of charcoal into it. Apply the spice

early to prevent that musty taste which long keeping in the damp occasions, and which also affects the stuffing. An old hare should be kept as long as possible, if to be roasted. It must also be well soaked. **To roast Hare.**—After it is skinned, let it be thoroughly well washed, and then soaked an hour or two in water: and if old, lard it; which will make it tender, as also will letting it lie in vinegar. If however, it is put into vinegar, it should be exceedingly well washed in water afterwards. Stuff inside, and then sew up. Baste it well with milk till half done, and afterwards with butter. If the blood has settled in the neck, soaking the part in warm water, and putting it to the fire warm, will remove it; especially if you also nick the skin here and there with a small knife, to let it out. The hare should be kept at a distance from the fire at first. Serve with a fine froth, rich gravy, melted butter, and currant-jelly sauce; the gravy in the dish. For stuffing use the liver, an anchovy, some fat bacon, a little suet, herbs, pepper, salt, nutmeg, a little onion, crumbs of bread, and an egg to bind it all.—**To jug an old Hare.**—After cleaning and skinning, cut it up; and season it with pepper, salt, allspice, pounded mace, and a little nutmeg. Put it into a jar with an onion, a clove or two, a bunch of sweet herbs, a piece of coarse beef, and the carcase-bones over all. Tie the jar down with a bladder, and leather, or strong paper; and put it into a sauce-pan of water up to the neck, but no higher. Keep the water boiling five hours. When it is to be served boil the gravy up with a piece of butter and flour; and if the meat gets cold, warm it in this, but not to boil. **Rabbits** may be eaten various ways, as follows: Roasted with stuffing and gravy, like hare: or without stuffing; with sauce of the liver and parsley chopped in melted butter, pepper, and salt; or larded. Boiled, and smothered with onion-sauce; the butter to be melted with milk instead of water. Fried in joints, with dried or fried parsley. The same liver-sauce, this way also. In a pie, as chicken, with forcemeat, etc. In this way they are excellent when young. **To make a Rabbit taste much like Hare.**—Choose one that is young, but full-grown; hang it in the skin three or four days: then skin it, and lay it, without washing, in a seasoning of black pepper and allspice in a very fine powder, a glass of port wine, and the same quantity of vinegar. Baste it occasionally for 40 hours, then stuff it and roast it as a hare, and with the same sauce. Do not wash off the liquor that it was soaked in.

Dressing Fish.—Fish must be thoroughly cleaned but not too much watered. Some wash it beyond what is necessary for cleaning, and by perpetual watering diminish the flavour. Salt should be put into the water in which all fish is boiled; and cod is rendered firmer by the addition of two or three spoonsful of vinegar. Cod, haddock, and whiting eat firmer if a little salt be put into their gills, and they be hung up a few hours before dressing. Care must be taken to preserve the roe, melt, and liver whole; to let them be sufficiently dressed; and to place them conspicuously when served. The sound adhering to the bone must be left there, but very carefully cleaned. Fish that is to be boiled must be put on the fire in cold hard water: when it boils, skim with the greatest care; throw in a little cup of cold water to check extreme heat, then keep it *simmering only*, lest the outside break before the inner part is done. The cover should be kept on the kettle, to prevent any dust or soot falling on the fish, the good colour of which is important. Crimped fish should be put into boiling water, and simmered a few minutes. To judge if a large fish be sufficiently boiled, draw up the fish plate, and with a thin knife try if the fish easily divides from the bone in the thick parts, which it will when done enough. Keep it hot, not by letting it sodden in the water, but by laying the fish-plate crossways on the kettle, and covering with a thick cloth. If left in water after it is

ready, fish loses its firmness, and becomes woolly.

To fry Fish.—Having nicely cleaned and washed it, dry it completely: dip it in yolks of eggs beaten, and then in a dish of stale white breadcrumbs; a second dip in the egg and breadcrumbs will improve the appearance; instantly plunge it into a thick-bottomed frying-pan, in which have ready a sufficient quantity of dripping or lard, *boiling hot*, to cover the fish. Let it gently boil, until it becomes a beautiful yellow brown, and is done enough; if the fish should be done, before the colour be obtained, the pan must be drawn to a cooler part of the fire until the breadcrumbs become brown. Turn a large dish upside down, lay a sheet of cap paper on it, and carefully place the fish upon it before the fire, and put another sheet over, that all the grease may be absorbed. The crumbs should appear distinct. As the frying liquor must not be suffered to become black, it will serve again with a little fresh. Butter gives a bad colour; oil is the best thing to fry in, if the expense be no objection. Frying-pans suited to the sizes of fish, and oblong instead of round, will be found particularly useful, as much waste of lard will be prevented. Fish will look better, when fried, if, after cleaning and drying, they be floured, and laid some minutes before the fire to take off the damp.

To broil Fish.—After cleaning and washing, dry it well, and wrap it in a floured cloth. Season with salt and pepper; flour, and put on a very clean gridiron, the bars of which, when hot, should be rubbed with a bit of suet, to prevent the fish from sticking. It must be broiled on a very clear fire, that it may not taste smoky; and not too near, that it may not be scorched. The proper garnish is sliced lemon, pickled barberries, horse-radish, a fringe of crusted parsley, or crimped parsley. **To crimp Parsley.**—When washed and cleared of the large stalks, throw it again into clean water; make the dripping which fried the fish boil up, and throw the parsley out of the water into the pan, and it will instantly crisp without losing its colour. Take it out with a slice, and let it stand before the fire a minute or two, while the fish is being dished.

Turbot.—If necessary, turbot will keep a couple of days, or more, in perfection, if a very little salt be sprinkled over it, and it be hung in a cool place. **To boil Turbot.**—Set the fish in cold water sufficient to cover it completely, throw a handful of salt and a glass of vinegar into it, and let it gradually boil. When thick, the fish is apt to be unequally done; to prevent which, cut a slit of two inches down the back, close to the bone, and the same on the belly side, with a small sharp knife. Be very careful that no black falls into it; but skim it well, to preserve the colour. Serve it garnished with a complete fringe of curled parsley, lemon, and horse-radish and brown bread and butter. The sauces must be the finest lobster, anchovy butter, and plain butter, served plentifully in separate tureens.

Salmon. To boil Salmon.—Let it be put on in cold water, unless the fish be split; then in warm. If underdone, it is very unwholesome. Serve with shrimp or anchovy sauce. **To broil Salmon.**—Cut slices an inch thick, and season with pepper and salt; lay each slice in white paper, well buttered, twist the ends of the paper, and broil the slices over a slow fire six or eight minutes. Serve in the paper with anchovy-sauce. **To dry Salmon.**—Cut the fish down, take out the inside and roe. Rub the whole, after scaling it, with common salt; let it hang twenty-four hours to drain. Pound three or four ounces of saltpetre, according to the size of the fish, two ounces of bay salt, and two ounces of coarse sugar; rub these, when mixed well, into the salmon, and lay it on a large dish or tray two days, then rub it well with common salt, and in twenty-four hours more it will be fit to dry: wipe it well after draining. Hang it either in a wood chimney, or in a dry

place, keeping it open with two small sticks. Dried salmon is eaten broiled in paper, and only just warmed through, with egg-sauce and mashed potatoes; or it may be boiled, especially the bit next the head. **An excellent Dish of dried Salmon.**—Pull some into flakes; have ready some eggs boiled hard and chopped large; put both into half a pint of thin cream, and two or three ounces of butter rubbed with a tea-spoonful of flour, skim it, and stir till boiling hot; make a wall of mashed potatoes round the inner edge of a dish, and pour the above into it. **To pickle Salmon.**—Boil as before directed, take the fish out, and boil the liquor with bay-leaves, pepper-corns, and salt; add vinegar, when cold, and pour it over the fish. Another way is, after scaling and cleaning, to split the salmon, and divide it into pieces, lay it in the kettle to fill the bottom, and add as much water as will cover it; to three quarts put a pint of vinegar, a handful of salt, twelve bay-leaves, six blades of mace, and a quarter of an ounce of black pepper. When the salmon is boiled enough, drain it and put it on a clean cloth, then put more salmon into the kettle, and pour the liquor upon it, and so on till all is done. After this, if the pickle be not smartly flavoured with the vinegar and salt, add more, and boil it quick three quarters of an hour. When all is cold, pack the fish in something deep, and let there be enough pickle to plentifully cover. Preserve it from the air. The liquor must be drained from the fish, and occasionally boiled and skimmed. To pickle a piece of salmon already boiled add to some of the liquor in which it was dressed a fourth part of vinegar, four bay-leaves, a dessert-spoonful of black pepper-corns, and some salt; boil it half an hour, and pour it cold over the fish, which should not be eaten under four days. In some parts salmon is cleaned and boiled as soon as caught, and sent up cold. It is extremely good, eaten with pepper and vinegar.

Collared Salmon.—Split such a part of the fish as may be sufficient to make a handsome roll, wash and wipe it, and having mixed salt, white pepper, pounded mace, and Jamaica pepper, in quantity to season it very high, rub it inside and out well. Then roll it tight and bandage it, put as much water and one third vinegar as will cover it, with bay-leaves, salt, and both sorts of pepper. Cover close, and simmer till done enough. Drain and boil the liquor quickly, and put on when cold. Serve with fennel.

Cod.—Some people boil the whole fish at once; but a large head and shoulders contain all the fish that is proper to help, the thinner parts being overdone and tasteless before the thick are ready. But the whole fish may be purchased at times more reasonably; and the lower half, if sprinkled and hung up, will be in high perfection for one or two days. Or it may be made salter, and served with egg-sauce, potatoes, and parsnips. Cod, when small, is usually very cheap. If boiled quite fresh it is watery: but eats excellently if salted and hung up for a day, to give it firmness, then stuffed, and broiled, or boiled. **Cod's Head and Shoulders** will eat much finer by having a little salt rubbed down the bone, and along the thick part, even if it be eaten the same day. Tie it up, and put it on the fire in cold water which will completely cover it: throw a handful of salt into it. Great care must be taken to serve it without the smallest speck of black or scum. Garnish with a large quantity of double parsley, lemon, horse-radish, and the milt, roe, and liver, and fried smelts if approved. If with smelts, be careful that no water hangs about the fish; or the beauty of the smelts will be taken off, as well as their flavour. Serve with plenty of oyster or shrimp sauce, and anchovy and butter. **Salt Cod.**—After washing the fish let it lie all night in water to which a ½ pint of vinegar has been added; see that it is quite clean when taken out; put in a fish kettle, and just cover with cold

water; let it come gradually to boiling point; simmer gently, otherwise the fish will be hard; remove any scum which arises; when done serve on a napkin and garnish with rings of hard-boiled eggs. Egg sauce and parsnips are proper to send up with it. **Crimped Cod.**—Boil or fry: if the former, it must be put into boiling water, and served like other boiled fish on a napkin. **Cod Sounds.**—To boil cod sounds soak them in warm water half an hour, then scrape and clean; and if to be dressed white, boil them in milk and water: when tender, serve them in a napkin, accompanied by egg-sauce. The salt must not be much soaked out, unless for fricassee. Dress cod tongues in the same way. To make cod sounds to look like small chickens, wash three large sounds nicely, and boil in milk and water, but not too tender; when cold, put a forcemeat of chopped oysters, crumbs of bread, a bit of butter, nutmeg, pepper, salt, and the yolks of two eggs; spread it thin over the sounds, and roll up each in the form of a chicken, skewering it; then lard them as you would chickens, dust a little flour over, and roast them in a tin oven slowly. When done enough, pour over them a fine oyster-sauce. Serve for side or corner dish at the first course. To broil cod sounds, scald in hot water, rub well with salt, pull off the skin, and put them to simmer till tender: take them out, flour, and broil. While this is doing, season a little brown gravy with pepper, salt, a tea-spoonful of soy, and a little mustard: give it a boil with a bit of flour and butter, and pour it over the sounds. To make cod sounds ragout prepare as above: then stew them in white gravy seasoned, cream, butter, and a little bit of flour added before you serve, gently boiling up. A bit of lemon peel, nutmeg, and the least pounded mace, should give the flavour. **To make Scallops of Cod.**—Beat some cold cod with the yolk of an egg, a few shrimps, a little butter, salt, and pepper, fill the shells more than three parts, and strew bread-crumbs over; then drip a little butter, warmed without oiling. **Curry of Cod** should be made of sliced cod, that has either been crimped or sprinkled a day, to make it firm. Fry it of a fine brown with sliced onions; and stew it with a good white gravy, a little curry-powder, a bit of butter and flour, three or four spoonfuls of rich cream, salt, and Cayenne, if the powder be not hot enough.

To dress Cold Fish that has been boiled.—Break it into flakes, and put it into a pan with sauce thus made: beat boiled parsnips in a mortar, then add to it a cup of cream, and a good piece of butter rolled in flour, a little white pepper, and half a tea-spoonful of mustard, all boiled together; keep the fish no longer on the fire than to become hot, but not boil.

Soles, if boiled, must be served with great care to look perfectly white, and should be covered with parsley. The roe or milt of soles must not be taken out. If to be fried, see p. 145. Soles that have been fried eat good cold with oil, vinegar, salt, and mustard; or, cut into large dice, in a bowl with salad. Or, they are fit for stewing; to do which see stewed carp, p. 150. Another way is to take two or three soles, divide them from the backbone, and take off the head, fins, and tail. Sprinkle the inside with salt, roll them up tight from the tail-end upwards, and fasten with small skewers. If large or medium size, put half a fish in each roll; small do not answer. Dip them into yolks of eggs, and cover them with crumbs. Do the egg over them again, and then put more crumbs; and fry them a beautiful colour in lard, or in clarified butter. Garnish with dried or fried parsley. Serve with shrimp sauce. To cook soles in the Portuguese way take one large or two small: if large, cut the fish in two: if small, they need only be split. The bones having been taken out, put the fish into a pan with a bit of butter and some lemon-juice, give it a fry, then lay the fish on a dish, and spread a forcemeat over each piece, and roll it round, fastening the roll with a few

small skewers. Lay the rolls into a small earthen pan, beat an egg and wet them, then strew crumbs over; and put the remainder of the egg, with a little meat gravy, a spoonful of caper-liquor, an anchovy chopped fine, and some parsley chopped, into the bottom of the pan; cover it close, and bake in a slow oven till the fish are done enough. Then place the rolls in the dish for serving, and cover it to keep them hot till the baked gravy is skimmed; if there should not be enough, a little fresh, flavoured as above, must be prepared and added to it. Garnish with fried or dried parsley. To make the stuffing for the above, pound cold beef, mutton, or veal, a little; then add some fat bacon that has been lightly fried, cut small, and some onions, a little garlic or shallot, some parsley, anchovy, pepper, salt, and nutmeg; pound all fine with a few crumbs, and bind it with two or three yolks of eggs.

Mackerel.—Boil, and serve with butter and fennel. To broil them, split, and sprinkle with herbs, pepper, and salt; or stuff with the same, crumbs, and chopped fennel. **Collared**;—as Eel, page 151. **Potted**:—clean, season, and bake them in a pan with spice, bay-leaves, and some butter; when cold, lay them in a potting-pot, and cover with butter. **Pickled**:—boil them, then boil some of the liquor, a few peppers, bay-leaves, and some vinegar; when cold, pour it over them. **Pickled Mackerel, called Caveach.**—Clean and divide them; then cut each side into three, or, leaving them undivided, cut each side into five or six pieces. To six large mackerel, take nearly an ounce of pepper, two nutmegs, a little mace, four cloves, and a handful of salt, all in the finest powder; mix, and making holes in each bit of fish, thrust the seasoning into them, rub each piece with some of it; then fry them brown in oil; let them stand till cold, then put them into a stone jar, and cover with vinegar; if to keep long, pour oil on the top. Thus done, they may be preserved for months.

Haddock.—Sprinkle with salt a few hours, and boil, or broil, with or without the following stuffing: Take equal parts of fat bacon, beef-suet, and fresh butter, some parsley, thyme, and savoury; a little onion, and a few leaves of scented marjoram shred fine; an anchovy or two; a little salt and nutmeg, and some pepper. Oysters will be an improvement with or without anchovies; add crumbs, and an egg to bind. **To stew Haddock.**—Take off the heads and fins, when well washed, and, with an onion, some sweet herbs, whole pepper, a spoonful or two of vinegar, and some water, make a gravy, which, when done, pour on the haddocks cut in large pieces, having previously sewed up in each a stuffing made as follows:—boil the livers, and mix with crumbs of bread, an anchovy, suet, Cayenne, salt, nutmeg, and a shallot minced; bind it with an egg. Stew the fish slowly until done enough, then thicken the gravy with a large piece of butter rolled in flour, and put to it one spoonful of mushroom ketchup. **To dry Haddock.**—Choose them of two or three pounds weight: take out the gills, eyes, and entrails, and remove the blood from the back-bone. Wipe them dry, and put some salt into the bodies and eyes. Lay them on a board for a night; then hang them up in a dry place, and after three or four days they will be fit to eat; skin and rub them with egg, and strew crumbs over them. Lay them before the fire, and baste with butter, until brown enough. Serve with egg-sauce. Whitings, if large, are excellent this way; a very convenient means of preserving fish in the country where there is no regular supply.

Thornback and Skate should be hung one day at least before they are dressed; and may be served either boiled, or fried in egg and breadcrumbs. **Crimped Skate.**—Boil and send up in a napkin; or fry as above.

Red Mullet is called the sea-woodcock. Clean, but do not open or wash the inside, fold in oiled paper, and gently bake in a small dish. Make a

sauce of the liquor that comes from the fish, with a piece of butter, a little flour, a little essence of anchovy, and a glass of sherry. Give it a boil; and serve in a boat, and the fish in the paper case it was dressed in.

Flounders. Let them be rubbed with salt inside and out, and lie two hours to give them some firmness. Boil, if so chosen; but they are better fried; in frying observe the usual directions. Serve garnished with fried parsley, sauce, anchovy and butter. **Water Souchy.**—Stew two or three flounders, some parsley-leaves and roots, thirty peppercorns, and a quart of water, till the fish are boiled to pieces; pulp them through a sieve. Set over the fire the pulped fish, the liquor that boiled them, some perch, tench, or flounders, and some fresh leaves and roots of parsley; simmer all till done enough, then serve in a deep dish. Slices of bread and butter are to be sent to table, to eat with the souchy. **Plaice.**—Sprinkle with salt, and keep twenty-four hours; then wash and wipe it dry, wet over with egg, cover with crumbs of bread; make some lard or fine dripping, and two large spoonfuls of vinegar, boiling hot; lay the fish in, and fry it a fine colour, drain it from the fat, and serve with fried parsley round, and anchovy-sauce.

Herrings and Sprats. To smoke Herrings.—Clean, and lay them in salt and a little saltpetre one night; then hang them on a stick, through the eyes, in a row. Have ready an old cask, in which put some sawdust, and in the midst of it a heater red-hot; fix the stick over the smoke, and let them remain twenty-four hours. **Fried Herrings.**—Serve them of a light brown, with onions sliced and fried round them; or without onions. **Broiled Herrings.**—Flour them first, and do of a good colour; plain butter for sauce. **Potted Herrings.**—When in high season choose a dozen of the finest herrings, clean and remove every scale; wash them twice over, drying them with fresh cloths each time. Rub into them, in fine powder, one ounce of Jamaica pepper, ditto saltpetre, ditto common salt; lay them on a board, which raise on one side a little that the fish may drain for twelve hours. Then, with clean cloths, wipe off the spice and salt, and season with the following, in the finest powder: forty-eight cloves, twelve large blades of mace, two large nutmegs, a quarter of an ounce of pepper, and an ounce of common salt. As you season each, lay it in an earthen pan as nearly fitted to hold the herrings as possible. Lay over them a pound of butter, cover with a white and several brown papers; tie down close, and bake three hours in a moderately quick oven. When a little cooled, drain the liquor from the fish, and lay them round a potting-pot, or char-pan, the backs upwards, as close as they will lie without breaking, and finish packing them in the centre. Take the bowl of a large spoon, and smooth the surface, that there may not be cavities to absorb the butter, which must not be put on until the following day; then let it be half an inch thick. The gravy makes the finest addition to soups, or made dishes, in small proportions. The heads should lie over the fish when baked. Herrings thus dressed, and served in the hot gravy, make a dish of the finest flavour imaginable. Herrings are very good potted like mackerel: see p. 148. **To dress Red Herrings.**—Choose those that are large and moist, cut them open, and pour some boiling small beer over them to soak half an hour; drain them dry, and make them just hot through before the fire, then rub some cold butter over them and serve. Egg-sauce, or buttered eggs, and mashed potatoes, should be sent up with them. Instead of butter, a little sweet oil will add to the richness, but it must be dropped on while before the fire, and in the smallest quantity. **Baked Herrings and Sprats.**—Wash and drain without wiping them; season with allspice in fine powder, salt, and a few whole cloves; lay them in a pan with plenty of black pepper, an onion,

and a few bay-leaves. Add half vinegar and half small beer, enough to cover them. Put paper over the pan, and bake in a slow oven. If you like, throw saltpetre over them the night before, to make them look red. Gut, but do not open them. **To broil Sprats.**—When cleaned, they should be fastened in rows by a skewer run through the heads, and then broiled, and served hot.

Smelts.—To fry smelts they should not be washed more than is necessary to clean them. Dry them in a cloth; then lightly flour them, but shake the flour off. Dip them into plenty of egg, then into bread crumbs grated fine, and plunge them into a good pan of *boiling* lard; let them continue gently boiling, and a few minutes will make them a bright yellow-brown. Take care not to take off the light roughness of the crumbs, or their beauty will be lost.

Pike.—To dress pike scale it, and open as near the throat as you can, and, after well cleaning, stuff it with the following: grated bread, herbs, anchovies, oysters, suet, salt, pepper, mace, half a pint of cream, four yolks of eggs; mix all over the fire till it thickens, then put it into the fish, and sew it up. Boil or bake; if the latter, bits of butter should be put over it, and half a pint of rich broth in the dish; and when the fish is ready take the gravy out of the dish, add a dessert-spoonful of essence of anchovy, the same of soy, and a squeeze of lemon, to some butter rolled in flour, and, boiling it up, pour into the dish. *Note:* if, in helping a pike, the back and belly are slit up, and each slice gently drawn downwards, there will be fewer bones given.

Carp.—Boiled carp should be served on a napkin, with the sauce described as suitable for stewed carp. **Stewed Carp.**—Scale and clean, take care of the roe, etc. Lay the fish in a stew-pan, with a rich beef-gravy, an onion, eight cloves, a dessert-spoonful of Jamaica pepper, the same of black, a fourth part of the quantity of gravy of port (cider may do); simmer close covered; when nearly done, add two anchovies chopped fine, a dessert-spoonful of made mustard, some fine walnut ketchup, and a bit of butter rolled in flour: shake it, and let the gravy boil a few minutes, then add a spoonful of soy. Serve with sippets of fried bread, the roe fried, and a good deal of horse-radish and lemon. **Baked Carp.**—Clean a large carp; put a stuffing as for soles, dressed in the Portuguese way. Sew it up; brush it all over with yolk of egg, and put plenty of crumbs; then drop oiled butter over to baste it; place the carp in a deep earthen dish, with a pint of stock, a few sliced onions, some bay-leaves, a faggot of herbs (such as basil, thyme, parsley, and both sorts of marjoram, and treble the quantity of parsley), half a pint of port wine, and six anchovies. Cover over the pan, and bake it an hour. Let it be done before it is wanted. Pour the liquor from it, and keep the fish hot while you heat up the liquor with a good piece of butter rolled in flour, a tea-spoonful of made mustard, a little Cayenne, and a spoonful of soy. Serve the fish on the dish, garnished with lemon, parsley, horse-radish, and the milt or roe, and put the gravy into the sauce-tureen.

Perch and Tench.—Put them into cold water, boil them carefully, and serve with melted butter and soy. Perch are most delicate fish. They may be either fried or stewed, but in stewing they do not preserve so good a flavour. *Perch* and *Tench* may be done the same way as Trout and Grayling. **Trout and Grayling** may be either boiled or fried. Scale, gut, and well wash; then dry them, and lay them separately on a board before the fire. If for frying, they must be floured. Serve with crimped parsley and plain butter. **Trout à-la-Genevoire.**—Clean the fish very well; put it into your stew-pan, adding half Champagne and half Moselle, or Rhenish, or sherry wine. Season it with pepper, salt, an onion, a few cloves stuck in it, and a small bunch of parsley and thyme; put in it a crust of French bread; set it on a quick fire. When

the fish is done, take the bread out, bruise it, and then thicken the sauce; add flour and a little butter, and let it boil up. See that your sauce is of a proper thickness. Lay your fish on the dish, and pour the sauce over it. Serve it with sliced lemon and fried bread.

Eels. Spitchcock Eels.—Take one or two large eels, leave the skin on, cut them into pieces of three inches long, open them on the belly-side, and clean them nicely: wipe them dry, and then wet them with beaten egg, and strew over on both sides chopped parsley, pepper, salt, a very little sage, and a bit of mace pounded fine and mixed with the seasoning. Rub the gridiron with suet, and broil the fish of a fine colour. Serve with anchovy and butter for sauce. **Fried Eels.**—If small, they should be curled round and fried, being first dipped into egg and crumbs of bread. **Boiled Eels.**—Small eels are best this way: simmer them in a small quantity of water, with a good deal of parsley, which should be served up with them and the liquor. Serve chopped parsley and butter for sauce. **Eel Broth.**—Do as above; but stew two hours, and add an onion and peppercorns: salt to taste. **Collared Eel.**—Bone a large eel, but do not skin it: mix pepper, salt, mace, allspice, and a clove or two, in the finest powder, and rub over the whole inside; roll it tight, and bind with a coarse tape. Boil it in salt and water, and two bay-leaves, till done enough, then add vinegar, and when cold keep the collar in pickle. Serve it either whole or in slices. Chopped sage, parsley, and a little thyme, knotted marjoram, and savoury, mixed with the spices, greatly improve the taste. Eels stewed as carp are a very fine dish.

Lampreys.—After cleaning the fish carefully, remove the cartilage which runs down the back, and season with a small quantity of cloves, mace, nutmeg, pepper, and allspice; put it into a small stew-pot, with as much strong beef gravy and Madeira, or sherry, in equal quantities, as will cover it. Cover close; stew till tender, then take out the lamprey and keep hot, while you boil up the liquor with two or three anchovies chopped, and some flour and butter; strain the gravy through a sieve, and add lemon-juice and some made mustard. Serve with sippets of bread, and horse-radish. When there is spawn, it must be fried and put round. *Note.* Cider will do in common instead of white wine.

Fish Cake.—Take any sort of dressed fish (the remains of a turbot will do well), cut the meat from the bones, put them, the head and fins, over the fire, with a pint of water, an onion, herbs, pepper, and salt, to stew for gravy. Mince the meat, put to it a third part of crumbs of bread, a little minced onion, parsley, pepper, salt, and the least bit of mace: mix well, and make it into a cake with white of an egg, and a little melted butter; cover it with raspings, and fry it a pale brown, keeping a plate on the top while doing. Then lay it in a stew-pan, with the fish gravy, and stew it gently a quarter of an hour; turn it twice, but with great care not to break it: cover it closely while stewing. Cake of dressed meat, done in the same way, is remarkably good.

Lobsters, Shrimps, and Cray-fish. To pot Lobsters.—Half-boil them, pick out the meat, cut it into small bits, season with mace, white pepper, nutmeg, and salt, press close into a pot, and cover with butter; bake half an hour; put the spawn in. When cold, take the lobster out, and put it into the pots with a little of the butter. Beat the other butter in a mortar with some of the spawn; then mix the coloured butter with as much as will be sufficient to cover the pots, and strain it. Cayenne may be added, if approved. **Another way to pot Lobsters.**—Half-boil; take out the meat as whole as you can: split the tail and remove the gut; if the inside be not watery, add it. Season with mace, nutmeg, white pepper, salt, and a clove or two, in the

finest powder. Lay a little fine butter at the bottom of the pan, and the lobster smooth over it, with bay-leaves between; cover it with butter, and bake gently. When done, pour the whole on the bottom of a sieve, and with a fork lay the pieces into potting-pots, some of each sort, with the seasoning about it. When cold, pour clarified butter over, but not hot. It will be ready for eating next day; and if highly seasoned, and thick-covered with butter, will keep some time. Potted lobster may be eaten cold, or as a fricassee, with cream sauce: it then looks very nice, and eats excellently, especially if there is spawn. **Mackerel, Herrings,** and **Trout,** are good potted as above. **Lobster Pudding.**—Divide the body in two, and having cleared the back shell, and dressed the meat of the whole as for patties, lay it in the shell hot, cover with crumbs of bread, and brown with a salamander. If the lobsters be small, use two. **Rissoles of Lobster.**—Chop the flesh of a large lobster, or two small ones, and mix with it a very little lemon-peel, pepper, salt, nutmeg, or mace, a little butter, cream, and a very few crumbs of stale bread. Roll the mass, and cover it in small quantities, the size of sausages, with a light puff paste. Rub them over with the finest yolk of egg, and dip them in the finest crumbs of bread. Fry a fine yellow brown, and serve them with crisped parsley. **Buttered Lobsters.**—Pick the meat out, cut it, and warm with a little weak brown gravy, nutmeg, salt, pepper, and butter, with a little flour. If done white, a little white gravy and cream. **To Roast Lobsters.**—When half-boiled, and while hot, rub the shell with butter, and lay it before the fire. Continue basting it with butter till it has a fine froth. Melted butter, Cayenne, and salt, are eaten with the above. **Curry of Lobsters or Prawns.**—Scald, and take them from the shells, and lay into a pan, with a small piece of mace, three or four spoonfuls of veal gravy, and four of cream; rub smooth one or two tea-spoonfuls of curry-powder, a tea-spoonful of flour, and an ounce of butter; simmer an hour; squeeze half a lemon in, and add salt. **Prawns and Cray-fish in Jelly.**—Make a savoury fish-jelly, and put some into the bottom of a deep small dish; when cold, lay the cray-fish upon it with their backs downwards, and pour more jelly over them. Turn out when cold. **To butter Prawns or Shrimps.**—Take them out of the shells; and warm them with a little good gravy, a bit of butter and flour, a scrape of nutmeg, salt, and pepper; simmer a minute or two, stirring the while, and serve with sippets; or with a cream sauce, instead of brown. **To pot Shrimps.**—When boiled, take them out of their shells, and season them with salt, white pepper, and a very little mace and cloves. Press them into a pot, lay a little butter over them, and bake in a slow oven for ten minutes. When cold, cover with clarified butter.

Crabs. Hot Crab.—Pick the meat out of a crab, clear the shell from the head, then put the meat with a little nutmeg, salt, pepper, a bit of butter, crumbs of bread, and three spoonfuls of vinegar, into the shell again, and set it before the fire. You may brown it with a salamander. Dry toast should be served to eat it upon. **Dressed Crab cold.**—Empty the shells, and mix the flesh with oil, vinegar, salt, and a little white pepper and Cayenne: then put the mixture into the large shell, and serve. Very little oil is necessary.

Oysters. To feed Oysters.—Put them into water, and wash them with a birch besom till quite clean; then lay them bottom-downwards into a pan, sprinkle with flour or oatmeal and salt, and cover with water. Do the same every day, and they will soon fatten. The water should be pretty salt. **To stew Oysters.**—Open, and separate the liquor from them, then wash them from the grit; strain the liquor, and put with the oysters a bit of mace and lemon-peel, and a few white peppers. Simmer them very

gently, and put some cream, and a little flour and butter. Serve with sippets. The beards should be removed. They require very few minutes. **Boiled Oysters.**—Eat well with cold butter. Let the shells be nicely cleaned first; and serve in them. **To Scallop Oysters.**—Put them with crumbs of bread, pepper, salt, nutmeg, and a bit of butter, into scallop-shells, or saucers; put bits of butter over, and bake before the fire in a Dutch oven. **Oyster Fritters.**—Do in the foregoing way; but the oysters must be of choice sort, and served as a small dish by themselves. **Fried Oysters to garnish boiled Fish.**—Make a batter of flour, milk, and eggs, season it a very little, dip the oysters into it, and fry them a fine yellow-brown. Take off the beards previously. A little nutmeg should be put into the seasoning, and a few crumbs of bread into the flour. **To pickle Oysters.**—Wash four dozen of the largest oysters you can get in their own liquor, wipe them dry, strain the liquor off, adding to it a dessert-spoonful of pepper, two blades of mace, a tablespoonful of salt (if the liquor be not very salt), three tablespoonfuls of white wine, and four of vinegar.—Simmer the oysters a few minutes in the liquor, then put them in small jars, and boil the pickle up, skim it, and when cold, pour over the oysters: cover close.

Oyster Soup.—Take two quarts of fish stock, as directed in page 127; beat the yolks of ten hard eggs, and the hard part of two quarts of oysters, in a mortar, and add this to the stock. Simmer it all for half an hour; then strain it off, and put it and the oysters (cleared of the beards, and nicely washed) into the soup. Simmer five minutes: have ready the yolks of six raw eggs well beaten, and add them to the soup. Stir it all well one way, on the side of the fire, till it is thick and smooth, but do not let it boil. Serve with a roll moistened in the soup.

Lemons to serve with and Garnish Fish.—Lemon, when served with fish for the purpose of being squeezed over it, is cut sometimes in halves, and sometimes in quarters. For instance, lemon is served with whitebait, nearly every kind of fried fish, such as flounders, soles, etc., also with turtle soup; sometimes with mock turtle, sardines, pilchards, and any fish preserved in oil, wild duck, widgeon, teal, pancakes, etc. In public restaurants lemons are generally cut into quarters; in private establishments, I think, generally into halves. The lemon is handed round, and each person takes a piece and squeezes for himself. Cut lemon, served with fish this way, must not be confounded with cut lemon served as a garnish. It is possible, for instance, that a cookery book might direct as follows for a boiled turbot—"serve with the white side uppermost and garnish with parsley and cut lemon." This is one of the most old-fashioned garnishes known. The lemon is cut as follows, say to garnish a small boiled plaice: Take a hard lemon and cut three thin slices out of the middle, and cut each slice in half through the centre. We now have six semicircles of lemon, in which the yellow rind is the half circumference, and the white lump the centre. Now cut the yellow rind in half in the middle and pull the two pieces open till it resembles an hourglass in shape. You will, of course, have six little hourglass-shaped pieces. Then chop up a little dark-green parsley and sprinkle it over the white fish. Place the pieces of cut lemon round the edge and put a little pinch of chopped parsley in the centre of each piece of lemon. A few sprigs of parsley may be placed round as well. This is a quick and common method of ornamenting fish. Of course, a very great improvement is a little lobster coral. The red specks and the green contrast very nicely and have a pretty effect. If you have no coral, make a salt-spoonful of dry bread crumbs. Drop three or four drops of cochineal in a plate, shake the crumbs in it and let them dry. The crumbs turn red directly, and few persons would see any difference between them and the coral of a lobster itself.

Vegetable versus Animal Food.—There is, says Mr. A. G. Payne, a general impression amongst Englishmen that the strength of a man must be in proportion to the amount of animal food which he eats. Real facts, however, tend very much to show that even if the contrary is not the case, at any rate there is very little ground for believing that muscular strength is dependent upon the consumption of animal food. The question as to how far meat is necessary as an article of food is too broad a one to be discussed in these pages, so we will content ourselves with saying that we have, however, very high authority for stating that vegetables alone contain every form of food that is absolutely necessary for human beings. **Vegetable Foods.**—Eggs and milk are both allowed by vegetarians; but no kind of food is admissible which involves the slaughter of animal life. With regard to soups, we have the various *purées* made from beans, carrots, artichokes, potatoes, etc. Next, eggs form a most important branch of food, and of course, the dishes that can be made from eggs are extremely numerous. We can have scrambled eggs, poached eggs, fried eggs, devilled eggs, eggs *au gratin*, eggs *à la tripe;* or we can have eggs in the shape of various omelettes, such as cheese omelette, savoury omelette, and omelette with jam. Again, we can have eggs in the form of Scotch woodcock, or "buck rabbit," which is simply a poached egg on a Welsh rabbit, beside numerous omelette souffles. In addition to the various familiar vegetables we have mushrooms, tomatoes, and truffles, and there are a vast number of ways in which these can be cooked.

A Vegetarian Dinner.—The following is a bill of fare for a vegetarian dinner, with a few directions how to make the various dishes.

Purée of Artichokes.
Stewed Leeks with Plovers' Eggs.
Savoury Omelette.
Mushrooms on Toast.
Haricot Beans.
Truffles en Serviette.
Scotch Woodcock.

Purée of Artichokes.—The first point for consideration is our soup—Purée of Artichokes. It must be borne in mind that on the present occasion we are not allowed to use stock, consequently we shall require an extra amount of vegetables, for it must be remembered that in every case of vegetarian diet we have to make up by quantity what we lose in quality. As Sir Henry Thompson says, in his book entitled "Food and Feeding," an Irishman requires from ten to eleven pounds of potatoes daily, but a weight of two or three pounds of flesh and eggs, as well as bread, is fully equivalent to the Irishman's ten pounds of potatoes. For making purée of artichokes we shall require a very considerable amount of ordinary fresh dug Jerusalem artichokes, which must be first of all thoroughly washed and scraped. Take, say, a gallon of Jerusalem artichokes and place them in a saucepan, with a little water, one or two onions, one carrot, one turnip, and, if possible, a small head of celery, or the trimmings of some celery. The whole must be allowed to boil till the vegetables are perfectly tender, when they should be all rubbed through a wire sieve, after having been allowed to boil till they become a pulp. Next take a pint of cream, boil it separately with a couple of bay leaves, and add this to the pulp, with a little pepper and salt. Thus a most delicious soup will be obtained, quite equal in flavour to that made from ordinary stock. Should cream be unobtainable, owing to its high price or other causes, a rather larger quantity of milk will make a very good substitute. When, however, milk is used instead of cream, it will be necessary to thicken the soup by adding a little butter and flour. For this purpose, equal quantities of butter and flour should be mixed well together and placed on a plate in the oven, and baked sufficiently long for the flour to lose its gruelly taste, but not so long as to make it acquire a brown colour; in fact we shall have to thicken our soup with what French cooks know under the name of "white roux." When celery

cannot be obtained, a small quantity of celery seed should be substituted, but this seed should be enclosed in a small muslin bag, tied with a piece of string, and then boiled in the soup sufficiently long to impart the required flavour, after which the bag should be taken out. Celery seed, as it possesses a very powerful flavour, should not be allowed to boil in the soup too long, otherwise it will overpower all other flavours.

Stewed Leeks with Plovers' Eggs.—Plovers' eggs contain a great deal of nourishment, and are consequently often recommended to invalids. A very delicious dish can be made by serving the hard boiled plovers' eggs hot, with a few stewed leeks; or, when celery is obtainable, they can be served up in stewed celery. Of course plovers' eggs in many parts of the country can only be regarded as an expensive luxury; but when they cannot be obtained, ordinary eggs may be substituted. In serving stewed leeks, to be eaten as a dish by itself, the leeks should be first of all thoroughly washed, and cut crossways into thin rings. These should then be boiled in plenty of water, strained off, and the water thrown away. A little milk should then be thickened with some butter and flour, and the leeks warmed up in it. Cooks should pay great attention to making the leeks mild before they are served. Were the leeks boiled in a small quantity of water, and served up at once, they would be too strong for ordinary palates.

Savoury Omelette.—Probably most cooks will know how to make the ordinary omelette, but I would here remind them of the all-important fact that a good omelette cannot be made in a frying-pan that is used for the ordinary purposes of frying. However, in writing for a vegetarian household, perhaps this caution will not be necessary. In making a small savoury omelette I would recommend the following proportions: first of all chop up a small piece of onion the size of the thumb down to be first joint, and a teaspoonful of chopped parsley, to which should be added about a salt-spoonful of ordinary mixed savoury herbs, sold by Messrs. Crosse & Blackwell, for making what is known as veal stuffing. To this add a salt-spoonful of salt, and half a one of pepper. Next take three eggs, break them into a basin, and beat them up till they froth, and then add the chopped ingredients, pepper, salt, etc. Now take about two ounces of butter, and place it in a frying-pan over the fire. If the eggs are thoroughly frothed up, as soon as the butter begins to splutter and froth from the heat, pour in the eggs from the basin, and stir the whole together very quickly—that is, with a table-spoon keep scraping the mixture from the bottom of the pan to prevent it sticking. Very soon the whole will begin to set. When this takes place, slacken the heat, and work the mixture up into a semi-circular form, which is easily done, owing to the shape of the frying-pan. As soon as the mixture is nearly set, take the frying-pan from the fire; and if you have an open fire, hold the frying-pan in front, and the heat will cause the omelette to rise. If the fireplace is a shut-up one, the best way of making the omelette rise is to hold what is known in France as a salamander on the top. A salamander is simply a piece of hot iron, which will cause the omelette to rise, and also slightly brown it on the top. In ordinary English kitchens, where no salamander is obtainable, it is a very common thing for the cook to make the kitchen shovel red hot, and use it for the purpose.

Mushrooms on toast.—Our next dish is mushrooms on toast. I would here remind cooks of the importance of having mushrooms fresh gathered, and still further, of taking the precaution to ascertain that they *are* mushrooms. After they have been peeled, all they require is, to be cooked in the frying-pan with some butter, pepper, and salt. The flavour of mushrooms is in itself so delicious that I think as a rule it will be found that they are nicest eaten plain as they are; next cut a large slice of bread from a whole loaf, and toast it

on both sides. As soon as the mushrooms have been fried till they are tender, place the slice of hot toast on an equally hot dish, and pour the black-looking butter, in which the mushrooms were fried, carefully over if, placing the mushrooms themselves on the top. Sprinkle a little pepper over the whole, and serve as quickly as possible. There are various other ways of cooking mushrooms, such as mushrooms *au gratin*. Mushrooms, especially the small white button mushrooms, can be stewed and served with cream. There are, however, few nicer ways of serving mushrooms than the one I have just described.

Haricot Beans.—Our next dish is in one sense the *piece de resistance* of our dinner, and, from a vegetarian point of view, corresponds to sirloin of beef or saddle of mutton. Haricot beans, properly cooked, contain a very great amount of nourishment, and are also a very substantial dish. Unfortunately, in this country the beans are seldom to be obtained fresh. Those who have been fortunate enough to enjoy French dinners will remember what a delicious dish haricot beans make when cooked perfectly fresh. In England, however, we get them only in the dried state. Take a pint of these, and throw them over night into cold water. Should any beans float on the surface of the water, they should be thrown away, as the reason for them floating is that there is a small hollow in them, which is probably mildewed. The following day take them out, and boil them gently in some plain water till they are perfectly tender. Then strain them off, and serve either with a little butter, chopped parsley, and lemon juice, or with pure olive oil instead of butter. In any case, a little chopped parsley, lemon juice, pepper and salt, is an improvement. Another method of serving them is to strain them off when they are tender, and let them be kept warm for about a quarter of an hour or more in a little cream that has been previously boiled. Pepper and salt should be added, but when cream is used I would recommend you not to add lemon juice, as it very often has the effect of making the cream curdle.

Truffles en Serviette.—Our next dish, *truffles en serviette*, is, of course, an expensive luxury. As the name implies, the truffles are simply washed, scraped, and boiled, like an ordinary potato, and sent to table served up in a napkin, which, with a little ingenuity, can be so folded as to resemble an artichoke in shape. In houses where truffles would be out of place, I would recommend as a substitute a course of potatoes fried a nice brown colour in some olive oil. For this purpose the oil should be heated to a smoking temperature, being very nearly that of 400°. The great secret of frying vegetables in oil or butter is to heat the latter to a very high temperature indeed. It is perfectly useless to attempt to fry without.

Sweets.—It will be seen that in this dinner I have not alluded in any way to what may be termed "sweets." We can now follow with various forms of these. For instance, fruit tarts, such as apricot tart, orange fritters, etc., etc. These can be easily left to the housekeeper herself, who will probably be at no loss to supply any variety of these kind of dishes. I would, however, remind them what exceedingly nice open tarts can now be made from tinned apricots, tinned peaches, and tinned pine-apples.

Scotch Woodcock.—Our last dish is that very popular one known as "Scotch woodcock." In making this dish it is necessary to use anchovy sauce. I am not sufficiently acquainted with the mode of manufacturing this sauce to speak with certainty, but I believe a great deal of it can be made from the eggs or spawn of the fish, without depriving the fish themselves of life. There are various kinds of Scotch woodcock, the best known, probably, being simply whipped cream placed on the top of a rich anchovy toast. Whipped cream, however, is not to be ob-

tained without considerable difficulty and expense. I will, therefore, give you two other receipts for making Scotch woodcock, by substituting eggs for cream. One is to place a light omelette *souffle* on the top of a rich anchovy toast; but a far simpler one can be made as follows: have ready a good thick round of hot buttered toast; take three or four hard-boiled eggs; remove the skins, and throw them hot into a basin, with about an ounce or more of butter. Cut the eggs up quickly with a knife and fork—a silver knife being the best for the purpose, if possible. Of course the heat of the eggs will melt the butter, and render the process of cutting the eggs up much simpler. Now add to this a brimming table-spoonful of anchovy sauce, taking care first to thoroughly shake the bottle. Mix this in the basin, with a little cayenne and black pepper, and spread the mixture on the toast as quickly and as hot as possible. This Scotch woodcock is within the reach of almost every family, and I can strongly recommend it for trial.

Dressing Vegetables.—Vegetables should be carefully cleaned from insects, and nicely washed. Boil them in plenty of water and drain them the moment they are done enough. If overboiled, they lose their beauty and crispness. **To boil Vegetables green.**—Be sure the water boils when you put them in. Make them boil very fast. Don't cover, but watch them; and if the water has not slackened, you may be sure they are done when they begin to sink. Then take them out immediately, or the colour will change. Hard water, especially if chalybeate, spoils the colour of such vegetables as should be green, but a very small piece of soda put into the water when it boils, before the vegetables are put in it, will preserve their colour. **Green Peas.**—The colour of peas may be retained if a lump of loaf sugar be put into the water in which they are boiled. Peas should not be overdone. **To stew Green Peas.**—Put a quart of peas, a lettuce and an onion both sliced, a bit of butter, pepper, salt, and no more water than hangs round the lettuce from washing. Stew them two hours very gently. When to be served, beat up an egg, and stir it into them: or a bit of flour and butter. Some think a tea-spoonful of white powdered sugar is an improvement. Gravy may be added, but then there will be less of the flavour of the peas. Chop a bit of mint, and stew in them. **Jerusalem Artichokes** should be well washed in cold water and allowed to soak for a short time; boil them until tender—they must be put into boiling water, to which a handful of salt has been added; take off the skin, drain on a sieve and serve with melted butter. **Artichokes.**—Trim a few of the outside leaves off, and cut the stalk even. If young, half an hour will boil them. They are better for being gathered two or three days first. Serve them with melted butter. **To stew Onions.**—Peel six large onions, flour lightly, fry gently of a fine brown but do not blacken them; then put them into a small stew-pan with a little weak gravy, pepper, and salt; cover and stew two hours gently. **Stewed Celery.**—Wash six heads and strip off their outer leaves, either halve or leave them whole, according to their size; cut into lengths of four inches. Put them into a stew-pan with a cup of broth, or weak white gravy; stew till tender, then add two spoonfuls of cream, and a little flour and butter seasoned with pepper, salt, and nutmeg, and simmer all together. **Cauliflower.**—Choose those that are close and white, cut off the green leaves, and look carefully that there are no caterpillars about the stalk. Soak an hour in cold water, then boil them in milk and water, and take care to skim the sauce-pan, that not the least foulness may fall on the flower. It must be served very white, and *rather* crimp. **To dress Brocoli.**—Cut the heads with short stalks, and pare the tough skin off them. Tie the small shoots into bunches, and boil them a shorter time than the heads. Some salt must be put into the water. Serve with or without

toast. **Spinach** requires great care in washing and picking. When this is done, throw it into a sauce-pan that will just hold it, sprinkle it with a little salt, and cover close. The pan must be set on the fire, and well shaken. When done, beat the spinach well with a small bit of butter: it must come to table pretty dry. A spoonful of cream is an improvement. **Beans.**—Boil tender, with a bunch of parsley, which must be chopped to serve with them. Bacon or pickled pork may be served to eat with, but must not be boiled with them. **French Beans.**—String, and cut them into four or eight; the last looks best. Lay them in salt and water, and when the sauce-pan boils put them in with some salt. As soon as they are done serve them immediately, to preserve the green colour. **Potatoes.**—For directions as to boiling, baking, and cooking potatoes in various ways see Vegetarian recipes pp. 161—163. **Mashed.**—Boil the potatoes, and break them to paste; then to two pounds of them add a quarter of a pint of milk, a little salt, and two ounces of butter, and stir it all well over the fire. Either serve them in this manner, or place them on the dish in a form, and then brown the top with a salamander, or in scallops. **Carrots** require a good deal of boiling. When young, wipe off the skin after they are boiled; when old, boil them with the salt meat, and scrape them first. **Fricassee of Parsnips.**—Boil in milk till they are soft, then cut them lengthways into bits two or three inches long, and simmer in a white sauce, made of two spoonfuls of broth, a bit of mace, half a cupful of cream, a bit of butter, and some flour, pepper, and salt. **Vegetable Marrow.**—Peel the marrow; put it in boiling water which has been salted (a gallon of water requires a heaped tablespoonful of salt); boil till the marrow is tender, then halve it or quarter it if it is large; take out the seeds. Serve with melted butter. **Boiled Asparagus.**—Asparagus should be cooked when quite fresh. Boil it in ½ gallon of water into which a tablespoonful of salt has been thrown. It should be prepared thus:—begin from the head and scrape the white parts of the stems, and as they are done throw them into cold water; then placing all the heads together, tie the asparagus in bundles (about 20 in each); make the stalks all one length; boil, quickly until tender. The water must be boiling when the asparagus is put in. **Sea Kale** must be boiled very white and served on toast like asparagus. **Beet Roots** make a pleasant addition to winter salad. Beet must be boiled until tender. In boiling, the cook must be careful to preserve the skin whole, for, if pricked, the beet-root will lose its beautiful colour. **French Salad.**—Chop three anchovies, a shalot, and some parsley, small; put them into a bowl with two tablespoonfuls of vinegar, one of oil, a little mustard, and salt. When well mixed, add by degrees some cold roast or boiled meat in *very thin* slices; put in a few at a time, not exceeding two or three inches long. Shake them in the seasoning, and then put more; cover the bowl close, and let the salad be prepared three hours before it is to be eaten. Garnish with parsley, and a few slices of the fat. **To stew red Cabbage.**—Slice a small, or half a large red cabbage, wash and put it into a sauce-pan with pepper, salt, no water but what hangs about it, with a piece of butter. Stew till quite tender; and when going to serve, add two or three spoonfuls of vinegar, and give one boil over the fire. Serve it for cold meat, or with sausages on it. **Another way.**—Shred the cabbage, wash it, and put it over a slow fire, with slices of onion, pepper and salt, and a little plain gravy. When quite tender, and a few minutes before serving, add a bit of butter rubbed with flour, and two or three spoonfuls of vinegar, and boil up. **Another.**—Cut the cabbage very thin, and put it into the stew-pan with a small slice of ham, and half an ounce of butter at the bottom, half a pint of broth, and a gill of vinegar. Let it stew covered three hours. When

it is very tender add a little more broth, salt, pepper, and a tablespoonful of pounded sugar. Mix these well, and boil them all till the liquor is wasted; then put it into the dish, and lay fried sausages on it. **Mushrooms.**—The cook must be well acquainted with the different sorts of things called by this name, as death has often been occasioned by carelessly using the poisonous kinds. The eatable 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 under part gradually opens, and shows a fringy fur of a very fine salmon-colour, which continues more or less till the mushroom has gained some 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 that have white or yellow fur should be carefully avoided, though many of them have the same smell (but not so strong) as the right sort. **To stew Mushrooms.**—The large buttons are best, and the small flaps while the fur is still red. Rub the large buttons with salt and a bit of flannel, cut out the fur, and take off the skin from the others. Sprinkle them with salt, and put into a stew-pan with some pepper corns; simmer slowly till done, then put a small piece of butter and flour, and two spoonfuls of cream; give them one boil, and serve with sippets of bread.

To preserve Vegetables for Winter use.—**French beans,** pick when young, and throw into a little wooden keg a layer of them three inches deep; then sprinkle them with salt, put another layer of beans, and do the same as high as you think proper, alternately with salt, but not too much of this. Lay over them a plate, or cover of wood, that will go into the keg, and put a heavy weight on it. A pickle will rise from the beans and salt. If they are too salt, the soaking and boiling will not be sufficient to make them pleasant to the taste. When they are to be eaten, cut, soak, and boil them as if fresh. **Carrots,** **Parsnips,** and **Beetroots,** should be kept in layers of dry sand for winter use; and neither they nor potatoes should be cleared from the earth. **Potatoes** should be carefully kept from frost. **Store-onions** keep best hung up in a dry cold room. **Parsley** should be cut close to the stalks; and dried in a warm room, or on tins in a very cool oven: it preserves its flavour and colour, and is very useful in winter. **Small close Cabbage** laid on a stone floor before the frost sets in, will blanch and be very fine, after many weeks' keeping.

Salads.—A salad should be made of herbs which are quite fresh, and which have been carefully picked, washed, and drained. It should not be dressed long before it is required for use; its fresh crisp appearance is due to an observance of this precaution. **Ordinary Summer Salad.**—Get some lettuces, radishes, a cucumber, some mustard and cress, and, if liked, some young onions. The lettuces should be cut into small pieces and the radishes and part of the cucumber thinly sliced. When these have been lightly arranged on a dish salad dressing should be poured *under* the whole. Some cooks garnish with sliced hard-boiled eggs, sliced beetroot and cucumber, and other things which their taste suggests. For a **Winter Salad** we have to fall back on such things as we can get—endive, mustard and cress, celery, and boiled beetroot—but these can be arranged so as to make a very pretty dish. Cut the celery into thin shreds, but not before it has been sufficiently washed and cleared of all worm-eaten parts. Pile this with the mustard, cress, and endive—all thoroughly cleansed—in the centre of a salad dish or bowl. Slice some hard-boiled eggs and the beetroot and garnish the salad with these. Do not pour the salad dressing over the salad but into the dish. **Chicken Salad.**—For this, take lettuces, a little endive, a cucumber, and some salad dressing. Put the sliced lettuces and endive into the middle of a dish and arrange on the top the neatly

trimmed remains of cold chicken, either roast or boiled. Pour the salad dressing over. Rings of hard-boiled eggs, and slices of cucumber, and boiled beetroot may be arranged as a garnish to edge the salad. **Lobster Salad.**—Cut up a lettuce and some endive and over these pour salad dressing (directions for making which are given below); throw in any small salad which may be procurable; cut up the meat from the shell of the lobster into square pieces; put half of these with the salad and mix all together. The whites of two hard-boiled eggs should be finely chopped, and the yolks rubbed through a sieve, and also the coral from the inside. The salad should be put on a glass dish, and garnished with sliced cucumber, and the remaining half of the pieces which came from the shell, in rows, and with the yolks and whites of the eggs, the coral, and beetroot arranged in alternate bunches. **Salad Dressing.**—A good salad dressing may be made as follows. Put one teaspoonful of mixed mustard into a bowl with a teaspoonful of pounded sugar; then drop in—not *pour* in—two tablespoonfuls of salad oil; mix all together by careful stirring; then add four tablespoonfuls of milk, then two tablespoonfuls of vinegar—both must be stirred in gradually to prevent curdling; season with salt and cayenne to taste. **Another.**—Pound the yolks of four hard-boiled eggs in a mortar, to a paste; then mix with the eggs by stirring well, a teaspoonful of mixed mustard, ½ teaspoonful of white pepper, a few grains of cayenne, salt to taste, and four tablespoonfuls of cream or salad oil; add enough vinegar to make the dressing as thick as cream. **Mayonnaise Salad** of shrimps or prawns. There are, perhaps, few dishes more appetising in very hot weather, says Mr. A. G. Payne, than good mayonnaise salad. When shrimps or prawns are used for making salads, they must, of course, be first picked. A quart of shrimps, when picked, will not yield more than half a pint; and to make a salad enough for four persons, as a pint of picked shrimps will be required, we shall want, therefore, fully two quarts of shrimps. With regard to prawns, they vary so much in price and size that it is almost impossible to say how many will be requisite; but at certain places, and in certain seasons of the year, when prawns are plentiful and cheap, they can easily be used, as they form, perhaps, the most perfect of all mayonnaise salads. Probably, the greatest difficulty the cook will experience will be in making the mayonnaise sauce. To do this properly, the oil must be fairly cool; and should there be any ice in the house, it will be found that the sauce can be made far easier if the bottle of oil is immersed, for a short time, in water containing a lump of ice; while the basin, in which the sauce is to be mixed, should also be cooled with iced water. The oil must be cold, but not cloudy. Next take the cold basin and dry it; break an egg and separate the yolk from the white, throwing the yolk into the basin. Take the basin in the left hand and the fork in the right, and then let the oil fall gradually, drop by drop, on to the yolk of egg, while you beat the whole lightly together. Then a few more drops of oil, and a little more beating. This requires patience, and until the sauce begins to thicken the oil must be added very sparingly indeed. After a time the mixture will gradually thicken, and as it becomes thick, there is less danger in pouring in the oil in larger quantities; but at no time should more than a teaspoonful be added at once. Keep beating the whole well together with a fork till the mixture acquires the consistency of butter in summer time. The sauce is now made. Next take some perfectly clean and dry lettuce leaves, and pile them up in the centre of a dish. Should it be a shrimp salad, spread the shrimps over the top; and should it be a lobster salad, cut up the meat of the lobster, and spread it over the top; or if it is a chicken salad, the whole meat of the chicken should be sliced up, and placed on the top, etc., etc. Then, with a silver knife or ivory paper knife, spread the mayonnaise sauce over the top, until

it forms a neat, white dome. Now place round the edge or base of the salad some hard-boiled eggs, cut into quarters; chop up a very little piece of bright green parsley, and sprinkle it lightly over the whole, and also take one or two dozen French green capers, and having dried them from the vinegar, stick them lightly into the mayonnaise sauce, at intervals of about an inch apart. Another improvement, if you have the materials by you, is to place filleted anchovies—say four filleted anchovies for the quantity we have named—and a dozen stoned olives round the base. Should the mayonnaise salad contain any kind of meat, such as cold chicken, cold turkey, etc., a great improvement is to take one or two pickled gherkins out of a bottle of pickles, cut them into thin slices, and place them round the edge. If you happen to have in the house a bottle of cochineal, pour three or four drops into a saucer, and take about a salt-spoonful of dried bread-crumbs, not too fine; shake them in the saucer to turn them a bright red. Take care that they are dry, and when dry place them on the end of a knife, and let them fall from a little height over the mayonnaise. The little red and green specks on the white sauce form a very pretty garnish. A small piece of parsley should be stuck in the top; but in the case of prawn salad, four or five of the largest prawns should be kept whole—that is not picked—to be used for ornamenting the salad. One can be stuck upright in the top, somewhat in the position of a horse in heraldry, and four can be placed round the base. If you have an ice-chest in the house, as soon as the salad is made place it in the ice-chest, and keep it there until it is wanted. In any case, put it by directly into the coolest place you have. A little vinegar, pepper, and salt should be added when the salad is mixed up on the plate.

Vegetarian Recipes. Potato Soup.—Average cost of Potato Soup (about two quarts) 2 lb. potatoes 1½d., 2 onions ½d., 1 oz. butter 1d., 1 pint milk, pepper and salt 2d., 3 tablespoonfuls tapioca 1d., in all 6d. Time required one hour. 1. Wash and peel the potatoes thinly, cut them in pieces about ¼ an inch square. 2. Chop the onion a little. 3. Put into a saucepan the butter, add the potato and onion, put the pan on the fire and let the vegetables cook for a few minutes in the butter (they must not brown.) 4. Now add 1½ pints of boiling water or cold (if time is not a consideration) also pepper and salt and let it boil till done to a mash. 5. Then take a wire sieve or colander and rub the vegetables through with a wooden spoon. 6. Return the soup to the saucepan, add to it the milk and put it on to boil. 7. When it boils sprinkle in the crushed tapioca, stirring all the time. 8. Let it boil gently for 7 minutes. 9. For serving pour the soup into a hot tureen.

Potato Croquettes.—1½ lbs. potatoes 1½d., ½ oz. butter, 1 tablespoonful milk 1d., 2 eggs 2d., teaspoonful of parsley, bread crumbs, pepper and salt ½d., in all 5d. Time required ¼ of an hour. 1. Wash and peel thinly the potatoes, steam or boil them (see vegetable cooking). 2. When dry pass them through a wire sieve over a plate, with a wooden spoon. 3. Whilst the potatoes are hot put them into a basin and add the butgeter, parsley, and one egg, well beaten, pepper and salt. 4. Mix all well together and when cool enough shape into croquettes. 5. Beat up the other egg on to a plate, and dip each croquette into it, then roll in bread crumbs, and fry a golden brown, drain on kitchen paper. 6. For serving arrange the croquettes tastily on a hot dish with fried parsley in the centre.

Potatoes in Balls.—Boil and dry the potatoes in the usual way, and mash them quite fine, adding pepper and salt and a small piece of butter; roll them in balls with a little flour, and brown them with a little butter in a Dutch oven, or fry them. Potatoes, when prepared as above, may be pressed into a basin, turned out, and browned before the fire.

Potato Omelet.—Six eggs, two

ounces of potato, one ounce of bread crumbs, and half-an-ounce of butter. Boil the potatoes, which should be very mealy; and, when well dried, mash them with the butter, adding the bread, finely grated, and the eggs, well beaten, leaving out two whites; season with salt and Cayenne pepper. Melt a little butter in a frying-pan; pour in the omelet and fry it a nice brown, or bake it on a flat dish in a quick oven, and serve with mint-sauce and brown sauce.

Potato Fritters.—One pound of mashed potatoes, one ounce and a half of bread crumbs, and five eggs. Boil the potatoes, dry them well, and mash them very fine; add the bread crumbs; season with pepper and salt; put in the eggs well beaten; fry the fritters in butter, and serve with brown or mustard sauce. This quantity will make a large dish.

Potato Salad.—Cut into moderately thin slices about half a dozen well cooked potatoes and place them in a salad bowl in layers, sprinkling a few sweet herbs and some salad cream between each layer, season with pepper and salt to taste.

Potato Chips.—Have ready some moderate sized potatoes which should be first peeled and cut into strips and thrown into a frying basket with a little salt. Place on the fire a saucepan half full of "Nucoline" and thoroughly boil, when the potatoes should be placed in and fried a light brown. **Nucoline** is a Vegetable Butter exceedingly cheap and wholesome and can be purchased at any good grocer's, or from the Maker's, New Oils Co., Silvertown, E.

Potatoes, Mashed.—Boil one dozen good sized potatoes until quite soft and place into a pestle and mortar and after thoroughly pounding place a good sized piece of butter with them and a little salt. Turn into the vegetable dish and lightly brown before serving.

Potato Cake.—Boil three middling-sized mealy potatoes, and when well dried mash them with a little butter and salt, adding the fourth of a pennyworth of German yeast dissolved in a quarter-pint of warm water, and one pound of wheat-meal, making the whole of the consistency of dough. Roll it into cakes, and when sufficiently risen, bake in a moderate oven.

Baked Potatoes.—Select some good sized potatoes and thoroughly scrub until quite clean. Place in a moderately hot oven and bake until quite soft.

Potatoes Fried Whole.—Scrape some new potatoes of a moderate size and boil until soft, drain off the water and place on the side for a short time to dry, after which turn out into a basin and place in a frying basket with a little finely chopped parsley. Place the basket in a saucepan of boiling "Nucoline" and fry a light brown. Serve hot.

Potato Pie.—Boil half a dozen good sized potatoes and cut them into thick quarters. Parboil two Spanish onions, cut into rings and mix with two hard boiled eggs, two teaspoonfuls of chopped parsley, a few mixed herbs, salt and pepper to taste, and about two oz. of butter. Place all together in a dish; cover with wholemeal crust and bake.

Haricot Bean Soup.—Wash and pick half a pint of haricot beans, put them in an earthenware dish with three quarts of boiling water, cover, and let them simmer in the oven four hours. When they have been in the oven about two hours and a half, add one tablespoonful of tapioca, and about half an hour before they are done, add half a teaspoonful of chopped parsley, and the same amount of thyme; season with pepper and salt, and just at the last, stir in a little butter.

Haricot Beans, Fricassee of.—One pint of beans, the juice of a lemon, and an ounce of parsley. Steep the beans over night in cold soft water, drain and set them on the fire in two quarts of cold soft water. When they boil, simmer slowly two hours or more. Put into a stewpan, with a little chopped parsley, two ounces of butter, and the lemon juice. Set them on the fire a few minutes, and stir them well before serving.

Haricot Bean Pie.—Take half a

pound of haricot beans, one pound of potatoes, boiled and sliced, three-quarters of a teacupful of tapioca, half an ounce butter. Cook the beans soft; soak the tapioca in cold water all night. Line the edges of a pie-dish with paste, put in the ingredients in layers—first beans, then potatoes, then tapioca—and lay over a few pieces of butter. Continue this process till the dish is full. Pour in half a teacupful of water drained from the beans; cover in with paste, and bake in a moderate oven till nicely browned. Serve with egg sauce.

Haricot Beans and Caper Sauce.—One pint of beans (large size) half a bottle of capers, pepper and salt to taste. Soak the beans over night and cover next day until soft. Mix two tablespoonfuls of flour with a little milk just sufficient to make a smooth paste, add the capers and an oz. of butter and half a pint of the boiling liquor from the beans, place in a saucepan and thoroughly boil, stirring all the time, when done add to the haricots and serve hot.

Haricot Mayonnaise.—Boil half a pint of large haricots until quite soft, having previously soaked them over night, place when cold in a salad dish with some slices of beetroot, the heart of a good lettuce and a little endive and water-cress. Pour over some salad dressing and garnish with hard boiled eggs and tomatoes.

Haricot Fritters.—Boil a pint of haricots and pound in a pestle and mortar, add a few mixed herbs, pepper and salt to taste, and three hard boiled eggs finely chopped, moisten with a little milk and thoroughly mix into a stiff paste. Roll into balls and fry a nice light brown.

Tomato Soup.—Twelve ripe tomatoes, divide, squeeze out the seeds, and cut off the stalks; put them, with one onion and a pint of water, into a pan, and let them simmer about an hour. When they begin to boil, add some salt and Cayenne pepper. Press them through a sieve, put them again into the pan, and set them over the fire, and when hot, stir in a pint of new milk; previously mixed with a teaspoonful of flour and boiled five minutes. If fresh tomatoes cannot be procured, those in tins answer equally well.

Tomato Omelet.—Take three eggs, two tomatoes, a few drops of lemon-juice, and a suspicion of shalot, or rub over the dish in which the omelet is to be served with a clove of garlic. Break the eggs in a basin, cut the tomatoes, and press all the pulp through a hair sieve into the basin with the eggs. Melt one ounce butter in the pan, pour in the mixture, and cook as directed. To turn out a tomato omelet properly requires practice.

Tomato Soufflé.—Tomato juice and pulp, one pound; bread crumbs, one pound; a Spanish onion chopped fine; parsley, thyme, pepper, and salt; three eggs. Mix these ingredients well together, and bake in a buttered dish.

Tomato Toast.—3 tomatoes 2d., 1 oz. butter 1d., 1 egg 1d., 1 tablespoonful bread crumbs, ½ oz. grated cheese, salt and pepper 1d., 6 small rounds buttered toast 2d., in all, 7d. Time required 20 minutes. 1. Dip the tomatoes in boiling water to remove the skin, chop up fine. 2. Put the butter into a frying-pan and when hot put in the tomatoes to fry for five minutes, add pepper and salt. 3. Beat up the eggs and add it to the tomatoes, stir well, then add the bread crumbs and cook two minutes. 4. Grate the cheese and add it to the tomatoes etc., do not cook it after adding the cheese. 5. Have ready the toast, spread the mixture on, and serve hot. 6. Or the mixture may be put into the centre of a dish and the toast cut in small pieces and put round.

Baked Tomatoes.—Take half a dozen or a dozen good sized tomatoes according to the quantity required, cut in halves and place in a tin with a piece of butter on each tomato. Cut some thin slices of cheese and place on the tops of each tomato, add pepper and salt to taste, and bake in a moderately hot oven until nicely brown. Serve hot.

Tomato Salad.—Cut about half a

dozen moderately sized tomatoes into quarters and place in a salad bowl, adding the heart of a good sized lettuce and a little endive and water-cress. Pour over some salad dressing and thoroughly mix. Garnish with beetroot and two hard boiled eggs, cut up into various shapes according to taste.

Cooking Eggs.—Eggs, like milk, are a perfect food. A two-ounce egg contains nearly the same amount of nourishment as an ounce of meat and an ounce of bread. Eggs are nutritious and wholesome, except when boiled too hard. To get an egg in perfection it should be just laid and cooked so as just to "set." The most digestible form in which an egg can be served is raw, thoroughly beaten (either altogether or with the two parts beaten separately), and served with sugar and milk. The addition of a spoonful of wine or brandy or of lime-water will make even a rebellious stomach receive the draught quietly. In regard to eggs, Marion Harland says: "Eggs are the cheapest food for the breakfast or lunch-table of a private family. They are nutritious, popular, and never (if we except the cases of omelets, thickened with uncooked flour, and fried eggs, drenched with fat) an inelegant or homely dish." The Spaniards are said to have 365 ways of cooking eggs, but when the receipts are shown they prove to consist largely of different articles added to an omelet, and, really, when you say boiled, fried, scrambled, poached, and plain omelet, you have named all of the familiar and generally practicable ways of dressing eggs.

Boiling Eggs.—Eggs cannot be too fresh for this purpose, but when new laid must be allowed more time in cooking. The water must be boiling, when the egg is put into it and care must be taken lest the egg cracks in the act of immersion. The egg should be boiled until the white is set and this will take about three and a half minutes. Eggs for salads should be boiled for ten or fifteen minutes and should afterwards be placed in cold water for a short time before the shell is removed.

Frying Eggs.—To fry four eggs will require 3oz. lard, butter or clarified dripping. Place the fat in the pan till boiling. Break the eggs separately, and slip them in,—they are done when the whites are nicely set,—put a little of the fat over them while they are cooking. Take them out with a slice, and let them remain long enough to drain the fat off them, then serve on slices of fried bacon or ham.

Scrambled Eggs.—Allow 1oz. of butter to 6 eggs. Place it in a saucepan and break the eggs into it, and season with salt and pepper. While cooking beat it all up with a fork, but not enough to thoroughly mix the whites and yolks. After it has cooked about 2 minutes, draw partly off the fire to finish slowly. The eggs must be well set. Spread on hot buttered roast, and serve directly.

Poaching Eggs.—Allow one tablespoonful of vinegar to every pint of water. Eggs for poaching should not be less than thirty-six hours old as the whites of new-laid eggs take longer to set. They are best done in a deep frying pan in perfectly boiling water, breaking them one at a time into a cup, and very gently sliding them into the water. Not more than four at a time in the pan, or they will run together. From 2½ to 3½ minutes they will be done. Take them up with a slice, and neatly trim them round before serving on toast, ham or spinach. A tin egg poacher with perforated cups will be found a great assistance and can be purchased at a trifling cost.

Plain Omelet.—Break the yolks of six eggs and the whites of three into a basin; add 1 salt-spoonful of salt and ¼ salt-spoon of pepper; beat them up till light; add one ounce of butter in small pieces and stir in. Put into a frying pan two oz. butter; as soon as it boils, whisk the mixture briskly for a minute or two, and put into the pan; stir with a spoon one way until firm; then fold the edges over, in an

oval form. When it is firm it is done. Brown before the fire, or with a salamander. Serve very hot, as soon as cooked. It must be cooked gently or it will not be evenly done. Nearly everyone knows how to cook eggs in the ways named with greater or less success, but the following methods will be found in most cases to be novel, simple, and not in all the cookery books.

Eggs à la Crême.—Cut some very thin slices of bread and put them in the bottom and around the sides of a moderately deep dish. Boil twelve eggs just hard enough to slice, and place them in the dish, Cover them with a layer of grated stale bread, well peppered and salted. Make several layers. Mix a quarter of a pound of butter, a table-spoonful of flour, some chopped parsley, onion, salt, pepper, nutmeg, and a gill of cream. Mix them well and stir in a saucepan on the fire until it begins to boil; then pour it over the eggs in the dish, cover with grated bread, brown in the oven and serve hot.

Baked Eggs, Ardennes Style.—Separate the whites and yolks of six eggs, putting each yolk by itself in a cup, and the whites altogether in a bowl; when all the eggs are broken, beat the whites to a stiff froth, after adding to them a salt-spoonful of salt and a quarter of a salt-spoonful of pepper; spread them on a buttered dish, slip the yokes on top, laying them a little apart, and bake for five minutes in a hot oven, or until they are light brown; dust pepper and salt over the top and serve them hot.

Eggs with Burnt Butter.—Break half a dozen eggs, putting each one in a cup to keep them entire; put four table-spoonfuls of butter into a frying pan and brown it over the fire, slip the eggs into the hot butter and cook them to the desired degree; then take them up with a skimmer, lay them on toast and set the dish containing them where they will keep hot. Pour half a cup of vinegar into the butter, let it boil up once, pour it over the eggs and serve them hot.

Scotch Eggs.—One cut of lean, cooked ham, cut very fine; six hard-boiled eggs. Cook one-third of a cup of stale bread-crumbs in one third of a cup of milk to a smooth paste, and mix it with the ham. Add one-half of a tea-spoonful of mixed mustard, one-half of a salt-spoonful of Cayenne, and one raw egg. Mix well. Remove the shells from the boiled eggs and cover each with the mixture. Fry in hot fat for two minutes, drain and serve hot or cold.

Eggs à la Neige.—Put into a saucepan a pint of milk, two dessert-spoonfuls of orange-flower water, and two ounces of sugar, and let them boil; take six eggs, beat the whites to a froth and put it into the boiling milk by spoonfuls; stir the whole about with a skimmer; when done take the cooked frothed whites out and arrange on a dish; thicken the milk over the fire with the beaten yolks, and pour all over the frothed whites and serve cold.

Savoury Eggs.—Boil any number of eggs hard, and when cold take the yokes and beat them smooth, with an equal number of anchovies, a little catsup, and a piece of butter. Add some lemon-juice and a little Cayenne pepper. With this composition fill the whites of the eggs, and cut off the small ends so as to stand them up. Essence of anchovy will do as well as the fish. Grated ham or smoked beef may also be used.

Fried Eggs with Pickles.—Put enough butter, lard, or ham-fat in a hot frying-pan to entirely cover the bottom, break in as many eggs as it will hold, dust them with pepper and salt, cook them to the required degree, and put them on a hot dish; meanwhile chop a large pickle finely and put it into the frying-pan for one minute after the eggs have been taken up, then put it on them and serve them at once.

Fricasseed Eggs.—Boil six eggs five minutes. Lay them in cold water. Peel them and dredge them with flour.

Beat one raw egg light and dip the hard eggs in it. Roll them in bread crumbs, seasoned with pepper, salt, and grated nutmeg; cover the eggs well with this and let them dry. Fry them in boiling fat and serve them with any rich, well-seasoned gravy and garnish of parsley.

Eggs Convent Fashion.—Boil four eggs ten minutes and put in cold water. Melt an ounce of butter and fry an onion cut into very thin slices; add a tea-spoonful of flour, half a pint of milk, half a tea-spoonful of salt, a quarter tea-spoonful of pepper, and when nicely done add the four eggs cut crossways into six pieces; toss them up and serve hot on toast.

Whites of Eggs à la Crême.—Beat the whites of twelve eggs with four tea-spoonfuls of rose-water with a little grated lemon-peel, nutmeg and powdered sugar. Put them in four moulds and boil for half an hour. When cold place in a dish and serve for supper with a sauce made of half a pint of cream, a gill of wine, and half the juice of an orange sweetened.

Baked Omelet.—Boil one pint of milk. Beat six eggs thoroughly, the yokes and whites separately. Put half a tea-spoonful of salt, and butter half the size of an egg, into the boiling milk; stir this into the beaten eggs and turn all into a deep dish to bake. Bake ten minutes in a quick oven. It should be a delicate brown. Serve while hot.

Eggs with Cheese.—Put four ounces of grated cheese, a piece of butter as large as a walnut, some chopped parsley and chives, nutmeg, and half a glass of wine; boil until the cheese is melted, continually stirring; add six eggs, beat them up and stew them altogether gently; serve on a dish garnished with fried slices of bread.

Eggs in Marinade.—Poach six eggs nicely, trim them and serve with a sauce made as follows: three spoonfuls of water, a gill of white gravy, a spoonful of vinegar, a little pepper and salt, yolks of two eggs; stir these in a stewpan till they begin to thicken, but not boil, and pour them over the six eggs. Serve cold with a garnish of parsley.

Baked Eggs and Cheese.—Lay some thin slices of cheese on a buttered flat baking dish, break as many eggs on the cheese as the dish will hold in a single layer, dust them with salt and pepper, put a small bit of butter on each one, and bake them to the required degree in a hot oven. Serve them hot.

Eggs with Brown Butter.—Melt a piece of butter in a frying-pan, and when it has ceased bubbling put in some beaten eggs, seasoned with pepper and salt, pass a red-hot iron—a hot poker, for example—over them to fry the yolk, and then pour over a spoonful of hot vinegar and serve.

Eggs in Cases.—Make eight cases of writing-paper and butter the insides. Mix some butter with half a handful of bread crumbs, parsley, chives, cloves of garlic chopped up, salt and pepper. Put this in each case, and break an egg in. Put each on a gridiron over a gentle fire.

Eggs à la Tripe.—Boil some onions with a good lump of butter very gently. When done add some salt, a spoonful of flour, a cup of cream or milk, and a piece of sugar the size of a hazel-nut. Let them simmer. Put in some hard-boiled eggs cut in quarters, and serve hot.

Baked Eggs.—Put half an ounce of butter in a small tin pan, break four eggs in it, keeping the yokes whole, salt and butter and pepper them and bake in oven. They will take about six minutes.

Preserving Eggs.—Eggs may be preserved by applying with a brush a solution of gum arabic to the shells, and afterwards packing them in dry charcoal dust.

Omelettes, Pancakes, Fritters.—Omelettes should not be too thin; they should, therefore, be made in a small frying-pan. Whether savoury or plain they should be fried in butter. **Plain Omelette.**—Beat the yolks of six and the whites of three eggs, with some salt and pepper; then stir into this 1 oz. of butter cut up into small pieces.

Put 2 oz. of butter into a frying-pan and allow it to get thoroughly hot; the eggs should be beaten briskly for a minute or two just before being put into the pan; pour in the egg when the butter boils; stir until the omelette thickens; when it is set fold the edges over and serve very hot. The omelette should not be turned whilst in the pan, but the upper side may be browned, if preferred, with a salamander or a heated shovel before the edges are folded over. An omelette may be made **Savoury** by the addition of minced parsley, or minced onion; some add grated cheese, shrimps, or oysters. When oysters are added they should be cut in pieces after having been boiled in their own liquor and bearded. **A Plain Sweet Omelette** may be made according to the directions for a *Plain Omelette* and served with sifted sugar over. **Other Sweet Omelettes** are made by spreading jam on the middle of Plain Omelettes, folding them and sifting sugar over them. **Pancakes.**—Make a very smooth batter with ¼ pound of flour, three eggs, ¼ pint of milk, and a pinch of salt. Put about ½ oz. of good lard into a frying pan, and make it very hot; pour in half a teacupful of the batter and fry both sides nicely brown. Serve very hot with grated loaf sugar and slices of lemon. **Plain Fritters.**—To three ounces of flour allow 3 eggs and ¼ pint of milk; use a little of the milk to mix the flour to a smooth batter and add a pinch of salt; well beat the eggs and stir them in, and then add what remains of the milk, beating the batter until it is quite smooth, a little more milk should be stirred in if it is too thick. Into a pan of boiling lard, drop a little more than a table-spoonful of batter at a time and fry to a nice brown on both sides. Drain off the fat by letting the fritters lie before the fire on white blotting paper; dust them over with castor sugar. They should be dished on a doiley and sent to table with cut lemon and sugar. **Apple Fritters.**—Peel some good sized apples; cut them in rather thick rounds and take out the core with a cutter; dip the rounds of apple into sweetened lemon juice; then put them into batter, made as directed for *Plain Fritters*; fry each separately in boiling lard, browning them on both sides; drain on white blotting paper; arrange one above the other, sift soft sugar over them and send them to table very hot.

Gruels.—While oatmeal contains less gluten than wheat, it abounds in nutritious elements, and, if used with sugar and milk or cream, it forms an excellent food, especially for children. As the outer coating of the grain is very difficult to digest, great care should be exercised in its removal; any portion of it left in the oatmeal is apt to cause sufficient intestinal irritation to seriously interfere with the digestion of the inner or nutritious kernel of the grain, and its assimilation; its digestibility is increased by prolonged cooking, and the coarse meal requires to be cooked longer than the finer kind. Until it has been cooked long enough to become gelatinous, its cells are not broken, and it cannot be perfectly digested. Oatmeal boiled until it is so cooked will absorb more water than can be taken up by wheat flour, but the fact must be remembered that oatmeal cooked in any way is slightly laxative, while wheat flour, especially if boiled with milk, has an opposite tendency.

Oatmeal Gruel. *A nutritious food for invalids and children, slightly laxative in its effect.*—Put one pint each of milk and water over the fire to boil, with a level tea-spoonful of salt; mix two ounces of finely-ground oatmeal with half a cupful of cold water, and stir it into the boiling milk and water; stir the gruel until it is quite smooth, and then place it where it will boil gently for at least half-an-hour. If there is time, boil it for an hour, stirring it occasionally to prevent burning. When the gruel is cooked, add to it a quarter of a salt-spoonful of grated nutmeg and one or two table-spoonfuls of sugar, as the patient's taste may require.

Gruel of Groats. *A nutritious*

laxative food for invalids, an excellent daily food for children. Groats are shelled oats slightly crushed, all their nutritive elements being preserved. Cooked with milk, the gruel is an excellent substitute for mother's milk for young children; for invalids it is a good demulcent aliment in inflammatory intestinal conditions.—Boil a heaping table-spoonful of groats in a pint of milk and half-a-pint of water for half-an-hour, adding a little boiling water if the mixture grows thicker than an ordinary gruel. The gruel will be better if it can be boiled for an hour. When it is done, season it with salt, and add sugar to suit the taste of the patient.

Spiced Oatmeal Gruel. *Nutritive, slightly stimulating, and good for regulating intestinal action.*—Put one pint of milk over the fire to boil, with one blade of mace, one inch of stick cinamon, and the thinly-pared rind of one lemon; mix two table-spoonfuls of finely ground oatmeal smoothly with one cupful of cold water, stir it into the boiling milk, and boil the mixture slowly for at least twenty minutes, stirring it frequently enough to prevent burning. Then strain the gruel through a fine sieve, sweeten it to suit the taste of the patient, and use it hot.

Gruels made of Sago, Tapioca, and Arrowroot are mild and pleasant foods, whose chief constituent is starch. They contain very little nitrogen, or flesh food, and are therefore better suited as a diet for invalids and children than for persons called upon to exercise muscular force in our temperate climate. Sago is made from the pith of the sago palm; tapioca, from the fecula or starch of the roots of various tropical plants, bruised, and prepared with the action of heat, which seems necessary to the dissipation of certain poisonous properties of the roots, although it detracts from their nutritive qualities. Cassava, which may be known to some of my readers as the basis of *cassareep*, the seasoning of West India pepper-pot, and manioc, are similar in their general properties to tapioca. The addition of sugar, butter, and eggs to sago, tapioca and arrowroot raises their standard of excellence as flesh foods, and greatly increases their nutriment for invalids. As a matter, of course, such addition makes them an excellent food for children. In this connection it may not be amiss to speak of the craving which children often have for sugar and butter, both of which articles are heat and flesh foods, but chiefly heat foods. But while butter is principally an aid to the general sense of physical satisfaction experienced after eating properly cooked food, sugar not only augments that sense of satisfaction by facilitating respiration, but also supplies heat food to the system. The inference is clear that the proverbial desire of children for candy is a natural one, and should not be persistently thwarted. One of my friends, whose children are rosy and healthy, tells me that she gives them pure candy for dessert after their noon-day dinner three or four times a week if they crave it. The use of sago, tapioca, or arrowroot without butter or sugar would not satisfy hunger, or meet the requirements of a healthy physical condition, but would affect the digestive organs unpleasantly in a very short space of time. These facts should be remembered in preparing any of the foods indicated in these articles as suitable foods for children.

Sago Gruel. *A light food suitable during the early stages of illness, when but little nourishment is required.*—Wash one ounce of sago in cold water, put it over the fire in a pint of cold water, heat it slowly, and boil it until it is transparent, which will be in from ten to thirty minutes, according to the size of the grains; stir it occasionally to prevent burning, add a salt-spoonful of salt, a quarter of a salt-spoonful of nutmeg, and a table-spoonful of sugar, and when the sago is quite transparent, use it.

Tapioca Gruel. *A light, bland food, similar in its effects to sago.*—Wash an ounce of tapioca in cold water, put it over the fire in a pint of cold water, and boil it until it is transparent, stirring

it frequently enough to prevent burning. Add salt, sugar and nutmeg to suit the patient's taste.

Arrowroot Gruel. *A slightly nutritive food, stimulating in proportion to the wine used in it; good in the early stages of illness and in slight indispositions.*—Mix one ounce of arrowroot smoothly with half a cupful of cold water, stir it into one pint of boiling water, add one table-spoonful of sugar, and boil the gruel for two or three minutes until it is quite clear; then add a glass of good wine to it and use it.

Barley Gruel. *A nutrient, demulcent gruel, useful in feverish conditions and gastric inflammations; the physician should always be consulted about using the wine called for in this recipe.*—Wash four ounces of pearl barley in plenty of cold water until the water looks clear; put the barley over the fire in two quarts of cold water, and boil it until the water is reduced to one pint. If the physician will allow its use, the yellow rind of lemon may be boiled with the barley. After the gruel is reduced in quantity to one pint, it should be strained and sweetened, and a glass of good wine added to it.

Salep Gruel. *A digestible food, more nutritious than sago, tapioca, or arrowroot, useful as a diet for children, and for invalids to whom the use of starch is permitted.*—Mix two tea-spoonfuls of powdered salep smoothly with half a cupful of cold water, and stir it into a pint of boiling water; add one table-spoonful of sugar and the yellow rind of a lemon, or an inch of stick cinamon and boil the salep for five minutes, stirring thoroughly. Then strain the gruel and use it. Milk may be substituted for water in making the gruel, and its nutriment will thus be increased. The gruel made with water is semi-transparent. The thickening quality of salep is more than twice that of flour.

Pastry.—An adept at pastry never leaves any part of it adhering to the board, or dish, in which it is made. In very hot weather, the butter should be put into cold water to keep it as firm as possible. A good hand at pastry will use much less butter and yet produce lighter crusts than an inferior cook will. **Puff Paste.**—Take ¼ lb. flour and ¼ lb. fresh butter. Rub half the butter into the flour and add a pinch of salt, moisten with water until a stiff paste. Roll out rather thin on a floured board. Spread half the remainder of the butter on this paste with a knife. Slightly dredge with flour, roll up the paste, flour the board again and repeat with the remainder of the butter. This done roll out to the size and thickness required. **Short Crust.**—Rub ¼ lb. of dripping or butter into 1 lb. of flour, add a pinch of salt and mix to a stiff paste with water. Roll out on a well floured board until it is the thickness wanted. **Excellent Short Crust.**—Take two ounces of white sugar, pounded and sifted, quite dry; then mix it with a pound of flour well dried; rub into it three ounces of butter, so fine as not to be seen—into some cream put the yolks of two eggs, beaten, and mix the above into a smooth paste; roll it thin, and bake it in a moderate oven. **Light Paste for Tarts and Cheesecakes.**—Beat the white of an egg to a strong froth; then mix it with as much water as will make three quarters of a pound of fine flour into a very stiff paste; roll it very thin, then lay the third part of half a pound of butter upon it in little bits; dredge it with some flour left out at first, and roll it up tight. Roll it out again, and put the same proportion of butter; and so proceed till all be worked up. **Icing for Tarts.**—Beat the yolk of an egg and some melted butter well together, wash the tarts with a feather, and sift sugar over as you put them in the oven. Or beat white of egg, wash the paste, and sift white sugar. **Raised Crust for Meat Pies, or Fowls, etc.**—Boil water with a little fine lard, and an equal quantity of fresh dripping, or of butter, but not much of either. While hot, mix this with as much flour as you will want, making the paste as stiff as you can to be

smooth, which you will make it by good kneading and beating it with the rolling-pin. When quite smooth, put in a lump into a cloth, or under a pan, to soak till nearly cold. Those who have not a good hand at raising crust may do thus: Roll the paste of a proper thickness, and cut out the top and bottom of the pie, then a long piece for the sides. Cement the bottom to the sides with egg, bringing the former rather further out, and pinching both together; put egg between the edges of the paste, to make it adhere at the sides. Fill your pie, and put on the cover, and pinch it and the side crust together. The same mode of uniting the paste is to be observed if the sides are pressed into a tin form, in which the paste must be baked, after it shall be filled and covered; but in the latter case, the tin should be buttered, and carefully taken off when done enough; and as the form usually makes the sides of a lighter colour than is proper, the paste should be put into the oven again for a quarter of an hour. With a feather, put egg over at first. **Potato Paste.**—Pound boiled potatoes very fine, and add, while warm, a sufficiency of butter to make the mash hold together, or you may mix with it an egg; then before it gets cold, flour the board pretty well to prevent it from sticking, and roll it to the thickness wanted. If it is become quite cold before it be put on the dish, it will be apt to crack.

Puddings.—The outside of a boiled pudding has sometimes a disagreeable taste, because the cloth used in it boiling it had not been nicely washed and kept in a dry place. It must be dipped in boiling water, squeezed dry, and floured before used. If the pudding be of bread, the cloth should be tied so as to allow for swelling; if of flour, tight. Basins or forms are much better than cloths for boiling puddings. The water should boil quickly when the pudding is put in; and it should be moved about for a minute or two, that the ingredients may not separate. Very good puddings may be made without eggs; but they should have very little liquid in them; and must boil longer than puddings with eggs. The yolks and whites, beaten long and separately, make the article they are put into much lighter. Eggs must be always strained after beating. The ingredients of puddings should not be put into the basin or dish till the minute they go into the water or oven. Sago, and all sorts of seeds, should lie in water an hour before they are made into puddings, and be well washed: the want of this caution causes an earthy taste. If the butter be strong that is used in puddings they will not taste well, whatever good things be added. A small pinch of salt improves the flavour of all mixtures, even when the other ingredients are sweet. Well made raisin wine will serve, in most cases, when wine is ordered for puddings. As the goodness of boiled puddings greatly depends upon keeping the water from the ingredients, the cook should take care to have mould and basins in readiness that will exactly hold the quantity directed. Puddings of bread or flour are much better if all the ingredients be mixed (except the eggs) three hours before boiling or baking; and they should be well stirred just before they are put into the oven or saucepan. When butter is ordered to be put warm into puddings, the addition of a little milk, will prevent its oiling. Half an hour should be allowed for boiling a bread pudding in a half-pint basin, and so on in proportion. **Sultana Pudding.**—Mix well 1 lb. flour, 6 oz. chopped suet, ¼ lb. sultanas, and 2 oz. chopped candied peel and moisten with water. Put into a well floured cloth and boil for three hours. **Ginger Pudding.**—For this pudding the following ingredients will be needed:—1 lb. flour, ½ lb. suet, ½ lb. treacle, 2 eggs, 3 teaspoonfuls baking powder, 2 teaspoonfuls ginger, 4 tablespoonfuls milk. Mix milk and treacle together, add the other ingredients and boil in a basin for three hours. **Another way.**—A very simple ginger pudding can be made by mixing into a suet pudding, made with say a quarter of a

pound of suet and half a pound of flour, about a table-spoonful of powdered ginger, and a quarter of a pound of moist sugar. This can then be boiled in a well-buttered mould, in the ordinary way. A sweet sauce could be poured round it, consisting of some sweetened, melted butter, coloured pink with a few drops of cochineal, and flavoured with a couple of table-spoonfuls of rum. **A high-class Ginger Pudding** is made from preserved ginger. Take say a quarter of a pound of preserved ginger, three ounces of flour, three ounces of sugar, three eggs, half a pint of cream, three ounces of butter, or instead of cream have some milk and Swiss milk mixed. Put the butter, milk, sugar, with a pinch of salt, into a small saucepan, and let it simmer gently, then take it off the fire and mix in at once the flour, mix it altogether over the fire for about five or six minutes. Then take it off and gradually stir in the eggs, which will bind it altogether afterwards. Chop up the preserved ginger, and add it. Put the mixture in a buttered mould, and let it steam for a couple of hours. Turn it out, and serve with it a sweet sauce as before, to which add some of the syrup of the preserved ginger. **Pine-apple Pudding** is made in exactly the same way, only substituting preserved, *i.e.*, tinned pine-apple, for the ginger. Use, if anything, rather more pine-apple than ginger. Add plenty of syrup to the sweet sauce. The flavour of the pine-apple syrup and the rum together form a most delicious sauce. **Winter Pudding.**—Ingredients. Mix well in a basin the following: 6 oz. bread-crumbs, 6 oz. golden syrup slightly warmed, 4 oz. chopped suet, 4 oz. flour, 1 teaspoonful ginger. Mix some brown sugar and finely chopped candied peel together, grease a mould and dust it with this mixture, fill the mould to the top with the ingredients from the basin and boil four hours. **Golden Pudding.**—Mix well together ¼ lb. suet, ¼ lb. bread-crumbs, ¼ lb. flour, ¼ lb. sugar, ¼ lb. marmalade, 1 egg, and boil in a basin two and a half hours. **Date Pudding.**—Take the following ingredients: 1 lb. dates, ½ lb. flour, ½ lb. bread-crumbs, 4 apples, pinch of salt, ½ lb. suet, ½ lb. moist sugar, 2 teaspoonfuls baking powder, 2 saltspoonfuls nutmeg, 2 eggs and about 1 pint of milk. Stone and chop the dates, chop the apples, and suet; mix all the dry ingredients together except the baking powder, and moisten with the eggs and milk. Add the baking powder last. Put the mixture into a well-greased basin and boil for four hours. Serve with sweet sauce. **Omnibus Pudding** same as date pudding, only substituting raisins for dates. **Carrot Pudding** same as date pudding, only using chopped carrots instead of dates. **Fig Pudding.**—Ordinary fig pudding can be made by simply chopping up the figs, and mixing them in with plain suet pudding. **A rich Fig Pudding** can be made as follows: one pound of figs, half a pound of suet, a quarter of a pound of flour, a quarter of a pound of bread-crumbs, a quarter of a pound of sugar, three eggs, two ounces of butter beaten to a cream, and a small glass of brandy or rum. The whole should be placed in a well-buttered basin, tied over with a cloth, and allowed to steam for a couple of hours; then turned out and sent to table, with a small quantity of sweet sauce. **Gingerbread Pudding.**—Melt ½ lb. treacle; mix with it 6 oz. bread-crumbs, 6 oz. chopped suet, 2 oz. flour, ½ lb. treacle, 1 teaspoonful ground ginger; boil in a basin for two hours. **Lemon Pudding.**—Mix well together 5 ozs. chopped suet, ½ lb. bread-crumbs, ¼ lb. flour, ¼ lb. moist sugar, the grated rinds and juice of 2 lemons, 1 well-beaten egg; boil in a basin for two and a half hours. **Six Cup Pudding.**—Take the following ingredients. 1 cup suet, 1 cup flour, 1 cup bread-crumbs, 1 cup sugar, 1 cup milk, 1 cup sultanas, 1 teaspoonful baking powder. Chop the suet, pick the sultanas, add the flour, bread-crumbs, and sugar, mix well together, then moisten with milk, and last of all add the baking powder. Boil in a basin for two hours. **Snowdon Pudding.**—To

make this you will require ½ lb. bread-crumbs, ½ oz. ground rice, 1 oz. flour, ½ rind of lemon and juice, 2 oz. moist sugar, 1½ tablespoonfuls marmalade, 2 ozs. chopped suet, raisins to garnish mould, ½ teaspoonful baking powder, 1 egg, 2 teacupfuls milk. Grate the lemon rind to a fine dust, squeeze out the juice, mix all dry ingredients well together, then moisten with the milk. Grease and garnish the mould and fill to the top with the mixture. Boil for three hours. **Half Pay Pudding.**—Chop ¼ lb. suet, pick and wash ¼ lb. currants, stone ¼ lb. raisins; mix these well together with ¼ lb. flour and ¼ lb. bread-crumbs, then add two tablespoonfuls treacle and ¼ pint milk, and boil in a mould for four hours. **Treacle Pudding.**—Take ¼ lb. suet, ½ lb. flour, ½ lb. treacle, 2 oz. candied peel, 1 oz. sugar, ¼ pint milk. Mix the treacle and milk together. Chop the suet and peel, add flour, sugar, treacle, and milk; mix well together and boil in a basin for three hours. **Fruit Puddings.**—Make as above, and line a basin with the paste tolerably thin: fill with the fruit, and cover it; tie a cloth over tight, and boil till the fruit shall be done enough. **Yeast Dumplings.**—Make a very light dough with yeast, as for bread, but with milk instead of water, and put salt. Let it rise an hour before the fire. Twenty minutes before you are to serve, have ready a large stew-pan of boiling water; make the dough into balls, the size of a medium sized apple; throw them in, and boil twenty minutes. If you doubt when done enough, stick a clean fork into one, and if it come out clear, it is done. The way to eat them is, to tear them apart on the top with two forks, for they become heavy by their own steam. Eat immediately with meat, or sugar and butter, or salt. **Norfolk Dumplings.**—With a pint of milk, two well-beaten eggs, and a little salt, mix as much flour as will make a thick batter. Drop a spoonful at a time into a stew-pan of boiling water. Three minutes will do them. Take them up in a sieve to drain; and serve quickly with cold butter. The water must not cease boiling while they are doing. **Jam Roll.**—Make a paste of half a pound of flour, and five ounces of finely shred suet, wetted with water: roll it often till quite smooth. The last time put upon it a layer of apricot, raspberry, currant, or any other sort of jam. Then roll it round; wrap in a nice floured cloth, and tie up the ends. **Boiled Bread Pudding.**—Grate white bread; pour boiling milk over it, and cover close. When soaked an hour or two, beat it fine, and mix with it two or three eggs well beaten. Put it into a basin that will just hold it; tie a floured cloth over it, and put it into boiling water. Send it up with melted butter poured over. It may be eaten with salt or sugar. Prunes, or French plums, make a fine pudding instead of raisins, either with suet or bread pudding. **Bread Pudding.**—Half a pound of stale brown bread grated, ditto of currants, ditto of shred suet, sugar and nutmeg; mix with four eggs, two spoonfuls of cream; boil in a cloth or basin that exactly holds it, three or four hours. Serve with sweet sauce. **Plain boiled Rice Pudding.**—Wash and pick some rice; tie it in a cloth and leave plenty of room for it to swell. Boil it in a quantity of water an hour or two. When done, eat it with butter and sugar, or milk. Put lemon-peel if you please. **Boiled Batter Pudding.**—Make 3 tablespoonfuls of flour and 1 pint of milk into a smooth paste; add a pinch of salt; stir into the paste 3 well-beaten eggs until the batter is perfectly smooth; put it into a buttered basin covered with a cloth, or in a cloth only. It will take only an hour to boil if cooked in a cloth, but will require ¼ hour longer if boiled in a basin. **Rich Plum Pudding.**—Stone 2 lbs. raisins, wash and pick 2 lbs. currants, chop 1 lb. peel, 2 lbs. apples, 2 lbs. beef suet, very finely; grate 3 nutmegs; mix all well together with 2 lbs. bread-crumbs. Beat 24 eggs for at least 20 minutes and moisten the mixture with them, then add a little milk if needed. Stir well and let stand

for about 24 hours. Just before putting into greased basins, add 3 teaspoonfuls of essence of almonds, and lastly 3 teaspoonfuls of baking powder. Boil for 8 hours. **Christmas Plum Pudding.**—Mix 1 lb. of very finely minced beef suet, 1 lb. of stoned raisins, 1 lb. of sultanas from which all stalks have been picked, 1 lb. of washed and dried currants, ½ lb. of moist sugar, ½ lb. of bread-crumbs, ½ lb. flour, a little more than ½ lb. of finely shred candied peel, 1 teaspoonful of mixed spice, 8 eggs, ½ lb. of blanched almonds (some cooks add ¼ pint brandy). The eggs should be added after all the dry things have been mixed. Stir until all the ingredients are well mixed; put into greased moulds; tie a floured cloth over each, place in boiling water and boil the puddings for 10 hours.

Sauces for Puddings. Sweet Sauce.—Take about ½ pint milk and about a tablespoonful of flour or corn-flour; mix the flour to a stiff paste with a little of the milk; sweeten the remainder of the milk with 3 teaspoonfuls of pounded sugar, flavour with lemon rind, or cinnamon, and put it by the fire to heat; pour the warm milk over the paste, after straining away the lemon rind; put the sauce into an enamelled saucepan and stir constantly until it thickens. **Wine or Brandy Sauce.**—To ½ pint melted butter add 3 teaspoonfuls of pounded sugar, a large wineglassful of wine—port or sherry—or a little brandy—about ⅛ of a wineglassful. Let the sauce come to boiling point.

Milk Puddings. Semolina, Rice or Tapioca Pudding.—Take 1 quart milk, ½ teacupful of semolina or rice, or ¼ teacupful of tapioca, ½ oz. butter, 3 teaspoonfuls of sugar. Put the tapioca and sugar into a pie dish, pour on the milk and stir well, then cut the butter into little pieces and place on the top. Put into the oven and after a quarter of an hour stir again well, then let the pudding continue cooking until brown. It should take about an hour. **Sago Pudding.**—Boil a pint and a half of new milk, with four spoonfuls of sago nicely washed and picked, lemon-peel, cinnamon, and nutmeg; sweeten to taste; then mix four eggs, put a paste round the dish, and bake slowly. **Macaroni Pudding.**—Simmer an ounce or two of the pipe-sort, in a pint of milk, and a bit of lemon, and cinnamon, till tender; put it into a dish, with milk, two or three eggs, but only one white, sugar, nutmeg, a spoonful of peach-water. Bake with a paste round the edges. A layer of orange-marmalade, or raspberry-jam, in a macaroni pudding, for change, is a great improvement; in which case omit the almond-water, or ratafia, which you would otherwise flavour it with. **Small Rice Puddings.**—Wash two large spoonfuls of rice, and simmer it with half a pint of milk till thick, then put the size of an egg of butter, and near half a pint of thick cream, and give it one boil. When cold, mix four yolks and two whites of eggs well beaten, sugar and nutmeg to taste; and add grated lemon, and a little cinnamon. Butter little cups, and fill three parts full, putting at bottom some orange or citron. Bake three quarters of an hour in a slowish oven. Serve the moment before to be eaten, with sweet sauce in the dish or a boat.

Some other Baked Puddings. Bread and Butter Pudding.—Place in a pie-dish, with currants or sultanas between the layers, some thin slices of bread and butter; well whisk three eggs, and stir them into 1½ pints of milk; sweeten and flavour to taste; strain and pour over the bread and butter; bake for an hour or a little more in a moderate oven, and when done send it to table in the pie-dish. These ingredients will make a large pudding. **Victoria Pudding.**—Cover the bottom of a pie-dish with jam and spread 3 oz. of bread-crumbs on the top. Beat up the yolks of 3 eggs and stir into 1½ pints milk with 3 teaspoonfuls of sugar, then pour on to the bread-crumbs, and bake for one hour in a moderate oven. When cold put a little jam on the top. Sweeten and beat the whites of the eggs to a stiff froth with a knife, and spread over the jam. Put in a cool oven

to set but not brown. **Bakewell Pudding.**—Cover the bottom of a pie-dish with jam and spread 3 oz. of sweet almonds chopped very finely. Beat up 3 eggs and add to 1 qt. milk and 3 teaspoonfuls of sugar: pour into the dish. Bake for one hour. **Rock Pudding.**—Take the following ingredients: ½ lb. flour, ¼ lb. butter or dripping, ¼ lb. sugar, ¼ lb. currants or sultanas, 2 oz. candied peel, 1 grated nutmeg, 1 egg, milk, 1 teaspoonful baking powder. Rub the dripping into the flour, wash and pick the currants, chop the peel very finely, and add these with the sugar and grated nutmeg to the flour. Moisten with the egg and milk. Stir well and add the baking powder. Put into a well-greased pie-dish to bake in a moderate oven for about one hour. **Custards.**—Custards must never boil after the eggs are added to the other ingredients or they will curdle, therefore all baked custard puddings should stand in a large tin of water whilst in the oven. **Boiled Custard.**—Put 1 pint of milk into a lined saucepan with 3 oz. of loaf sugar and some approved flavouring; leave the saucepan by the side of the fire until the flavour has got into the milk; bring it to boiling point; then allow it to cool a little; strain into a basin, add the eggs after they have been well beaten; strain the mixture into a jug and let this stand in a saucepan of boiling water over the fire; the custard must be constantly stirred one way until it thickens but it *must not boil;* pour into glasses, and grate nutmegs over the top. **Baked Custard Pudding.**—Take 1½ pints of milk, ¼ lb. moist sugar, and some flavouring; let it stand as for boiled custard; then whisk the eggs and mix them with the milk; put all into a pie dish, grate some nutmeg over and bake in a slow oven; some cooks put the custard in a dish lined at the edge with paste already baked. **Apple Puffs.**—Pare the fruit, and either stew them in a stone jar on a hot hearth, or bake them. When cold, mix the pulp of the apple with sugar and lemon-peel shred fine, taking as little of the apple-juice as you can. Bake them in thin paste, in a quick oven; a quarter of an hour will do them if small. Orange or quince marmalade, is a great improvement. Cinnamon pounded, or orange-flower water in change. **Lemon Puffs.**—Beat and sift a pound and a quarter of double-refined sugar; grate the rind of two large lemons, and mix it well with the sugar; then beat the whites of three new-laid eggs a great while, add them to the sugar and peel, and beat it for an hour; make it up in any shape you please, and bake it on paper put on tin-plates, in a moderate oven. Do not remove the paper till cold. Oiling the paper will make it come off with ease. **Lemon Tart.**—Pare, rather thick, the rinds of four lemons, which boil tender in two waters, and beat fine. Add to it four ounces of blanched almonds, cut thin, four ounces of lump sugar, the juice of the lemons, and a little grated peel. Simmer to a syrup: when cold, turn it into a shallow tin tart-dish, lined with a rich thin puff-paste, and lay bars of the same over. As soon as the paste is baked, take it out. **Orange Tart.**—Squeeze, pulp, and boil two Seville oranges tender, weigh them, and double of sugar: beat both together to a paste, and then add the juice and pulp of the fruit, and the size of a walnut of fresh butter, and beat all together. Choose a very shallow dish, line it with a light puff-crust, and lay the paste of orange in it. You may ice it. **Cheesecakes.**—Strain the whey from the curd of two quarts of milk; when rather dry, crumble it through a coarse sieve, and mix with six ounces of fresh butter, one ounce of pounded blanched almonds, a little orange-flower water, half a glass of raisin wine, a grated biscuit, four ounces of currants, some nutmeg and cinnamon in fine powder, and beat all the above with three eggs, and half a pint of cream, till quite light: then fill the patty-pans three parts full. **Lemon Cheesecakes.**—Mix four ounces of sifted lump-sugar and four ounces of butter, and gently melt it; then add the yolks of two and the white of one egg, the rind

of three lemons shred fine, and the juice of one and a half, one Savoy biscuit, some blanched almonds pounded; mix well, and put in paste made as follows: eight ounces of flour, six ounces of butter; two-thirds of which mix with the flour first; then wet it with six spoonfuls of water, and roll the remainder in. **Fruit Pies.**—Puff good paste round the edge of a pie-dish. Fill up the dish with fruit; sweeten with moist sugar and cover with paste. When making pies of very juicy fruit put a small cup in the middle of the dish. Pies should always have a small ventilation hole at the top. **Mince Pies.**—Line patty-pans with good paste, fill with mince meat; damp the edges of the linings and cover the tops with more paste. Prick the top of each pie. **Potato Pie.**—Cut up 1 lb. of cold meat very finely, season with pepper and salt, and add ¼ pint of gravy, put layers of mashed potatoes and this mixture, alternately, and bake in a quick oven until the potatoes are a nice brown on the top. **Other Sweets. Lemon Sponge.**—Soak 1 oz. gelatine in half a pint of cold water, for half an hour; then put it in a stewpan with half a pint of boiling water ¼ lb. lump sugar, juice of 4 lemons and the rind cut very thinly, stir until the mixture boils and the gelatine is dissolved; then strain out the lemon peel. Leave until nearly set in a large basin; add the whites of two eggs, and beat the whole until quite white and firm. Put in a mould, and when quite cold turn out into a glass dish. This quantity will make one quart. **Malvern Pudding.**—Put into a glass dish layers of stewed fruit and thin slices of bread alternately, beginning and ending with fruit. Then put about two or three inches of custard on the top. **Prune Mould.**—Stew 2 lbs. prunes with ½ lb. sugar and ¼ pint water until quite soft. Take out the stones, crack them, and take out the kernels. Melt ½ oz. gelatine in a little boiling water, and mix with the prunes and kernels. Put all into a greased mould and press down well. When cold turn out and pour cream over. **Plain Trifle.**—Cut 8 sponge cakes into halves to form cubes, cut each cube half way through and put raspberry jam inside, then pour 1½ pints of custard over when the sponge has been arranged in a glass dish. Touch up with jam. **Rich Trifle.**—Cut 4 sponge cakes into halves sideways, and arrange at the bottom of a glass dish, on the top of this put 1½ pints of coloured jelly broken up into very small pieces, then pour cream over the whole. The sponge cakes may be soaked with custard or a little sherry if preferred. **Gooseberry or Apple Trifle.**—Scald such a quantity of either of these fruits, as, when pulped through a sieve, will make a thick layer at the bottom of your dish: if of apples, mix the rind of half a lemon grated fine; and to both as much sugar as will be pleasant. Mix half a pint of milk, half a pint of cream, and the yolk of one egg; give it a scald over the fire, and stir it all the time; do not let it boil; add a little sugar only, and let it grow cold. Lay it over the apples with a spoon; and then put on it a whip made the day before, as for other Trifles. **Gooseberry Fool.**—Put the fruit into a stone jar, and some good loaf sugar; set the jar on a stove, or in saucepan of water over the fire; if the former, a large spoonful of water should be added to the fruit. When it is done enough to pulp, press it through a colander; have ready a sufficient quantity of new milk, and a tea-cup of raw cream, boiled together, or an egg instead of the latter, and left to be cold; then sweeten it pretty well with fine Lisbon sugar, and mix the pulp by degrees with it. **Apple Fool.**—Stew apples as directed for gooseberries, and then peel and pulp them. Prepare the milk, etc., and mix as before. **Orange Fool.**—Mix the juice of three Seville oranges, three eggs well beaten, a pint of cream, a little nutmeg and cinnamon, and sweeten to your taste. Set the whole over a slow fire, and stir it till it becomes as thick as good melted butter,

but it must not be boiled; then pour it into a dish for eating cold. **Substitute for Cream to eat with Fruit.**—Beat the yolks of two new-laid eggs, and strain into a pint of new milk, with two knobs of white sugar; put it on a stove, and stir it one way till it becomes as thick as common cream. This also does to mix with tea. **Buttered Rice.**—Wash and pick some rice, drain, and put it with some new milk, enough just to swell it, over the fire; when tender, pour off the milk, and add a bit of butter, a little sugar, and pounded cinnamon. Shake it, that it do not burn, and serve. **Souffié of Rice and Apple.**—Blanch Carolina rice, strain it, and set it to boil in milk, with lemon-peel and a bit of cinnamon. Let it boil till the rice is dry; then cool it, and raise a rim three inches high round the dish; having egged the dish where it is put, to make it stick. Then egg the rice all over. Fill the dish half-way up with the marmalade of apples: have ready the whites of four eggs, beaten to a fine froth, and put them over the marmalade: then sift fine sugar over it, and set in the oven, which should be warm enough to give it a beautiful colour. **Sweet Macaroni.**—Boil two ounces in a pint of milk, with a bit of lemon peel, and a good bit of cinnamon, till the pipes are swollen to their utmost size without breaking. Lay them on a custard dish, and pour a custard over them hot. Serve cold. Vermicelli answers equally well, but requires to be less done. **Floating Island.**—Scald a codlin before it be ripe, for any sharp apple; pulp it through a sieve. Beat the whites of two eggs with sugar, and a spoonful of orange-flower water; mix in by degrees the pulp, and beat all together until you have a large quantity of froth; serve it on a raspberry cream; or you may colour the froth with beetroot, raspberry, or currant-jelly, and set it on a white cream, having given it the flavour of lemon, sugar, and wine, as above; or put the froth on a custard. **Lent Potatoes.**—Beat three or four ounces of almonds, and three or four bitter, when blanched, putting a little orange-flower water to prevent oiling; add eight ounces of butter, four eggs well beaten and strained, half a glass of raisin wine, and sugar to your taste. Beat all well till quite smooth, and grate in three Savoy biscuits. Make balls of the above with a little flour, the size of a chestnut; throw them into a stew-pan of boiling lard, and boil them of a beautiful yellow brown. Drain them on a sieve. Serve sweet sauce in a boat, to eat with them. **Somersetshire Firmity.**—To a quart of ready-boiled wheat, put by degrees two quarts of new milk, breaking the jelly, and then four ounces of currants, picked clean, and washed; stir them and boil till they are done. Beat the yolks of three eggs, and a little nutmeg, with two or three spoonsful of milk; add this to the wheat; stir them together while over the fire; then sweeten, and serve cold in a deep dish. Some persons like it best warm. **Curds and Cream.**—Put three or four pints of milk into a pan a little warm, and then add rennet or gallino. When the curd is come, lade it with a saucer into an earthen shape, perforated, of any form you please. Fill it up as the whey drains off, without breaking or pressing the curd. If turned only two hours before wanted, it is very light; but those who like it harder may have it so, by making it earlier, and squeezing it. Cream, milk, or a whip of cream, sugar, wine, and lemon, to be put in the dish, or into a glass bowl, to serve with the curd. **Blanc-mange.**—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 what forms you please. If not to be very stiff, a little less isinglass will do. Observe to let the blanc-mange settle before you turn it into the forms, or the blacks will remain at the bottom of them, and be on the top of the blanc-mange when taken out of the moulds. **Froth for Cream, Custard, or Trifle.**—Sweeten half a pound of the

pulp of damsons, or any other sort of scalded fruit; put to it the whites of four eggs beaten, and beat the pulp with them until it will stand as high as you chose, and being put on the cream, etc., with a spoon, it will take any form: it should be rough, to imitate a rock. **A Tipsy Cake.**—Put a sponge-cake into a deep china or glass dish, pour round it some white wine (raisin is very suitable), and a wine glass of brandy, Let the cake soak up the wine, and then strew sifted sugar over it, and pour in the dish a rich thick custard. Ornament the top of the cake by sticking a light flower in the centre, or bits of clear currant-jelly, or blanch and split some sweet almonds, and stick them thickly over the cake. **Calf's Feet Jelly.**—Boil two feet in two quarts and a pint of water till the feet are broken, and the water half wasted; strain it, and when cold, take off the fat, and remove the jelly from the sediment; then put it into a saucepan, with sugar, raisin wine, lemon-juice to your taste, and some lemon-peel. When the flavour is rich, put to it the whites of five eggs well beaten, and their shells broken. Set the saucepan on the fire, but do not stir the jelly after it begins to warm. Let it boil twenty minutes after it rises to a head; then pour it through a flannel jelly-bag, first dipping the bag in hot water to prevent waste, and squeezing it quite dry. Run the jelly through and through until clear; then put it into glasses or forms. The following mode will greatly facilitate the clearing of jelly: When the mixture has boiled twenty minutes, throw in a teacupful of cold water; let it boil five minutes longer; then take the saucepan off the fire, covered close, and keep it half an hour; after which, it will be so clear as to need only once running through the bag, and much waste will be saved. Observe, feet for all jellies are boiled so long by the people who sell them, that they are less nutritious: they should be only scalded, to take off the hair. The liquor will require greater care in removing the fat; but the jelly will be far stronger, and of course allow more water. Jelly is equally good made of cow-heels nicely cleaned; and as they bear a less price than those of calves, and make a stronger jelly, this observation may be useful. **Apple Jelly.**—Prepare twenty golden pippins; boil them in a pint and a half of water from the spring, till quite tender; then strain the liquor through a colander. To every pint put a pound of fine sugar; add grated orange or lemon; then boil to a jelly. **Another.**—Prepare apples as before by boiling and straining; have ready half an ounce of isinglass boiled in half a pint of water to a jelly; put this to the apple water, and apple as strained through a coarse sieve; add sugar, a little lemon-juice and peel; boil all together, and put into a dish. Take out the peel.

Colourings for Jellies, Ices, or Cakes.—For a beautiful *red*, boil fifteen grains of cochineal in the finest powder, with a dram and a half of cream of tartar, in half a pint of water, very slowly, half an hour. Add in boiling a bit of alum the size of a pea. Or use beet-root sliced, and some liquor poured over. For *white*, use almonds finely powdered, with a little drop of water; or use cream. For *yellow*, yolks of eggs, or a bit of saffron steeped in the liquor, and squeezed. Likewise the flower of the crocus, which has no taste. For *green*, pound spinach-leaves or beet-leaves, express the juice, and boil in a tea-cup in a saucepan of water to take off the rawness. **Apple Charlotte.**—Put into a buttered pie-dish alternate layers of bread and butter and apple cut into pieces and sprinkled over with lemon juice and a little grated lemon rind, the apples must also be sweetened with moist sugar. Let the first layer be of bread and butter. Bake in a brisk oven and when the charlotte is done turn it on a dish and sift sugar over. **Cabinet Pudding** requires the following ingredients. 12 preserved cherries or raisins, some pieces of angelica, 4 sponge-cakes, a few ratafia biscuits, 4 eggs, 1 oz. castor sugar, 1 pint milk, 15 drops vanilla essence. Take a pint

and a half mould and butter it well. Cut the angelica into strips, and place in the bottom of the mould. Put the cherries in a wreath round at the bottom. Cut the sponge-cakes into three, longways, and cut each of those pieces into two again. Stand these pieces on the top of the cherries alternately with the outside inwards. Fill the mould with the remainder of the sponge-cakes chopped up, and broken pieces of the ratafia biscuits. Mix in a basin four yolks of eggs and two whites, to them add the castor sugar and milk by degrees. Beat well together and pour over the sponge-cake and biscuits in the mould. Cover the mould over with a piece of buttered paper. Steam in a large saucepan for about ¾ hour, when it will be quite firm. Turn out and serve with or without custard sauce. **Corn-flour Pudding.**—Take 1 qrt. milk, 2 eggs, 2 dessertspoonfuls corn-flour. Essence of vanilla to flavour. Mix the corn-flour with half a teacupful of cold milk, and put the remainder of the milk in an enamelled saucepan on the fire. Beat up the eggs and add to the corn-flour. When the milk in the saucepan is hot, but *not* boiling, stir in the corn-flour, and stir the whole mixture until it has boiled five minutes. Turn out into a basin and add the essence of vanilla. **Devonshire Tunket.**—Warm to blood heat a pint of new milk; add to this 1½ dessertspoonfuls of prepared rennet, one dessertspoonful of sugar, and, if approved, 2 dessertspoonfuls of brandy; stir the ingredients and leave them covered until set, grate nutmeg over the top. Some cooks spread clotted cream over and cover this with nutmeg. **Mince Meat.**—Take 1 lb. raisins, 1 lb. currants. 1 lb. beef suet, ¼ lb. candied peel, 1 lb. chopped apples, 1 nutmeg, 1 lb. sugar. Stone and chop the raisins, wash and pick the currants, chop the suet and apples and peel, grate the nutmeg and mix all well together. Instead of chopping the ingredients the whole mixture can be passed through a mincing machine. Put the mixture into pots, and cover down until wanted for use.

Cakes, Bread, etc.—Currants should be very nicely washed, dried in a cloth, and then set before the fire. If damp, they will make cakes or puddings heavy. Before they are added, a dust of dry flour should be thrown among them, and a shake given to them, which causes the thing that they are put to, to be lighter. Eggs should be very long beaten, whites and yolks apart, and always strained. Sugar should be rubbed to a powder on a clean board, and sifted through a very fine hair or lawn sieve. After all the articles are put into the pan, they should be thoroughly and long beaten, as the lightness of the cake depends much on their being well incorporated. Cakes require less butter and eggs for having yeast, and eat equally light and rich. If the leaven be only of flour, milk and water, and yeast, it becomes more tough, and is less easily divided than if the butter be first put with those ingredients, and the dough afterwards set to rise by the fire. The heat of the oven is of great importance for cakes, especially those that are large. If not pretty quick, the batter will not rise. Should you fear its catching by being too quick, put some paper over the cake to prevent its being burnt. If not long enough lighted to have a body of heat, or it is become slack, the cake will be heavy. To know when it is soaked, take a broad-bladed knife that is very bright, and plunge into the very centre, draw it instantly out, and if the least stickiness adheres, put the cake back immediately and shut up the oven. Keep up a good heat until the cake is done. **Little White Cakes.**—Dry half a pound of flour, rub into it a very little pounded sugar, one ounce of butter, one egg, a few caraways, and as much milk and water as to make a paste; roll it thin, and cut it with the top of canister or glass. Bake fifteen minutes on tin-plates. **Little short Cakes.**—Rub into a pound of dried flour four ounces of butter, four ounces of white powder-sugar, one egg, and a spoonful or two of thin cream to make into a paste. When mixed,

put currants into one half, and caraways into the rest. Cut them as before, and bake on tins. **Pound Cake.**—Beat a pound of butter to a cream, and mix with it the whites and yolks of eight eggs beaten apart. Have ready, warm by the fire, a pound of flour, and the same of sifted sugar, mix them, and a few cloves, a little nutmeg and cinnamon in fine powder together; then by degrees work the dry ingredients into the butter and eggs. When well beaten, add some caraways. It must be beaten a full hour. Butter a pan, and bake it a full hour in a quick oven. The above proportions, leaving out four ounces of the butter, and the same of sugar, make a less luscious cake, and to most tastes a more pleasant one. **Plain Cake.**—Take 1 lb. flour ¼ lb. dripping, ½ lb. sultanas or currants, or a few caraway seeds, ¼ lb. moist sugar, 2 oz. candied peel, 2 eggs, ½ pint milk (about), 2 teaspoonfuls baking powder. Beat the butter and sugar to a cream, add the other ingredients, and bake in a moderate oven for about an hour and a half. **Sultana Cake.**—For this take 2 lbs. flour, 1 lb. sultanas, ¼ lb. candied peel, ½ lb. butter, ½ lb. castor sugar, 6 eggs, 1 pint of milk (about), 2 teaspoonfuls of baking powder. Beat the butter and sugar to a cream. Beat up the eggs well, and add these to the butter and sugar. Then add the flour, milk, and fruit and beat all well together. Last of all add the baking powder. Turn the mixture into tins, which have previously been lined with greased paper, and bake in a moderate oven for about two hours. This quantity will make three good sized cakes. **Rice Cake.**—Take ½ lb. ground rice, ½ lb. flour, ¼ lb. butter, 6 oz. sugar, 2 teaspoonfuls baking powder, 2 eggs, essence of lemon to flavour. Beat ¼ lb. butter and 6 oz. of sugar to a cream, add the other ingredients, and if the eggs are not sufficient to moisten the mixture add a little milk. Bake in a tin lined with greased paper in a moderate oven for about an hour and a half. **Madeira Cake.**—The ingredients for this are the weight of four eggs in flour. The weight of three eggs in butter, the weight of three eggs in sugar, and 3 eggs. Beat the sugar and butter to a cream, add one egg and a third of the flour, alternately, until both have been used, beating well all the time. Half fill a cake tin lined with buttered paper, and put into rather a slow oven immediately. When risen, place a few strips of candied peel lightly and quickly on the top of the cake. Bake until a nice brown, about ¾ hour. **Sponge-Cake.**—Weigh ten eggs, and their weight in very fine sugar, and that of six in flour; beat the yolks with the flour, and the whites alone, to a very stiff froth; then by degrees mix the whites and the flour with the other ingredients, and beat them well half an hour. Bake in a quick oven an hour. **Tea Cakes.**—Rub fine four ounces of butter into eight ounces of flour; mix eight ounces of currants, and six of fine Lisbon sugar, two yolks and one white of eggs. Roll the paste the thickness of a biscuit, and cut with a wine-glass. Beat the other white, and wash over them; and either dust sugar, or not, as you like. **Cocoanut Cakes.**—May be made with ¾ lb. flour, ¼ lb. castor sugar, 3 oz. butter, ¼ lb. dessicated cocoanut, 1 egg, ¼ pint milk, 1 teaspoonful baking powder. Beat the butter and sugar to a cream, add the other ingredients, and bake in small greased tins in rather a quick oven until pale brown; they will take about 20 minutes. **Dutch Buns.**—Take 1 lb. flour, ¼ lb. sugar, 6 oz. butter, 2 eggs, milk if required, ¼ lb. currants, 2 teaspoonfuls baking power, nutmeg and ground ginger if liked. Beat the butter and sugar to a cream, add the other ingredients, and bake in little greased tins in rather a quick oven for about 20 minutes. **Shrewsbury Biscuits.**—Beat ¼ lb. of butter and ¼ lb. of castor sugar to a cream, add one egg, flavour with essence of lemon; then beat in ¼ lb. of flour lightly by degrees. Turn out on to a well floured board, roll until the paste is quite thin, cut into rounds with a tin or glass, and

put them with a knife on to a greased tin to bake in rather a quick oven for about ten minutes. They should be pale brown when done. **Ginger Biscuits.**—Take the following ingredients: 6 oz. flour, 3 oz. butter, 1½ oz. castor sugar, 1 yolk of egg beaten up with 2 tablespoonfuls cold water, ½ teaspoonful ground ginger, pinch of salt. Rub butter into flour, add ginger, sugar, and salt, add the egg, knead well and roll out on a well floured board. Cut into rounds, and bake in a quick oven until a pale brown. **Brandy Snaps (Jumbles).**—Melt 6 oz. of butter and 3 oz. of treacle together, stir in 5 oz. of sugar, 3½ oz. of flour, ½ oz. of ground ginger, gradually, and mix well together. Put on greased tin in pieces the size of a walnut to bake. **Gingerbread.**—Mix with two pounds of flour half a pound of treacle, three quarters of an ounce of caraways, one ounce of ginger finely sifted, and eight ounces of butter. Roll the paste into what form you please, and bake on tins, after having worked it very much, and kept it to rise. If you like sweetmeats, add orange candied; it may be added in small bits. **Dough Nuts.**—Take ¼ lb. flour, ½ oz. German yeast, essence of lemon, 1 dessertspoonful of castor sugar and some warm milk to mix with. Mix the yeast and sugar together, put this into the flour, beat well and add milk to make the mixture a stiff dough. Leave to rise. Divide into eight pieces, make each into a ball, put jam on the top and draw the dough over, then pinch the ends together. Fry in a saucepan of fat until a nice brown, and sprinkle castor sugar over. **Icing for Cakes.**—For a large one, beat and sift eight ounces of fine sugar, put into a mortar with four spoonfuls of rose-water, with the whites of two eggs beaten and strained, whisk it well, and when the cake is almost cold, dip a feather in the icing, and cover the cake well; set it in the oven to harden, but don't let it stay to discolour. Put the cake into a dry place. **Icing for a very large Cake.**—Beat the whites of twenty fresh eggs; then by degrees beat a pound of double-refined sugar sifted through a lawn-sieve; mix these well in a deep earthen pan; add orange-flower water, and a piece of fresh lemon-peel; of the former enough to flavour, and no more. Whisk it for three hours till the mixture is thick and white; then with a thin broad bit of board spread it all over the top and sides, and set it in a cool oven, and an hour will harden it. **Yorkshire Tea-cakes** can be made with the following ingredients: 1 lb. flour, ½ oz. German yeast, ½ teaspoonful salt, 1 oz. butter, 1 dessertspoonful castor sugar. Rub the fat into the flour, then proceed as with bread, only instead of kneading beat the dough until it leaves the side of the basin. Let stand in a warm place to rise for five minutes. Make into cakes and bake in rather a quick oven. **White Bread.**—Take 2 lbs. flour, ½ oz. German yeast, 1 saltspoonful salt, 1 teaspoonful castor sugar. Put one and a half pounds of flour in a basin with the salt. Work the yeast and sugar together until they form a liquid, then add half a pint of tepid water to the yeast and pour this into a hole in the middle of the flour. Mix with hand into a dough. Put to rise in a warm place, but not hot, for one hour, covered over with a cloth. Sprinkle table with flour, turn the dough on to it, and knead in half a pound of flour. Slightly grease a tin and put the dough into it. Bake in a moderate oven for ½ hour. **Brown Bread.**—This is the same as white bread except that instead of using ordinary flour, you use whole meal.

Jam Marmalade, etc.—Nobody should be under the false impression that any kind of fruit does for making jam; those who boil down fruit because it is unfit for other purposes need not be surprised if their jam soon begins to ferment and has to be thrown away. Those who grow their own fruit should gather it in dry weather. For preserving, sound fruit not over-ripe should be chosen, good lump sugar should be used,

and, it is perhaps needless to add, the preserving pan should be scrupulously clean. Jam will not keep if made with insufficient sugar or if not boiled enough. Another hint may be useful to an inexperienced housekeeper who wishes to make her own store of preserves and pickles. Be careful to keep empty jam and pickle bottles separate, so that, when they are wanted for use again, there will be no risk of putting jam into a vessel which has previously held pickles. A jar in which salt has been kept is unfit to be used for jam, no matter how carefully you may wash it. Filled jars should be covered down so that the air is quite excluded; the vegetable parchment which can now be bought of various sizes in packets answers well for the tops of the jars or bottles, and saves a great deal of trouble, such as our grandmothers had in procuring and preparing bladders for this purpose.

Jam.—For each lb. of fruit allow 1 lb. lump sugar. Put fruit and sugar into an enamelled saucepan or preserving pan. Stir well and let boil for one hour. Put into pots and tie down while hot. **Marmalade.**—Put 1 lb. Seville oranges whole into an enamelled saucepan, cover with water and let boil until quite soft right through. Divide each orange into four, take out the pips, and cut the peel very finely. Then put the oranges and peel into an enamelled saucepan or preserving pan with 2 lbs. loaf or preserving sugar, let boil gently for one hour. Turn into pots and tie down while hot.

Apricot Jam.—When ripe, choose the finest apricots; pare them as thin as possible, and weigh them. Lay them in halves on dishes, with the hollow part upwards. Have ready an equal weight of good loaf sugar finely pounded, and strew it over them; in the meantime break the stones, and blanch the kernels. When the fruit has lain twelve hours, put it, with the sugar and juice, and also the kernels, into a preserving-pan. Let it simmer very gently till clear; then take out the pieces of apricots singly as they become so; put them into small pots, and pour the syrup and kernels over them. The scum must be taken off as it rises.

Plum Jam.—For the best plum jam the fruit should be halved and the stones removed. Some kinds of plums require more sweetening than others, but ordinarily ¾ lb. of sugar will be needed for every lb. of fruit, which should be weighed before the stones are taken out. Strew the sugar (pounded) over the opened plums; let them lie on dishes for one day; then simmer them gently by the side of the fire for ½ hour, and afterwards boil quickly for ¼ hour; stir all the while, and take off the scum as it rises. The flavour of the jam is improved by the addition of a few kernels put into the pan just before the jam is ready to be taken out. **Damson Jam.**—To every lb. of stoned damsons allow ¾ lb. of sugar; stir the fruit and sugar together until the sugar is all dissolved; take off the scum as it rises; boil until the jam looks firm; stir all the while to prevent its sticking to the bottom; it will take about an hour after it simmers all over.

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 the 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 directed. The stones are to be cracked, or some of them, and the kernels boiled in the jam. All the juice may be left in, and boiled to evaporate, but do not add the sugar until it has done so.

Greengage Jam.—Choose the largest, when they begin to soften; split them without paring, and strew a part of the sugar of which you have previously

weighed an equal quantity. Blanch the kernels with a small sharp knife. Next day, pour the syrup from the fruit, and boil it with the other sugar, six or eight minutes, very gently; skim, and add the plums and kernels. Simmer till clear, taking off any scum that rises; put the fruit singly into small pots, and pour the syrup and kernels to it.

Raspberry Jam.—Weigh equal quantities of fruit and sugar; put the former into a preserving pan; break and boil 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 way the jam is greatly superior in colour and flavour to that which is made by putting the sugar in it first. **Another way.**—Put the fruit in a jar in a kettle of water, or on a hot hearth, till the juice will run from it, then take away a quarter of a pint from every pound of fruit; boil and bruise it half an hour, then put in the weight of the fruit in sugar, and, adding the same quantity of currant-juice, boil it to a strong jelly. The raspberry-juice will serve to put into brandy, or may be boiled with its weight in sugar for making the jelly or raspberry-ice or cream.

Currant Jam, black, red, or white.—Let the fruit be very ripe, pick it clean from the stalks, bruise it, and to every pound put three quarters of a pound of loaf-sugar; stir it well, and boil half an hour.

Currant Jelly, red or black.—Strip the fruit, and in a stone jar strew them in a sauce-pan of water, or by boiling it on the hot hearth; strain off the liquor, and to every pint weigh a pound of loaf-sugar; put the latter in large lumps into it, in a stone or China-vessel, till nearly dissolved; then put it in a preserving-pan; simmer and skim as necessary. When it will jelly on a plate, put it in small jars or glasses.

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; give a gentle shake to the dish, that the sugar may touch the under side of the fruit. Next day make a thin syrup with 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. Choose the largest scarlets, or others, when not dead ripe. In either of the above ways, they eat well served in thin cream, in glasses.

To preserve Jarganel Pears.—Pare them very thin, and simmer in a thin syrup; let them lie a day or two. Make the syrup richer, and simmer again; and repeat this till they are clear; then drain, and dry them in the sun or a cool oven a very little time. They may be kept in syrup, and dried as wanted, which makes them more moist and rich.

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 pretty quick, and beat them with the 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. Be careful it does not burn to the bottom. **Another way.**—Gather your gooseberries (the clear white or green sort) when ripe; top and tail, and weigh them; a pound to three quarters of a pound of fine sugar, and half a pint of water; boil and skim the sugar and water; then put the fruit, and boil gently till clear; then put into small pots.

Orange Marmalade.—Rasp the oranges, cut out the pulp, then boil the rinds very tender, and beat fine in a marble mortar. Boil three pounds of loaf-sugar in a pint of water, skim it, and add a pound of the rind; boil fast till the syrup is very thick, but stir it carefully; then put a pint of the pulp and juice the seeds having been removed, and a pint of apple-liquor; boil all gently until well jellied, which it will be in about half an hour. Put it into small

pots. **Lemon Marmalade** do in the same way.

Transparent Marmalade.—Cut the palest Seville oranges in quarters, take the pulp out, and put it in a basin, pick out the seeds and skins. Let the outsides soak in water with a *little* salt all night, then boil them in a good quantity of spring-water till tender; drain and cut them in very thin slices, and put them to the pulp: and to every pound, a pound and a half of double-refined sugar beaten fine; boil them together twenty minutes, but be careful not to break the slices. If not quite clear, simmer five or six minutes longer. It must be stirred all the time very gently. When cold, put it into glasses.

Orange Chips.—Cut oranges in halves, squeeze the juice through a sieve; soak the peel in water; next day boil in the same till tender, drain them, and slice the peels, put them to the juice, weigh as much sugar, and put altogether into a broad earthen dish, and put over the fire at a moderate distance, often stirring till the chips candy; then set them in a cool room to dry. They will not be so under three weeks.

Apple Marmalade.—Scald apples till they will pulp from the core: then take an equal weight of sugar in large lumps, just dip them in water, and boiling it till it can be well skimmed, and is a thick syrup, put the pulp to it, and simmer it on a quick fire a quarter of an hour. Grate a little lemon-peel before boiled, but if too much it will be bitter.

To clarify Sugar for Sweetmeats.—Break as much as required in large lumps, and put a pound to half a pint of water, in a bowl, and it will dissolve better than when broken small. Set it over the fire, with the well-whipt white of an egg; let it boil up, and, when ready to run over, pour a little cold water in to give it a check; but when it rises a second time, take it off the fire, and set it by in the pan for a quarter of an hour, during which the foulness will sink to the bottom, and leave a black scum on the top, which take off gently with a skimmer, and pour the syrup into a vessel very quickly from the sediment.

Cherry Jam.—Cherries require half their weight in sugar (weigh the fruit before stoning it); boil the stoned fruit first until the juice has nearly gone; then put in crushed sugar and some currant juice, about a quart to a dozen lbs. of cherries (allow two lbs. of sugar to a quart of juice); boil for about twenty minutes or until it forms into a jelly, stirring it constantly and skimming when necessary. Some of the kernels added a little while before the jam is done improve the flavour.

Pickles Mixed.—Put into an earthenware pan a white cabbage, sliced, 2 dozen large onions in quarters, a cauliflower, some French beans, a few radish pods, a cucumber, cut into pieces, some scraped horseradish, ½ pint garlic, and 1 pint of shalots. Let the vegetables, plentifully sprinkled with salt, remain three days; then strain them, shake them and put them on a cloth in the sun to dry. Put them near the fire in the jar. The vinegar should be boiled with the spice and poured (boiling) over the vegetables. For one gallon of vinegar, you will require, 2 oz. ground black pepper, 2 oz. long black pepper, pounded; 1 oz. pounded cloves, 4 oz. flour of mustard, 3 oz. mustard seed, chillies according to your taste, 2 oz. pounded ginger, and six pennyworths of turmeric, and some capsicums. These pickles should be left two months before they are used. Half the quantity of vegetables named and a quarter of the spice would be enough to make for ordinary family use.

Lemon Pickle.—Wipe six lemons, cut each into eight pieces; put on them a pound of salt, six large cloves of garlic, two ounces of horse-radish sliced thin, likewise of cloves, mace, nutmeg, and Cayenne, a quarter of an ounce each, and two ounces of flour of mustard; to these put two quarts of vinegar. Boil a quarter of an hour in a well-tinned saucepan; or, what is better, do it in a strong jar, in a kettle of boiling water; or set the jar on the hot hearth till

done. Set the jar by, and stir it daily for six weeks; keep the jar close covered. Put it into small bottles.

Indian Pickle.—Lay a pound of white ginger in water one night, then scrape, slice, and lay it in salt in a pan till the other ingredients shall be ready. Peel, slice, and salt a pound of garlic three days, then put it in the sun to dry. Salt and dry long pepper in the same way. Prepare various sorts of vegetables thus: Quarter small white cabbages, salt three days, squeeze, and set them in the sun to dry. Cauliflowers cut in their branches; take off the green from radishes; cut celery in three-inch lengths; ditto young French beans whole, likewise the shoots of elder, which will look like bamboo. Apples and cucumbers, choose of the least seedy sort; cut them in slices, or quarters, if not too large. All must be salted, drained, and dried in the sun, except the latter; over which you must pour boiling vinegar, and in twelve hours drain them, but no salt must be used. Put the spice, garlic, a quarter of a pound of mustard-seed, and as much vinegar as you think enough for the quantity you are to pickle, into a large stone jar, and one ounce of turmeric, to be ready against the vegetables shall be dried. When they are ready, observe the following directions:—Put some of them into a two-quart stone jar, and pour over them one quart of boiling vinegar. Next day take out those vegetables; and when drained, put them into a large stock jar, and boiling the vinegar, pour it over some more of the vegetables; let them lie a night, and do as above. Thus proceed till you have cleansed each set from the dust which must inevitably fall on them by being so long in doing; then, to every gallon of vinegar put two ounces of flour of mustard, mixing, by degrees, with a little of it boiling hot. The whole of the vinegar should have been previously scalded, but left to be cold before it was put to the spice. Stop the jar tight. This pickle will not be ready for a year; but you may make a small jar for eating in a fortnight, only by giving the cauliflower one scald in water, after salting and drying as above, but without the preparative vinegar; then pour the vinegar, that has the spice and garlic, boiling hot over. If at any time it be found that the vegetables have not swollen properly, boiling the pickle, and pouring it over them hot, will plump them.

Pickled Lemons.—The lemons should be small, and with thick rind; rub them with a piece of flannel; then slit them half down in four quarters, but not through to the pulp; fill the slits with salt hard pressed in, set them upright in a pan for four or five days, until the salt melts; turn them thrice a day in their own liquid, until tender; make enough pickle to cover them, of rape vinegar, the brine of the lemons, Jamaica pepper, and ginger; boil and skim it; when cold, put it to the lemons, with two ounces of mustard-seed, and two cloves of garlic to six lemons. When the lemons are used, the pickle will be useful in fish or other sauces.

Pickled Onions.—In the month of September, choose the small white round onions, take off the brown skin, have ready a very nice tin stew-pan of boiling water, throw in as many onions as will cover the top; as soon as they look clear on the outside, take them up as quick as possible with a slice, and lay them on a clean cloth; cover them close with another, and scald some more, and so on. Let them lie to be cold, then put them in a jar, or glass, or wide-mouth bottles, and pour over them the best white-wine vinegar, just hot but not boiling. When cold cover them. Should the outer skin shrivel, peel it off. They must look quite clear.

To pickle Cucumbers and Onions sliced.—Cut them in slices, and sprinkle salt over 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. The slices should be thick. Repeat the boiling vinegar, and stop them up again instantly; and so on till green; the last time put pepper and ginger. Keep in small stone jars.

Pickled Gherkins.—Choose nice young gherkins, spread them on dishes, salt them, and let them lie a week—drain them, and, putting them in a jar, pour boiling vinegar over them. Set them near the fire, covered with plenty of vine-leaves; if they do not become a tolerable good green, pour the vinegar into another jar, set it over the hot hearth, and when it boils, pour it over them again, covering with fresh leaves; and thus do till they are of as good a colour as you wish;—the very fine green pickles are often made so by using brass or bell-metal vessels, which, when vinegar is put into them, become highly poisonous.

Pickled Walnuts.—When they will bear a pin to go into them, put a brine of salt and water boiled, and strong enough to bear an egg on them, being quite cold first. It must be well skimmed while boiling. Let them soak six days; then change the brine, let them stand six more; then drain them, and pour over them in the jar a pickle of the best white-wine vinegar, with a good quantity of pepper, pimento, ginger, mace, cloves, mustard-seed, and horse-radish; all boiled together, but cold. To every hundred of walnuts put six spoonfuls of mustard-seed, and two or three heads of garlic or shalot, but the latter is least strong. Thus done, they will be good for several years, if close covered. The air will soften them. They will not be fit to eat under six months. The pickle will serve as good ketchup, when the walnuts are used. **Another way.**—Put them into a jar, cover them with the best vinegar cold, let them stand four months; then pour off the pickle and boil as much fresh vinegar as will cover the walnuts, adding to every three quarts of vinegar one quarter-pound of best Durham mustard, a stick of horse-radish sliced, one half-ounce of black pepper, one half-ounce of cloves, one ounce of ginger, one half-ounce of allspice, and a good handful of salt—pour the whole, boiling hot, upon the walnuts, and cover them close; they will be fit for use in three or four months. You may add two ounces of garlic, or shalot, but not boiled in the vinegar. Of the pickle in which the walnuts stood for the first four months, you may make excellent ketchup.

To pickle Mushrooms, to preserve the flavour.—Buttons must be rubbed with a bit of flannel and salt; and from the larger, take out the *red* inside, for when they are black they will not do, being too old. Throw a little salt over, and put them into a stew-pan with some mace and pepper; as the liquor comes out shake them well, and keep them over a gentle fire till all of it be dried into them again; then put as much vinegar into the pan as will cover them, give it one warm, and turn all into a glass or stone jar. They will keep two years, and are delicious.

Pickled Red Cabbage.—Slice it into a cullender, and sprinkle each layer with salt; let it drain two days, then put it into a jar, and pour boiling vinegar enough to cover, and put a few slices of red beet-root. Observe to choose the purple red cabbage. Those who like the flavour of spice will boil it with the vinegar. Cauliflower cut in branches, and thrown in after being salted, will look of a beautiful red.

Mushroom Ketchup.—Take the largest broad mushrooms, break them into an earthen pan, strew salt over, and stir them now and then for three days. Then let them stand for twelve, till there is a thick scum over; strain, and boil the liquor with Jamaica and black peppers, mace, ginger, a clove or two, and some mustard-seed. When cold, bottle it, and tie a bladder over the cork; in three months boil it again with some fresh spice, and it will then keep a twelvemonth. **Another way.**—Take a stew-pan full of the large-flap mushrooms, that are not worm-eaten, and the skins and fringe of those you have pickled, throw a handful of salt among them, and set them by a slow fire; they will produce a great deal of liquor, which you must strain; and put to it four ounces of shalots, two

cloves of garlic, a good deal of pepper, ginger, mace, cloves, and a few bay-leaves, boil and skim very well. When cold, cork close. In two months boil it up again with a little fresh spice and a stick of horse-radish, and it will then keep the year.

Walnut Ketchup.—Boil or simmer a gallon of the expressed juice of walnuts when they are tender, and skim it well, then put in two pounds of anchovies, bones and liquor, ditto of shalots, one ounce of cloves, ditto of mace, ditto of pepper, and one clove of garlic. Let all simmer till the shalots sink; then put the liquor into a pan till cold; bottle and divide the spice to each. Cork closely, and tie a bladder over. It will keep for years, and is not good the first. Some people make liquor of the outside shell when the nut is ripe; but neither the flavour nor the colour is then so fine.

Macaroni Cheese.—Put ½ lb. of macaroni into 1½ pints of boiling water, which has been previously salted; boil about ½ an hour or until the macaroni has become quite tender; have ready about 3 oz. of grated cheese and about 1 oz. of butter cut into small pieces; put the macaroni at the bottom of a rather shallow dish; sprinkle the cheese and butter over the macaroni. Cover all with finely grated bread-crumbs; put it into the oven or before a bright fire until the bread-crumbs are quite brown.

Cheese Toast.—Mix some butter, made mustard and salt into a mass; spread it on freshly made toast, and grate or scrape cheese over. **Welsh Rabbit.**—Cut slices of bread; toast and butter them; shred some cheese—Cheshire or Gloucester is considered best for this purpose; put the cheese into a small enamelled saucepan with a little made mustard, pepper, salt, a few grains of Cayenne and a small piece of butter; let all the ingredients melt and mix together; then spread on toast and serve very hot. If the mixture be cooked too fast or only a few seconds too long it will become leathery. **Fondu.**—Take equal quantities of grated Parmesan and good Cheshire cheese, and add about double the weight of this in beaten yolk of eggs and melted butter, beat well together, add pepper and salt, and then put to it the whites of the eggs, which have been beaten separately; stir them lightly in, and bake it in a deep dish, fill only half full, as it will rise very much. Serve quite hot.

Cheese Crab.—This is a very nice dish for those who are fond of crab, and yet live where crabs cannot be obtained. Get a moist cheese, and with a couple of forks shred the cheese into little pieces as nearly as possible resembling the white meat of a crab when picked out of the claw. In fact the cheese should be pulled to pieces so as to resemble as nearly as possible little grains of rice before they are boiled. Now dress this as follows, taking care at the same time that these pieces are tossed lightly together, and not mashed up into a lump. Take first a little salt (this depends on the saltness of the cheese), and half a spoonful of pepper in a tablespoon. Add to this a brimming teaspoonful of made mustard, stir it all up, and fill the tablespoon up to the brim with oil. Stir it all up together, the mustard, oil, pepper, and salt; pour it lightly over the cheese, and toss the pieces very lightly together with a couple of forks, the object being to avoid getting it all into what may be termed a clammy mass. When it is all thoroughly mixed, add a tablespoonful of vinegar to the mixture, and mix it all well up together, then eat it with some plain bread. It is very nice, and resembles crab very much in flavour. Probably a heavy supper of this would have the same effect as is often produced by an equally heavy one of crab itself.

THE HOME FARM.

Poultry. Their breeding and common-sense management.—The question is often asked: Do poultry pay to keep on a *small* scale? The answer is: Under certain conditions, and with judicious

management, they do. I might go further than this, and state without any fear of contradiction, that there is many a frugal housewife, who might, if she but thought of it, add considerably to the comfort of her family by keeping a few useful laying and table fowls. Thrift, sad to say, is not a virtue that English people excel in, and more good food finds its way into our dust-bins every year, than should suffice to rear millions of fowls; to say nothing of the greens and garden stuff generally, so wantonly wasted in the country. Whenever, then, at any house or place in town or country, there is a certain amount of food-material, which would otherwise go to waste, and, at the same time, room in the yard to erect a small fowl-house, with a grass or gravel run, poultry will pay to keep, either for laying purposes or for table use, *if*—there is always an "if"—their owners can spare the time to look after them, and know how to manage them.

Fowl Houses.—The first thing to be done before attempting to get up a stock of useful fowls, is to get ready the house, the shed, and the run, and everything connected therewith. If the intending breeder has plenty of money, the fowl-house can be bought ready-made, and very many, not only beautiful but really scientifically got-up ones, are in the market. To be sure, they cost a good deal, but they are really cheap in the end. At the home farm it should hardly be necessary to either build or buy, for fowls are naturally healthy; and, if they get fair play in the matter of liberty, cleanliness, and good food, care very little how humble and unpretentious their abode may be—shelter from the weather by day and night, a quiet place to lay in, and a place to roost in are all they need, although provision must always be made to defend eggs and chickens from rats and cats. On the other hand, the greater care you take of your poultry, and the more you study the science of breeding, the better will they pay.

Building a Fowl-house.—I earnestly advise everyone, who meditates keeping fowls, to build for them regular accommodation. To begin with, the fowl-house need not cost much. The size of it will be one's first thought. This will, of course, depend entirely upon the number to be kept; but the more roomy the place is the better. If plenty of space be at command, it is a good plan to have a portable or movable house; which may, or may not, be on wheels. For, do what we will, places get filthy at times; and then disease is bred, and away go all the profits. But with ordinary care and attention to cleanliness, such need seldom be the case, even in the stationary fowl-house and run. For, say, twenty to twenty-five fowls, it would be as well to have the house 6ft. wide, by 9ft. or 10ft. long. Perhaps it may simply be a lean-to against an out-house, or it may stand all by itself. **The walls** of it may be stone or brick, but they will do very nicely if made of ordinary cheap unplaned weather-boarding. This is very cheap. A house about the size I mention, should cost, in material, little over £2 10s. The building is extremely simple. The frame-work is got up first, and the more solid this is, the better; then, beginning at the ground, the boarding is nailed on horizontally along the sides, and the roof is also put on in the same way. Each board must overlap the one beneath it, about half an inch or more, to let the rain get clear off. **The Roof.**—I am now presuming the roof is to be covered with felt, which is probably as cheap and lasting as any. The felt costs about threepence a yard, two feet eight inches wide. It is simply nailed on with strong brads, allowing it to overlap the eaves a little way. Having got this on, the next thing to do is to well tar all the walls outside and the felt roof; the latter to be immediately afterwards covered with rough sand. Treated thus, and tarred and sanded once a year, it will last a lifetime. The house inside should be well whitewashed, a handful or two of size being melted and mixed with a bucket of the whitewash. Some

recommend the galvanized, corrugated sheets for the roof, price 2s. each, 6 ft. long by 27 in. wide or even less. It is both cheap and durable. It has one objection, however, it is cold in winter and correspondingly hot in summer. The most comfortable roof in the world is a thatch of straw or heather, especially the latter. This is just the reverse of the metallic roof, being cool in summer and cosy in cold weather, and suits fowls better than anything else. It ought to be put on over the boards, and be fully a foot thick. Or, what is better, if it can be had, first put any kind of rough roof on, then peat turf, and above this the straw or heather. It is all nonsense to say it may harbour rats or mice. The latter can do but little harm, even if they come, and both can be easily caught. A slate or tile roof looks very nice, and lasts well; but it must be put carefully on if it is to keep the water out. **The Flooring** is an essential part of the fowl-house. Several kinds readily suggest themselves. First comes ordinary brick. It is bad at the best. Bricks are always more or less porous; they therefore retain moisture and poisons. Wood is perhaps even worse. There is no way of keeping it as clean as it ought to be. I always recommend cement. It is by far and always the best; but not the cheapest. Good, sound, deep gravel will do, but it is difficult to keep clean, unless you constantly take away the soiled portions and add new. Then, if you do this, you do not get the full benefit of the droppings. It is a good plan to cover the floor with peat-earth, where this can be had; it disinfects, lasts clean a long time with simply turning, and, when really soiled, it makes splendid manure. Anyone can lay a floor of cement, or concrete, as it is sometimes called. Put down a good bottom first of rubble, broken bricks, stones, &c., and then lay on your paste of sand, lime, and Portland cement. It is better to lay a floor of this kind before your wooden house is built, and let it—the fowl-house—stand on it as far as the boarding is concerned. **Roosting sticks** are placed inside. All that you want to remember about them is, that:—1. They should be neither too thick nor too thin. 2. They are placed high or low, according to the breed you mean to keep; heavy fowls cannot get up high. 3. They are so arranged that the droppings of one fowl will not fall on another. You may have a hen ladder up to the highest, if you think it a convenience for the inmates. If you can manage it, so place the nesting boxes, and so arrange the sides, that it will be impossible for birds to roost on them and soil the nests. **Portable Fowl Houses.**—Capital portable fowl-houses and runs are to be bought, in which the floor of the building proper is about a foot and a half, or thereabouts, above ground. There is a hen ladder leading up to the little sliding door or window, for the egress and ingress of the birds. The door is at one side, not in the gable. The space beneath the floor is open at one side, and affords shelter from weather and sun. It is a good plan, only the floor is a wooden one, that is the drawback. If a house is built for fowls of weather-boarding, as I have described, the little sliding doorway must not be forgotten, and there should be also an elongated door, hinged on the top, right behind the nesting boxes. The convenience of this lies in the fact that you can open it from the outside to get the eggs, re-arrange and clean the nests, and thus avoid going into the fowl house, and disturbing the inmates. **Light and Ventilation** must not be forgotten, especially the latter. The doorway should have holes at the bottom, or, what is better, an opening in the woodwork covered over with perforated zinc, which admits air without a draught; and in the roof there should be a small bent pipe to let the foul air and gases escape. **Nests for Laying.**—I prefer these off the floor, but still, not too high. A long, deep shelf will do, if divided into compartments; or the nests may be made of basket-work

or wire-work. They ought to be in the quietest part of the fowl-house, as far away from the door as possible, and not under, or near, the roosting sticks. Good wheaten straw, or dried breckans, when they can be got, make the best nesting material, but the bottom may be covered with German peat moss earth. The latter is cheap and useful in many ways; but the mould from the peat mosses of our own country is just as good, though, in most places, not so easily procurable. Nest eggs are generally used. They can be bought cheap in the shops, or they may simply be addled eggs; only these last must not be used very long, for if they burst it is disagreeable, to say the very least of it. There should be a drinking fountain or broad-bottomed water basin placed inside the house, as well as one in the yard or run. As regards the get up of the fowl-house itself, then, we have to attend to the proper building of it, its roofing, flooring, tarring and white-washing; the arrangement for light and ventilation, and its fittings, namely, the nesting boxes and roosting sticks, with, if thought desirable, a hen ladder.

The Fowl Yard.—I now come to say a few words about the fowl-yard. The house may be enclosed in a kind of wired-in compound, or the run may stand in front of or behind the house. In this matter one must suit one's own convenience, and all depends upon the amount of space at command. As to size, it should be as big as possible, but in no case should it be smaller than twice the area of the house itself. In construction you may study simplicity, and thereby save money. About a dozen 9 ft. poles, with the bark on, no matter how rough they are, or how rough they look, should be fixed in the ground, leaving a space for a frame-work door, and the iron galvanised net-work nailed around them. Heavy fowls will stop inside if this should only be 3 ft. high, but some of your laying breeds, such as Spanish, Andalusians, etc., seem to know, at times, what their wings were intended for, so that you will not find 5 ft. or 6 ft. of mesh-work at all too high. The door is also covered with wire-work, and it ought to have good strong leather or iron hinges. I believe the former lasts just as long as the latter. Have also a useful kind of fastening for the door. We now turn our attention to the bottom of the yard. This may be laid down in either gravel or earth itself. If gravel, it should be pretty deep; if earth, it should be beaten down and frequently scraped, and about twice a year at least it should be turned over. A brick-paved or stone-paved yard is better than this, because it can be scraped and washed, and the manure is of use either to sell or to put over the garden. The harder kind of asphalte is also good, but expensive. Grass is better than anything, but grass in a small yard is out of the question; it soon gets trampled into black slime.

The Fowl Shelter.—In the yard must, if we mean to have fowls healthy, be a covered shelter or run. As we generally see these, they are of little or no use, being merely covered at the top and one side. This certainly will shade the birds from sun, or from a thunder shower; but if it blows at all, the rain beats in under it, and the poor fowls are chilled. They huddle together for sake of warmth, but this does little or no good; for if they be not quite sheltered from the weather, the hens will go off laying, and sometimes even take severe illnesses and die. If the door of the fowl-house is left open, they may crowd in there for shelter; but this is not desirable; neither do the fowls themselves care to do so. My opinion is that a *shed* should really be a *shelter*, closed at all sides except one, and this should have a southern or western exposure. The shed does not require flooring at all; it is built over the bare earth. One-half of it at the back should be occupied by a heap of dust or rubbish. This is what is called the *dust bath*, in which the fowls delight to lie and scrape, sending the mould up through their feathers, which are thus cleaned and kept free from vermin. Gravel, sand, earth, and old mortar, etc., are generally used for

this purpose. I, myself, am a great believer in peat-earth; and, I think, so are most fowls. But this may be mixed with gravel and lime rubbish. It is a good plan to occasionally scatter a few handfuls of sulphur on the dust bath; this will help to keep down parasites. *Fresh air* is essential to the health of fowls. Think of this, if possible, when you are choosing a site for your fowl-house and yard. Birds that are confined within high, stone walls never do so well as those whose places are built out in the open. Remember, however, that the air that blows over ordinary dung hills, in which the manure from cows and horses is thrown is not unhealthy—*the manure of cities is.* Considering how cheap galvanized iron netting is, namely, about 2d. a yard, I think it is advisable, whenever practical, to enclose a manure heap with it, in the country only, and arrange matters so that the fowls can have access thereto. They find grubs and insects of all kind to eat on it; and this not only tends to keep them in health, but it saves food, and more than even this, gives them exercise. Probably, one secret of success which attends the keeping of fowls about small home farms, hotels, and cottages, rests in the fact that the fowls get plenty of exercise and liberty. And I feel convinced that the more they have of both the better. They mope and are unhappy when too much confined, and this very misery acts as a depressant, lowers vitality, and interferes with the egg supply. All my experience of country life goes to prove that exercise and liberty are invaluable to fowls. They are bad gardeners, I admit, but in a field or orchard they do good to the ground in many ways. I have mentioned the price of the different materials for building fowl-houses and runs, with the exception of the weather-boarding and the tar. The former can be bought from 10s. to 12s. per hundred feet, perhaps cheaper; and tar can be had at the gas works for 4d. a bucket. Nails are cheap, and the round French ones are, in my opinion, the handiest, to work with.

Importance of Cleanliness.—It pays to keep fowls and all their surroundings perfectly *clean*. Attention to the nesting material, and also to the renewal occasionally of the dust bath, will ensure cleanliness, so far as the birds personally are concerned. But on no account let the fowl-house or run get filthy. Every bit of soiled work or flooring ought to be scraped and brushed clean daily, and the droppings and dust taken away and put in a heap quite by itself, and not thrown on the manure heap where the birds scrape. The reason of this will be seen presently. Roosting sticks should be washed down occasionally; this makes them more comfortable for the birds' feet. The straw in the nesting boxes should always be kept free from accidental droppings, and the dust or peat-earth removed occasionally from beneath them. Change the straw whenever it gets too worn and chaffy. Keep the floor of the house clean, and also the run. Attend frequently to the state of the dust bath, and see that the water in the pans or fountains, both outside and in, is fresh and fresh every day. No green food or garbage of any kind should be left to rot about the run, as it is apt to breed disease. *Disinfection* should be had recourse to, combined with lime-washing, and a thorough cleansing at least twice a year. *Cleanliness* is important, because the emanations, exhalations, and excretions from the body of any animal, are just those on which the germs of disease, inimical to the health and life of that particular animal, grow and live. There are poisons circulating constantly in the bodies and blood of every creature that breathes; these, in the higher forms of life, are got rid of by glands specially adapted by nature for the purpose, such as the lungs, the liver, spleen, and kidneys; and, by a kind of instinct, each class of animal loathes and does all it can to avoid contact with its own excretion. Animals in the wild state are exceedingly cleanly in all their habits, even such creatures as rats and mice are so, although they cannot always prevent

themselves from being attacked by vermin. Even the unfledged birds in a nest do all they can to keep that nest clean.

Fowl Utensils.—There are many nice handy kinds of drinking utensils to be bought in the market, so arranged that the fowls cannot get upon the edge of them either to soil or spill it; but an ordinary broad bottomed iron or delf pan does very well, provided the water is renewed daily. It is a good plan to have bins to keep fowl-food in; this safe-guards it against the attacks of mice and rats, and also keeps out the dust. Like everything else in this world, these bins may be bought ready-made, but ordinary small casks with lids to them, or even boxes, do very well indeed, and are cheaper, though they do not look so nice.

Stocking Fowls.—If you want table fowls, you may choose—1. Dorkings (they want a dry soil); 2. Game (they also are better on dry wholesome soil, but they are hardy fowls); 3. Langshans (splendid creatures, lay well, and grow large, flesh as white as ivory;) 4. Houdans (hardy, and healthy as a rule, and large); 5. Brahmas (very large and healthy); 6. Cochins (also large, but scarcely so hardy as Brahmas); 7. La Flèche (big fowls, and excellent in meat); 8. Malays, or Dorking and Malay cross (good table fowls). For *laying* purposes, we have Brahmas, Polish, Game, Spanish, Andalusians, Minorcas, La Flèche, and Cochins (these last do not, as some suppose, lay two or three eggs a day, but I have often known them lay two in a day, one for boiling, the other for frying, apparently, because the last had no shell). The Game, and those of Spanish extraction or strain, are probably as good as any. The Dorking, or Dorking cross, and the Game, make excellent mothers. I have not mentioned Dominiques, having no personal knowledge of their qualities, but they are said to lay well, and weigh well.

Buying Fowls.—The quickest plan of getting in a stock of good fowls is to purchase. Buy a good, young cock, and say half a dozen laying pullets or birds very little over a year old. These would form stock enough for a small run. If, however, your run be large enough, you might divide it into two—keeping laying breeds and table fowls as well; but on no condition make the mistake of over-crowding. If this is done, you neither get eggs nor meat, but disease; and the food you give your fowls is simply thrown away. It is unwise to buy all your birds from the same dealer or breeder: because, ten to one, they will be related to each other, and it is as well to avoid this. The birds purchased should be bright and healthy-looking, fine skinned and supple-looking withal. It is far the best plan to buy of well-known breeders, even if you pay a little more, for much depends upon your first strain. The next best way is to get your young stock from a neighbour; and the worst plan of any is purchasing from advertisers in cheap papers. What are called common barn-door fowls, are very often common in more ways than one. We ought to know the breed of the fowls we keep; not that there is any harm in crossing, sometimes quite the reverse, only, if done at all, it should be done systematically and judiciously.

Breeding Fowls.—If it can possibly be managed, set a hen or two in the month of April—the cockerels will be fit to kill in a few months, and the pullets will begin to lay towards the end of the year, if not before: much depending on the breed, the season, and the method of feeding. The plan of killing the hens after their second season of laying is a good one; for if you keep them all the winter they are only eating food to no purpose; *but*, if you adopt this method, you must have younger hens and pullets coming up to take their places. You thus work in succession, and the supply of good eggs is kept up. A third-season hen may lay as many eggs as a younger one. This is true enough; but if she is nearly four years of age before she is killed, she will not be so valuable for table use. I have just made use of the ex-

pression "good eggs;" for, rightly or wrongly, I have always had an impression that the egg of a well-fed, healthy young fowl is richer and more nourishing than that of an old or poorly-fed hen. Size is not everything in eggs, although size makes them sell.

Feeding.—In feeding fowls, we must have regard to economy if we wish them to pay their way and something over. Unless they do so, it is no use keeping them. But economy does not mean semi-starvation, but rather a generous supply of wholesome food given with regularity and in such quantities that nothing will be trampled over and wasted. The sooner in the morning the birds are let out and fed, the better it will be for them in every way. Bearing in mind that they go to roost very early, seven o'clock a.m. will not be a minute too soon to give them their first feed. The evening meal should be given before they go to roost; if they are accustomed to this, they will look for it, and even wait up to get it; but it is positively cruel, to say the least of it, to keep them waiting. In summer time, for fowls who have a nice grass run, and pick up slugs, worms, and vegetable and animal matter of all kinds, a mid-day meal will hardly be wanted, though even then a few handfuls of grain will not be thrown away among them. Beware of fattening your laying hens, and, at the same time, when feeding, see that every bird gets its share, and that the cocks do not neglect themselves, as some breeds, from generosity to their hens, are apt to do. The quantity of food to be given must be learned by experience. The rule is to give enough and no more. They ought always to be lively and relish their food without being actually wild. If hens begin to go off laying during the season, although all their surroundings are perfectly clean, and they have fresh air and a good run, it is very likely the feeding is in some way at fault; it should be therefore more generous, and boiled minced bullock's lights, or little bits of boiled liver, with or without the addition of condiments, should be added to their daily diet. Condiments should be avoided if possible, though a sprinkling of ground chili pods, or Cayenne pepper, does good sometimes in cold weather, so does an occasional handful of hemp seed; but the best condiments are those they themselves pick up in the grass run and in the earth. In feeding fowls, do not place the meat in a dish, but throw it here and there for them, so that they shall have to run for it, only take care it does not fall near any portion of their own mess. The soft food they have must be pretty dry, it ought to be simply draggled with water, pot liquor, milk, butter, etc. The various kinds of roots, when they can be spared, such as potatoes—small, or the parings of those that have been used for the table—carrots, turnips, parsnips, etc., make capital food for the morning meal if mashed and well mixed with barley-meal or oatmeal, steeped crusts, scrapings of bones, and all table scraps or food of any kind. If there be not enough of meaty scraps, then minced boiled lights and liver may be added sparingly. But it should be remembered that fowls cannot be fed as you would pigs, the latter enjoy sour or fermented food, which would bring on disease in fowls. Let fowls have soft food in the morning, and in winter at mid-day also, and in the evening, grain. Of grains we have oats, wheat, barley, rice, Indian corn, buckwheat, and dari or Indian millet. Buy these grains at the cheapest market by all means, but at the same time see that they are good, and let the meal you mix with the soft food be free from mites, and not too old. Change the food frequently, variety in diet conduces to health. **Green food** must not be forgotten. There is always a lot of cabbage leaves, turnip tops, lettuce leaves, and all kinds of green stuff in the kitchen garden of the home farm. The fowls relish picking at this, only it must not be left to decay about the runs. Clean water is one of the essentials of life and health to fowls. The pans ought to be rinsed out and filled every

morning, in ordinary weather; in summer, oftener if required; and in winter, care must be taken that the frost does not interfere with the supply of drinking water.

Sitting Fowls and their Management.—A hen chicken hatched in February, giving it six months to mature, will commence laying about August; early hatching is thus very commendable, but it has its drawbacks, for broody fowls are not easily procured early in the year, then the weather is very inclement, this entails much more labour and care, and time to rear the young birds; and sometimes, even when one does his best for them, he is disappointed in some measure. However, when time is no object, and convenience can be had for keeping chickens warm and dry, early hatching is most desirable. But April and May are the months when fowls can be set with the greatest certainty of rearing chickens. Set in April then, and as early in the month as possible. Silkies make good sitters and capital mothers, and though they are small, they can rear birds of even the biggest breeds. Dorking and Brahmas may also be chosen. The nest in which the hen is set must be placed in a quiet corner—but not in the dark—where she can be free from all molestation. It may be a bottomless box or basket, placed upon the earth; or, if it be in a loft, or on a wooden floor, place a large turf beneath, The nest itself should be made of a good thickness of short, oaten straw, and it must be perfectly clean and fresh. It will not be wise to take the straw from the laying nests. Do not give her the eggs she is to sit upon until she has taken to the nest, and is steady and quiet. It is unnecessary to say that the place where the hen sits should be dry and not exposed to draughts of cold air. If you have two or more hens sitting at the same time —and this plan is good, because, if only a certain number of the eggs are hatched, one mother may be able to take charge of the two broods and let the other free—do not put them in the same apartment if you can avoid it, for when they come off to feed, some bother may result, or two fowls turn into the same nest afterwards. When large numbers of fowls are set at one time, the nests are specially prepared, in shut-up boxes, in a sitting-house; they are regularly taken off to feed every day, and returned again. But about a small home farm, it is unlikely this will be necessary. The number of eggs to be put under a fowl depends on the size of the latter, and the season of the year; but thirteen is the usual number. A sitting fowl wants good feeding, or she will go thin and weak, and lose her animal heat. She will come off once a day of her own accord, and eat of the barley and Indian corn, which must be put down for her in abundance; and drink water, which must be always fresh and handy. It is better to give a dust bath, and to mix a handful or two of sulphur with it. The hen will use this as a rule. Some writers recommend testing the eggs with the ovascope, and replacing new-laid ones for those that are unfertile. This may be done or not, as the owner thinks best; but the less interference the better with a nest when a fowl is sitting. Sometimes, in very dry weather, while the hen is off, it will be as well to sprinkle the eggs, or dip them in warm water for a second. Some pour warm water round the outside of the nest instead. Green food in abundance should be placed where the sitting hen can get it; care being taken that it is removed every day, and not allowed to decay in the place. Some recommend letting the hen go out of doors every day to pick at the grass and to gather insects. There would be no harm in this provided she were watched, and not allowed to stray or be off the eggs too long. Few sitting fowls care to go out of doors, and it is perhaps as well they do not. In case of accidents, it is as well to have a look about hatching time to see that things are going on all right, and that a weakly chick is not getting trodden; but, as a rule, everything should

be left to nature. Even if writing for those who intended to make poultry farming a business, I should deprecate too much interference with the eggs or fowl during hatching time. When you have made the nest as advised, in a quiet, retired, comfortable corner, and set your hen on the number of eggs she can comfortably cover, and when you have placed her dust-bath and waterpan handy, then you have done about all that is necessary, with the exception of feeding, and have only to hope for the best.

Rearing Chickens.—For rearing chickens, the home farmer must have a coop, or coops. Anyone can make a coop out of old wood or an old barrel, with wire work; or coops may be made of basket work. The ordinary round basket coop, price 2s. 6d., is not a very nice affair. It is better than want, that is all that can be said in favour of it, but it has no shelter, and cannot be defended from rats. The folding galvanized coop and run, is a handy one. So is the wooden rat-proof coop. It is light and movable, and big enough for any breed of fowls. But the home farmer should be able to make his own coop. A box or barrel of any kind will do for the coop, and the run may be made of rat-and-sparrow-proof mesh galvanized iron wire. The whole concern should be portable, though roomy enough for the mother-fowl to stretch her neck. The chickens should have warmth at night, therefore a wooden floor to the coop is desirable, but great pains should be taken to keep it perfectly clean and dry. It is a good plan to cover it with sand or fine gravel, and the little wire run should be constructed to hook on in front of the coop, it can then be removed when wanted for the purpose of cleaning. An old sack may be used for an awning in sunny weather. The coop and run combined are better than a simple coop where the hen is confined, and the chicks get out. It can be put on grass or gravel, according to the state of the weather, shifted as often as need be, and taken in at night, if that be considered desirable. The run should be about three feet by four, or bigger; indeed, chickens cannot have too much freedom, and this is one plea in favour of cooping the hen and letting the chickens free, only they are in this way subject to many dangers which I need not specify. At places where there is plenty of room, and no injury can be done to gardens or flower-beds, both hen and chickens should be allowed their freedom *ad libitum*. Sometimes the hen will persist in eating the chickens' food; in such a case as this, a little wire feeding-run may easily be constructed to feed the chickens under. Do not leave the chicks a day in the old nest in which they were hatched, but change them to a nice dry one, or they may suffer from the attacks of vermin. No food is needed the first day. After the hen has fairly taken to her new nest, let her have food and water for herself and chicks. In order to rear your chicks well, they must have plenty of food very frequently given, plenty of fresh air and sunshine if possible, and plenty of exercise on grass and gravel, with fresh water placed in shallow pans, so that there shall be no danger of their tumbling in and getting drowned; but for the first few days leave them snug with the mother, and except to feed, do not bother her much. The food to be given for the first few days should be highly nourishing and easily digested, hard-boiled eggs, chopped up fine, and mixed with three parts of oatmeal draggled with milk, or two parts of stale bread-crumbs. The shell should be pounded down and mixed with this. If milk be used to wet the mess, it must be the sweetest of the sweet, and no more should be mixed at a time than is wanted. Some writers recommend meat cut up fine and mixed with the food. This gets size, but I doubt about the hardiness. Being a Scotsman may probably account for my partiality to oatmeal, but nevertheless chickens really thrive well that get plenty of it. In feeding chickens we should make it a rule to feed as often as pos-

sible, but not to waste the food, and at the same time we ought to give them plenty of change of diet, and in the early months of the year, remembering how long and cold the nights are, the chicks should be fed by candle light. We have plenty of variety in the matter of food. We have rice pudding, pudding of peas, Indian meal or flour mixed with a little boiled potatoes, barley boiled, Spratt's chicken food, crushed grains of various kinds, any or all of these may be mixed with hard-boiled minced egg, or a little minced meat. A little pot-liquor may be added, and consistency given by the addition of good oatmeal. Oatmeal will render any mess of food crumbly and eatable. Milk may be given to the chicks when it can be spared. Feed early and late, a dozen times a day at first, or as often as they seem to be hungry, and can eat with avidity without wasting the food. If they are placed on a gravel run part of the day, and part of the day on the grass, all the better; anyhow, neither gravel nor green food must be omitted in their dietry. As they get bigger they will need more and more food, and it will tax the ingenuity of the owner to keep them well fed and healthy at as cheap a rate as possible. But if they really be tended and cared for, they will well repay the labour and outlay; for at three or four months old, with a little fattening, if deemed necessary, the cockerels will be fit for the table. Sunshine has been mentioned as beneficial for chickens, so it is for the young of all animals; but it must be remembered that there may be too much of a good thing, and there should always be a possibility of the chickens getting into the shade when tired of basking in the sunlight. It is a good plan to feed the hen by herself, on grain, etc., before throwing the food to the chicks; she is thus less likely to eat theirs. I had almost forgotten to mention bone-dust. It is an invention of recent years, and does good. It is mixed with the ordinary food mass, in the proportion of one to ten. Separate the chickens from the mother when they are big enough and fledged enough to do without her care and warmth, and place them in runs by themselves. It is a bad plan to put younger chickens in with older ones, they get bullied and starved if so penned.

Fattening.—At the age of three or four months, cockerels may be fattened for the market. If meant for the family table, this fattening process had better be dispensed with, though it makes them look better and weigh more. In order to fatten them, they are either caged singly or in pens—called fattening coops—of about half a dozen birds. These coops are barred in front, have a grating or barred floor for their droppings to fall through, a supply of gravel, and perhaps a turf of earth, frequently renewed. Sometimes they are kept in the dark, except a little before and during feeding time. They are fed on oatmeal, mixed with milk; a little suet and treacle; barley-meal mixed in the same way; boiled rice and chopped suet; or, indeed, any kind of fat-forming food one can think of. They should be fed regularly three times a day, and have plenty of fresh water; while their pens must be kept scrupulously clean, and comfortably warm. Sometimes they are crammed with boluses of fattening food. This process seems to be cruel. I never myself resorted to it, and can hardly recommend it. Old fowls should be killed before they moult. They ought to be fattened before being sent to the market. Do not give too much to eat when they are first put into the coops for this purpose. Oatmeal and milk thrice daily, rice and milk, meal and treacle, and a little suet, etc., will soon make them fit; and when they are so, they should be killed at once, plucked while warm, trussed, and put on a board in a nice shape.

Preserving Eggs.—In summer time, when eggs are plentiful, a certain proportion of them can be preserved for winter use. There are several ways of doing this: one is to place the eggs in powdered unslaked lime; another, to smear them over with butter, or oil of any kind, and put them in a close box, or pack them in bran, or they may be rubbed with a

varnish of wax and oil, and bedded in dry bran or dry sand. But simply oiling and packing them in coarse salt is as good a plan as any I know, although it is an old one. The eggs for sitting purposes should be as newly-laid as possible, and must have been removed from the nest as soon as laid.

The Ovascope.—There is no reason why a fowl should sit upon a barren egg, it merely takes up room in the nest, besides it may be used for cooking purposes even after it has been sat upon for a week. Indeed it is as good as most French eggs or shop eggs then; therefore at the end of a week it may be as well to have what the Scotch hen-wives call "a peep through the eggs" in the nest, to see how many of them "are going to come out." It is very easy to tell the barren from the fertile egg, for if it be held between you and a candle-light, shadowed over by the hand, you will perceive it is quite as transparent as a new-laid egg, while the fertile egg is dark about the centre, and this can be distinguished about the fifth day. Much earlier if the ovascope is used. This is a small lantern in which the light of a lamp is reflected from a plate behind upon a lens. Passing through this lens the light is concentrated upon the egg, which is placed in an aperture for the purpose, which, there being no other light in the room, is illuminated interiorly, throwing the germ and its blood-vessels into view. This ovascope is easily made, and very handy where many fowls are being set, or a more simple one may be made from a piece of cardboard with a hole in it.

The Value of Kindness.—Not only should a fowl-run and hen-house be kept at all times clean and sweet, but the inmates should always be treated with great kindness. This will not be thrown away upon the birds; one should never frighten them, but enter the run quietly, and do whatever has to be done with as little din and fuss as possible. The birds ought to know their owners so well as not to be afraid to feed from the hand. Be careful how you handle a fowl. If you want to catch one, go quietly in at night, approach the bird gently, secure the wings deftly, and then the legs, and take it away if you mean to kill it. It is cruel to chase fowls that you want to catch all round the run, and then kill them in the presence of their mates. They feel it, indeed they do, and that most acutely. If space were not so valuable I could adduce plenty of proof, enough, I believe, to convince the most sceptical, that fowls are far less devoid of feeling and affection than is generally supposed.

Laying Fowls.—The question is sometimes asked: What is the best means of making fowls lay? Well, I advise my readers not to put over much faith in any of the so-called "laying mixtures." Why? Because they are unnatural. In order to get a good supply of eggs, you must possess the breed of birds that lay best, whether in summer or winter. You must not pamper them too much with dainties. They ought to have enough but no more of wholesome food, the food should be scattered about, they ought to have exercise, be kept clean, have plenty of water, and never chased or hurried about. The laying fowls should be young and they should be the progeny not only of good laying breeds, but of a good *laying stock* of these particular breeds. What more can be done? Little that I am aware of, except paying good attention to the weather, and seeing that the birds are not exposed to either cold or wet, and that they have a certain proportion of animal food seasoned with a little Cayenne pepper. But this last even must be given with care, and we must not forget that stimulating or forcing fowls to lay causes a great drain on the whole system, and that birds so forced age sooner. Condiments of various kinds are made use of by fowl fanciers; sometimes these do good, but under no circumstances ought they to be used regularly. They are stimulants in every sense of the word, and therefore should be kept to the medicine chest.

The Moulting Season.—Fowls about the Home Farm seldom get any extra attention during the moulting season. But they ought to; moulting is a kind of fever, it is hard for the time on the system, and as it takes place in the latter months of the year, care should be taken to keep them warm and to feed well. When the feathers begin to drop, the food should be made a little more meaty. On very cold days it may be given warm, and at all times a little beer or a dust of Cayenne will do good. They ought to be very well housed in the moulting season, and in frosty weather get now and then a few handfuls of hemp seed. Cocks require some special management at different times. At the moulting season, for instance, they should be kept separate from the hens, as they are then often cruel to them. Except when moulting, and then only when plenty of space or run exists, cocks should not be kept together, for even when they do not fight they are in many other ways nuisances to each other. After the third year, cocks are only fit for the market; at least this is the general experience. By keeping them longer you get but little good out of them, and their age renders them undesirable for cooking purposes.

Disinfectants.—If the houses and runs be carefully attended to, there will be little need to spend money on disinfectants, but there are one or two, the occasional use of which, especially in hot weather, is desirable. Carbolic acid is cheap and very good, it costs about a shilling a pint, and of this a tablespoonful may be well mixed in a gallon and a half of water, and sprinkled, by means of an ordinary watering-can, all over the woodwork of the house, and over the coops, etc., but not allowed to get anywhere near the dishes or in any place where the food is thrown. Choose a fine forenoon for this work. Sulphur may be sprinkled well over everything inside, and a handful or two thrown into the dust bath. Sulphate of iron costs about threepence a pound and is a capital disinfectant. The ordinary name is green copperas, it may be used all over the run, a handful being dissolved in a bucketful of water. The water-pans, etc., should be rinsed occasionally with hot water reddened with the permanganate of potash. This may also be sprinkled all over the run and over everything in the house. It is a capital disinfectant, and by no means a dangerous one.

Vermin.—Fowls are sometimes troubled with lice, I know nothing better for getting rid of them from the bodies of the chicks than Persian insect powder. It must be well puffed or dredged in under the chickens' or fowls' feathers, but while they are being so treated it is necessary they should be penned in a small house, and kept there for a few hours after, because, as I have proved times without number, this powder dislodges the vermin without actually killing them all. Therefore the straw or hay which the fowls have stood upon, while being operated on, must be afterwards destroyed, and the floor itself sprinkled with carbolic acid in water. The fowl houses themselves should be seen to whenever lice appear. They ought to be thoroughly disinfected every three months at least. The best and surest plan is this: first and foremost, scrape and clean and wash the wood-work and see to the floor; then, with hot lime, wash all round; next sprinkle every part with carbolic acid and water, or Jeyes' perfect purifier (an excellent disinfectant), and to make assurance doubly sure, burn brimstone for a couple of hours in the house. The brimstone is simply ignited in a saucer, and this is supported by a pair of tongs and placed over a bucket of water for safety sake. Every chink that might admit air or let the fumes out must first be closed, and afterwards the door and ventilator must be kept open for some time before the fowls are re-admitted. To dust sulphur upon the body of the fowl is a good plan for destroying vermin, or rather for preventing them from appearing. A brimstone candle is best.

Killing Fowls.—The quickest and most humane plan of killing a fowl is to chop the head off with a sharp hatchet, the body should then be hung up to bleed. Drawing the neck or "lithing" the bird is the next best, but it is often imperfectly done, and I have more than once seen a fowl that has been "killed" in this way get up and run off after it was plucked—a ridiculously horrible sight!

Plucking.—The fowl intended for table use should be plucked while it is still warm. The feathers should be kept, as they are valuable. The thrifty housewife will know how to treat them, and what to do with them, but I may just mention here that, for safety sake, they should be baked in paper bags in an oven, and afterwards hung to dry. The baking process some recommend to be repeated several times.

Poultry Droppings are valuable for the garden, and should therefore be saved. This manure may be mixed with ashes or earth, and kept in a heap until thoroughly decomposed. It is then a capital addition to other manures, either for vegetables or for flower beds.

Foods.—I have advised the home farmer to purchase only good grain or corn for fowls, for bad stuff is dear at any price. But as fowls if they get too much corn go fat internally, and go off laying, I must repeat my injunction against the indiscriminate use of grains. Indian corn especially is of a fattening nature, and should be the cold-weather grain. Buckwheat, on the other hand, is an egg-producing food; it may sometimes be boiled or baked in a little water with advantage. Crissel is a preparation that has not been very long in the market; it is good for laying fowls, as it is an animal food. Greaves is a coarse and unwholesome food; I only mention it in order to condemn its use. Bone-dust is much used for giving size and strength to growing fowls, to check diarrhœa, assist laying, etc. It is mixed with the meal which the fowl-paste is made of, in the proportion of a dessert-spoonful or more to a pint. The grass from lawns may be thrown into the run with advantage, and in winter-time the sweepings of seeds, etc., from hay-lofts.

Breeding.—More care ought to be taken about the breeding of fowls for household use than we generally see, whether it be desired to have table fowls or merely layers. Judicious crossing should be studied, but I am sorry to say it very seldom is. A cock is a cock, and a hen is a hen with most unthinking people who keep a few fowls. Perhaps they do actually choose the best cock for king of the run; indeed, the bird generally wins his kingship by the spur; he has thrashed all his cousins and brothers, and half killed the old cock, then quietly usurps his throne. But good though this cockerel may have proved himself, it is not always judicious to breed from him. He may be too "sib," as the Scotch call it; that is, too near of kin to the hens, and though in-and-in breeding is a good thing in some ways, the introduction of a fresh strain, carefully chosen, does good. Again, if we can once get a strain of really good laying birds, we cannot be too particular in keeping it up—breeding from the strongest, boldest, and healthiest, and being extra cautious in introducing new blood.

The Defence of the Farm.—In some parts of the country, especially in Scotland, fowl-keepers are much plagued with foxes, and the domestic cat is one of the commonest and worst of enemies to the fowl-run. I have often been asked, How is it best to trap or destroy these "pests?" The best receipt for curing cats and foxes of the habit of prowling round barn-yards in search of chickens or fowls, is to keep a Scotch Collie dog. He will not either kill or catch them, but he will keep them at a respectable distance.

Rats, Mice, and Birds of Prey.—Rats are terrible plagues; I advise their destruction by ferrets and terriers. It is quick work, and therefore cannot be called cruel; while the torture they inflict upon poor chickens—even on those they

do not kill out-right—certainly is. Good cats may be trained to respect the chickens and destroy the rats. There is nothing to beat an old-fashioned long-headed English tabby. She ought to be young and well fed, and taken care of; it is a very great mistake to imagine that half-fed cats are the best vermin killers. The following is a receipt which is said to have been communicated by Dr. Ure to the English Agricultural Society. It is a poison for rats, and though I have not tried it, I may say, as a medical man, that it reads well. Melt hog's lard in a bottle plunged in water, heated to about 150 deg. Fahr.; introduce ½oz of phosphorus for every lb. of lard, then add a pint of proof spirit or whisky. Cork the bottle firmly after its contents have been heated to 150 deg., taking it at the same time out of the water, and agitate smartly till the phosphorus becomes uniformly diffused, forming a milky-looking liquid. This liquid, being cooled, will afford a white compound of phosphorus and lard, from which the spirit spontaneously separates, and may be poured off to be used again, for none of it enters into the combination, but it merely serves to communicate the phosphorus, and diffuse it in very fine particles through the lard. This compound, on being warmed very gently, may be poured into a mixture of wheat flour and sugar, incorporated therewith and then flavoured with oil of rhodium, or not, at pleasure. The flavour may be varied with oil of aniseed, etc. This dough, being made into pellets, is to be laid in rat holes. By its luminousness in the dark it attracts their notice, and, being agreeable to their palates and noses, it is readily eaten, and proves certainly fatal. I must add, however, that no sort of poison should be put down if cats or rabbits are about. The best way to get clear of mice is to keep cats or set traps. These creatures, small as they are, eat an incalculable amount of food, and although they cannot injure the fowls, they annoy them. Birds of prey often swoop down and carry away chickens. There is only one way of preventing this, and that is by using proper coops. Sparrows should be shot, they eat an immense quantity of the fowls' and chickens' food. Their nests should be destroyed when the eggs are in them. It is most unhumane to pull them down when filled with young birds.

Prize Poultry.—Those who have an ambition to figure in the prize lists of poultry shows must secure birds of the best pedigree our country can boast of. To do so they will have to spend a good deal of money; and this is not all, they must set themselves to study well the points and properties of each breed, which can only be done by reading good books on the subject, and attending exhibitions, and comparing the birds they see there with their own ideals of perfection. After many months, or perhaps years, of study, they may succeed in getting such a good strain that they may win at most shows, but they will not find that the prize money, even then, clears their expenses; they must, therefore, put all the greater value on the honour and glory of winning. Do not prize poultry pay, then? This is a question more easily asked than answered. It all depends upon the thoroughness with which one goes into the hobby; his luck at shows, and the name he gains, partly as an exhibitor, and partly through advertising, this keeps one's name before the public, as it were; for if this be not done, a person may have the best breed of fowls in existence, and they will never see more of the world than they do from the gates of their run. I know many men who make, what they allow to be, a good thing out of prize poultry. The best book, though it is a big one, on prize poultry, is that written by Lewis Wright (Cassell & Co.). It is superbly illustrated, and the text has been most thoughtfully studied. It costs, new, about £1 15s.; but second-hand copies are procurable.

The Ailments of Fowls.—"There is," says a recent writer, "little economy in an attempt to doctor sick fowls." This is hardly correct, for

there are a great many ailments and accidents, which, with a little care and trouble, we may cure, or put to rights. I shall mention a few of the more common of these, and the most natural ways of treating them. **Wounds** of all kinds heal easily, if the fowl be healthy. If recent, cold water will stop bleeding; a stitch may be necessary, or imprisonment for a time. Keep very clean, and dress with any kind of simple ointment, such as that of the oxide of zinc. **Broken Legs.**—Confine the bird to a coop, placing food and water within reach, and splint the leg by putting a little lint and a morsel of thin leather over all. The leg will heal kindly in about a week. **Bumble Foot.**—If there be much matter, it must be let out. Then dress with cold water and lint every day. A few drops of carbolic acid may be added to the water with advantage. When pain seems to be gone and swelling remains, painting daily with strong tincture of iodine will effect a cure. The foot must be confined in a "moggin" or sock during treatment. **Ulceration** sometimes called "canker," is caused by constitutional weakness, and is best treated by quinine and iron tonic, and touching the sores twice a day with a solution of nitrate of silver—four grains to the ounce. The citrate of quinine and iron is the best form; dose, a grain and a half twice a day. **Paint and Tar on the Feathers.**—This is unsightly. Benzoline will take off the former; fresh orange peel the latter. **Eruptions** about the comb are caused by want of exercise on the grass-run. Give green food, and a little sulphur every day in the soft food, and apply a little mildly carbolated oil to the parts. **Swelling of the Crop.**—This may be either hard or soft. When hard, it is caused by something the bird has swallowed. This may be grain. A little castor oil will, ge[illegible]lly, remove it; but an operation may b[illegible] needful, namely, that of opening the crop, removing the contents, and sewing it up again. It is not difficult to perform; only the crop must be sewn first, then the outer skin. In soft swelling of the crop, feed only on soft food for days, and put down the throat, twice or thrice daily, about three or four grains of the trisnitrate of bismuth, and five drops of dilute nitric acid in a little water. **Cold.**—Confine the bird to a comfortable pen, and feed extra well on warm, soft food, with a little ale in it. Give a dose or two of castor oil, and keep it away from draughts. If it turns to roup, take the fowl quite away from its companions; keep extra warm; feed on meat scraps; keep bathing the nostrils with hot water, reddened with permanganate of potash and, after a dose of oil, give Walton's roup pill. **Diarrhœa.**—Change the diet; give only well-boiled grain, and mix this with ordinary chalk-powder and bone-dust. The soft food may be mixed with good bone-dust, a pill of five grains of chalk, two of Cayenne pepper, and one quarter grain of opium may be given three times a day; and boluses, frequently, of arrow-root (raw) merely damped with milk. **Egg-bound.**—This shows weakness in the fowl. Give a doze of castor oil, foment the lower part of the body, and inject a little warm oil. Afterwards give more nourishing food, and a quinine and iron tonic, or tincture of iron in the water, in the proportion of a teaspoonful to a pint. **Cramp.**—Wrap the bird in flannel, and place it in a very warm place, and feed well. The legs may be rubbed with hot turps, or any ordinary stimulating liniment. Cramp is generally the result of wet, cold, and bad feeding. Remove the cause. **Soft Eggs.**—These are the result of either overfeeding, or the want of material to form the shell. Place plenty of old mortar in the runs; but do not give broken egg-shells, for this will only teach the fowls to eat their eggs, and this habit is difficult to cure. **Moping, or Weakly Fowls.**—Take them away from the others, and put them in a warm place; in sunshine, if possible. Try the effects of a dose of castor oil, followed by good, nutritious food, regularly given; plenty of clean water, and about half a teaspoonful of

Parrish's triple syrup three times a day.

Gapes.—This is the result of worms in the throat or trachea, and the most sensible treatment is that of causing the birds so suffering to breathe the fumes of carbolic acid. The latter is placed in a spoon, and heated over a candle until fumes arise; and in these fumes the bird's head is placed until it is well-nigh suffocated. An American authority believes these worms come, in the first place, from ticks, which may sometimes be found about the head of the chick; and he prevents gapes by anointing with the following unguent: mercurial ointment and pure lard, of each one part; flowers of sulphur and crude petroleum, of each half a part. To be well mixed.

Bantams.—Bantams are far more useful, if not quite so ornamental, as fancy pheasants. There are a great variety of these dwarf fowls, and some fanciers take a very considerable deal of pains with the breeding of them. I merely name here a few, as they occur to my memory: Pekin, or Buff Cochin; Sebright's, or Silver and Gold Spangled; or crosses between these two—nice, useful, little birds, and very pretty; Black Bantams, early layers, hardy in constitution, as well as good sitters and mothers; Japanese, white, yellow legged, black-tailed—charming, wee birds; Nankins, and different kinds of Game. Any, or all varieties, can be bought through the columns of the live-stock papers, or the eggs may be got and hatched. Probably, the best way to get Bantam stock is to purchase a cock and a few hens of the breed one fancies, having previously got up the miniature fowl-house and run, and made everything quite ready for their reception.

Ducks.—The most common and profitable breeds of *ducks* for the home farm, are the Rouen, the Aylesbury, the Cayuga, and the Pekin. **Rouen and Aylesbury Ducks.**—Either the Rouen, or the Aylesbury, or crosses (generally made, or allowed to be made, anyhow) are the most common. In plumage and general appearance, size and elegance being excepted, the Rouen duck is like the Wild duck, which is too well known to require description. They are, no doubt, direct descendants from the Mallard or Wild duck, a bird that is quite capable of being domesticated, although there is nothing that I know of to be gained by carrying out the experiment. These farm-yard ducks are good layers of large white or green eggs, and though the ducks themselves are not quite so big as a rule as the Aylesbury, for the market they can be fattened up to nearly the same weight. But if they are meant for breeding purposes, they must not be bought heavy; the drake should not be much over a year, nor the ducks over eighteen months. They should be as well-bred as possible: one cannot commence breeding from stock of any kind of too great purity. The Aylesbury is a larger duck, and comes to maturity, or size enough for the market, sooner than the Rouen. They are pure white, with feet and legs of a yellow colour, and flesh or yellow-tinted bills. To get a stock of Aylesbury ducks, it is usual to purchase a drake, and two or even three ducks, late in the autumn, and of that year's hatching. Some authorities say the drake and ducks should not be related to each other. The main point, however, is to get them strong and healthy-looking, and of as good a strain as possible. **The Cayuga Duck** is an American breed. They are large and handsome, black in colour—a bright metallic sheen. They are capital table fowls. **Pekin Ducks** are very large, though not so heavy as the Aylesbury. They are nearly white on the body, with orange legs, feet, and bills, and are more erect in carriage of body. They are, on the whole, very useful as home-farm ducks, and can be kept in small space, with little water.

Keeping Ducks.—Keeping ducks in general, in many situations, I believe more profitable, by a good deal, than keeping fowls. My own experience of ducks, where they are properly managed, is all in their favour. But, then, they are not usually understood. Any kind of treatment, or food either, is considered

good enough for a duck. They are allowed to lie about in any shelter they may choose, and are fed when their owner happens to think of it. It is no wonder, then, that they choose a place for their own nests, or wander away in search of food, and drop their eggs anywhere, in the water or out of it.

Breeding Ducks.—Ducks ought to have housing of some kind, however humble. It should be a dry-floored, water-tight place; an old shed, for instance, with a door to it; and, during the laying season, they should be fastened up all night, and not allowed to get out too soon in the morning, as that is the laying time. Give them good straw nests on the ground, preferably behind a basket or box, or in any quiet corner. They will take to these, and when they want to sit, probably it is just as well to let them. It is much prettier, at all events, and more natural, to see a duck with ducklings than a hen. When a duck has been sitting steadily for a day or two, so that there can be no mistake about her meaning business, then give her the eggs, twelve to fifteen, according to her size and that of the eggs. Be as particular about the appearance of the latter as if setting a fowl. Have them as newly-laid as possible; of good strain, smooth, and shapely. The duck sits for about twenty-eight days, usually called a month. During this time let her have plenty of grain and plenty of water, and if she fancies a short run out or a dip in the water, it is only natural, and she must not be gainsaid. When the ducklings come out, place food for them near the mother. This may be oatmeal made wet with milk, boiled rice, a little oatmeal porridge, mixed with oatmeal dry, and, if deemed necessary, hard-boiled egg. This for the first few days. Coop them in a dry, warm place by day, and feed plentifully, without waste, on oatmeal, barley-meal, pea-meal, boiled, and given rather dry, and mixed with boiled greens of any kind, and vegetables and crusts (steeped) from the table. Let them roam about as much as they please in good weather; but do not let the mother take them to the water for the first fortnight, at least. The ducklings ought, however, to have a "dub" or dish, about breast high, to dabble in; for if they get wet all over, at this early age, they are apt to take cramp and die.

Feeding Ducks.—Now, the more the ducklings are permitted to gather food about the grass-run, the manure heaps, or garden, the quicker they will grow, and the more healthy they will be. But do not neglect to feed plentifully. If fed systematically and well, they ought to be fit for market or table by the time they have cost a couple of shillings for keep; and about farms or inn-yards, less than that will rear them till fit to sell or kill. House the ducklings well at night, or you may lose the most of them. Rats are very great foes to ducks. Feed old ducks twice or thrice a day, on a mixture of all kinds of kitchen scraps, or good greens, with barley-meal and pollard in it, or indeed whatever may suggest itself to you; but give a few handfuls of oats as well. Give good, wholesome oats, and far less will do. Ducks are capital foragers, and will pick up a deal of their own living if allowed to roam about. Do not keep ducks and fowls in the same run on any account. As to water, ducks may be kept without water to swim in, it is true; but they do much better when they have a pond or running stream to dabble, and grub about in, because they then find food that exactly suits their constitution.

Geese.—Just a few words about the keeping and management of *geese*. It is supposed by naturalists that the common English goose of domesticity is a descendant of the wild grey-lag, or grey-leg goose, still found in the northern islands of Great Britain. The geese most commonly bred and reared in this country are the Embden goose and the Toulouse; the former being white, with orange legs and feet, and flesh-coloured bills; the latter are also orange in legs and feet, but dark orange also in the

bills, grey in colour of plumage, darker on the neck and back, the grey of the breasts shading off into white on the belly. The Toulouse geese are generally larger than the white. I say "generally," because the Embdens have beaten them in weight at poultry shows. Geese, being vegetarians, cannot well be kept unless in a place were they can have a good grass-run, and the more extensive this is the better. Where the use of a common is available, geese do very well, indeed, and are really profitable. They eat the grass very close, it must be confessed, but I doubt very much whether they root it up, as some people assert. If geese have been grubbing about among the grass all day, as is their wont, a handful or two of grain before they go out of a morning, and the same on their return, will be about all they will need in summer time or good weather. If the home farmer had a fancy in the way of geese, he might buy them young in the beginning of the season, and feed them in the way I have mentioned. By the time the weather gets cold, they will be ready to keep in to fatten. But even all the summer it is necessary they should have a dry shelter at night. Goslings hatched in the spring will be ready to kill by the Christmas market, or they may be kept all winter, and fed on green food and grain, when they may be expected to begin laying early in the year. They must then be extra well fed, giving them brewer's grains, corn, maize, barley-meal, malt-sharps, etc. The grain is sometimes mixed with ale or milk, in order to stimulate their laying powers. One gander generally goes with three or four geese, for breeding purposes. Goose eggs may be hatched under any large breed of fowl, such as a Cochin, or under a turkey. If she is to sit herself, thirteen eggs will be about all she can comfortably cover. She will lay about fifteen before she begins to line her nest. The eggs ought to be frequently sprinkled with warm water, else the shells will get very hard. Thirty days form the period of incubation, and the goslings are fed and treated in the manner recommended for ducklings. Keep the mother quiet when sitting, and the goslings warm and well-fed when hatched. The geese are sometimes killed right off the grass, at the end of the season. They are then called green geese, or they may be fed for a few weeks, in confinement, on barley-meal, oats, etc. A pond of water is not really a *sine quâ non* in keeping geese; but it is all the better to have one, especially for the Embdens. The Toulouse and Embdens will breed together, and valuable crosses may thus be obtained.

Artificial Incubation.—The credit of this invention is usually ascribed to the Chinese, the East Indians, or the Egyptians. Probably the idea was first borrowed from nature. The African ostrich, for instance, lays her eggs in a hole in the sand, leaving them all day to bask in the sun's rays, and only brooding over them during the night. Of recent years more has been written on the subject of artificial hatching of chickens, in the columns of the live-stock papers than would fill many a lordly volume; and incubator after incubator has been invented and brought out; each one, to use a common figure of speech, better than the other, or, at all events, pretending to be. Mr. Lewis Wright, in his poultry book, has written a well-thought-out and very practical dissertation on artificial incubation, a perusal of which I commend to the intelligent reader. Since the publication of that gentleman's work, many small useful treatises have been written; some of them by manufacturers of incubators. W[illegible] they naturally praise their own inventions; but really such machines as Christy's "Thermostatic Incubator," Owen's "Acme," and Wearson's "Champion" leave little or anything to be desired. Some incubators have the heat kept up by means of oil lamps, others by gas, and others, again, by hot water. I believe I am right in saying that, by means of any of the incubators I have named, and with ordinary care, fully 70 per cent. of the eggs put in

will be hatched. The advantages of artificial incubation are many; early chickens fetch a high price in the market, and so do young ducks, and it is often difficult to get a brooding hen when wanted. All kinds of eggs may be hatched by means of an incubator, from those of the partridge to those of the ostrich. Even when hens can be procured, they at times go off heat before incubation has been accomplished, and the eggs set are thus lost. After chickens have been hatched by the incubator, they have to be reared for a time by means of a heated apparatus, called "the artificial mother." There are a great many different kinds of these advertised.

Home-made Incubators.—The one great objection that people with a limited income find to most of these machines is the first expense, although I do sincerely believe that they are economical in the long run. But why should not some of my readers attempt, by simple means, to make artificial incubators of their own. It would not matter how rough looking these were, so long as they did the thing required of them. If there be any one who happens to read these lines, and thinks he would like to try his "prentice hand" at incubator making, I advise him to get some treatise on the subject, such a one, for instance, as Christy's; but he ought to search after principles of construction, and not merely read to copy and imitate. An incubator, for instance, to be of any use, must have (1) the temperature carefully regulated; (2) the heat conserved as much as possible; (3) the air that passes over the eggs must contain a certain degree of moisture; (4) the eggs must be ventilated; and (5) the machine should require a minimum of attention. Anyone with a turn for mechanics can manufacture a machine for half the price that he could buy one for. Having done so, he would have to test it well with the thermometer for a week or longer, to make sure it would act regularly and well. This machine, when eggs were introduced into it, would require to be kept in a warm room of equable temperature and good ventilation. The eggs put in should be new-laid, or nearly so; they should have the date written on them; they should be put in the artificial nest, or in the drawer, in a single layer; the temperature to be maintained should be between 100° and 105°; the moistened air should come from beneath; the heat from above; the eggs want turning every twelve hours, and airing twice a day, for ten or fifteen minutes, morning and evening. The eggs should be examined on the seventh day, and the unfertile ones taken away.

An Artificial Mother is simply a contrivance to keep the chickens warm for the first ten days or so, according to the state of the weather. The more simple it is the better. I know an old woman who is "her own artificial mother"—that is an Irish bull, but it will readily be forgiven. She nurses the chicks in a basket and flannel before the fire by day, and she contrives, by means of bags of hot sand, to keep them comfortable at night.

Town Farms.—To people who live in towns, and would like to keep a fowl or two for the sake of the eggs. An old soda tub, a bacon box or two, or a large box such as one can procure from the draper's, a few yards of galvanized iron wire (the best is the cheapest in the end), a morsel of felt, a few pieces of wood, a handful of nails, and about half a pound of common sense, is all that is wanted to make very comfortable accommodation for a cock and two or three laying hens.

Turkeys.—Turkeys do far best upon a dry, or even a sandy soil; they require plenty of liberty: they will not thrive if cooped up; they like the neighbourhood of trees, though this is not really essential to healthful existence, but they dearly love high ground and a bracing atmosphere. Although hardy-enough birds when well grown, it should be remembered that damp is their natural enemy. The reason why turkeys are so seldom kept by the small farmer or cottager is that they are supposed to be extremely

difficult to rear. There is some truth in this—but, nevertheless, with some care and trouble when they are chicks, and good attention afterwards, they do well. And they never fail to pay, for the flesh always fetches a high price in the market. Instead of rearing chicks, if one were to buy them in the first months of summer, I think he might do well with them by Christmas of the same year. The commonest turkeys in England are the Cambridge and the Norfolk; the former, a dark bronze-tinged bird, is a favourite in Berkshire, although greater delicacy of flesh is claimed for the Black Norfolks. The hen you set should be two years old and over. In the third season, turkeys obtain their full growth. A turkey cock *may* go with fifteen hens, but ten is enough for health and fertility.

Breeding Turkeys.—Turkeys are excellent sitters, and capital mothers. Indeed, they will sit contentedly to hatch a second brood, at least; but it is cruelty to take such advantage of the poor bird's instincts. They lay about twenty eggs; the period of incubation is twenty-eight to thirty days, and a good turkey will cover ten or thirteen eggs. During the time she is sitting, she must have a plentiful allowance of food and fresh water within her reach; but should be molested as little as possible. The chicks, when first hatched, are very delicate, and require a great deal of care. They may be fed on hard-boiled egg, mixed with a little oatmeal, draggled with milk. With this, mix some chives, nicely minced, or bread-crumbs may be given instead of the oatmeal. If any milk or curd be mingled with the food, it must be fresh and good, for they are naturally liable to diarrhœa, and any acidity might bring it on. Turkey-rearers must not be too anxious about the feeding of the chicks when they first come out of the shell, for they are then wet, and most liable to succumb to draughts or cold. Leave them to the mother; they will take no hurt, although they do not pick until next morning. In Lewis Wright's excellent article on turkeys, in Cassell's "Book of Poultry," he recommends that nothing should be added to the egg diet for the first week except minced dandelion leaves, or, if that cannot be had, boiled nettle-tops. I do not think the farmer folks around us take the trouble to *boil* the nettle-tops, and dandelion can always be had.

Rearing Turkeys.—What we have mainly to guard the young chicks from is cold and damp, and to see that they be well and *often* fed, quite as often as chickens of ordinary fowls. The hard-boiled egg food should, to some extent, still be continued after a week, the shell even being mixed with it, but a greater proportion of meal may now be added, barley boiled in milk, and peas boiled and mixed with minced scallion. They will soon be able to pick a little grain, and plenty of curd will do them good. From this time until they are a month old they had better be kept indoors, in a dry shed or barn, where they can have plenty of fresh air without draught, and plenty of running about without wet or damp. The food during this time can be varied, much the same as what I have already mentioned, with a little bran, potatoes boiled, meal, curds, etc., mixed with minced vegetables, chives, scallions, nettles, lettuce, fennel, etc. Bone-meal is good for young turkeys, and Spratt's food is also worth a trial. After a month, if the weather be fine, they may be allowed out with the mother. Nature will teach them what food is best for them, and this consists to a large extent of larvæ or grubs, worms, insects of all kinds, grass, and different kinds of herbs. Indeed, I hardly know what kind of green thing, or blade, or berry, a turkey will not try to eat, or taste, at all events. When the poults develop the barbels of flesh on their heads, which they do about seven weeks old, they should be very carefully seen to. But never at any time ought they to be left out in the wet, or exposed to high winds without the chance of getting into shelter. Young turkeys are liable to a kind of distemper,

especially those reared on damp soil. They mope about, refuse all food, are weak in the legs, their feathers are the wrong-way-on apparently, and the tail trails on the ground. The disease is very often fatal. It is said to be caused by inflammation of the rump, and to be cured by pulling out the feathers. A paste of pepper, fennel, bruised hemp and parsley, is recommended as a cure, but I have no personal experience of it. Castor oil followed by tonics would seem to me to be called for, but hemp seed would do good as a stimulating food. When turkeys get over their infantile troubles, they are little more trouble. They knock about with the other fowls, but seldom bully them, and either go to roost on bushes or fences, or in the hen houses at night, or are content to squat on a dry shed floor. They gather their own food, and in other ways take pot-luck with the fowls, geese, and ducks. They should have free access to water, and they like milk as well.

Fattening Turkeys.—There are ways of fattening turkeys for the market. Some people cram them with bread, suet, and milk paste, etc. Others—and this is the more humane method—simply feed them first thing in the morning, again at mid-day, and again before going to roost.

Pigs: how to make them pay.—To achieve this object several questions require to be answered. I will deal with these in order as they come. 1. Who should keep pigs? 2. Is the keeping of pigs profitable, and to what extent? 3. How should they be chosen for breeding purposes? 4. What is the treatment best suited for the breeding sow? 5. What is the cheapest and best plan for housing, tending, and feeding pigs in general? 6. Are pigs hardy, and what ailments are they subject to?

I. **Who should keep pigs?**—Turkeys and geese will pay in some places, as I have already shown; fowls will pay in others; so will mules, donkeys, or goats; but if we attempt to put too many irons in the fire at once, the irons will all get cold, and the fire will go out. With care and attention money may be made from keeping pigs by the home farmer, crofter, or villager even, who has little more ground than a garden or kail-yard. But more especially are these animals profitable at places where there is a large family, and consequently a good deal of waste refuse-stuff from the kitchen, etc. In this case, the vegetable and animal matter, the washings of dishes, the scrapings of pots, and garden matter that would otherwise go to waste, is economised and turned into good pork or bacon. Large profits are not to be made unless indeed the business is done wholesale; but to thousands and thousands of poor country people, a matter of ten, fifteen, or twenty pounds comes in very handy about a Michaelmas term and this is practically within their reach.

II. **Is the keeping of pigs profitable?**—Few of the writers in live-stock papers, give their readers—generally amateurs seeking for information—any idea as to the first cost of stock-getting. And yet this is important. Now there are two plans of getting in stock. One is purchasing young pigs and feeding them to kill. Well, at the price young pigs are generally sold, namely, from fifteen to five-and-twenty shillings, or even more if they be of a first-rate strain; considering that it costs a good deal to feed and rear them, the rearing of pigs cannot be said to be very profitable to the home farmer, unless indeed he has a great deal of waste land and waste produce of all kinds. If he has so, that would alter the case; even then, there would be a good amount of luck and lottery about the business, for the most astute farmer cannot tell how young pigs may turn out. A better plan of getting in stock is to buy a sow in farrow to a good boar. Breeders will always get the services of the best sire in their neighbourhood for the sake of selling the sow well. Care is needed, nevertheless, in effecting a purchase, especially in dealing with advertisers in the columns of such papers as the *Exchange and Mart.*

But there are many regular advertisers in that journal whose interest would not be served by forging a pedigree, or even telling an untruth, however reckless they might be on the score of honesty. Well, then, let us say that the cottager's first cost is the money paid for a sow in farrow. We will reckon that she is of good strain and pedigree, and of a breed that is fashionable and marketable in the neighbourhood where the purchaser lives, and, for argument's sake, we will say that £5 is paid for her, and that she has probably still twelve weeks to go before she lies down out of the sixteen weeks she goes in farrow, and that she must be extra well fed during the latter weeks of gestation, as well as while giving suck to her progeny; then the purchaser does not do badly if he clears expenses out of the first litter, though the probability is he may have a pound or two over. At all events, he has his breeding sow, and from her he ought to get two litters a year. With ordinary luck and ordinary-sized litters, I do not think I should be putting the profits down too high if I called them £10; only it must not be forgotten that much of the food that goes to keep the sow up must be wastrel. There is one other item of first cost in stock-getting that must not be forgotten. I refer to the pigsty itself, and to the pig-troughs. A handy man can in a day or two build a pigsty with his own hands; and, if time be no object, he has merely to count the cost of the timber and nails; or, if bricks and mortar be used for the house proper, the cost of these. More ambitious and more cleanly and pretty pigsties can be brought ready made, and the same may be said for troughs. Well, the sties and the troughs are items of first cost; on the other hand, the manure is an item of profit. It is strong and excellent for raising many garden crops. It has only one drawback, a plentiful crop of weeds generally follows the use of it. This might be obviated by making it a rule not to pitch all kinds of seeded weeds indiscriminately into the pigsty. We must not forget, however, that the price of bedding comes to something, so we may well consider manure and bedding as mutual off-sets. I have not counted *time* or *labour* as an item of expense. The person who keeps pigs must have both to spare.

III. **How should pigs be chosen for breeding purposes?**—There are a large number of varieties of pigs, and many useful crosses; almost every county in England, indeed, has some favourite breed of pig; and tastes differ. Into the merits of the different breeds I have no intention of entering; but I do most earnestly advise the cottager or home farmer to get the very best he can to begin with, of the breed or strain that is most in vogue in the neighbourhood where his market lies, and, therefore, of the sort that is most saleable. In buying a sow let it be a young one, one that has farrowed once before, and only once. Get a big broody-looking, long-bodied, short-legged, stocky-like beast, with good shoulders, head, and loins. She ought to be roomy and have twelve teats. As to the breed, you must suit yourself. Cheshire or Shropshire for size, Dishleys for fat, Suffolk, Norfolk, and Berks for hardiness, though not for size. Berkshire pigs are not particular as to diet, they are hardy, good doers, and certainly not difficult to fatten. I have heard it said that the flesh of a black pig is not so delicate in flavour as that of a white; but surely the feeding has everything to do with flavour of flesh. I do not consider it advisable for a cottager to keep a breeding boar, unless, indeed, he goes entirely into the business of pig-raising, and falls in with some first-rate prize strain, which proves quite up to the estimate judges formed of it at some great show. Such an animal might pay to keep. Having once got into a good strain of pigs, it is advisable to stick to it so long as the stock is healthy and strong, but injudicious in-and-in breeding is to be deprecated. Berkshire pigs breed at ten months old,

or earlier if permitted, which is questionable economy. When three years of age the breeding sow is best fattened off and killed. The operation of castration, or spaying, should be performed in or about the fifth week. They are weaned about the eighth week; and very soon after should be ringed. This is a painful operation, and ought to be done by someone who really knows, what he is about. No animal that I know of is more sensitive to pain than the pigs are, and this should be borne in mind in handling them either for the purpose of performing any necessary operation, or to kill them. Much needless cruelty is sometimes inflicted on the poor doomed creatures in the country through the heartless handling of brutal pig-stickers. The operation of pole-axing is, I think, to be preferred to knifing. It is, at all events, more instantaneous.

IV. **What is the treatment best suited for the breeding sow?**—Scientific breeders of stock know that if they would have strong, healthy, growable—if you'll permit me to make a word—animals, the dam must be well taken care of during the period of gestation. If common sense did not tell us this, we might learn as much from the lower animals; even such little hedge-grubbers as the dormouse and hedgehog are extra kind and extra attentive to their mates under these circumstances. I recommend the cottage or home farmer to buy a young sow for breeding purposes, and repeat, "one that has bred once before, and only once." He would thus be able to choose one that would be a certain breeder; he would avoid the trouble of the first litter, which is usually small and unprofitable, and he would also be able to get a sow that would farrow about the right time. For there is a right and a wrong time; a sow mated about the middle of April, say the 5th, will be due to farrow on the 25th of July, when the weather is fine; or, mated about the end of October, say the 25th, she will farrow on or about the 13th of February. A peep at the breeders' table in the *Live Stock Journal*, tells one the very day and date any animal is due to give birth to young, No home farmer should be without it. In choosing the times at which a sow will farrow, it will be observed then, that we try to avoid either extremes of heat or cold for the rearing of the young; but cold is more to be avoided than heat. The breeding sow having been mated, feed her for a few days on house-wash, whey, milk, or butter-milk, mixed with bran, pollard, and rice meal, or oat-meal. While in farrow the sow must neither get too fat nor be allowed to get too thin. Up to within a few days of farrowing she may be permitted as much freedom as possible, taking care, however, to guard her against the possibility of accident; for even a blow, or chasing her, may have bad results. If she has liberty, and is regularly and well-fed, there is little chance of her getting too fat, and the progeny will be healthy and strong, Four or five days before her time, put her into a sty by herself; give her a good bed of nice, dry, *short* straw, well made, and feed on soft food. After she has farrowed, see that she gets plenty of nutritious warm slops; milk, whey, wash mixed with meal, pollard, bran, boiled potatoes, and other garden roots, such as turnips, carrots, etc., is a nice mash. On the feeding of the dam now depends the flow of milk, and on the milk the strength of the litter. Keep her dry and well bedded, and never let her want for food—wholesome, nutritious, easily digested food. The young pigs will learn to eat with the mother before they are weaned; the actual time of weaning must be determined by circumstances, from six to nine weeks; too early weaning is objectionable, because unprofitable. After the young are weaned, the food for a week or so must be soft and warm, and nutritious; gradually leave off the warm, soft food, and give roots, etc.

V. **What is the cheapest and best plan for keeping pigs?**—I do well, I believe, to combine the

words "cheapest" and "best" in this question, for though the cheapest food is not always the best, the best is very often, if not invariably, the cheapest in the end. And we may say the same about housing and bedding. It is surely poor economy to keep a pig in a miserable, wet sty, and deprive it of good bedding; even if it continues free from disease in such a place, it will neither feed nor thrive so well. Let me, then, divide the question under consideration into the following heads, and say a word or two on each. 1. *Housing.* 2. *Pigs' troughs.* 3. *Bedding and tending.* 4. *Cleanliness.* 5. *Feeding.*

1. **Housing.**—The accommodation for a pig or sow consists in the sty or yard, and the shelter house, in which is the bed. The following is a description of a moveable piggery made by Messrs. Boulton & Paul. All the exterior is of corrugated iron, galvanized; framework of wood, painted. The house is covered with 1-inch rebated boards, floor of wood raised six inches above the ground. They are easily erected in a few minutes by any inexperienced person. No wall is required, the buildings being complete in themselves. Size, 5 feet wide, 11 feet deep, 3 feet 6 inches high to eaves, 5 feet to ridge." The price of the single sty is £6 15s., and the double is £12 10s., delivered free. This may seem expensive, only these sties last for ever almost. But if you erect a sty and piggery of your own, do so out of the strongest and best materials that come easiest to hand. This may be wood, or brick, or stone. The height of the sty about 3½ feet, with a good door to facilitate cleaning. The house proper should be thatched and water-tight; this will make it comfortable and also save the bedding. The door of the house should be roomy enough but not too much so; a swing flap may be fixed at the top, which the pig can push either in or out. This should only come down about half-way; it renders the house cooler in summer and more snug in winter. The door of the house should be well to one side and not in the centre. The house should have a good floor of cement. Cement would also be better than bricks for the floor of the sty, but is rather more expensive. Both floors should slope downwards, and there ought to be a small covered cesspool to receive the water. This is simply a little cemented well, and should be frequently emptied. The water will do well for a variety of purposes in the garden—wherever, in fact, liquid manure is required.

2. **Pigs' Troughs.**—Economy, genuine economy, will be studied in getting good ones. By all means make them if you can; but if you have more than one pig to feed make them with divisions, so that the bigger pigs may not be able to rebuff their smaller brethren.

3. **Bedding and Tending.**—If you have many pigs and actually go into the business of making money by them, I think the possession of a boil-house would be advantageous; or a boiler could be built in the usual way in any out-house. What is called a built-in boiler is very handy for many purposes about a small home farm; or you may invest in one of Messrs. Boulton & Paul's portable boilers, the fifteen-gallon size, with plain boiler, costs £2 14s. But whether you have a boil-house or not, the pig or pigs must be fed with regularity, if profits are expected to be reaped. As to bedding, no animal enjoys its comforts better than a pig does, and if it has not a warm, snug bed, it will not thrive nor feed so well. Straw is the best kind of bedding, but any dry stuff will do so long as it makes up warm.

4. **Cleanliness.**—An *unclean* animal, according to the old Jewish dispensation, the pig *is*—but certainly not an *uncleanly* animal. The veriest cockney who ever glanced into a pigsty, could not help remarking that the pig was most careful in its habits. Well, I say that not only the sleeping or shelter-house, but the sty itself should be kept clean and dry. I cannot bear

to see the creature wading about knee-deep in filth and slime, with its trough half sunk in the same mess. Clean the sty out regularly, and throw all kinds of dry garden refuse in to make a comfortable place for it. Brushing with a dandy-brush or washing in summer is good for a pig, though I know that few to whom I recommend such porcine attention will take the trouble to follow my advice.

5. **Feeding.**—Now comes the tug of war. For if we cannot feed our pig or pigs cheaply and well, our profits will be *nil*. We have no lack of variety, but, nevertheless, we should choose that—if it be good—which comes easiest and most cheaply to hand. As with the feeding of poultry, so with pigs, the stuff that is cheap enough to-day may be higher in price in a week's time, so we ought to notice the state of the markets, and never let a chance slip. Pigs ought to be well fed, but there should never be any waste—no extravagance. Nor should food be left in the trough to get sour. It is only a too common plan to throw or empty the fresh food into the leavings of the last meal, from one month's end to another. There is no reason why the trough should not be rinsed out occasionally at all events. Pigs ought to be fed, as I have already said, with regularity, and three times a day. I have mentioned the boiler, and it is only necessary to add that cooked food is better for pigs than raw stuff; and, if one keeps many pigs, the boiler should be always on. Into it should go all kinds of green garden refuse, cabbage or kale leaves, potato parings, small potatoes, turnip parings, kitchen refuse, and all kinds of roots that can be spared. This pigs' broth can be thickened with farinaceous stuff of any kind, pollard, bran, damaged rice or grain, mill-sweepings, etc., and a handful or two of salt. The contents of the swill-pails of hotels can usually be had cheaply enough, and is a very valuable addition to the food of the pig. I have only space to mention a few of the many things that are used in the feeding of pigs, but *verbum sap.* 1. **Dairy Refuse.**—This is very excellent; it includes sour milk, butter-milk, whey, and skim milk. Use this as fresh as possible. Mix it with meal or pollard, etc. 2. **The Washings from the Kitchen.**—This should be used in the same way, or may be thrown into the boiler and thickened. 3. **Turnips and Potatoes.**—The former may be given raw, but not the latter, and both are better cooked. It is the small potatoes, of course, and the diseased ones that are given to pigs; but the latter should not be actually rotten, nor anything near it. 4. **Other Roots** are carrots, parsnips, kohl rabbi, and mangolds. N.B.—In making a mash of boiled roots, with meal, etc., be sure to break down all the lumps before giving it to the pigs. 5. **Grains.**—There are wheat, peas, beans, oats, rice, maize, etc., made into meal. 6. **Green Foods** include cabbage, turnip-tops, or the green tops of any garden vegetable—clover, prickly comfrey, nettles, and grass. 7. **Other Oddments** are the haulm of potatoes, peas, or beans; the fallen fruit from the orchards, chopped straw, leaves of various kinds, and brewers' grains. If pigs are turned out to a paddock, a roadside, or fields, they will find and eat a deal of stuff that will tend to make them grow well and keep them healthy. This saves the food they eat in sty. Pigs, too, that are rather roughly fed, and have had plenty of liberty, take to fattening more kindly. Pigs are fattened either for the market or for show, and grain meals, of which barley and pea-meal are reckoned the best, are used for this purpose, with milk and whey, etc. In addition to barley-meal, give oatmeal, Indian corn, and boiled potatoes.

6. **Are pigs hardy, and what ailments are they subject to?** There are some breeds, such as the Berkshire, the Suffolk, or Norfolk, as well as certain crosses, which are notably hardy. They are subject to a good many ailments; but the proverb, "prevention is better than cure," should never be forgotten by pig-owners. Nearly

all the ailments of pigs are brought about by carelessness and irregularity in feeding, or by the lack of general attention to their bedding and comforts. The pig suffers at times from several species of skin diseases, as mange, measles, scrofula, etc., and these are either the results of neglect or of overfeeding. In any case, where a pig is observed to be ailing, it is undoubtedly the best and the cheapest plan to call in the aid of a veterinary surgeon.

DOMESTIC PETS.

Dogs. I. The Dog in Health.—No one should purchase a dog or puppy without first learning how to feed and treat him. A thorough knowledge of dogs need not be waited for, but it is cruelty to keep dogs in a perpetual state of experiment and feed them with the eccentric inconsistencies of ignorance. Within present limits anything like an exhaustive treatise on dogs is of course impossible, and all that can be attempted here is a few hints dictated by experience which will be found useful to beginners, the reader being referred to more extended works on dogs for specialities of treatment.

Hints worth remembering.—1. *Breed.*—A well-bred dog costs no more to keep than a mongrel, and is a credit to one. 2. *Training.*—If possible, keep the dog indoors, he will become more wise and faithful. Take great pains, when he is young, to teach him cleanliness. But never lose your temper. 3. *Bed.*—Let him have a regular place to sleep in; an old sack or a piece of canvas always put in the same place makes an excellent bed. Never put his bed in a cellar, or on a brick floor. Do not coddle him too much nor permit him to lie on a sofa. The jacket will not keep on if you do so. 4. *Out-door Accommodation.*—Out of door dogs are often chained to a kennel. They are thus often neglected, and do not get enough exercise. The cage kennel and den, advertised in *The Stock Keeper*, is the best for out-door dogs. 5. *Out-door Bedding.*—The bedding for out-door dogs should be of the cleanest of oat or wheat straw, and frequently changed, so that it shall always be dry. 6. *Drink.*—Clean water in abundance is most essential to the health of all dogs, whether indoor or out. 7. *Cleanliness.*—Rinse the drinking utensil out before you fill it. Place it well out of the sun in summer and see that it does not get frozen in winter. 8. *Food.*—As a staple of diet you cannot better Spratt's Biscuits. They are pure and good. The writer has often dined on one himself when he could get nothing else, at a dog-show in the country for instance. Some dogs will eat them dry and this is best. But most dogs like them steeped, and squeezed perfectly well up in the dish. Add to this sheep's-head broth and the flesh of the head—this is for large dogs. The scraps from the table with vegetables, potatoes and gravy will do for small dogs. All dogs should have well-mashed green vegetables, mixed with the food, once in two days. Give a larger amount of broth and meat on these days. 9. *Regularity in Feeding.*—This is most essential. A dog in good health should have breakfast at 8.30, and dinner at 5 p.m. Picks between meals tend to fatten too much. Milk and bread should be given frequently as a change. Large bones to gnaw do good, but fowl and game bones are highly dangerous, so are fish bones. 10. *Exercise.*—Immediately after each meal a dog should have a good run. It does the master good as well as the dog. Exercise in abundance is most essential to the animal's well-being. It should be regular and romping. Every dog ought to have balls and toys to play with. 11. *Washing.*—The dog should be washed about once a fortnight. A small dog may be put in a tub of warm (not too hot) water, and well lathered and washed with the best and mildest soap; a large dog must stand beside the tub. The water is poured over the hand that works the soap. Tie the animal up and begin just behind the skull, washing gradually

and well towards the tail. Then rinse out with warm water, no soap suds being left in the coat. Next, and last, wash the head. Do not do this first, because the dog will shake himself. Do not let the water get into the ears. Last of all, give a bucket bath of cold water, then a bit of palatable food, and next a run. Of course you must dry the coat perfectly first with several towels. After he has had a run on the grass, turn him into his kennel and he will go to sleep. 12. *Grooming.*—If wise you will brush and comb your dog's coat every day after breakfast. This grooming tends to keep him healthy and clean. 13. *Beware of Draughts* in winter. A draughty kennel is a dangerous one, and I repeat that the dog's bed must be perfectly dry, if disease is to be avoided. 14. *Disinfecting.*—About once a month, a dog's kennel should be scrubbed and disinfected with fluid sanitas. No strong-smelling disinfectant should be used such as chloride of lime or carbolic. Besides, both these are poisonous. 15. *Cleanliness.*—Not only should his skin be kept sweet and clean and odourless, but his dishes as well, and all his surroundings. 16. *House Dogs.*—The best dogs for guards are Mastiffs, St. Bernards, Great Danes, Newfoundlands, and Bulldogs. 17. *Ladies' Pets* are Pugs, Seps, King Charlies, Blenheims, Italian grey-hounds, Maltese, etc. 18. *Dogs wise and teachable* are Collies, Poodles, Newfoundlands, St. Bernards, and Setters. 19. *Show Dogs.*—If you want show dogs, you must get the best of strains from the best and most honest of breeders. It is best to get a good bitch pup, and breed from some splendid champion. 20. *Getting rid of Puppies and old Dogs.*—I have continually recommended giving chloral hydrate syrup in water to old dogs, enough to make them fall very sound asleep, and then to chloroform; but it is perhaps best to be guided by a well-informed vet.

II. The Dog when ill.—When you see your friend moping about with dry nose, and out of spirits, he is really out of sorts; give a dose, according to size, of castor oil and buckshorn. Any chemist can prepare you this. Or some of Spratt's remedies. Let the dog out to the grass. He will probably eat some, and, either as a vomit or an aperient, it will do him good. If the nose is hot, let him rest all he can. If he eats no better send for the most skilful vet. you know, for there are vets. *and* vets. The present writer has written several treatises on diseases of dogs. One, useful though brief, is to be found in "Our Friend the Dog" (Dean and Son).

The Cat.—For full information concerning the cat in health or in sickness the reader must refer to larger works; the following hints, however, will be found useful. 1. *Regular Feeding.*—Cats must be regularly fed at least twice a day; and with no stinted hand either. Never forget your pussy's saucer at meal-times. They need plenty of solid scraps from the table as well as milk. Feed her last thing at night, just something tasty though not much. This gives her the habit of coming in at night. Then keep her in. Depend upon it a cat does herself no good by hanging about at night, and she is sure to fall into mischief and danger as well. A little boiled lights and cat's meat is good food, for they must have a portion of flesh, but porridge and milk or bread and milk are also good, so is potato. Almost every cat has different fancies, and these should be pandered to. Change of diet is necessary to both cat and dog. 2. *Water.*—This should always be placed in a place where she can find it, and I need hardly say she will not drink it if dusty or dirty. 3. *Teaching Kittens Cleanliness.*—You must have a box of garden earth in a corner of the room. The wee kitten may have to be carried thither a time or two at first, but she will soon take to it, and afterwards she will prefer going out to the garden. Keep the earth in the box always clean. 4. *Freedom.*—Unlike dogs, although cats have thrown in their lot with mankind, they object to have their freedom

curtailed, and no attempt should be made to do so, except by keeping them in at night. If well fed and tenderly cared for, they will not abuse the liberty granted them. 5. *Honesty.*—Cats when well treated are honest. It is a very great mistake to imagine they are thieves by nature. People make them so, however, by thoughtless treatment and starvation. Mind this: a hungry cat makes a very indifferent mouser. 6. *Training.*—Cats can be taught a great variety of tricks. But remember the first thing is to teach them to love you. And love begets love. If you cannot love cats, don't keep them.

Song Birds.—1. **The Canary.**—This bird is king of our caged song birds in this country. His notes are thrilling, sweet, and varied, he is good-tempered, always cheerful when properly fed and when well, and he is very affectionate and loving towards master or mistress. 2. **The Single or song Canary.**—This is the real songster or bachelor bird, who never went in search of a wife because he never had the chance, and is content to live for the love of a master or mistress. 3. *Treatment.*—All that is needed to keep such a bird happy and well, is strict attention to the following items:—A. Regular feeding. B. Pure soft water (filtered) daily. C. Food: one part of summer rape and two of canary seed. D. A sunshine bath in fine weather if not too hot. N.B.—Part of the cage should be covered over, so that the bird may choose sunshine or shade. E. A water bath sometimes. F. Cleanliness of cage—a daily duty. G. Cleanliness of food, and regularity in feeding. The seed must never be dusty. H. No dainties, except perhaps a tiny morsel of bread and butter, a small slice of pear or ripe apple, and the traditional lump of sugar. I. Green food—lettuce leaf, chickweed, groundsel, and ripe seeded plantain. K. Pure sand and gravel in the cage. L. Avoidance of draughts and cold at night. M. Cover the cage up at night in cold weather. That, then, is the canary's alphabet, so far as it goes, and the hints are well worth remembering. 4. **British Birds.**—Many of these are kept in cages in our own country. The general rules of treatment are much on the same lines as those for the canary, only of course the food varies with the different sorts. The following are a few of the more common. **Blackbirds.**—Big roomy cage, paper in bottom and gravel, and a turf often changed. German paste, worms, slugs, insects, minced meat, and ripe fruit. **Bullfinches.**—A big roomy cage, plenty of pure water and clean gravel. Canary seed, rape, oat grits, a little lettuce seed and now and then a very little hemp. All kinds of green food and seedy weeds. **Chaffinches.**—Same treatment as bullfinch. **Crows, Jackdaws, Choughs and Magpies** are all treated and fed on the same lines. The larger the cage the better, and they should have plenty of freedom. If they have they generally manage to pick up most of their own food, especially if they have the run of the garden. In cage, the best food is a paste of pea-meal made with boiling water and a little sugar; bread and milk; table scraps of any kind; bones to pick, potatoes to hole, garden worms, etc. These birds are very far indeed from being dainty. **Goldfinches.**—Fed and treated as the bullfinch. **Jays.**—Fed and treated like the magpie. **Larks** are happy enough in cages if singing is anything to go by. Feed on German paste, stale buns broken small; bruised hemp-seed; bruised oats; scraped beef; garden worms; meal worms, etc. The cage ought to be higher than it generally is, and a fresh turf should be placed in the cage every second day. Plenty of fresh water, gravel, and green food. **Linnets.**—Canary, lint, and rape seeds. Plenty of water and green food. **Thrushes**—Big cage. Paste of pea-meal and milk; bread and milk; raw minced meat; fruit in summer; snails, etc. A stone on which to break the snails. Take this advice in conclusion, and pray teach it to younger folks: never purchase or accept a pet of any kind until you have first learned how to feed and treat it,

so that it shall be healthy, contented, and happy.

Pigeons.—Before one makes purchase of pigeons, or thinks of getting stock, he ought to know something about their daily wants and needs, and he should have the loft or dove-cot ready, and everything needful about it. **Dove-Cots.**—The simplest form of dove-cot is either a box with compartments made triangular shape or square, and with sloping roof, to be fastened with strong iron supports against a wall—preferably with a southern or south-western exposure. If the roof of the cot be flat, it should project a little all round, and slope to the back. The cot should be fastened to the wall by the sides with iron stanchions, and also supported at the bottom. It should be of hard wood, and kept clean. A small shovel and a triangular scraper will be found handy in effecting this. The dove-cot, if made double, can be erected on a pole in the garden, and made to look very nice if prettily painted; or one of the cottage or temple-shaped dove-cots will serve this purpose. Allow the birds plenty of room, for room and health go together. No pair of birds must see the other pairs. They must be effectually divided off in pairs by partitions which should extend to the platforms in front of the houses. They must be protected from cats, too. This is easily done by an arrangement of galvanized iron netting. In dove-cots pigeons will live and thrive very well, indeed; they can be fed twice or thrice a day; and they will come down to take a pick with the fowls. Sometimes they are all too tame. They will find water for themselves; but they ought not to have to seek food.

Pigeon-Lofts.—The more fancy breeds of pigeons are valuable, and fetch good prices in the market, especially if show birds; they therefore need to be housed in a proper pigeon-loft, or they may fly away or be trapped by pigeon thieves. There is no more delightful fancy in the world than that of keeping good pigeons; only it is a great tie. Pigeons in dove-cots can, to a great extent, look after themselves. A loft wants regular attention and care, and unless you have someone you can thoroughly depend upon, you can scarcely go from home with an easy mind. If you wish to keep very valuable pigeons in a loft, and you can't trust your neighbours, and far less your neighbours' cats, a wire flight must be constructed, which they can enter from the loft by day at pleasure, and have fresh air, exercise, and sunlight, without the chance of escaping. Any small unused loft, if it be clean, or can be made so, can be used for the pigeons' room, or the corner of a larger loft can be boarded off, a *sine quâ non* being that it must have light and ventilation, and be free from draught. To secure this let a piece of perforated zinc into the partition, or let it take the place of one of the panes of glass in the window.

The Pigeonry.—As good a place as pigeons can be bred in is the garden or out-door pigeonry. This is simply a wooden house with a wooden or asphalted floor, rain proof and rat proof, with a southern aspect and an aviary or wired flight in front, double the size of the house. About six feet at the eaves would be high enough, the living house being eight feet square; floor of the flight, cement, or bricks spread over with cement. Let there be a gate at one end of the flight, and the door to the house should open from this flight. The nesting-shelves, with their earthenware pans for nests, front you as you enter, two, three, four or more in number, divided into compartments for each pair. The shelves should be a foot broad or more, and each compartment about fourteen inches high and eighteen long. The nesting-pan may be placed behind a small wooden screen. A more elaborate arrangement is to have nesting-boxes. These are simply somewhat smaller compartments on the shelves, with a front having a hole in it for the entrance of the bird, to shut up lid fashion. In front of the hole should be a foot-board for the pigeon. But after all, simplicity is best. On the

other two sides of the living house are fixed perches or pegs for the birds to roost upon. They must not stand one right over the other, or if they do they must be protected by a bit of sloping board, so that the droppings of one pigeon may not soil the feathers of another. From an ordinary seed-hopper the birds can feed without soiling or wasting the grain. A drinking fountain is another requisite, or rather, necessary of life. A bath is much relished, and may be placed on the cement floor of the aviary or flight. Any shallow dish such as a milk-pan will do for the bath.

Pigeons' Food.—Birds kept in a dove-cot on the wall have, of course, their liberty, and pick up a deal of their own food; but a handful or two of grain should be given every morning, and also at night. This tends to keep them healthy and strong. For the regular pigeon-loft or garden pigeonry, peas and tick beans may form the principal food; but this ought to be varied, for change of diet is essential to the health of all animals. Indian-corn is a good change of diet; so is Indian millet or dari, when it can be got. Then there is barley and rice and paddy, and tares. The peas should not be too old. On the other hand, if too new, they are apt to give diarrhœa. Give a little green food in summer; and now and then soft food, in the shape of steeped bread, boiled grains, boiled potatoes, etc., should be given. During the breeding season the food should be less hard. Give fewer beans, and more peas, barley, and wheat. In cold weather, a handful or two of hemp may be given, and any other of the ordinary bird-seeds. Hemp is fattening and stimulating, it must be remembered, but there is little chance of much of it being used, as it is dearer than other food. Pigeons thrive best that have access to a mixture of gravel, sand, and salt, with some lime from old walls. Put this in a stone hopper by itself. It generally goes by the name of "salt-cat." The water should be given fresh every morning, and the fountain rinsed out at the same time. A bath will be relished every day, except in very cold weather, when it might do harm. But, for either the bath or the fountain, pure soft water is better than hard. Disease is often bred by giving the latter constantly for drinking purposes. The pigeonry or loft should be cleaned out every day, in the morning, at feeding time. Nothing is more likely to breed illness among pigeons than damp, filth, and bad smells. **Salt-cat** is made from sandy gravel, mortar from old walls, slaked lime, of each a pint; cumin seeds and carraway seeds mixed, three ounces; bay-salt, five ounces; made into a stiff paste with brine.

The Care of Pigeons.—The most ordinary and every-day enemies of pigeons are cats, rats, and mice. Bad smells are terrible foes to the pigeon-loft. They generate in the loft, and they come creeping in from out-of-doors or rooms beneath, as well. Damp is another dreadful foe, a foe that allies itself with cold in the winter and with heat in the summer, and is equally fatal during both seasons. Dust is still another; and there is one more, a far more fatal one than all the others put together. It is the scourge of large kennels. It breeds disease and death alike in the fish-pond, the poultry-run, the rabbitry, and the pigeon-loft and that is overcrowding. The lower animals themselves object instinctively to overcrowding, and their wish to be free and always at liberty is a sign of the working of that wonderful law which has for its main object the preservation of species. **Disinfection of pigeonries.**—To begin with, the pigeon-loft should be kept as much as possible in such a condition that disinfectants shall be to some extent not required. Pure air and freedom from dust, damp, and filth, will keep sickness at bay, but not always. Wherever creatures are together, even when not overcrowded, germs fatal to their existence are afloat in the air, ready to attack them when weakened in any way. But it is not the strong, but the weak, that are attacked by disease spores.

Keep the heart healthfully beating, and the blood pure, by giving abundance of wholesome food, and your disease germ will no more settle on a vital part than a fly could on a rushing stream; but lower the vitality for an hour by cold or hunger, and the germ speedily spies its opportunity. Therefore the use of disinfectants to kill germs is greatly to be recommended. If you want to disinfect a loft very thoroughly, sulphurous acid gas can be employed; but the loft could not be occupied safely by the pigeons for twenty-four hours after. This plan is very thorough, and does excellently well about twice a year, the birds being put elsewhere till the work is completed. You simply close doors and windows, and burn brimstone in a saucer, supported by a pair of old tongs, over a bucket of water, for fear of fire. When the room is finally cleared of the fumes, scrubbing with hot water and carbolic soap, and lime-washing, should be done, and the pigeons put back when all is sweet. Chlorine gas, however produced, is dangerous to the lungs of pigeons. Chloride of lime has the same objection, besides it always leaves a certain amount of dampness behind it. Carbolic acid is poisonous, so should not be used on floors or shelves; but perches, and the roofs and doors, and woodwork of windows, may be washed periodically—say once a week, with a solution: a wineglassful in a pint bottle of water; and for stairs or ladders, leading to pigeon-lofts, carbolic-acid solution is just the thing. But water well reddened with permanganate of potash may be sprinkled about the loft, and so may that sweet odored disinfectant called "sanitas." There is also a sanitas soap, which may be used for many purposes. The sawdust in nest pans is sometimes sprinkled with turps, to keep down vermin. I think if the plan were adopted of steeping the sawdust, to be used for the nests, in strong quassia water, and afterwards drying it, no vermin would exist in it.

Pigeons' Ailments.—Pigeons are liable to a few ailments, but nearly every one of them may be prevented by judicious management and cleanliness. It is well, however, to have a hospital pen. Some make this the top shelf of the nesting department, and wire it in for that purpose. It is better to have it quite removed from the pigeon-loft, and to remove any ailing bird at once to it. Pigeons mope when ill, retire into corners, and sit huddled up, refuse food and the bath. When any or all of these symptoms show themselves, it is time to take the bird in hand, if you mean to try to save it. The following are a few of the more common ailments. **Going light,** as it is called by pigeon-fanciers, is a wasting disease, which may attack old birds or even squeekers. It is caused sometimes by the deposition of tubercle in some of the vital organs, or by inflammation of the bowels. There is wasting and lightness of the bird, and generally diarrhœa. It is a disease that sometimes admits of no cure, and it is so common among fancy pigeons that it has been called by some, "pigeon distemper." I recommend that the bird should have about two grains of chlorate of potash in a little water, three times a day, for the first two days; afterwards, if there be diarrhœa, laudanum from two to five drops, three or four times a day, according to the extent of the discharge. Keep everything about the bird perfectly clean, and feed on oatmeal draggled with milk; quinine might be tried with advantage, or quinine and cod-liver oil. **Diarrhœa** is common among pigeons. Stop the green food for a time, give a capsule of castor oil, put plenty of old lime about the loft; and as medicine, give laudanum, as in "going light," but give also double the number of drops of tincture of rhubarb, mixing the whole in camphor-water instead of in plain water. **Constipation** is just the reverse of diarrhœa. Sometimes hard water will give it. The water for the pigeon-loft ought to be pure and soft. A little castor oil is the safest remedy, but this will not effect a complete cure, unless the food be changed, and a larger allowance of green-stuff given. **Egg-bound**

—Hen birds, that had been paired too early in the season while the weather is still cold, or who suffer from weakness of any kind, often suffer from inability to part with the egg. This is called *Egg-bound*, for simplicity's sake, pigeon-fanciers not being very learned nosologically. Give a teaspoonful of warm treacle, as recommended by Mr. L. Wright, and add thereto a pinch of glauber salts and a little well-minced groundsel. This is a valuable aperient in the commencement of many illnesses in pigeons. To give more immediate relief, an oiled feather may be used, and the parts held over the steam of hot water. The male bird should be separated from the female till the egg is laid. As egg-bound is a sign of weakness, it stands to reason that the bird suffering should be fed for a week or two on a more generous diet. **Colds** are known by the bird taking a running about the eyes and nostrils. Put it at once in the hospital pen, in a warm place, where, although the bird may have sunshine and fresh air, it may be quite free from draughts. Give the aperient I recommended for "egg-bound." Feed on soft nutritious diet, give a few drops of paregoric three times a day, a little castor oil once at least, and bathe the head with warm water, slightly reddened with the permanganate of potash. **Canker** is the name given to growth about the mouth, the head or throat. Give the syrup of the hypophosphate of iron, in doses of five drops, three or four times a day; let the bird have plenty of fresh green food, and soft wholesome nutritious diet. If the canker is about the mouth or throat, touch it three times a day with a camel's hair pencil dipped in the following antiseptic and astringent application: tincture of iron and glycerine, of each half an ounce; pure carbolic acid, one dram; mix well. If the growth is about the head, the same treatment will be successful, but it should be touched occasionally with nitrate of silver. Keep the pigeon clean, and everything around it sweet and clean, using Condy's fluid, or water reddened with permanganate of potash, as a disinfectant. For **inflammation of the eyes** nothing is needed except cleanliness, bathing frequently with warm water, and using a lotion of five grains of alum or two of the nitrate of silver to an ounce of distilled water.

The Breeds of Pigeons.—In keeping pigeons it is obviously better to gain experience by keeping the hardiest and less expensive kinds first. **Tumblers** for instance, are most shapely birds, pert and pretty, and of all colours. They are possessed of good constitutions, and give little trouble in breeding. A flight of tumbling pigeons is a beautiful sight to watch, especially if you have different coloured birds. The mottles or rosewing, and the saddle-backs or magpie-coloured tumblers, are both very nice. Tumbling pigeons get many names; according to their performances, some are "tipplers," some are "rollers," some can hardly rise off the ground without tumbling, and are called "ground tumblers;" others are high-flying birds, and these are the best. They are usually let out in the morning, before they are fed. They thus come back all the sooner. But to get up a really good flight of tumbling pigeons is a matter that takes both time and care. Like keeping homing-pigeons, going in for tumblers is quite a fancy in itself. **Pouters** are another nice breed of pigeon to go in for. They fly very prettily, too; are charming in colour, graceful in shape, and, when well trained, exceedingly amusing. The successful breeding and training of pouters is another branch of the fancy. **Carriers** are very favourite pigeons with a great many people, and great pains is taken to breed them up to the proper standard. These birds must not be confounded with the letter-carrying pigeon of the present day—the homing-pigeon, Antwerp carrier, or Belgian voyageur, or whatever name it may happen to go by. The Carrier pigeon proper is simply a show bird, characterised by elegance of shape and enormous development of beak-wattle and eye-wattle. It should have a long, flat, narrow head, a prominent eye, long

neck, and great symmetry of shape. They are not very tame birds, but pay well to keep for show purposes. They are of great variety of colour. The real carrying-pigeon is a much more humble-looking bird than either of these named. It is called the **Homer**, the **Belgian Voyageur**, the **Antwerp**, the **Carrier**, etc., etc., and its performances are often wonderful. In France it is not uncommon to see from five hundred to a thousand or more of these birds thrown up at one time. **Jacobins** are very great favourites with fanciers in general. In body they approach somewhat the shape of the Tumbler, but are slimmer and closer in feather withal. Their great beauty, in the breeder's eye, consists in a well-developed hood. The upper part of this comes quite up to the eye, while the lower curves downwards and backwards. The centre part is called the "rose." These birds are not, as a rule, delicate. They are therefore easily reared, although what judges would term perfection is seldom arrived at. In the **Trumpeter** we have quite a wonderful bird, one that would suit boy readers well. In shape not unlike a Tumbler. It has feathered legs and feet, long loose body feathers, and a rose and crest, which, like a Highlander's "braid bannet," often comes so far over the eyes as to prevent sight. The voice is charming and very peculiar. It requires to be heard to be duly appreciated. **The Satinette** is a most beautiful frilled pigeon, with feathered legs, sometimes with plain head, at other times it is peaked. In colour it stands by white, with black and pink-brown on shoulders; that is, the ground colour is a kind of pinky-brown, with a lacing or edging of black. **Dragoons**, or dragons, and horsemen pigeons, are nearly allied to the carriers. **Fantails** are very beautiful and taking pigeons, that can be bred either in the loft or dove-cot. They are of many different colours, and either self-coloured or marked. Some fanciers go in for breeding pigeons of beautiful colours and curious markings, and of these the varieties are endless—nuns, magpies, turbits, swallows, etc.; others for what are called high-class pigeons, the breeding of which presents a good deal of difficulty, and takes time, study, and care. Trumpeters, barbs, turbits, and owls, for instance, must be very perfect in their points and properties to be of much real value. **Breeding Pigeons.** Buy birds, of really good strain, from really good men. Good men exhibit, and win with their stock. It is very easy to get a glance at such a paper as the *Live Stock Journal*, and find out when some great show is to be held; if you cannot attend it yourself, you can send stamps for a catalogue with the prizes marked. You thus find out who are the most successful men, and with them there is little difficulty in entering into correspondence. But creep before you walk into the pigeon fancy, and get something, as good as possible, if it be only one pair to begin with. Do not expect to succeed as a breeder all at once; if you do so, you will be disappointed. Breed for love for a time, and depend upon it your birds will pay you in the end. One of the rules of breeding recognized by stock-keepers of all sorts is this: in pairing do not match two that have the same kind of faults. A hen, for instance, with too much white should be mated to a cock with very little, if any. Let your birds be young, strong, and healthy, and strive to learn the kind and quality of the strain from which they are descended, not forgetting that all animals are likely to throw back to their ancestors. A pigeon may in itself be in all points and properties about perfect, it will thus become a show-bird and prize-winner; if, however, it be not of a truly good strain, it will not beget good stock with any degree of certainty. This proves the value of pedigree, and the wisdom of getting first stock from some really good breeder. Again, having got stock of your own, be most careful only to keep the best. To match a pair of pigeons you ought to put them in contiguous pens for a

day or two, not turning them in together till they are acquainted. In a week or two after matching has been made, the first egg will be laid, and it is as well to remove this until the second is laid, which will be early in the afternoon of the third day. Eighteen days after this the young will be hatched, and poor, helpless, little fluffy things they are at first, but in about a week the feathers show well, and they grow rapidly. The young ones are nearly always a cock and a hen. The parents feed the young, but they should themselves be supplied with softish peas and other food. Sometimes feeders are required for the more delicate and high-class pigeons, these are generally chosen from stronger kinds of the same shape of head. Sometimes the squeekers are fed from the mouth of the breeder, with chewed milk biscuit. This is necessary when they are not doing well, but it is questionable after all, if weaklings like those, that need this attention, are really worth keeping. Breeding commences about March, and it should be made to finish by the first week in September. There should be no more pairing after August. It is well then to separate the cocks from the hens, for a time, at least. The young birds, as soon as they can feed themselves, had better be removed to a place away from among the breeding birds.

All the year round in the Pigeon loft. January.—As good a month as any to begin going in for the pigeon fancy. Buy a book on pigeons, and read it carefully up in the evenings, taking notes of the advice therein given. Study the points and properties of the different breeds, and make up your mind what sort you ought to take up. Towards the end of the month, begin and get up your loft. Buy wire-work, nails, wood, etc., with hoppers for food, and dishes for water. Not till everything is complete and perfect are you to think of buying stock. If you have already a pigeon-loft, be particular about its dryness and cleanliness. Add new birds to it, if you want them for breeding; but clear out all useless ones, lest you get overstocked, and disease breaks out. Do not keep weakly ones on any account.

February.—Mating season not begun yet; but think about and make up your mind what birds you ought to pair. Make your purchases accordingly. See that your loft is in every way perfect. The boxes for grains should be mice-proof, and utensils quite whole. If any repairs are to be made, do not delay a day. If you have any birds in the loft that will not be likely to pay their footing, get rid of them somehow—anyhow. Beware of damp and cold. Be sparing in the use of green food, but do not neglect giving a little.

March.—If the weather be favourable, you may match your birds about the middle of the month. Use sawdust for the nesting-pans. Mate only strong, healthy birds. Beware of having too many in one place. Do not forget gravel, lime, and salt-cat. Peat earth may be put on the floor, but not near the water-pans.

April.—Feed the loft with great regularity and care, giving the birds the best grey peas, with a little mixture of rice and millet. Dari is also good and wholesome. Keep the hoppers well supplied, for the pigeons may want to eat in the morning before you are abroad. Let there be an abundance of gravel, old lime, etc., on the floor. The young will now be coming. See that they look properly fed. Keep the loft as quiet as possible, and beware of cats and vermin of all kinds.

May.—Still more young will be coming. See that they are well fed. See that the old birds still have abundance. They have the lives of the young depending on them, so actually eat about double allowance. Have a look round the wire-work of your aviary occasionally. Cats have strong teeth, and get through a very small hole. Beware of damp, and see that the food you give the birds is clean and free from dust.

June.—Summer begins this month, and the weather may be hot. Extra

attention will therefore be needed as regards cleanliness of all the pigeons' surroundings. The water should never be allowed to get in the least tainted or foul. It should be pure, soft water —this is better than hard—and should be changed every day. The bath now becomes a necessity of comfort, if not life, with the birds; but put it where they will not make a slop. Give wheat, barley, grey peas, good tick-beans, and do not forget a supply of wholesome green food.

July.—Continue summer feeding. Continue to give daily allowance of pure water. Do not forget the salt-cat. Let fresh sawdust be frequently put under the young birds, but do so without disturbing them much. The weather this month may be very hot. Care should be taken to have the loft well ventilated, and an awning of some kind should be spread over a portion of the flight.

August.—Beware of overcrowding. So, to avoid it, begin to thin out. Sell, if you can. If not, you will have an opportunity of tasting pigeon-pie of your own rearing. The remarks on last month hold good for this. Breeding will still be going on, but towards the end of the month it should finish. Look out for cases of illness, and treat them at once. Old lime is a good preventive of diarrhœa. Scatter it about the floor.

September.—The weather will now be changeable, and disease is apt to prevail. Prevention is better than cure, so we must attend in every way to the comfort of the loft. Separate cocks from hens now. Continue to weed and thin out the loft. Keep the best, or those likely to make good show-birds.

October.—This month thinning out should be continued. Particular attention should be given to your old birds that are moulting. Watch still for cases of illness, especially colds and canker. Keep the loft dry and sweet. Begin winter repairs. Make a regular overhaul of the loft—cleaning, disinfecting, and whitewashing. Clear out the grain-bins, and scrub, wash, and dry them. Feed well.

November.—Consider what additions are needed to the loft in the shape of either more space, extra flights, or additional blood, that is, new strains. Consult your notebook, and see what progress you have made in the fancy, or whether your hobby is likely to be remunerative or the reverse. Continue to feed liberally, and keep the loft clean. Bad smells, dust, and damp, will breed disease, either summer or winter.

December.—It will not be too early now to begin to consider breeding arrangements for the ensuing season. There are plenty of shows about now. Visit some of them, by all means, and pick up all the information possible; but you need not believe all you hear. Feed well. A handful or two of hemp is a great treat for birds in cold or frosty weather. See that there are no draughts in the loft; but judicious ventilation and disinfection is as important for the health of your pigeons now as it was in July.

Rabbits. The Common Rabbit-hutch is simply a box, with a double floor, the upper one being a grating that draws out to be cleaned, and to enable the owner to clean the hutch thoroughly. It has a door in the front on one side, which is well ventilated, or is altogether a grating or composed of galvanized iron mesh-work. This is all that is needed for the buck's hutch. For the hutch of the doe, however, there should be a sliding partition, with a hole in it, making a dark inner room for the convenience of the mother when she has young ones. The fittings for the hutch are simple enough, and consist of a little rack for hay, which some breeders do not bother with, and the food dishes. The dish for water may stand out in the yard. Indeed, rabbits seldom touch water, and, when they have juicy green food, there is but little need of it. It is well, however, to let them have water, where they can get it if they choose. Dishes are of all sorts and sizes; they should be so constructed as to give a good chance to all the rabbits in the hutch to feed at once, without annoying each other; and they

should be solid in foundation, or the bunnies will capsize them, and destroy more food than they eat. The hutches should be made to slope either backwards or forwards on the roof, to let the rain run off. *Ventilation* must be seen to, and carried out on scientific principles. To put it more simply and plainly, there should be no draught from an open hole or gap. The holes for ventilation should be either over the door or in the sides, and high up, and covered with perforated zinc. Rabbits must be kept warm, though not necessarily hot. They must be protected from damp whether the damp is of their own making, or from leakage. Attention to the construction of the hutch, and frequent repairs if wanted, will prevent leakage; and perfect cleanliness and regular change of bedding will make the hutch as warm and dry as the bed of a wild bunny in a bank in its native hills or woods. **Moveable Hutches** are excellent for summer. They give the rabbits constant change of ground, and thus avoid the sicknesses that are caused from overcrowding, from filth, and from parasites. It is easy to enclose a bit of ground with galvanized iron-mesh, which costs about 3d. a yard, let into the ground a bit, and to have the hutches placed there. The rabbits will not eat a bit more grass or green-stuff than is good for them. It is only when they are kept in close unwholesome yards that their appetites become depraved, and they eat any amount of any green garbage given to them. When it is time to shift camp, enclose another space and remove the hutches. Whether the summer or portable hutch is adopted or not, a foul-weather or winter yard is a necessity, if rabbits are to be cultivated to any extent.

A Rabbit Court can easily be made. As regards flooring, Rabbits are burrowing creatures, and, when they go in for quarrying, they don't mind what expense the owner is put to. They must then have a good hard concrete floor all over the court. Build the enclosing fence first, howevr, and sink it about a foot below the ground. This should be pretty high, and the foundation should be either stone or bricks; above this have wood-work; any kind of rough stuff will do, and it may be tarred over and will last years, with an occasional repetition of the tarring. At one end must be a door or gate. Allow them all the space you can afford, taking the word "afford" in every sense. As to the floor itself, bear this in mind: 1. it must be of concrete, bricks are bad at best; 2. it should slope to one corner, where the water is to run out with which you wash it down; the hole from which the water escapes should be about six inches square and protected by a moveable grating. Have a little cesspool—watertight, with a lid—just outside the grating; the contents may be poured on the garden or on the manure heap. To make the floor of the court yourself, take out about nine inches of earth and fill up with rubbly stones; over this put some finer stuff, then make it perfectly level, and, having procured some Portland cement and fine sand, mix with water into a kind of soft spreadable clay. The proportions are, two of sand and one of cement. Lay this down bit by bit, or yard by yard, with a big trowel, frequently moistening with water if too thick, and smooth it nicely. Put it on an inch thick. Do not mix more stuff in one day than you can use. Choose a fine day but not a sunny one, for if the concrete dries too soon it cracks. If the sun comes out and shines much on your work after it is done, you must get a watering-pot and moisten the surface now and then.

Rabbit Warrens.—Many and many a wild stony hill-side that is fit for nothing else earthly, could be turned into a paying rabbit warren, at very little cost, especially in Scotland and Wales. The first chief expense would be the enclosing of the rabbit farm. That would have to be done thoroughly, else the bunnies would migrate, and

other people would shoot and trap them. If the ground were suitable, hutches, except a few rude sheds and shelters, would hardly be required. Rabbits are splendid engineers. In the wild state, they make their own houses, and their own beds, and do their own scouring. The subject of rabbits, as a food supply, is not studied in this country as it ought to be. Cottagers might even pay their rents by keeping and breeding in the rough common hutches, a kind of half wild sort, but excellently well suited for the table and market, and as hardy as hardy can be. The rabbit has many enemies—dogs, cats, rats, mice, hawks, and owls, to say nothing of the two-legged animal the poacher, but really rabbits in a warren breed so fast that birds of prey hardly affect the numbers, besides, what with their burrows and caves they can take pretty good care of themselves, and as for poachers, traps and guns can be easily made to make the game not worth the candle. There are many pretty little ways of scaring poachers, which render it quite unnecessary to sit up and watch for them. Some years ago I used to be treated to occasional nocturnal visitors in my orchard. I made it warm for them thus: I made some maroons, one of which I placed in the orchard every night. A maroon, you know, is a kind of explosive firework which goes off with one report as loud as a six-pound cannon. The maroon was put in an old soup or bouilli tin; it was primed with a mixture of chlorate of potash and sugar; over this was arranged a tiny thin phial of sulphuric acid, or oil of vitriol. On pulling a string attached to this it was broken, the vitriol fired the chlorate and sugar, and a startling explosion was instantaneous. The string was of course carried right round the orchard trees. On the third night the maroon went off, shaking my windows as an earthquake might have done. I was down stairs in time to fire both barrels of my gun after a dark retreating figure which was making its feet its friends. I found a sack in the orchard next morning, which I hung up as a scare-crow, but the crow never came to claim the sack. But a string attached to an electric bell—the bell to be in your bedroom—would do just as well, and you might thus take a prisoner. Do not put down too many rabbits at a time. Don't forget the danger of over-crowding. It holds good in warrens as well as in hutches. Beware of too much in-and-in breeding, also get fresh blood every spring. Have a due proportion of wild rabbits, then turn down young, strong, healthy silver-greys, great lumping Patagonians, Belgian hares, and good nondescript mongrels, and indeed all hardy kinds. Thin down and weed down your warren towards winter, so that food may not be eaten for no purpose. It will be in winter you will need to supply most food, anything in the shape of roots, hay, clover, vetches, etc., etc. In spring and summer they will need less, because there will be all kinds of grass and green herbage.

The Points and Properties of Rabbits.—Dutch Rabbits are excellent breeders, gentle and affectionate as pets, and good non-timid mothers. As they are hardy they make good children's rabbits, but must not be neglected in any way, or they soon go off. A pretty rabbit is the **Himalayan or Chinese Rabbit,** as we occasionally hear it called. It is larger than the Dutch is naturally, and of a more timid and retiring disposition. With its body of ermine, but more snowy white, its shapely form, its dark legs and feet, its black short erect ears, crimson eyes and smutty nose, it is a rabbit that if a tyro but once sees, he will never forget. It is the breeding of the black points that is the greatest difficulty, that is to have them very dark and very uniform; it is in the feet they mostly fail, the front being brownish, the hinder even grey. In order to get and retain this black colour, some breeders adopt the plan of shutting them up in the dark. This is extremely cruel, and not at all likely to be successful. Choose a sire with very dark points, and breed with a doe descended from prize winners,

and use and treat your rabbits well in every way, and you will come as near to success as anyone, and you will have done so in a legitimate way. Like the Dutch, these rabbits are short in hair, but there are rabbits with long fur like the Angora, and marked like the Himalayan. This breed is called the Siberian or Moscow, and I suppose is a cross between the two—originally, probably, one of Nature's own making. **The Angora** is so totally different from any other breed, that we may as well dispose of its points at once, and let it drop. It is rather a good rabbit to breed for show purposes, because if you get a very large and showy one—say pure white—and take care in hutching, grooming or brushing the fur, and seeing it does not get soiled; if you have and keep this animal in healthy condition, and get him very tame, so that he will show spiritedly, then no judge could pass him by even in a variety class. The ears are short and erect, but the principal point is the hair, which, as an Irishman would say, 'isn't hair at all, but wool.' Long, fine, silky, and soft, so that a breath of wind blows it about like eider down. Angoras are good breeders, and of a very gentle and affectionate disposition. What they do want is care and attention, all owing to those beautiful coats they wear. **Silver Greys** and **Silver Creams** are great favourites in this country, and justly so. They are sprightly, shapely, beautiful fellows, with a saucy look about them, that is quite descriptive of their general character. They are large rabbits, say, about eight pounds weight. Good breeders, not to say prolific. They will, at all events, generally throw more than it would be judicious or safe to permit the mother to rear, and if a nurse-doe were handy, two or three might be carefully conveyed to her. The young of the Silver Greys are born black, and do not begin to have their peculiar colour till they are about six weeks' old, when the silvering commences. It will be four months or more before it assumes the beautiful colour best represented on the whole, perhaps, by the name chinchilla. The quickest way to describe this colour would be to say it was bluish next the skin, or bluish-brown, then comes a longer layer of bluish grey, which is visible without blowing the fur aside, and another darker or even black, and on the due admixture of these the shading depends. The colour should not be too dark, and it ought to be uniform all over the body, the face, and ears, which, in rabbits too young for show, it will not be. The fur is very soft and fine. But no verbal or written description can give any idea of the colour of this rabbit, or of the colour of the Silver Cream either. **Foster-mothers** of any kind are generally more bother than they are worth, still one does not like to destroy good stock, be it in the shape of prize-bred rabbits or dogs. The foster-mother must, of course, have her litter at the same time as the other, and her young must be destroyed, or some of them. It is a mere question of keeping the best rabbits alive. Dutch or half-bred Dutch make good foster-mothers, so do some of the commoner table rabbits. **The Belgian Hare Rabbits** are capital animals for the market, even if you do not care to breed them up to show form; but I should advise you trying, at least, how near you can get any of the breeds to perfection. You will now and then produce something really valuable, and the others will not be lost, they are good for table purposes. The bigger this rabbit is the better; if you can get them up to a stone weight they will do well for the market, but about eight or nine pounds will be better for show purposes; for in all respects we want to have them as like the hare as possible, the same long graceful body, the same sprightly look, the head a lengthy, broad, square one, the eyes bright and rather full, the ears short, not over five inches, and erect when the rabbit is in motion or at attention, otherwise lying gracefully back over the shoulders, but never pendulous. The *colour* should also resemble that of the hare. The *dewlap* is a question

of some moment. It is developed in the larger specimens, but I myself do not like it for show purposes, for hares have no dewlap, and it would detract much from their agility if they had. White is an objection, except under the body, and the fur should be hare-like all over the body. They are very hardy animals, and very gentle. They are, moreover, good mothers, though somewhat timid. They are not over prolific, not having too many at a birth, but then they do not require foster-mothers. About **Lops** a volume might be written. The ear is the principal point in the Lop rabbit. They should be very long, and graceful as to carriage; they should also be very wide. From twenty to twenty-three and a half inches in length you often find these rabbits at shows, that is, measured carefully from tip to tip. They will not attain to this great length of ear unless kept in warm, dry hutches, at a uniform temperature of over 60°; so artificial heat is used by Lop fanciers. The Lop is one of the oldest of our breeds, it is found of all colours, and is also one of the largest rabbits we possess.

Rabbits Food consists of (1) Grain, (2) Roots, (3) Meal, (4) Green Foods, and (5) Hay. 1. *Grain.*—In oats, barley, wheat, peas, and Indian corn we have sufficient variety for the purposes of health. Have a box with five compartments to keep these in, and see that this is kept clean and free from dust, and that the grains you purchase are the best to be had for the money. That only is cheap which is good. Now, although you will thus have a good many different kinds of grain handy, it will not do to serve them out to the rabbits just as they come. Wheat, barley, and oats may be frequently given as a morning meal dry, and perhaps a root or two may be given at the same time. But they must be crushed sometimes, and soaked at others. Peas should be soaked for ten or twelve hours, and the water poured off. 2. *Roots.*—These include, among others, carrots, parsnips, beet, mangold wurzel, swede and other turnips, artichokes, kohl-rabbi, and potatoes; and I might add the roots of wild chicory, that may be found growing about the hedge-rows and embankments, and blooming in August. Let all the roots given be fresh and clean, and free from moisture and disease. Potatoes are to be boiled. They make a nice mash, and should be mixed for evening feeding with a handful or two of any of the meals, or with bran and pollard. 3. *Meal.*—Oatmeal, barley, and Indian meal, with bran and pollard, are the principal meals given to rabbits. 4. *Green Foods.*—These comprise all kinds of kale and green stuffs, including cauliflower, Brussels sprouts, sprouting broccoli, clover, lettuce, endive, dandelion, chicory, celery, docks, fennel, green grass, sow thistles, turnip-tops, vetches, parsley, thyme, etc., etc. There is this to be borne in mind in giving green food, it should be *clean* and *not wet.* Leave it for a night in a dry place, and you will avoid the danger from pot-belly. 5. *Hay.*—Hay and clover, if pure and clean and sweet, are very nice food for rabbits. Feed three times a day. Give the grains, especially oats, in the morning, the roots at mid-day, and a soft food supper. The hay to be kept in a little rack, where the rabbits can help themselves at any time without waste. Rabbits, to thrive, must be fed with regularity, and have frequent change of diet. If they do not get variety, appetite soon goes, they lose their plumpness, then disease, in some shape or form, sets in, and when this begins in a rabbit it often spreads with great rapidity. Let the food then be as varied as possible, very clean and wholesome, and the best of the kind procurable. It may include bread crusts, or the harder kinds of fruits, such as apples, acorns, etc. Give enough, and no more, enough to keep them plump, bright eyed and happy-looking, and leave none to be wasted about the place. Roots that are only half eaten and trodden upon, should be taken away and pitched into the pigsty. In summer weather, when green food is plentiful, they may not need drink much,

but, for all that, I believe in letting them have fresh water put in the dish every morning. They do not kill themselves drinking it in the wild state, and I do not think they will in a state of domesticity. Milk and water is given at times, and does good, but it must be fresh and sweet.

Rabbit Breeding.—Judicious feeding, variety of diet, regularity in feeding, cleanliness, ventilation, warmth, dryness; these are all words that ought to be indelibly fixed in the memory of the stock-breeder who would be successful. in choosing the doe and buck—look for health and strength and sprightliness in both. The doe should not be over two years old, the best age is about one. The buck must have arrived at maturity; at least a year old. Avoid over-crowding. This never fails to work mischief, and if you once get diseases in your hutches, the sooner you kill the inmates and burn their domiciles the better. It is greed, and greed alone, that makes people cram and over-stock pigeon-lofts, poultry-runs, and rabbitries. As regards rabbits the result is a lot of hollow-eyed, bad-skinned, mangy, dirty brutes that will neither feed nor fatten, eyesores to look at, and more trouble and expense than they are worth. Another mistake breeders make—all for greed again—is that of trying to get all the stock they can from the dams. This is a capital way of killing the goose that lays the golden eggs. Good canaries are killed in this way; good birds and fowls of every kind, good dogs, and good rabbits. Four times a year is quite often enough for rabbits to be in kindle. Rabbits are in kindle thirty days, though of course it may be a day or so more or less. But, like almost every domestic animal that is watched, the doe will give signs before the event comes off. She will appear more active, or restless, brighter, and more anxious. At all times the rabbit court should be kept quiet and free from anything that would tend to frighten or molest the inmates. But the breeding hutch should be especially protected in this way. The bed should be nice soft oaten straw, and not the ghost of a draught of cold air should be admitted to it. In the wild state, kindling-rabbits have their beds in the cosiest, darkest, most remote, and snuggest corner of their burrow; and in the tame state we try to make them feel quite as much at home as they are in the wild. During the time the doe is in kindle she should be well and abundantly fed, her strength and bodily substance is to be kept up, though she need not be made fat. When the young are born, still continue to supply her with plenty of wholesome food; the grain to be good and the roots of the best. In addition, give her milk-and-water to drink. Some roots are better than others at this time: carrots, parsnips, turnips, kohl-rabbi. These increase the secretion of milk, so do lettuce-leaves and endive. All the time the doe is nursing she must be supplied with strengthening food; and, in addition to grains and roots, she should have a little warm mash every day of bread and milk, boiled potatoes mixed with meal, or boiled rice and maize, etc. Feed regularly and *often*. Do not on any account disturb the young for a day or two, and, even then, only look in to see how things are going, and to remove any dead one there may happen to be. A strong young mother will rear six young easily, *if* well fed and properly attended. Rabbits are hairless and blind when born; in about two weeks they are clad and can see. But the very fact that they are so born ought to show us how delicate they are and how little they should be interfered with. The mother will pluck the fur from her own breast to keep them warm, but if disturbed she will often kill her young. If you have more young than you think the mother can rear without danger to her constitution, take some of the weakliest away and destroy them. About seven weeks is the best time for weaning. The young ones should not be taken all away at once, or mischief in the shape of milk-fever may ensue. Take the strongest away first. When you do take them away see that they are put in an

extra warm hutch. Cold kills the young of any animal more quickly than anything, except direct violence. When the young begin to eat, they annoy the mother considerably. It is a good plan to let her out by herself to have her feed, partitioning back the young. Then when she has had enough, they can come out and have their ground oats and a morsel of green food, and if she wants to feed with them then she may. She can hardly have too many oats while suckling. Keep her manger well filled. She ought always to have nice sweet hay within her reach. When the young are weaned, reduce the doe's food. She has not now to suckle, and does not, therefore, need so much nourishment. The young must be put in a warm, well-ventilated hutch. They moult about this time, and are very apt to catch cold, and drop off. The food of the young must be good, nourishing, and edible. Bruised oats should be given instead of whole grain. Separate the does and bucks before they are four months old. You will thus be able to maintain peace in your rabbitry.

Common Ailments of Rabbits.—**Colds** are more likely to occur in rabbit-cours where the animals are not regularly fed, and are, mark me, exposed to a draught, or to *cold and wet when hungry*. A well-fed rabbit will stand almost anything; a creature that is not in the best form, and weak from being hungry, is very likely to be attacked not only by a cold, but by inflammation itself. Cold in a rabbit gets the name of **seffluns** from the fancier, and is supposed to be infectious. Whether it be so, or whether others take it from being exposed to the same causes—cold draughts, damp, and irregular feeding is perhaps not certain. It begins with sneezing, and wetness is perceived from the nostrils; this may go on to a thick mucous or muco-purulent discharge, and if the rabbit be not speedily seen to, the disease will lead on to death, through inflammation of lungs or bronchial passages. The first thing to do is to take and place the sick rabbit in a dry warm well-bedded hutch, where it will have both fresh air and light, indeed in all cases of ailing rabbits, they should be removed to a clean comfortable quarantine hut. They thus obtain quiet and freedom from worry from their companions. The appetite will probably have failed for ordinary diet, and so you must give your patient warm mashes, potatoes and meal, etc., and feed little and often. Give roots too and grain, whether the rabbit cares to take it or not, and a little milk and water, in case it should be thirsty. Put a little salt and also a little sulphur in the mashes, and give some succulent green food. Carefully sponge the nostrils, nose, and eyes with warm milk and water, or with a little vinegar and water, and keep dry and warm. If inflammation ensue, with great heat and distress, it will be more humane to destroy the rabbit. Two grains of camphor in a little hot water may be given morning and evening, and with each dose fifteen drops of paregoric. Rabbits often take **Fits**, called *megims*, wrongly so, of course. They are caused by errors and irregularity in feeding, and irritability of the digestive organs. Quarantine and give a little salt in the mashes to move the bowels, then place in each mash three grains of the tris-nitrate of bismuth. Do not give camphor, as recommended by some. The ailment is caused by brain mischief, secondary to stomachic disturbance. Keep warm and dry, and give a good allowance of succulent green food. Another ailment to which rabbits injudiciously fed are subject, is **Constipation**. It is possible that a little Rochelle or Glauber salts may be necessary to relieve the bowels, and increase the secretion of the liver, but I should depend more on an extra allowance of green food, and letting the bunny have plenty of running about in the fresh air. Rabbits are subject to both **Diseases of the Kidneys and the Liver**; the causes are simply the same as those that bring on every other complaint, cold, exposure to damp, inattention to bedding, and irregular, injudicious, or unwholesome food. Either of these diseases may end

in dropsy, generally called pot-belly, which is common in very young rabbits too closely confined in small, unwholesome hutches. In an old rabbit, **Dropsy** is all but incurable, and the only means that holds out a reasonable hope of recovery in old or young is cleanliness of all surroundings, exercise on gravel or dry grass, an absence, to a great extent, of green food, except a leaf or two of parsley, thyme, or any delicate, nicely-flavoured herb, and a diet consisting for the most part of dry food, grains of different kinds, and a little, very little roots. **Diarrhœa** is like pot-belly, often caused by too much green food and other succulent diet. Trust to food alone to remove it, such as rice, oatmeal, oats, pea-meal, etc., and give exercise, and keep everything clean and sweet. Nice dry hay and dry clover will do good. Far better to endeavour to trust to diet, that you do know something about, than administer remedies of the effects of which you are all but profoundly ignorant. But so far as external ailments are concerned, we are in a position better calculated to give relief. Rabbits suffer from **Ear complaints** often enough, especially such as are kept in dirty hutches, and from **Eye diseases** the last otfen attacks young and delicate breeds, and should be remedied or prevented by perfect cleanliness, ventilation, and disinfection. An *accumulation of wax* in the ear may be caused by over-dry feeding. Remove the cause, and soften the wax by dropping a little warm oil in every day, and washing it out with a little green tea. **Canker in the ear** is the name given to a nasty discharge from the ear. The cure is to feed nourishingly and regularly, and to wash out the ears daily with a little green tea, afterwards dropping in a little diluted lead lotion, or a lotion of alum or sulphate of zinc, three to five grains of either to an ounce of distilled water. They suffer also from **Skin complaints** the result of want of bedding, and uncleanliness of all kinds; and also from bad feeding. **Sore hocks** come under the same category, and depend upon much the same causes as other skin complaints. The simplest way to cure **Scurf** is to dust the body over with flowers of sulphur well into the roots of the hair. It may be necessary to clip the coat all off, if a long one, and if there be any sore places, they are to be rubbed with the green iodide of mercury ointment diluted with double its bulk of compound sulphur ointment. This twice a day. Give a little Glauber salts to cool the blood. Clean dry bedding and a perfectly clean hutch, and plenty of green food. Sanitas ointment deserves to be mentioned. It is a capital application for **Mange** in rabbits. So is vasseline, in which a little carbolic acid has been well mixed. Nine-tenths of all the complaints from which rabbits suffer are brought on from the carelessness of their owners. Rabbits grow more quickly, and put on more flesh if of the neuter gender; and grains and meals of all kinds, boiled peas, potatoes, and oatmeal or barley-meal is the best fat and flesh producers. They must have very little green food, and not much exercise. Sometimes condiments are used to increase the appetite, and the rabbits are killed as soon as they obtain a reasonable weight. This is judicious, else the fattening process, if carried on too long, may induce skin complaint, and completely spoil the market.

GARDENING.

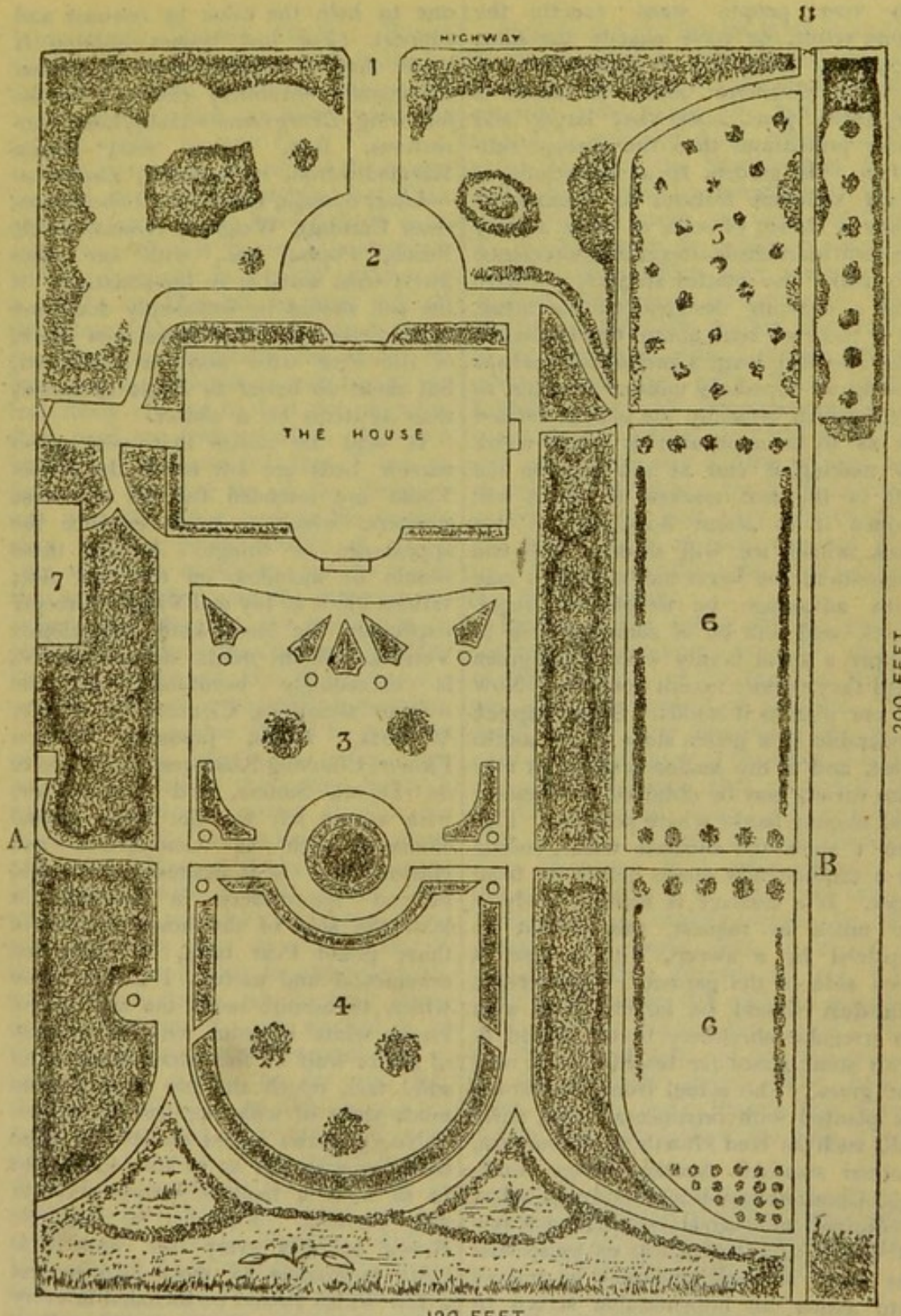
The Garden.—Ever since "Adam delved and Eve span," gardening has occupied a large share of human attention. Man has always subsisted upon the fruits of the earth, and under the earlier conditions of society, was compelled personally to cultivate them that he might subsist. But even now when most things for most men are cheaper in the buying than in the growing, gardening both for pleasure and for profit remains a favourite pastime of the people. There are many circumstances which tend to make gardening popular. In the garden we have a little kingdom

that we may govern as we please, assured that if we order wisely for the well-being of our subjects we shall be well repaid in willing revenues of perennial fragrance and beauty. In no other sphere are we able to exercise such undisputed sway and nowhere else can we manipulate elements which yield us so much pleasure in process and result. If the garden is a large one, we can shape continents, elevate mountains, dig valleys, make rivers and bid enchanted islands rise obedient to will. Be it large or small we can develope natural resources and try experiments in colonising subjects that are foreign to it. If it is only a window garden we can obtain results which will far more than compensate us for the labour involved if by loving, and intelligent care we render nature wise and timely aid stimulating her energy and coaxing her to favour. That gardening is a healthy occupation no one will dispute. Exercise and fresh air are necessary to healthy life and gardening involves us in both. When we reflect that, added to the advantages of health and pleasure involved in the process are those of beauty and fragance, secured in the result we shall not hesitate to place gardening in the very forefront of pleasant and profitable recreations. Laying out a garden affords excellent opportunity for the display of taste and skill. The larger the garden, the larger the opportunity; although, if the garden be small, there is, perhaps, the greater room for the display of skill, greater skill being nearly always necessary to the successful handling of small resources, and the attainment of the best possible results with the least expediture of time and money. To help all who desire to make the most of the land at their disposal is the purpose of the following pages, but before dealing with those things which are common to all gardens, it may be well to mark the distinctive features of different styles of garden, though some of these involve more space than is available for the average householder.

The Landscape Garden, as its name indicates, is a garden on a large scale. Every characteristic of natura scenery may be said to belong to it. Large sheets of water, well-planted shrubberies, broad and winding paths, hills and valleys, handsome trees, and, indeed, all the elements of a beautiful landscape in miniature. In such gardens the design must be upon a broad scale. The handsome must be aimed at rather than the pretty, and the general, rather than the particular, kept in view.

The Italian Garden also requires more space than falls to the lot of ordinary householders. Here stone or stucco terraces, urns and vases, flights of steps, fountains, and other architectural structures are employed to add picturesqueness to the scene. In such gardens great care is necessary to maintain appearances. The effect of damp upon stucco is not that of ornament, and without constant care the Italian garden may soon assume a decayed appearance.

The Geometric Garden, from its precise formality, appeals to the taste of some. Here, everything is planned according to rule. Beds and shrubs are alike of formal shape, the former, square, oblong, and triangular; the latter clipped closely and constantly, to harmonise with the general formality, and the whole reminding us of the Dutch gardens depicted in old prints: more modern taste, however, varies the monotony of the straight line by the introduction of the curve, and graceful and fantastic shapes relieve the rigid aspect of the old style. These beds are cut out in lawns or surrounded by paths, and brilliant effects of colour are gained by massing flowers of one kind and colour in a bed, and taking care that the whole ground of the bed is covered by the blossoms. By this means, brilliant masses of colour are dotted over the garden with striking effect. This, however, involves a great deal of trouble and expense, as to gain the due effect of this style of gardening the flowers must be reared in glass houses, and bedded out in pots. Pleasant variations of colour may be introduced by contrasting the colours while retaining the for-



Plan of a Garden.

mality of their arrangement, that is, by arranging beds with rows of flowers of different colours, one behind the other.

Laying out a Garden.—The initial difficulty in dealing with this subject, clearly lies in the fact that

no two people want exactly the same result, or have exactly the same space and conditions to arrange for. It will be therefore better to make a suggested plan, somewhat larger and more pretentious than the average suburban villa garden, so as to include as many different features as possible, to allow a choice of such of them as may best suit individual tastes and requirements. To make the matter simpler, we have had a drawing designed by our artist, of a piece of land about 120 feet wide, and 200 feet long, a proportion perhaps having an especially unusual frontage, to meet which difficulty the plan is devised so as to be applicable to a less width by making it end at the path on the left of the bed marked 6, which will reduce it to about 80 feet. In this case, which we will dismiss with one suggestion, the lower half marked 4 may with advantage be devoted to vegetables, and will be of sufficient area to supply a small family wilh all the green food they require except potatoes. Now to our plan as it stands. **The Aspect** preferable is a gentle slope to the south-west, and if the incline is sufficient very nice variety may be obtained by terracing and sloping banks where possible. Figure 1 show the entrance walks, ending in a semi-circular space before the front door. If a carriage is kept, or likely to be much in request, this should be replaced by a sweep, with a gate at each side of the garden. **The Front Garden** should be largely grass with an irregular shrubbery border round it, with some space for bright flowers next the grass. The actual front line should be planted with ornamental trees, fairly tall, such as Red Hawthorn, Laburnum, trained standard Acacias, Silver Birch, and Chestnut; or, if a more formal effect is desired, nothing is better than a row of Limes, six feet apart, as these bear the knife so well and may be trained into either an impenetrable screen or cut into arches according to taste. The garden sides of these borders should be judiciously planted with evergreen and deciduous shrubs in such a manner as one to help the other by contrast and support. For low hedges nothing is better than the broad-leaved Privet, and for general shrubbery choose from the following: *Evergreens*—Holly, Laurellaurustinus, Box, Arbor vitæ, Acuta, Rhododendron, in varieties; *Deciduous*—Lilac, Syringa, Laburnum, Ribes (American Currant), Weigelia, Acacia, Birch, Beech, Poplar, etc., with any other forest trees suitable to the situation. If the soil should be sufficiently deep and light, Cedars or Wellingtonias or others of the Pine tribe may be introduced, but these do better as single specimens than as items for a cluster.

It will be noted that very small narrow beds are left round the house. These are intended for the numerous creepers, which so much enhance the appearance of things. Among these should be included, on the cool side, various kinds of Ivy and Virginia Creeper (especially the small kind, Ampelopsis Vetchii, which needs no nailing and is exceedingly beautiful); on the warmer situations, Clematis, in variety, Wistaria, Pyrus, Japonica, Passion Flower, Climbing Roses (especially Gloire de Dijon), Smilax, and Honeysuckle, with spaces left for the lovely annual climbers such as Convolvulus and Nasturtium. Or if desired there would be no impropriety in devoting at least the side of the house to one of those grand Pear trees, at once so ornamental and useful. I hardly know which to admire most, the tree full of lovely white blossom with its promise of future fruit or the later realisation of solid fact, which alas too often falls so much short of what we had hoped for.

No. 5 shows a bed devoted to Rose trees, so arranged as to size and height as to form a bank of luxurious colour and perfume. The list of desirable Roses enlarges every day, and it is quite impossible to more than suggest a few which should be included in every selection, namely, Gloire de Dijon, Souvenir de la Malmaison, Baroness Rothschild, La France, Cheshunt Hybrid, Duke of Edinburgh, Alfred Columb, General

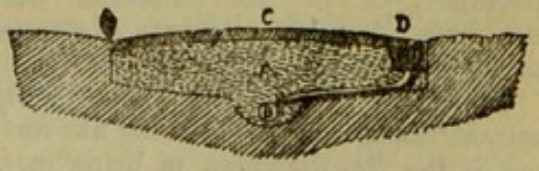
Jacqueminot, Captain Christy, Prince Camille, Madame Lacharme, Marie Rudy, and Xavier Olibo. There are fifty others worth mention, but the above will form a good variety to start on.

Now, coming to the rear of the house, we find at 7 our greenhouse; but if the aspect is such as we have desired in an early part of this paper, this structure will be decidedly in a better position as a lean-to on the left or west side of the house. Supposing we intend to be our own head-gardeners, the nearer we keep our greenhouses to our hands, the less likely are we to find the attention they need too overpowering. My own houses are so arranged that I can go from the dwelling to all the divisions one after the other, and to the furnace also, without going outside at all—a very desirable condition, for the worse the weather the more the attention required, and the less the inclination to give it. No. 1 provides a path to a paddock (if one exists) and No. 8 indicates a suitable pathway to tradesmen's entrance.

The entire garden should be bounded by ornamental forest trees, not so high as to unduly shade the garden, but high enough to form a screen at once for privacy, and for shelter from high winds and sun. Nos. 3 and 4 are lawns interspersed with suitable flower beds, and may or may not be dotted about with specimen trees or shrubs; but in these days no garden is complete without a tennis lawn, which must either be provided on the site marked 6, or the Nos. 3 and 4 must be combined to find space. About 50 by 100 feet should be allotted to this lawn, but much less may be made to do if properly netted round. The centre bed in the middle (supposing the plan kept as shown in the drawing) would suit admirably for a small fountain, with a tank outside it, in which aquatic plants and gold fish may be made to add much pleasure to our garden; and no one need be deterred from such an addition because of water supply, as it can be arranged either to play a tiny jet, or to be used only on state occasions.

Nos. 6 and the border B are intended to be devoted to the kitchen department, as also may be the beds on the opposite side, while the bed between 6 and 3, coloured dark, would form a grand place for the Strawberries, especially if it can be arranged to slope either to the south or west, or both. At the bottom of the garden is a strange waste desert, which may seem to be *de trop*, but it is by no means so. The edging towards the garden is intended to be furnished with a lattice screen, covered with Ivy, or a Privet hedge, behind which, all our manure heaps, composts for potting, turf laid up to rot, and sweepings and garden rubbish are stored. These things must be in every garden, and at best they can only be put out of sight, as must now my pen, for I have already filled the space allotted me by your editor.

Paths.—The spring of the year is naturally the proper time for radical changes of plan, or for the first laying-out and arrangement of gardens. The paths are a very important and often much-neglected part of the affair, it being a popular delusion that a mere track, roughly trampled down and sprinkled with a little gravel, is good enough. This, however, is a great mistake, as the paths ought to be made the natural water-shed or drainage-basin for the garden. To begin with, a series of three-inch pipes should be laid with open joints under the path, in a trench of ballast or rubble, the whole falling to the lowest part of the ground, or to the ordinary sewer. The trench need not be more than a few inches deeper than the bed of the path, which



should somewhat resemble the section of Fig. 1, which shows plainly the general arrangement to be followed out.

A is a space dug out to a depth of about a foot, and with a lower portion

in the middle or to one side, as may be most convenient for the aforesaid drain-pipe B. The space so made must be filled up five or six inches with large lumps of stone, brick, or any boulder rubbish not of an earthy nature or likely to crumble up. Above this for three inches more a layer of burnt ballast or coarse gravel; and finally a thinner coating, C, two inches deep, of fine gravel. This must be raked very smooth and uniform; but about two or three inches (according to the width of the path) higher in the middle, and then carefully rolled with a heavy roller. If, when fairly consolidated, any hills or depressions appear, they must be levelled down with the rake, or filled up with more fine gravel, and rolled down afresh. After a shower of rain, paths are much benefited by a good rolling. Some authorities recommend a layer of slate chips to be put just under the gravel, as a preventative of worms and weeds, and if such are procurable, it is very desirable to do it. The gravel is best put on in the state it comes from the pit, which is usually wet enough to bind well, as I find no artificial sprinkling is satisfactory if it can be dispensed with. At low parts of the path, corners, and convenient spots, it is well to have gullies or drains, D, with pipes to the middle drain to carry off water which would otherwise accumulate into miniature lakes and ponds; but if the foundation of the path is really well formed, this is not absolutely necessary, as the path itself quickly carries away all ordinary rainfall. If the pipes empty into the sewer, mind and see that they pass into a proper trap to prevent possibility of open communication with the main drainage, a source of danger to be studiously guarded against.

Lawns.—For a rapid and fairly certain result, there is nothing like turf; but it has the drawback of being more expensive, and it is not always possible to procure sods of good quality and free from weeds. Buttercups and daisies, for instance, which while very pretty in a meadow or close, are decidedly out of place in a garden. In either turfing or sowing, the first procedure is the same, viz., to carefully dig the ground pretty deep, and then well break and pulverise the mould, finally raking all perfectly smooth and level. If the soil is rich and fine, it will need no addition. If poor or clayey, it ought to have an inch or two of fine earth sifted over it, and carefully raked level, as before described. The turf may now be laid evenly and closely all over this, and rolled or beaten down; choosing, if possible, damp, warm weather for the job. To get a satisfactory level, a good plan is to obtain a long, heavy plank, say three inches thick, and ten or twelve feet long. By raising this at one end while the other rests on the ground, and then letting it fall flat, the lumps or higher parts are levelled down, and the whole is equalised in an easy and certain manner. A roller, unless much wider than those ordinarily found in gardens, is apt to follow inequalities rather than correct them. If you are going to sow your lawn, prepare as above, and in moist, damp weather sprinkle pretty thickly (say one bushel to a quarter of an acre) with lawn grass seed, with a fair amount of white clover in it. You can procure this, made up in proper proportion, at most seedsmen's. After scattering the seed evenly, it must be roughly raked, to mix it well in the surface soil, and then carefully rolled down. If the season be favourable, about three weeks or a month should find a thick but very fine growth all over, and by midsummer it may want cutting, carefully at first, with a scythe for two or three times, and afterwards, as the roots form more strongly, with a machine. For the weeds, which seem inevitable to a sown lawn, such as dandelion, buttercup, and shepherd's purse, I know nothing really efficacious but hand-weeding. It is tedious, but in the end much more complete and satisfactory. A sown lawn should not be walked on for the first season any more than is unavoidable, as the young grass is very tender, and the roots will

be rather in tufts than the dense mats of interlaced fibres we like to see in the perfect lawn. The after-care of a lawn should never be neglected or shirked, as a really springy carpet of mossy grass is an end worth a lot of trouble. It should be carefully gone over with the machine at least once a week during the growing season, and if kept close it is a good plan to mow without the collecting box on. The small chips of grass will soon dry up and lose themselves in the turf, and will form at once a protection to the roots, if the weather is hot, or nourishment if it is wet. If long, however, the box should be on the machine, and the grass removed and used for linings to the hot-beds or laid up to rot and become leaf mould.

Mechanical Aids.—Man is sometimes distinguished from the lower creatures as a tool-making animal, for even in the earliest ages of human existence he learned the art of shaping implements to aid him in his undertakings—an art never acquired by even the most intelligent of the lower animals. Some of these early implements were doubtless formed as aids to the chase as well as weapons of war, but it is not unreasonable to suppose that among the earliest of mechanical contrivances there were implements of industry and garden tools. With an increased knowledge of the nature of soils and the requirements of plants the art of gardening has developed, and artificial aids in the form of manures for the improvement of the soil, and glass structures of various kinds for the protection of plants from the severity of extreme weather have been added to the machinery of the garden. Each of these subjects, however, demands separate treatment, and we will deal with them in due order.

Garden Tools.—There is an old saying that "Bad workmen always complain of their tools," but it is equally true that good workmen will not use bad tools, and clearly if the best advantage is to be taken of our opportunities in the garden, we must be well equipped for our work. A pick, a spade, a shovel, a fork, a hoe, a rake, a trowel, an axe, a hammer and nails, a mallet, and knives for pruning, grafting, budding, and general purposes, are the principal tools required; besides which we should have a grafting saw, a garden chisel, a scythe or lawn mower, a pair of shears, a bill hook, a garden line, a level, a measuring rod, a wheel-barrow, a garden roller, a ladder, and a garden engine or hose for watering purposes. These may be purchased from any tool-maker or furnishing ironmonger for a small outlay, and with careful use will last for many years.

Manures are sometimes referred to as either natural or artificial though, of course, the term artificial can only apply to forms of compounds. Manures are valuable for the nitrogens and phosphates which they contain and which are assimilated by the plants to which they are applied. All animal and vegetable substancies in decomposition are available for manure, as also are the excrements of all living things. They vary in value, and application; one being suited to certain conditions of the soil and certain classes of vegetation and one to another. As a rule animal excrements are too strong for application to the flower garden, and therefore require to be mixed with less stringent elements before they are available for use. Horses, that are fed on grain produce manure which is rich in phosphates. Sheep, that which is rich in sulphur and nitrogen, while cow manure is valuable for its soda and salts of potash. Dr. Scoffern says: "The urine of carnivorous animals is rich in the principles urea and uric acid. In herbivora, hippuric acid takes its place, but in all cases it is rich in nitrogen, and when allowed to putrify, ammonia is evolved. Urine is thus one of the most important constituants, of farm-yard manure." The value of ammonia to plant life makes it desirable to economise it as far as possible. When entire decomposition is allowed to take place the ammonia escapes and yet without decomposition the manure cannot become solvable to

plant life. On this Dr. Scoffern says: "It must be bad in practice to allow so valuable an agent as ammonia to go to waste; and this is the inevitable result of permitting manure to undergo its last degree of fermentation. In the second place it is doubtful whether the full and immediate values of the manure can be brought into play if it has not been submitted to incipient decomposition." Sulphate of lime is sometimes added to the compost heap for the purpose of conserving the ammonia while allowing decomposition to prepare the substance of the manure for assimilation by the plant. Not only are the softer parts of animal and vegetable remains suitable for manure, but also bone and wood when reduced or softened by natural or artificial means. Sulphuric acid may be applied to bones for this purpose and wood may be dealt with by fire. In the latter case charring rather than burning should be aimed at and this may easily be effected by covering over the burning wood with earth or turf and securing slow combustion by excluding the air. An admirable fertilizer may be made by charring waste vegetable substances and then saturating them with urine. When dry this may be used effectively if sown with seed. Portable Garden Manures are prepared by the leading seedsmen and supplied in canisters, but while these may be used with advantage where supplies run short, the greater economy is effected when local refuse is applied to local need. Road scrapings, decayed leaves, grass and weeds and sort are all valuable and when mixed with solid manure make compost of great utility.

Composts.—Composts may be purchased of most nurserymen, if the gardener wishes to save himself the trouble and avoid the unpleasantness of making it for himself. If, however, he desires to be independent he should collect all the decayed leaves of the garden and store them in a convenient place; secure a quantity of road sweepings, a heap of river or silver sand; a heap of cow manure, and one of stable manure; a stack of pasture turf and one of turfy peat; and provide a place where the common garden waste may be allowed to rot for use as future dressings. These should be kept separate and used as required. Exciting composts such as are commonly advertised must be used with great care as flowers are delicate creatures and may be destroyed by the very means unintelligently employed to promote their culture.

Leaf Mould.—Leaves and vegetable substances, when naturally or artificially reduced to small particles decompose slowly, under exposure and in the process give off gases which leave a residium of acids (humic, ulmic, and leic) only solvable in alkalies in connection with which they become valuable as manures. Dr. Scoffern says: "Not only do they absorb such of this alkali as they come in contact with, but it is suspected that actually like many other porous bodies they provide the combination of oxygen and hydrogen and form ammonia by Catalytic agency,—a term used by Berzelius to express the result of the contact of a third body upon two others, without being itself changed in character,—a beautiful provision of nature by which the products of natural decomposition are endowed with the properties necessary to render them fit for assimilation as food for vegetables." The collection and storage of dead leaves becomes therefore important not only for the purpose of tidying the garden but also for that of making a valuable manure.

Liquid Manure.—A light liquid manure may be made from rabbit, sheep, cow or poultry manure after decomposition if mixed with water in the following proportions: a pound of decomposed poultry manure, or half a peck of rabbit, sheep, or cow manure to eighteen gallons of water, the mixture to be stirred occasionally for two or three days and then all need to settle, after which it will be ready for use. The storage of liquid manure may be easily effected by employing an improvised tank consisting of an old tar-barrel either placed on the surface or more or less submerged in the earth. For ordinary purposes this may contain one third of decomposed

cow manure and two thirds of soft water which must be occasionally stirred. Both water and matter may be supplemented as they become exhausted.

Glass Structures.—Various methods are adopted for the preservation of plants during the winter season, the main object being to maintain the degree of heat necessary to the life of the plant. Glass houses may be simple or elaborate, inexpensive or costly. A simple structure may be made by digging out a space of ground of the required size to the depth of two feet in dry well-drained ground, and covering the surface with a frame or hurdle which may further be covered by straw. This will be found sufficient for mere protection, as the temperature two feet below the surface of the ground is 2° or 3° warmer than the air above the surface. Ordinary frames may be used for this purpose, and of course greenhouses and conservatories are better still. In dealing with flowers that belong to warmer climates it is necessary to supply artificial heat to make up for the deficiencies of our own. Places and estimates for glass structures can be procured from the leading builders in great variety, both of design and cost, from the simple lean-to of the cottage to large and independent structures that rival in design if not in size the Crystal Palace at Sydenham. Messrs. Richardson & Co. at Darlington, Messenger & Co., Loughborough, Boulton & Paul, Norwich & Cooper & Co., London, all issue illustrated lists from which it ought not to be difficult to make selection. **Span-roofed Greenhouses** 15 feet long by 10 feet wide, and 8 feet 10 inches high, height of sides 5 feet 6 inches (2 feet 6 inches in brickwork) cost about twenty-five guineas; extra lengths work cost about 25/- per foot extra. Lean-to greenhouses, 15 feet long, 8 feet wide, 9 feet 9 inches high at back, cost about £18. **Garden Frames** with sliding lights, height at back 24 inches, at front 14 inches, single light, and frame 4 feet by 6 feet, cost £1.18.0, two lights; 8 feet by 6 feet £3.5.0; three lights, 12 feet by 6 feet, £4.10.0. Lights may be obtained separately 6 feet by 3 feet 10½ inches, price 16/-; unglazed and unpainted 6/-. **Span-roofed Garden Frames** 8 feet long by 5 feet wide, £3.17.6. These prices are for best quality goods.

Floriculture.—Within the limits of a work like this it is quite impossible to deal separately with the various classes of flowers that adorn our gardens, from month to month. The "specialisation" which dominates all other departments of study, invades the garden, and the grower of roses has to give himself specially to rose culture, the devotee of the orchid or the chrysanthemum has to study the particular branch of floriculture which he specially affects, often enough to the neglect of other and equally interesting branches of the gentle art. To aid in these special studies many books are available and all that can be done here is to follow the gardeners' calendar throughout the year, giving as fully as may be directions as to the work to be done while season follows season as the world rolls round.

THE GARDENER'S CALENDAR.

In following a calendar of work to be done in and about the garden it is important to bear in mind that the general directions given must be subject to the varying conditions of particular times and places. In a changeful climate like that of England wittily described by a humorist, as no climate at all—merely a bundle of samples—common sense and independent judgment must always superintend the application of general principles to particular seasons and localities. What may be proper to do in January under ordinary circumstances may be impossible to be done under the conditions with which the gardener is called upon to deal at the opening of some particular year. For instance, the rough digging generally recommended for January may be impossible if the particular January in question is held fast in the iron grip of severe frost; and it may be useless if excessive rain has reduced the surface of the ground

to mud. The fact that we sometimes have warm winters and cold summers,—mild Januaries and chilly Junes—makes gardening in England a precarious employment and compels us to exercise sound judgment in applying general principles to particular cases. The gardener's business is to assist nature and not to fight her, and when she is busy with wind and rain and frost and snow, he must wait her pleasure and as far as out-door operations are concerned, watch his opportunities, and seize the milder intervals for supplementing nature's work. As man has to wait on nature his best laid schemes are subject to derangement and that which he proposes to do in one month, nature may compel him to postpone until another. While recognizing this and acting wisely upon it, it is, however, important to remember that lost time in gardening is exceedingly difficult to make up. To be behind hand all through the year is to destroy the pleasure of gardening in the process and minimise its enjoyment in the result. When nature has delayed the gardener he must seize the first opportunity of making up for lost time; where practicable securing additional help be until normal conditions are once more established. Another point to be remembered in dealing with general directions is that the south of England is usually some weeks in advance of the north in the development of spring and summer and that therefore the gardening proper to January in the south may be used proper to February farther north. Thus while in the calendar of work to be done we give directions for the treatment of normal seasons, we also point out the necessity for the *intelligent* application of general principles to particular cases.

JANUARY.

The new year always dawns upon an enlightened and an enlightening world. The first of January falls twelve days after the 21st of December, which is midwinter's day, the shortest day of the year; and with each successive revolution of the earth we receive an increase of light and heat and yet obviously in the month of January there is not much to be done with flowers in the garden itself. The average temperature of January is 39° by day and 32° by night, but life cannot be sustained upon an average if extremes are allowed to exceed the minimum or maximum of endurance. Long before January comes, the birds have taken refuge in the sunny south and the flowers have found shelter in glass houses and it is the gardener's duty at this time to foster the plants in doors and prepare the gardens for their return.

The Greenhouse Temperature.—In the greenhouse the daily temperature should range between 47° and 50°, and that of night be maintained at 40°. Great watchfulness must be exercised in regard to frosts and their probable duration and intensity. This is a matter of nightly anxiety. If a single frost be permitted to enter the greenhouse, the labour of months may be thrown away and the hopes of the future destroyed. Whilst frosts prevail, even if but of moderate extent, it is well to have a slight fire alight towards evening, which, according to the severity of the season, may be "fuel'd" on or retarded. To lessen the tax of too constant firing on doubtful nights, in connection with all small glass structures one of Rippingille's 6s. 6d. paraffin lamps may be used, which, lighted early, will be found to aid greatly in neutralizing frosts of 5° or 6° in extent. These lamps allow time, also for fires to affirm their influence in case sudden frosts of great severity set in. Should frosts not prevail, an occasional fire should be lighted during the day, to aid in dispelling excess of dampness. Whenever the outer air is at 40°, admit it somewhat freely, increasing it with the rise of temperature without. The mean temperature of stoves should be 60° by day and 55° by night.

Watering.—Root waterings must be given with care. During frost periods when artificial heat has to be applied, they must be given more copiously than

ordinarily to each plant requiring them. It is at such periods that hard-potted Heaths, Azaleas, and New Holland plants, are liable to become unduly dry in the centres of the balls of earth within the pots. If this once occurs, casual waterings will not renew the needful moisture throughout, and it is to the want of this that the great loss of Heaths by amateur growers is attributable. By giving copious waterings to all which require it when fire-heat has to be maintained, this may be avoided.

Insects.—This is the best of all seasons for destroying insects upon plants, and the most effectual plan is to latre each plant separately and destroy the insects individually upon every part.

Bulbs.—Hyacinths and similar bulbs potted in previous months should now be brought from under the cinder-ashes where they have been preserved without, and put in a light, warm place within the structure. In about a week, put them into the forcing-pit, along with Rhododendrons, Roses, Ghent Azaleas, Solomon's Seals, Arunis, Indian Azaleas, and similar subjects, to ensure a succession of blooms. Let not a single dead or decaying leaf remain a day upon any plant. Its instant removal is security for permanent neatness, which, with the perfect cleanness of all internal surfaces, gives, as far as is practicable, a pure internal atmosphere. Give air always when practicable to all cold frames, and see that ample covering is at hand for the perfect protection of the inmates should very sharp weather occur.

Orchard Houses.—Excepting during the prevalence of frosty weather, air must be freely admitted to structures containing Fruit-trees of all kinds. Fruit-trees, maintained therein in tubs, etc., must not be permitted to become unduly dry at the root, hence occasional watering is necessary. Prepare Grape Vines for future growth, by removing all loose bark, and painting the canes with an admixture of one-part clay-like loam, one-part fresh cow dung, with a fifth-part flowers of sulphur, and a tenth-part fresh slaked lime, added to as much water as will form a paint, such as can be applied with a brush. Should scale insects exist upon Peach, Apricot, or other fruits, remove them also by the aid of soap, etc.

The Hardy Flower Garden.—Out of doors there is much to be done in January to prepare the ground for the return of the flowers. **Garden beds** like feather beds are the better for frequent turning over, shaking up, airing and rewaking and the early months of the year are the proper ones for the spring cleaning of the garden. Directly the Chrysanthemums have laid their final wreath at the feet of the dying year, the operation of rough digging should commence and from December to April the more of it the better. Earth like the humanity which has sprung from it is vitalised and invigorated by fresh air and the more the earth is exposed to the influence of the atmosphere the more it will contribute to the food and health of vegetation. Take advantage of every fine day for pruning operations in connection with shrubberies, and the forking up of the intervening spaces between shrubs. Rose-trees, attached to pillars, bowers, and walls, also prune and refasten when necessary. Do not yet prune ordinary bedding or standard Roses growing in exposed places. Push forward all ground-work, consisting of making, or altering beds, borders, or walks. Such works should all be completed as soon as possible. To defer such things until spring is more advanced, is to place an additional tax where it can less easily be borne. Place a slight mulching of cocoa-nut fibre over beds of Tulips, Ranunculi, Anemones, etc. When this is impracticable use leaf mould instead. Failing both, however, so soon as the young growth shows, neatly hoe amongst them. By so doing a rougher surface will be given to the bed, which will tend to protect the young growths somewhat. Spring-bedding plants, such as Silenes, Myosotis, etc., should likewise be slightly hoed amongst, when the surface soil has

become somewhat dried, after rain with like intent. Severe frosts, especially when accompanied with winds, tend to loosen the hold these plants have in the ground, as they do that of Carnations, Pinks, etc., which have been recently planted. After severe frosts, therefore, have all pressed down into the ground, and a little soil from around drawn tightly up around them. **Paths, Lawns, etc.**—Surface green or old-worn walks should be renovated at this time. Materials are more readily procurable, than when the work is left until later and the new made walk has the advantage of being made firm by subsequent rains. Walks having sufficient depth of gravel may have the green weedy surfaces renovated by "turning them." Simply commence at one end and fork over the gravel to a depth of two or three inches, in the same way that ground is dug. Having turned over about three feet in length, comprising the whole width of the walk, procure an iron rake and rake the larger pebbles into the trench, levelling it in rounded form neatly as necessary. Follow this by turning another three feet, subsequently levelling, etc., until all is done. Then well roll. After the first thorough heavy rain, again roll most thoroughly, and a "new walk" will take the place of the older one. This operation is good even where a little more gravel has to be added, whereby all merge and bind together more effectually. Bare spaces in turf, under tree branches, at corners, where pedestrians have worn it down, should all be made good at the earliest possible moment. There are few suburban districts where a few "mend turves" are not obtainable for this and other purposes. **Potting.**—Particularly attend to the furnishing of potting sheds, by procuring, at this time, moulds of all sorts, stacking and arranging them neatly. By thus commencing the year with neat preparedness, each season's work, will be facilitated and thus result in far greater satisfaction and enjoyment.

The Hardy Fruit Garden.—Remove all dead branches from Orchard trees, and scrape away from boles or branches, all signs of moss existing. Where such mossy growths are at all general, it is a sign that the ground below is badly drained. In such cases, a row of small drain-pipes, which are inexpensive, would do much good.

Manure and lightly fork amongst bush fruits, and slightly prune Black Currants where necessary. Do not plant new fruits during the month; the danger is that being caught *en transit* by the frost, the roots become irretrievably injured. Make all ready for planting later by preparing the ground, and during the mildness of February procure such trees as are needful, and plant them quickly. Gooseberries and Red and White Currants are best pruned towards the middle of the month of March, when less danger of injury by birds is likely to ensue. Gooseberry and Currant cuttings may still be made, each with a heel, and inserted into the ground, where they will readily root, and form young trees. All fruits stored away in heaps should be carefully turned over and examined, that decayed ones be removed, and their keeping qualities enhanced.

The Kitchen Garden.—What has been suggested concerning the renovation of walks in the flower garden has equal significance here. Though kitchen garden walks are smaller, and taken less heed of generally, they are important to aid work, to say nothing of appearances. Before setting these in order for the future summer season, however, have all heavy wheeling, etc., in connection with groundwork, fully completed. Digging and trenching must be done in connection with all unoccupied or vacant ground, before the end of the month. Take up successive "batches" of Endive, and place tightly together in mould, in a shed or other structure, sufficiently protected from the frost. In such a place, with a mat or straw strewn over them, they form excellent blanched hearts for immediate use at table. Successive relays of Lettuces should be transplanted into cold frames or pits, to take the place of crops, others as

they are used. The largest from the outside borders are the most eligible for this purpose, and, with attention, will prove shortly ready for use. Successions of Rhubarb and Seakale may also be taken up, and forced in any warm place; air and light being effectually kept from the latter. When these are forced by placing pots or baskets over outdoor crowns, covered over with fermenting materials, such pots and material will have to be moved periodically from such crowns as have been cut, on to others nearest by. By working the heating materials thus: extending rather than removing the heap bodily, a better and more constant supply is assured, with the least possible amount of work. To start crowns so treated into growth, the materials must give a heat of 85° to 90°, for a few days at least. Should this exceed 100°, the crowns will be injured, and rot away in consequence. Give a good dressing to Asparagus beds where this has been omitted until this date. Look through plantations of Snow's Broccoli and Walcheren to ascertain when any are hearting in, protecting or securing such beyond reach of frosts. Mould up November-sown Peas and Broad Beans, drawing a high ridge up near to them on the more windy side, to protect from wind frosts. Hoe freeling amongst Spinach during any fine mild period which occurs during the month.

FEBRUARY.

In the month of February, the gardener must realize the fact that the season of plant growth and activity is about to commence in real earnest. Whatever the weather may be, out of doors, the influences of increased and increasing sun-light, with artificial heat, give us indoors in the conservatory a month's advance; so that we assume and act as if the month of March was present.

A month ago greenhouses had to be maintained at the low temperature of 40° to 45° as any approach nearer to 55°, or temperate, would have caused growth and such growth would have been so weakly as to be worse than useless. Now, however, the thermometer may rise freely to 50° and 55° during sunshine, growth may be permitted, for the season of advance is present and must be utilized to the utmost! Give effect to these considerations in all glass structures, advancing the temperature some 5° at the beginning of the month, with an increase of 4° or 5° towards its end. To ensure this it may not be necessary to increase fire-heat. Structures may be given less air to, and shut up at 2.30 p.m. daily, injury from damp being past taking into account. In connection with the above, water must be given to all plants with greater frequency. This is especially important in regard to all hard-wooded and other plants which bloom in the early spring, Camellias, Indian Azaleas, Epacris, Heaths, Cinerarias, Cytissus, Acacias, Mouschœtums, Libonias, Eupatoriums and others, all having their pots well filled with roots. Deprivation of proper water at such a time will work much permanent injury to all: and a more limited and less beautiful display of flowers will result. At this season, when such plants as these are excessively taxed in self-support, a little liquid manure will be of great benefit. It should be given in moderation only, chemical aids being preferable, from the fact that they are not so likely to sour the soil. For this purpose, "Florvita" or Clay's fertilizers are good. Double and single-flowered Primulas and Cinerarias, gay with flower, should have increased supplies of water also, being taken care not to unduly moisten the superficial base of the two former.

"Fancy," "Stage," and "Regal" Pelargoniums will now grow apace. Keep them close up to the glass, in a light, airy aspect. Pinch back the points of the longer and stronger of the young shoots, tying them round, to make room for the lesser ones nearer the base of the plant to grow. It will be necessary to ascertain, by turning the ball of one of the strongest plants out of its pot, when the roots have thoroughly permeated

the soil last used in potting; another "shift" into pots, one size larger, being necessary immediately this is perceived.

Early in February all bedding-plants must be thoroughly picked over and freed from decaying leaves, etc.; and, towards the end of the month sundry kinds of free growing should have their points pinched out, to ensure dwarfer and more bushy plants ultimately. This should not be done in the case of Verbenas, Salvias, Petunias, and similar plants, until it is convenient to utilize the young shoots as cuttings; a slight hot-bed, or other artificial bottom heat being requisite at this date to root them. In like manner cuttings from Alternantheras—so essential in "carpet" bedding—Coleus, etc., should be propagated as early as possible: the result giving duplicate batches of cuttings, in turn, which form more quickly. At least, preparation for this work must be well advanced by the end of the month. All Dutch Bulbs, such as Hyacinths and Tulips, and Shrubs for forcing, may now be pushed forward in warmth very rapidly and with success. In forcing pits proper, keep them constantly damp, with the syringe, until flowers commence to expand. Where forcing pits are not employed they must be placed in the most sheltered place within the greenhouse, where, during sunshine, accompanied with a dry buoyant air, they may also be occasionally damped over. All bulbous plants placed under outdoor coverings should now be removed into the greenhouse, or cold pit, watering well when needed. Harder kinds of plants wintered in cold frames should now have plenty of fresh air given them by removing the sashes from over them during favourable weather.

Window Gardening.— Place Hyacinths growing in glasses on window ledges, for full exposure, at all times excepting during frosty weather, should such exist. When the water in the glass becomes foul, pour it out holding the glass in one hand and the bulb firmly in the other slightly elevating the bulb, to allow the impurities to flow out and then replenishing the water. With a gloved hand rub over the surface soil in all pots, to freshen the surface and deodorise dust-accumulative impurities. Sponge the leaves of India Rubber plants more frequently, giving similar aid to other smooth-leaved plants, placing others not adapted for this process over the sink, or out of doors, when the syringe or fine-rosed waterpot may be freely applied to shower all parts over, in view of washing them well.

Grape Vines and Orchard Houses.—Where successional vineries exist, it will be desirable to make rapid advance, even with the earlier of two only. Every Vine must be thoroughly cleared of all loose bark, and painted over with the materials previously referred to; the walls whitewashed, paint cleaned, etc. Forcing is commenced by shutting up the house close for a week, with occasional syringings, damping the floors and walls all over, etc. After the first week a little fire-heat is employed to raise and maintain the temperature at 55°, with increased moisture. This warmth is raised about 2° per week up to 65°, allowing, as the Vines commence to "break" and to grow, more and more air, but always shutting up all air apertures at one o'clock p.m. on south aspects, and mid-day when the aspect of the house is east or west, with thorough delugings of soft tepid water. The temperature at night should be 7° or 8° lower than during the day. Orchard houses—and with them must be included Peach houses—require similar treatment to the above, but with slower advance, the inmates being of a hardier nature than is the Grape Vine. Give free root-waterings to all fruit trees so forced, growing in pots. Do not, however, by any means, attempt to force such houses where artificial heat does not exist, leave the sashes down until next month, when an advance may be made. It will not be safe to start them yet. A March, or even April frost, may come, which penetrating the glass, may destroy all. Strawberries, in pots for forcing, place upon the upper shelves

of any cool fruit-house, giving root waterings freely; but do not attempt to force any until after they have been in such a place a few weeks, where they will be incited to make a gentle start.

Hardy Flower Garden.—All arrears of work in this department must now be hurried forward, until all manuring, forking, and edging of flower-beds and borders is completed; clumps of herbaceous plants devided, transplanted, etc., as needed; Carnations, Pinks, and all spring-blooming plants should be made good in beds or borders, where the winter has caused vacancies. About the end of the month, seeds of hardy annuals may be sown upon a warm, sheltered border. They include Silenes, Collinsias, Clarkias, etc. All **climbing-plants** growing against walls of warm aspect, should have the necessary pruning and nailing-in completed quickly. Growth is often very early in such positions; the improved forms of Clematis being extremely free in this regard. Any delay in this matter of pruning is likely, therefore, to prove very destructive to them. Make sure that all Rose-trees and other plants are properly staked and secured before the advent of the March winds. Place a nice surface-dressing of decayed and sifted manure over beds of Lily of the Valley. Should the spring season prove a very early one, Hybrid, Perpetual, and the hardier kinds of Rose, may be pruned towards the end of the month. Should frosts occur then, it will be well to defer the operation until March arrives. The mistaken practice of early pruning causes young shoots to form prematurely, the result being that March and early April wind-frosts destroy all prospect of a good growth and bloom display. Tulips in the open border will now have grown to assume a conspicuous size. Hoe amongst them freely during a dry-weather period, so as to loosen up the soil and leave it roughly around each plant for its protection. Hyacinths, similarly grown in sheltered places, should be supported by neat sticks to protect them from winds and heavy rain-showers. Plant a portion of the rested corms of Gladioli. The soil to suit them cannot be too deep or rich. They may be planted in such good soil deeper than is customary. At this early season place them at least four inches deep. The brightest of the cheaper forms is Brenchleyensis. This variety, planted either in goodly rows or *en masse*, gives as glowing and beautiful an effect, when in bloom, as any flower our gardens possess. Finish planting Ranunculi and Anemones; the latter should be more generally grown in all gardens. **Lawns** which are thinly grassed, or patchy, will be greatly benefited at this time by having a moderate surface-mulching of any kind of manure intermixed, and enriched soil. Even the best lawn-sward will be improved by occasional sweeping, and the frequent use of the roller. Apply these remarks practically also to all **garden walks,** which are after mild winters much overspread with minute seedling weeds. Where these greatly abound, walk-turning being unnecessary or impracticable, procure coarse salt, and give them a slight sprinkling with it during a frosty period, sweeping it to and fro amongst the weeds whilst the frost lasts. This will tend to destroy them, and improve the walk besides.

Hardy Fruit Garden.—Dwarf fruit-trees grown upon Quince or Paradise stocks, should be kept under restraint by root pruning, should be carefully taken up during any mild weather, and the roots pruned and replanted. Every possessor of a moderate-sized garden, not having an orchard, or room to plant standard trees, should procure a few of these interesting dwarfs, which fruit far more quickly and more freely than is generally surmised. It is imperative now that all **wall fruit-trees,** excepting Peach and Nectarine, and all Espalier and Pyramidal ones be finally pruned, trained, or fastened into their respective places. The general rule with all is to choose a young shoot wherever it may exist conveniently for extending or filling out wall and espalier trees. Afterwards such young shoots as are not required

are cut away down to within two or three buds of their base. The supports of all permanent branches are then seen to, and whether these consist of shreds against walls, or stakes for espalier-grown, test all to see that they are capable of giving the requisite support during the exigencies of the next eight or nine months, renewing or replacing any that need it. It will be a mistaken saving to pass any questionable ones now, at the risk of having heavily cropped branches torn down anon, with its dual injury to tree and crop, and at a very busy period. Exceptions to the above system of pruning occur in connection with the Morello Cherry, the Fig, and Grape Vines grown against outdoor walls. The former, as with the Black Currant, only requires to have branches removed where any are so dense, as not to have room. Just the tip, or apex, of each shoot should also be cut away, to induce more weakly mid-tree shoots to take up the growth to make all more perfectly fan-shaped. Fig-trees only require to have sucker shoots, which push unduly from around the base, bodily removed. **Grape Vines**, upon house and garden walls, prune precisely the same as those indoors. Cut the lateral shoots all back to an eye of the main rods, excepting any straight ones existing at the apices of these latter, which are needed and therefore should be retained, to extend their length. Nail each main cane equi-distant from the other, always perfectly straight, at whatever angle or divergence of angles required. By taking a little pains with the shoots when young, they are easily brought under restraint, and will thence last permanently in the same goodly shape. **Bush Fruits** should not be pruned too early owing to winter injury done by birds to the buds. Towards the middle of the month commence pruning all, however. Thin out Gooseberries, and retain all straight, strong young shoots, as far as a proper regard for such thinness will permit. Currant, red and white, shorten young shoots down to within a couple of buds of their base, excepting in instances where, here and there, a leading shoot is required to extend the dimensions of any. We are averse to digging greatly, close around these bush fruits; too much manure cannot, however, well be given to any in the shape of surface-dressings. Remove all sucker shoots from around Filbert Trees.

Kitchen Garden.—With the present month, a return of cropping operations comes. Sow long-pod Broad Beans upon any stiff soil in the garden. About February 10th, sow Peas, William I., or Day's Early Sunrise, and about the 26th of the month, successional sowings of the same, also Veitch's Perfection and Telephone. A warm aspect should be chosen for the latter, having deep, well-enriched soil beneath. Plant also a few rows of Potatoes, Veitch's Early Ashleaf, placing the seed tubers about six inches deep, to secure them against injury by frosts should they occur shortly after planting, and to check somewhat their too quick growth into early exposure above ground. Place a little light litter over all these sowings for a few weeks after planting. Those who would have a good crop of Onions and Parsnips during the succeeding season, must thus early prepare the ground for them by trenching, well manuring, etc., so that it has time to settle down firmly before the date of seed-sowing, now so rapidly approaching. To prepare the ground one day and sow the next is, in connection with these two crops, to secure a failure. Prepare, also, all new ground required for Seakale, Rhubarb, Globe and Jerusalem Artichokes, and Horseradish. Sow Cucumber seeds in a hot bed, or prepare bed or house for the reception of young plants procurable elsewhere. Sow also, in spare frames, Short Horn Carrots and Radishes; planting Potatoes in the soil previously, if it is convenient to detain the frames until such are fully matured. Seakale and Rhubarb continue to force successionally as required, by using fresh plants—as before advised for this purpose. Take up and place in boxes Mint roots,

to grow for the early crop, and continue the general routine of removing all useless vegetable remains, hoeing amongst all existing crops, giving air to frame Cauliflowers and Lettuces, and the turning over, etc., all root stores.

MARCH.

After a mild winter vegetation unless checked by adverse winds or frost during February, will be naturally, abnormally forward. Now, however much we may be delighted to welcome the coming spring, we must not forget that the earlier it comes the less can its delights be depended on; for, even in the mildest winters, there are generally cold snaps, which may do more damage to the early and tender buds which mild weather has tempted out, than a really severe spell of sharp cold will do to plants and trees in a condition of rest. Again, if our ground has been properly dealt with, much of it ought to be still in the rough ridges, thrown up after it was trenched for the winter, and this for the twofold purpose of drying out the wet and allowing the frost more completely to penetrate the lumps of earth. Even a heavy clay soil so treated becomes, after a hard winter, friable and workable to an astonishing degree, and for some plants and vegetables a better soil than any other, while the same ground left smooth will be a solid impervious layer, good for nothing—wet in rainy times, and a solid refractory lump in the sunshine. I well remember a friend of mine, who told me he had to plant his cabbages with a crowbar, and water them with a fire-engine, so stiff was the clay of his garden; and yet that very soil, dealt with as above suggested, could hardly be surpassed for growing those useful vegetables. This, by way of parenthesis, to suggest to those of our readers, who have not followed our previous directions, that they must not expect results if they have not worked for them; and if now the winter work is not done, the summer's product will suffer. "Except a man work, neither shall he eat." This text ought to be cut in large and deep letters, at the entrance of every garden, for of no occupation is it so true and inexorable. Supposing, however, that we are all ready, and the spring is making unmistakable signs of its presence, March is a very busy month. Sowing, taking cuttings, potting and re-potting are in the fullest operation, and every bit of glass or protection is as fully taxed as possible to house the stuff for coming use; and all this being in a state of active growth, needs most watchful attention to avoid check or drought.

The Conservatory should now be in its most beautiful condition, with Azaleas, late Camellias, Cinerarias, Heaths, Gloxinias, Hyacinths, and the rest of the gorgeous bulb tribes in their greatest splendour, and but little will be necessary to complete satisfaction beyond keeping the place scrupulously clean, and arranging the plants artistically with proper regard to colour and form. Remember that while contrast is the soul of effect, in this case the colours next to one another must be selected with due regard to harmony, for while nature *never* is guilty of bad taste in colour, nature does not mass together one tithe of the glowing shrubs and plants now found in the well-managed conservatory, and, therefore, art must step in to blend our beauties in such a way that they shall each help the other. Never, for instance, place pink next to scarlet, for both will suffer although both are intrinsically beautiful. Also, do not be afraid of green. A mere green or even brown shrub, without a flower on it, often does more than one would believe to throw up and emphasize colour.

In the Greenhouse matters will be in a most active state of preparation, especially in the little piece we hope all our readers have partitioned off at one end for the hotter division, where in a shallow bed, over the pipes, pots are plunged in cocoa-fibre, and filled with tiny cuttings of all the soft stuff so essential to the garden in June; such as Verbenas (cuttings from the pots

stored through the winter for the purpose), Lobelias, Cupheas, Petunias, Salvias, Sedums, Tropœolums, Fuchsias, Alternantheras, Ageratums, and fibrous Begonias, etc. All these should be put into 48-pots, in a fairly good, but not over rich compost. As much depends on the first operation, let us describe in detail the plan we find most successful. Fill a pot to an inch from the top with mould as described, and press same firmly down, taking care first to have plenty of drainage crocks at the bottom, and rougher lumps of earth above the crocks, with finer bark on top; over this a layer half an inch thick of clean, *dry*, silver sand. From one to three dozen cuttings carefully prepared, and the lower leaves cleanly removed with a sharp knife, are dibbled into the earth well through the sand, so that in the hole with the cutting a quantity of the sand will find its way also. A good, but gentle sprinkling of water from overhead with a very fine rose, will settle the whole down well into place, and the effect will be both neat and satisfactory. All cuttings in heat, need to be kept close and moist until they strike out roots, which will be in from one to three weeks, according to the kind and heat available, which should not be less than from 60° to 70°. Immediately they are fairly struck the pots should be removed and put for a few days in a cooler place to harden off for pricking out into more roomy quarters, or separate pots as required. The same nursery bed is available for the numerous seedlings, which ought to be sown towards the end of the month, such as Ten-Week Stocks, Balsams, Cockscombs, Phlox, Zinnias, etc., but these will need very few days in the close frame, and should be pricked off into pans or boxes as soon after the third leaf shows as they can be safely handled. Coleus should also be struck now and kept growing on lustily in moist heat to form early specimens both for indoors and out. In the hot division, most of the greenhouse shrubs can also be struck now, and those interesting specimens of the Cactus tribe, the Epyphyllums, may be grafted into their proper stock. If this is successfully done, some of them should flower in the following winter.

The Flower Garden.—Here the bulbs will be making a grand show, and must be carefully staked up to prevent damage from high winds, and Tulips, if grown on a large scale, ought to have some protection overhead if they are to retain their beauty long. Roses must now be pruned back closely, and manure should be forked into the surface of the ground, but not deeply. Gladiolus bulbs should be planted, and put in fairly deep, certainly not less than five inches. They do not object to a good stiff soil. The lawn should have careful attention now, all weak places being re-made, and the whole well rolled, levelled, and weeded. At present it is not desirable to mow it, as, although the roots are stirring, the young blades are but tender, and late frosts would greatly injure crowns laid bare by the scythe.

Kitchen Garden.—Beans and Peas, if not already sown, put in at once, and later sorts in succession; towards the end of the month also sow Broccoli, Cauliflower, and Cabbage, Lettuce and small Salading, and Onions, Parsley, Parsnips and Radishes, Spinach and Turnips. For the best kinds, for the respective time of the year, a careful study of your particular seedsmen's catalogue will be well repaid. If the wall fruit trees are showing bloom, some shelter is desirable against frost; a net or some tiffany nailed over them on cold nights will do. All decayed leaves, stumps of cabbages, etc., which have remained from the winter, must be continuously and regularly removed, and their space neatly dug and freshly manured for future crops. If strawberries give signs of growth, lose no time in hoeing out all weeds and clearing dead leaves away.

APRIL.

The month of April gives us so many signs of life and activity in the vegetable kingdom, that there will be

no difficulty in keeping up interest and enthusiasm to the proper pitch necessary to ensure all the thousand and one attentions demanded by the garden and its adjuncts. Those who have no glass-houses, will still have much delight in watching the ever-increasing growth of shoots and blossoms of the earlier and hardier plants, while the period of seed-time will find so much employment that every crack and corner of time will need to be made the most of. In the propagating beds we shall find plenty to do making up stock, and taking cuttings of all the soft-wooded bedding-plants not already attended to, as instructed last month.

The Conservatory, though it has lost much beauty and more perfume, with the going-off bloom of the Hyacinths, ought now to be gay with the magnificent Azalea, Cineraria and Calceolaria, and many others; while the useful Geranium and modest Fuchsia will be asserting their claims for attention at no distant date, and will need tying-out and training to ensure later an effective display. Those bulbs which have gone off flower should be removed from the pots and laid in the soil of an odd border, with the leaves out to mature and ripen, which is done as soon as the same die off, when the bulbs should be taken up and stored in a cool, dry place, until time to plant again. Let me warn my readers that bulbs are seldom much good a second year, after being grown in pots; and if they have made their flowers in glasses, with water only for their sustenance, it is waste of trouble to save them, as no amount of care will renew their vigour. When the sun is very bright, the conservatory will need plenty of air (not draught), and should be shaded to prolong the life of the flower to the utmost. Remember that the very name "conservatory" explains its use, namely, to conserve, a purpose often forgotten by the tyro who imagines that the warmer he keeps the house the better, whereas the exact contrary is the fact. That is, of course, provided there is a greenhouse to grow to perfection the necessary plants to furnish the conservatory with a continual supply. Too often the one house has to do double or even treble duty of growing and conserving, and possibly of a vinery, conditions altogether inconsistent with success in either department. I do not say it is not possible to make a fairly successful compromise between two of these stages, but it will only be a compromise at the best.

In the Greenhouse, supposing we are fortunate enough to have one, we have plenty to do to follow up our work commenced last month. First the seedlings and cuttings then taken will all want pricking out, or potting-off into roomier quarters, ready for later hardening-off and still later bedding-out. The seeds of Asters may now be put in with safety. Towards the end of the month Geraniums should be got out into cold frames, or even out of doors altogether, provided only that they are so placed as to make it possible to protect them against actual frosts, if occasion arise. In the house, while active growth is going on, plants need copious waterings to prevent check, and all the light possible, with frequent turning, to ensure good shape and equal growth all round. The hard-wooded plants which have done flowering should now be pruned back into shape, and all the seed-pods carefully picked off, so that next year's supply of bloom may be duly prepared for and ensured; and such as are pot-bound, or the soil of which is exhausted, will need a shift, or re-potting at once.

In the Hardy Flower Garden, we need to prepare beds for sowing the hardy annuals at the end of the month, and shall, probably, already enjoy a fine show of spring flowers and bulbs. The great bulb tribe is now having its innings out of doors, and vies with the Alpine garden in delight and beauty. All blooms of Hyacinth, or other tall flowers, should be carefully staked to avoid damage from high winds to be looked for now. In sowing annuals outside, do not forget

to sprinkle mignonette broadcast. This fragrant flower will grow like a weed if it falls where it likes, but often declines to be coaxed in to growing at all in a given position. Therefore sow it everywhere, and pull it up where it is *de trop*, so as to run no risk of a short supply. Rose-trees of course you pruned last month. If not, do it at once, and see the trees properly staked. Now we must begin to mow the lawn, at first with a scythe, and after two or three times with that, the machine should commence its regular work, and be alternated with plenty of rolling after moist weather.

The Kitchen Garden, will have much to be done in the way of sowing, but not a great deal else if the winter has been used to advantage in preparing the soil by digging and manuring. Peas and Broad Beans, for the second crops, should go in about the first week, together with successional sowing of all the other kitchen stuffs, Lettuce, Mustard and Cress, Radish, Spinach, etc., and quite at the end of the month it will be safe to sow Scarlet Runners and French Beans. Potatoes hardly come within our province to grow, but if you have room they are certainly worth the little comparative trouble; but it is late for any but the last crop. Cauliflowers sown in February, under glass and pricked off into boxes, should now be good big plants, and no time should be lost in planting out. They should be, at least, eighteen inches apart, and rows at least two feet, as they draw their sustenance from wide areas. To ensure large flowers water well in dry weather with manure-water. Plant out also Lettuces and Cabbages sown last month. Carrots and Beets—sow main crop in drills, but do not waste your seed in this operation unless the soil has been previously worked deeply, and well nourished, or ugly deformed roots, with half a dozen ill-shaped legs instead of one, will be the result.

MAY.

Every month of May ought to begin one of those radical changes which form the greatest delights of gardening, namely, the fruition of the work of storage which has been the care of the preceding five or six months. If our houses have been properly looked after they will be still in a state of loveliness, but our thoughts will, nevertheless, be rather taking the direction of anticipating outdoor joys to come, and the growing daylight and increasing warmth and sunshine, which, at least, we hope for during the opening months of spring, tempt us more and more to work and live in the open air.

The Conservatory will still need much attention, if only to keep tidy the rapidly developing, and as rapidly decaying flowers; and it cannot be too carefully borne in mind that with Camellias, Azaleas and such plants, next year's results depend on this year's care immediately after the flowering season. Now I can readily believe that after a particularly fine plant has gone off flower, and begins to look somewhat rusty and shabby, it will be viewed with feelings akin to disgust, and relegated to a back place to take care of itself, which is just what it cannot do. The period immediately following flower is the time when next year's buds are formed, and then the roots should be examined and trimmed, and such as need it should be re-potted in suitable mould or peat in pots a size larger than before, while all straggling or irregular growth must be checked and trained in, or removed altogether. Later in the season, when all chance of frost or biting wind is past, these hard-wooded subjects are better stood out of doors, in a position shaded from the scorching sun, but in a good light; here they mature buds, and ripen their wood properly. During the period of active growth, watering should be frequent and copious; but when fully developed the wood will ripen better if the frequency is less. When you water them soak thoroughly. This may be taken as a cardinal rule which during the summer applies to almost all cases.

In the Greenhouse during the early part of May we shall be probably crowded

out with the rapidly-growing stock that we propagated last month; and all plants that are forward enough should early be got out into cold frames or outside in positions where, in case of bitter weather, they can be afforded some protection. Now is the time to sow Asters, Balsams, Helichrysums, Solanums, etc., if they are not already in, and Coleus may still be struck in time to make good bedders. Those sown last month will want pricking out or potting into larger pots, and our hands will be more than fully occupied.

Out of doors.—The important operation of bedding-out must now engage our attention. This should be done gradually, commencing with the hardier sorts, and finishing up with the half-hardy and sub-tropical plants, so that perhaps a month in all may elapse before the job is finished. This is better for the plants, and saves a great rush. Pansies may be put out by the end of April. Then come yellow and orange Calceolarias, then Geraniums, then Pyrethrums. After which come the smaller and more delicate plants, such as Lobelias, Verbenas, and Petunas. Last of all, the sub-tropical subjects which form such magnificent back-grounds in park gardens, such as Cannas and Ricinus, while Coleuses, Alternantheras, and all the range of carpet bedders are so tender as to be better postponed till almost June, supposing that somewhat stiff and formal style of bedding being within the scope of any but professional gardening. All these questions are matters of taste, and no one man has a right to assume to be more right than his neighbour, but we do not advocate the plan of reducing the goddess Flora to depicting set patterns which seem better worked out in coloured worsted; and we view with satisfaction the growing distaste for formality. It is equally impracticable to give any precise directions on the knotty point of arrangement, which must depend on so many different considerations, to wit—situation and size of beds, style of gardening, and, not least, variety and quantity of stock available. As a general rule, the larger the plant the further back it should be, and always mixture of colour must have some regard to harmony. A fair idea of what will look well as a contrast with another may be got by considering the question by the general laws of colour. Any one primary colour should be set off by a flower of its complementary colour. For instance, yellow is a primary colour, and purple, being a mixture of the two other primary colours of the spectrum, is its complement. Try a bed of this combination, and see how satisfactory the result will be. Take another example. Try a bed of blue Lobelia in which are regular patches of the orange star-like flower of the Gazania Splenders, and see how at once gorgeous and yet harmonious the result is. **Hardy Annuals** must be got in without delay, and let me advise my readers not to forget liberal sowings of each of the following favourites: Sweet Peas, Nasturtiums, Godetia (Lady Albemarle), Clarkia, Larkspur, Scabious, Eschscholtzia, Linum (grandiflorum rubrum). They grow anywhere, and, although probably will be dubbed old-fashioned, are nevertheless better worth a place than a great many of the new-fashioned plants which have somewhat pushed them out of place. **Lawns** will want constant care. Mowing with a machine at least once a week, and rolling well after damp weather.

The Kitchen Garden, during the time of extra business in the above department, will probably have to shift for itself to some extent, but still successional sowings of seeds must not be neglected, and the hoeing up of those rows just out of the ground must not be forgotten. Early Peas will be a good height and need stakes. Do not let the weeds, which grow somewhat rampantly now, get ahead of you, or you will find great difficulty in catching them up if they do. Vegetable activity being generally fully matched by the growth of **vermin** life, a close watch should be kept for the first signs of the gooseberry and currant caterpillar, and for aphides and maggots on roses, and black-fly on wall fruit trees and cherries. For the

grubs and caterpillars I do not know any cure but hand picking, which is tedious, but certain for the time being. All the nostrums guaranteed to eradicate these pests are of necessity noxious in themselves, and consequently to be avoided. For green and black fly tobacco water or Gishurst Compound may be syringed on, and after a couple of applications a thorough cleansing with clean water. I have found petroleum in the proportion of about a dessert-spoonful to a gallon of water a good mixture to use for delicate subjects. I think it acts more as a deterrent by making the insects' food disagreeable than as a destructive, and the mixture made as above should be gently rained on and left. The water dries off and leaves a layer of the oil of microscopic thinness, which flies evidently do not enjoy. Our old friends the slugs are likely to be a trouble if the weather should prove wet and mild. Here, again, it is difficult to prescribe a sure remedy. Digging in lime in the winter is good, but its effect is not very permanent, and it sometimes makes the soil too hot and dry. If you are an enthusiastic amateur you will trap your slugs at night, and may with diligence and perseverance, in time, greatly reduce their ravages. The plan I found most effectual for this purpose was to smear cabbage leaves with fat or grease (if rank so much the better) and lay them about at intervals, and about 9 or 10 o'clock collect them and destroy the snails and slugs with salt, lime, or boiling water. I have caught hundreds at one time by this means, as many as sixty on one leaf, but the job is distinctly disagreeable. One thing is certain: if you set such traps, and do not catch a number, you are not badly infested, for if anything will bring them out that plan will.

JUNE.

With the month of June we begin to realise the fact that out-door beauty is a thing of no distant date, and the long days and increasing warmth should permit us to live more and more in the open air, where many of our carefully-tended plants and flowers will now be found. As yet it will be rather a question of watching the plant growth than the full enjoyment of its floral splendours, which will take at least another month to develop in full; but the ever-increasing number of peeping blossoms will keep in check any feeling of impatience for the blaze of glory, which will follow. I am by no means sure that much of the pleasure of gardening does not consist in anticipation, for, assuredly, if we did not plant and sow with a magnified belief as to the results to follow, some of us would be discouraged by the labour involved. June is a very difficult month to give very exact directions about, because the weather is such an uncertain element in the calculation. One year it will be so sweltering hot that a drought seems imminent: and another a cold, pitiless rain will threaten to wash all nature away, and we must, naturally, modify the general order of things to meet either of these extremes.

In the Conservatory, Pelargoniums, Heaths, Fuchsias, Abutilons, etc., should be yielding beautiful display. All the plants here should have plentiful supplies of water during dry weather, and if sunny, a complete, but light shading will tend greatly to prolong the season of bloom. As soon as bloom is over, all such plants as then set their buds for next year's blooms should be removed to a cool, shady place out of doors, but though placed in a quite shady corner they must be well looked after, for if allowed to become thoroughly dry, their constitutions will suffer, perhaps irretrievably. **Chrysanthemums** for Christmas show will now be pushing on fast, and must be constantly attended to, especially as to their shifts from pot to pot as they fill successive sizes. They ought to stand out of doors, but sheltered from high winds, which easily break off the young shoots. The plants themselves need a full exposure to sun and air, but the roots must be most religiously guarded from scorching rays. I find it best to plunge the pots bodily

into a bed of cocoa-fibre refuse, which is clean in itself, and not liable to harbour vermin, or to decay.

In the Greenhouse we ought to be now much less pressed for space, so many of the plants being now transferred to the borders outside. Plants for the later decoration of the conservatory, however, ought to receive attention. Potting or staking up, and general training, of all such plants as Balsams, Begonias, late Fuchsias, Specimen Geraniums, Pelargoniums, and Coleus should be proceeded with. Primulas, Calceolarias, and Cinerarias, should now be sown, or, if already done, pricked off as soon as fairly large enough to handle. If a cold frame is available, these subjects should be removed to it as soon as they have recovered from being shifted from their seed pans. It is not too late, now the rush of bedding-out is over, to tackle the windows, which will be greatly beautified by a few boxes filled with handsome plants. For this purpose, rough boxes of the right size, to completely fill the window space, may be made by any handy amateur, and the roughness quite hidden with a few pieces of virgin cork-bark nailed on the front. The boxes must be well drained by holes in the bottom, and crocks and rough mould over them, and before being used should be painted some suitable dark but quiet colour, or with patent pitch, or, better still, Brunswick black. No box ought to be less than six inches wide and deep; but an inch narrower may be made to do. The soil should be good rich loam, leaf-mould and manure, with a small amount of sharp river-sand. Suitable plants are Geraniums, Fuchsias, Petunias, with a groundwork and festoons of creeping and hardy plants, such as Nasturtium (very sparingly introduced), Musk, and Nemophila, with Mignonette to make up a perfect result by its delightful perfume. Of course, the aspect of the window will greatly influence the choice of plants, as without a fair amount of sun, flowers will be scarce, and for a north window it will be better to seek beauty out of mere greenery, than to court disappointment by cultivating flowering plants.

Out of doors.—Finish bedding out those tender plants which were not put out in May, as already recommended delaying this operation till as late as the middle of the month, should the temperature be low, or the weather wet, as no time is saved, and much often lost, if such plants are checked by adverse circumstances. Among the sub-tropical plants so ornamentally used in large gardens and parks are the Cannas, and having regard to the ease with which these may be grown (a couple of pennyworth of seed sown in heat producing a quantity), every amateur should have some for the backs of borders and centres of beds. They grow rapidly when planted out, and by Midsummer should be handsome shrubs. If taken up at the end of the season, before the frost nips them, they may be stored in a dry place until next spring, but I doubt if it is worth the trouble. Bedders recently planted out, must also have plenty of water during dry seasons, but after once duly rooted, the less the better. Surface waterings, such as are possible with ordinary garden appliances, tend to bring the tender rootlets to the surface, where the sun speedily scorches them up so soon as the cooling supply ceases. Further, as to the time for watering, it may seem a paradox to suggest that the proper time to water a garden is during rain; but it is less so than it seems, for the conditions best adapted for a plant's needs are present during over-cast weather. Hence, in hot weather, evening or very early morning should be chosen. To sprinkle plants overhead during hot sunshine is to endanger spotted and blistered leaves, as well as to do harm to the delicate root fibres, as above mentioned. Our **Roses** ought in June to be giving an earnest of their intention to repay our care, but it will require little experience to learn that while Nature is very bountiful in providing flowers and fruits in their season, she also seems equally bountiful in generating a supply of worms, grubs, and insects to eat up

the same as fast as they arrive at maturity, if not before, so we must wage most unceasing and watchful war on these pests. For the rose-grub there is nothing for it but hand-picking daily. For green fly, the syringe with plain water and a good deal of force ought to be sufficient. If these insects are too firmly established, it may be necessary to first dose them with solution of Gishurst Compound, or with a very weak mixture of paraffin and water, which will eradicate the disease in all but the plants which are constitutionally unhealthy. Wall creepers and Climbing Roses will be in a state of active growth, and will need nailing up and training continuously; and the ground creepers, such as Verbenas, Petunas, etc., will want pinching in and pegging down.

In the Kitchen Garden we ought to be in receipt of rich crops of all kinds —Beans, Peas, Radish, Salads, Greens, etc., but still must not neglect providing for the later season by constant successional sowings of the smaller stuffs. Plant out all the seedlings as ready—of Cabbage, Cauliflower, and Broccoli, in richly manured soil, and make up trenches for leeks, if you grow them, as well as one for the earliest row of celery. For making up new strawberry beds, now is the time to take runners; and the best way to ensure fruit from the same next year is to select the earliest first shoots, and root them into pots placed on the beds, severing the runner as soon as established. These pots can be removed to any convenient spot, until convenient to make up fresh beds, or may, from time to time, be potted on for early fruiting in the forcing-house. In the meantime they must not be allowed to get dry. Hoe between all rows of growing crops to keep down weeds, and earth up potatoes well over the ridges, where the sets are growing vigorously.

JULY.

All our active work of bedding out having been duly attended to before this, we shall be looking, perhaps, for some relaxation, and for the enjoyment of the fruits of our labours hitherto, but while we may deservedly expect now the substantial result of our care, it will be, nevertheless, useless to think of being idle for a moment. *Dolce far niente* is a phrase which scarcely bears translation to our rugged language, and the practice of "taking it easy" suits quite as little the condition of the English gardener's life. Under the sunny sky of Italy it is possible to bask in the delicious warmth, and to let Nature take care of herself, which she can do very well, but British soil has no place for the lazaroni, and such would starve here. No sooner is one season with us than the next must be thought for, planned for, and worked for, or we shall find ourselves without the results in the future we need and desire.

In the Conservatory growth will be proceeding at a rate quite incompatible with rest, and will need constant tying and trimming to keep the general effect tidy. The climbers, such as Passion flowers, must be kept within such reasonable bounds as will not interfere with the blooming shoots, and must be trained so as to rob the rest of the place of as little light as may be. If the weather is hot and dry a constant syringing with a fine rose will be beneficial to these and Fuchsias; but the less fleshy plants in flower must not be so sprinkled, or the delicate flower leaves will be wrinkled and spoilt. All hard-wooded plants, which have made their new leaves and show their buds, must now be re-potted; Heaths and Azaleas in peat and silver sand only, Camellias with an admixture of yellow loam. If the Azaleas are to be trained into formal shape (pyramid or standard), this must be continually attended to by wiring, tying, or staking, never removing a good and vigorous shoot, unless the same be quite intractable. Begonias of both sorts, fibrous and tuberous, are now magnificent objects, and will probably be more and more favourites as the ease of their culture is fully realized. They seem subject to none of the usual

ills of plant life, and few pests attack them. Culture is easy and success practically certain, while their variety is endless, and each sort beautiful. Some of the fibrous divisions are equally suited for out-door display during the summer, and stand either wet or drought with comparative indifference flowering from July right up to the autumn frosts. As soon as the fancy Pelargoniums are over flowering, they must be cut down to two or three eyes to each branch, and placed out of doors to break afresh, when they may be shaken out and repotted to get ready for another season. The portions removed may be struck in the open border or full light, or in pots if more convenient. Pelargoniums thrive best in fibrous loam made out of turf heaped up, and allowed to decay, with a small amount of manure. Shading the conservatory from direct sunshine by some light material will greatly prolong the period of blooming, and, with the same end in view, the temperature should be kept as low as possible by thorough ventilation, without cold draughts.

In the Hardy Flower Garden now is the time to sow Biennials, such as Sweet Williams and the like, and also to divide the spring flowering plants which have done blooming. Carnations and Picotees should be in full flower, and the outside shoots ought to be in a condition for layering. Chrysanthemums in pots for the conservatory will be growing rapidly, and will need continual tying up and training, and will be benefited by weekly copious but weak manure waterings. Dahlias need staking and securing as they grow, as the young shoots are very tender and liable to be broken down by the wind. The double sorts should be reduced to one leading shoot, but the single sorts should be encouraged to grow as bushy and unchecked as possible. Trim hedges and over-luxurious shrubs with the knife where possible, but Hawthorns and Privets must be left to the shears. Lawns, and grass generally, must be continually mowed and rolled unless the weather is very dry and hot, in which case it will do less harm to let it alone than to shave it too close when there is no rapid growth at the bottom. The practice of removing the grass in a box on the machine is very properly going out altogether, and should in most cases be avoided, as, unless the mowings are very considerable, the young roots are better protected by the cuttings being left on the ground. The circular screen at the back of the rotary knife of the machine should be removed, so that the grass as cut is thrown down instead of out at the front. The **Wellingtonia Gigantea** is one of the most suitable trees for a single specimen on a large lawn, or as the centre of an extra-sized flower bed. These trees succeed well on any soil suitable to its congeners, the pine tribe; and, with full space and all-round light, will, in a comparatively short time, grow into magnificent objects.

In the Kitchen Garden the Strawberries are in full crop, and ought, before the end of June, to have been littered with straw to keep the berries from the dirt or from splashing rains. The straw also retains the moisture and retards evaporation. Keep down all runners not needed for future beds, and be careful in selecting those for service to take them only from fruiting plants, or a large proportion of your new beds will prove *blind*. Watch and constantly attend to Cucumbers and Melons in frames. The former bear less of the sunlight than the latter, and want more copious watering. A shading is readily obtained by whitewashing the glass with a mixture of whiting and milk, which has sufficient consistency and tenacity to last about one season, and yet is easily removable. Earth up the early rows of Celery as fast as the growth demands, and in drought water freely. Plant out more for late rows. Sow dwarf French Beans for last crops, and stake and trim Scarlet Runners. It is quite possible to utilise this vegetable in both the ornamental and useful directions, and an ingenious gardener

will not have much difficulty in making a very delightful bower if long pea-sticks are used, which the runners will speedily cover, and render at once attractive and productive. As fast as the crops of Peas, Spinach, and early vegetables come off, the ground must be re-dug and manured, and the vacant spaces should be again occupied with Cabbages, Cauliflowers, and Brussels Sprouts, for later use. **Grafting Roses.** A corner of the kitchen garden may be occupied with the briers for budding roses on to, and now is the proper time for that interesting operation. A thin sharp knife, and a careful attention to the directions given in your rose-growers' manual, should make this a matter of no uncertainty. In choosing buds for the purpose, be guided rather by the needs of your stock to gain due variety, than the sorts most easily to hand. It is better to wait your opportunity than to bud either an inferior kind, or to over-stock your garden with one sort. A dull damp day should be chosen for budding.

AUGUST.

August is a month when the care of the year should be repaid with full interest in abundance of flowers and fruits, and that being the case, it is to be regretted that so many who are fortunate enough to possess good gardens, should so often choose this month for flying away to the sea, or lake and mountain.

In the Conservatory.—Foliage Plants will have to be relied on for much of our show, and we know few sights more worth the small trouble involved than can be got out of such plants as Coleus, Poinsettias, Dracenas, Caladiums and Ferns, as a background and setting for the more vivid colours of the flowers out, such as Liliums, Pelargoniums, Fuchsias, etc., all of which will need an abundance of water, and shade from direct sunshine. **In the Greenhouse** or the growing portion of the conservatory, there will be comparatively little to do, and now is the best time of all to entirely clear out such structures, and cleanse and paint the woodwork, and clean the glass. Primulas, Cyclamens and Cinerarias, may be sown in pans on a cool shelf near the glass, or, if up, may be neatly pricked off in pans, or they will do very well in a cool frame. For the later display of the conservatory, Chrysanthemums ought now to be making substantial progress, but these must be out of doors as late as they can be safely left without danger of frosts. As the plants grow, see them firmly staked and tied up, and the pots must be plunged in ashes or cocoa-fibre to keep the roots cool. Once let the sun play full on the pot, and your plants are done for. If large flowers are wanted rather than quantity, as the stems grow they must be kept free from side shoots, and the buds all but three or four of the strongest must be nipped out, and a weekly supply of weak liquid manure must be administered. Those plants, if Camellias, Azaleas, etc., still out of doors must not be forgotten or allowed to become dry, or the spring display will be spoiled.

In the Hardy Flower Garden all ought to be bright and beautiful, but as growth is extremely vigorous and rapid, continual care will be needed to keep matters looking neat and tidy. Verbenas, Petunias, and such subjects need constant pegging down and pinching in, while the tall growers, as Dahlias, double and single, must be just as carefully staked and tied. This is the month for laying Pinks, Carnations, and Picotees, and also for sowing most of the biennials to bloom next year, such as Sweet Williams, Wallflowers, etc. Divide Auriculas and Polyanthus. One important point is too often neglected in flower beds, namely, to carefully pick off all seeds and spent blossoms. All plants greatly exhaust themselves in perfecting their seeds, and to prevent them doing so very much prolongs the flowering season. Where cuttings can be taken for next year's supply of bedders, without spoiling the appearance of the plants, it is not too early to

strike them, but next month will do with all but the very tender subjects.

Shrubberies must be kept neat, and the subjects within bounds, and gravel walks will want constant rolling after showers, and weeding at all times. The lawns to be mown and rolled as often as occasion demands. That horticultural curiosity the Araucaria imbricata, commonly called the "Monkey Puzzler," for the obvious reason that it is not available for climbing purposes by the most ardent and athletic members of the species quadrumana. These truly ornamental trees will grow and flourish in any suitable spot with good light soil well drained, and will stand even a severe winter if not too fully exposed to cutting winds. They should be planted as single specimens, with light all round, or otherwise they may grow unevenly.

In the Kitchen Garden begin sowing the crop to stand the winter of Winter Spinach, Cauliflower, Lettuce, and Cabbage, for spring plants, and Onions (Giant Rocca), as well as a supply of small salading for autumn use—Radish, Mustard and Cress. Clear away all beds past yielding good and young produce, such as Peas and Beans, the haulm of which may be burned, and the ashes spread over the land, and uproot all stuff running to seed or getting too old to be eatable. For instance, a Radish bed should never be allowed to pass the stage of youthful efficiency, as not only is the product worthless after that point, but the ground is exhausted in a very great degree by the roots remaining any longer. Plant out successive rows of winter stuff. Plant out Celery for latest supply, and earth-up those rows of the early plantings as soon as they need it. Carefully remove all decaying leaves as fast as they show, or an unhealthy and disagreeable result, both to the eye and the nose, will follow, as well as a state of things which is a great encouragement to snails, slugs, and other vermin. Earwigs and wasps are now very troublesome, and must be trapped and destroyed by all available means.

SEPTEMBER.

September is the month in which the work of the season culminates in completed results in nearly all departments, and from thence a diminution of yield and beauty must be expected. Arrangements must now not be delayed for the supply of cuttings and plants for the year which is to follow. There will still be plenty of work to keep things tidy, pulling up all weeds and annuals which have done flowering, not forgetting what we so often impress on our readers, namely, to cut off all seed-pods and withered flowers as fast as they show themselves, as nothing tends so much to prolong the season of bloom as a regular and systematic attention to this particular. The principal provision for the future to be attended to now, is the taking of cuttings of geraniums and plants of that class. Our plan for ordinary geranium cuttings, which we find not only most convenient and easy but also most successful, is to put at least eight or ten in a 48-pot, storing them, when struck, near the glass in a greenhouse or frame until about February, when they should be potted off into 60's singly. Care must be taken not to disfigure the plants more than is unavoidable in taking off slips, and those intended for lifting should be left alone altogether.

In the Conservatory the special shows will be diminishing in splendour, and before winter sets in this structure should have its annual cleansing, and a coat or two of white paint if possible. If the plants are stood out of doors in a quiet corner during this operation, they will take no harm, provided they are not allowed to suffer from draught or piercing winds. All those plants still in active bloom or growth should have copious supplies of liquid, but as they go off bloom this should be reduced, and in some few cases discontinued altogether, only just enough being given to keep the balls of roots from becoming dust dry. Primulas, Cinerarias, etc., need close attention as they grow on,

and as soon as they are large enough to put into small single pots should be so accommodated, and then after the check of the shift is over, say in a week, ought to be removed to cold frames and shaded from direct sunlight. If green-fly makes its appearance fumigate at once in small quantities. Better to smoke three times gently, than once and overdo it, which you may very easily do. If this pest should manifest itself so early, something wrong with the condition of the plants should be suspected, for they are seldom so attacked if in vigorous health and growth. When they are pot-bound just before coming into flower some fly is nearly certain to be present, but it ought not to be so during active growth. Those Fuchsias struck late in spring which are intended for autumn flowering will now need attention and training. It will be best to have kept them in deep pits, and well watered and syringed until ready for the show shelves. Pipings of Pinks and Carnations, and cuttings of Primulas, struck earlier in the year may now be planted out where they are to remain, and biennials of the Sweet William class should also be pricked out to their places. Particularly good specimens of the former should be potted off to embellish the conservatory. With Chrysanthemums continue to observe last month's directions.

The Hardy Fruit Garden will need considerable time spent on it. If our previous directions have been attended to, the gardener ought now to have a good supply of strawberry plants well rooted in pots, and with them should lose no time in making up new beds to replace any becoming exhausted. The ground must be deeply dug and well manured, and the plants then placed evenly and regularly in rows. Considerable difference of opinion exists as to how far apart they should be, but certainly not less than two feet row from row, and 18 inches in the row. Six inches more each way is much better, unless space is scarce. Raspberries must have all the old wood just done bearing cut out and burned up, and the strong new shoots neatly tied up to the stakes. The ground must on no account be dug or disturbed until the season of rest in the winter, and then the less the surface is interfered with the better. The long shoots on the pyramid pear and apple trees must now be reduced to about half their length, or not more than say six buds on each new growth. Where two shoots cross each other, remove one altogether. Pinch the tops out of the smaller twigs.

In the Kitchen Garden the fire will have to be kept pretty constantly going to get rid of the constantly increasing heaps of rubbish. Pea haulm, Bean straw, Cabbage and Cauliflower stalks, Weeds, Old Strawberry plants, etc., etc., can be got rid of in no other way so satisfactory, and weeds of all kinds should be so destroyed. The ashes form a valuable manure and can be safely scattered over the soil without danger of re-importing the weed germs, which the *débris* from the rubbish heap cannot, even though it may be rotted. Potatoes, Onions, Parsnips and Carrots will soon be ready for harvesting, and should be secured before any danger of wet weather arises. Plant Winter Greens and Cauliflowers for spring use on the spots vacated by these crops. Sow for succession small salading, and water Celery if dry.

OCTOBER.

The month of October must be looked upon as marking the beginning of the end as far as out-door luxuriance and splendour is concerned, for before the latter half it will be pretty sure that frosts will occur, and even if they should be but light, they will probably be enough to frustrate any expectation of new blooms on the bulk of flowering plants. Already to provide for next year we have reduced our Geraniums and such stuff by taking off much of their wood for cuttings, and this month is the latest we must leave those which we intend to lift and preserve for future specimen or stock plants.

In the Conservatory, affairs will

begin to assume their winter look, because all those hard-wooded plants (Camellias, Azaleas, etc.), which have greatly benefited by their having spent the summer in a shady corner out of doors, must not longer be risked there. All half-hardy and tender plants which have adorned our sub-tropical beds, as well as cutting pots, must also be housed, and much skill will be needed to preserve the bright look we crave in this structure. The main effect must largely consist of green and brown foliage, and colour must be sought in Coleuses, which should still retain their showiness, and in Begonias, Amaryllis, late Fuchsias and Pelargoniums, while ferns must also be greatly relied on for that ever acceptable and graceful effect which can be obtained from nothing else. Climbers which have done flowering in the house must be somewhat savagely cut back, and the remaining shoots well laid open to sun and light, to ripen them for next year. The whole of the back part of the house will be necessarily given up to our **Chrysanthemums**, which, so far, have had our attention in the borders outside. From their height and general growth the back of the greenhouse is more suitable for displaying these flowers than any other position, and though we must not look for actual floral display for a month yet, still they give now so much promise as to be fascinatingly interesting. They will not require much attention, if they are in the condition they ought to be, beyond a careful but not over abundant watering, with occasionally a little weak liquid manure, and, what is of the first importance, a large amount of ventilation at all possible times. It is better to give air even if it should be necessary to dispel extreme damp cold by a gentle fire heat at the same time. If you look for large flowers rather than many, disbud freely as early as possible, and do not forget to trap and catch earwigs by every available means. The havoc these pests make is dreadful, and as they work at night and eat out the soft base of the flower petals they must be exterminated at any cost. I find nothing really specific but careful examination with a bull's-eye lantern, which discovers one marauder before the next is alarmed. When found he should be shaken into a basin of hot water held underneath the flower, when his career of destructiveness will be ended.

Potting.—For the future spring supplies of beauty, now is the time to be moving; and bulbs of Hyacinth, Tulip, Narcissus, Crocus, Snowdrop, etc., must be procured, and about half of them put into pots, the other half being reserved for another month; and remember, it is quite useless to treat this operation as one of merely shaking so many bulbs into so many pots and just leaving them to take care of themselves. The fact is they need a particular treatment and are content with no other, and it is this: place a suitable quantity of each bulb (or one only in the case of large Hyacinths) in 48-pots, in rich but light and sandy compost, and let the eyes of the bulbs just appear on the surface, then store the pots (after watering them, if the soil is at all dry) on the ground in a shed or outhouse, then cover them a few inches deep with damp cocoa-fibre, spent tan, or cinder dust, and so leave them for a month, until on examination they show pots full of roots and a distinct push up of the stalk. On no account must any heat be applied until this is the case, or the bulbs will push out their flowers without any roots forming, and speedily perish for lack of nourishment. If no shed is convenient it will do to plunge the pots bodily into a border, but this plan is less conducive to clean pots on the one hand and easy examination on the other.

In the Hardy Flower Garden towards the end of the month it will save much of that dull feeling which one always has in watching decay and death, to anticipate the result and clear out our beds and borders of summer plants. They can then be thoroughly dug and replenished, and replanted with such spring flowers which we may have by us, such as Double Daisies, red and

white, Pansies, Primroses, Forget-me-nots, etc., together with such later bloomers as can be left among the bedders in the ensuing summer. It will not be too early towards the third week to include in this plan the putting in of such bulbs as we can spare for out of doors, Hyacinths are practically useless a second year, but Tulips and Crocuses are often as good as ever, so we save these from our last year's greenhouse for this purpose. Crocus bulbs should be put in clumps, not rows. General cleanliness is very requisite now, as decaying leaves are positively injurious to health, while unrolled lawns and paths and general untidiness is almost more offensive to the eye now than at the period of greater luxuriance.

In the Kitchen Garden the last of the harvesting must be completed; Potatoes, Carrots, and Onions must be taken up and stored in suitable places, the first two preferably in heaps in the ground, with a thick layer of turf or earth over them, as in this way they retain all their freshness. The ground vacated by these crops must be turned over and planted with Cabbages and Winter Greens if wanted. If not, a period of rest will be very welcome so long as weeds are systematically cleared off. If they are allowed to grow on unheeded, the end in view, rest, will clearly not be attained. The Raspberry canes which have borne fruit during the last season must be entirely cut away and burned, and the strongest of the new shoots trained up to the stakes. On no account must the soil between the canes be dug or disturbed, beyond such necessary hoeing as may be required to keep down weeds. Raspberry roots grow so close to the surface, that observance of this rule is imperative. The latest of the Apple and Pear fruit must be gathered now, and, if of the sorts which ripen in the spring, must be carefully stored away on shelves, so arranged as to admit of frequent examinations, both to remove any which may decay, and to discover the moment of perfection. Many Pears, though slow to ripen, speedily pass the Rubicon, and become insipid and woolly. If any planting operations are contemplated, or any radical changes of plan or arrangement, no time must be lost in deciding on and carrying them out, as large shrubs may now be moved with little risk, because the roots are still active, and will re-establish their interrupted relations with the earth before winter sets in, and so the spring will find them ready for business.

NOVEMBER.

So long as the weather is not actually frosty, such work as planting or removal of shrubs and trees, reducing and pruning and root-pruning of pyramid and other fruit trees, may still be undertaken with success, and although this month might seem to the uninitiated the least profitable of the whole twelve, it is by no means so. Often before have we insisted that successful gardening is *always* the result of forecasting and prevising the bread "cast upon the waters" not appearing and bearing fruit until "after many days." At no time in the year, perhaps, does it look more hopeless to plant and sow and dig and clear, and yet on our industry now rests much of the next summer's glory.

In the Conservatory things ought to be by no means so dull. The art of **Chrysanthemum culture** has so improved and developed of late years that a few specimens, and good ones, too, are within the reach of any one who will take a little trouble, and these pretty flowers ought to be quite enough to keep us gay (or a modified tone of gaiety suitable to the grey skies and dull days), until almost to Christmas. When these plants have done flowering, the simplest plan to deal with them is to cut down the main stalks and secure a few of the shoots quite from the bottom (not from the stalk, but from out of the roots) for cuttings, and then if the old plant is worth it, plant it out in a border at once to stand until the next year for an outdoor shrub. If the sort is not first-rate, throw it away and waste no time either on its

preservation or propagation. Nothing is such bad gardening as the multiplication of indifferent varieties, and there is no need so to do. Better half-a-dozen plants of a few good sorts than a whole catalogue of second-rate bloomers. Where Chrysanthemums are an important item in our show, we must perforce modify the conditions of the house to suit them, and prolong the bloom as much as possible, although this will, to some extent, prejudice those other of the inmates which prefer more coddling. Chrysanthemums are practically hardy, and will stand very cold weather, but need protection, mainly because cold winds cut them about and rain and smoke and dust dirty and soak the flowers when open, and so ruin the effect. While, on the other hand, shelter must be only protection, for any attempt at heat or forcing will be absolutely fatal, by encouraging blight and mildew. A dry, well-ventilated atmosphere, ranging between 45° and 50°, being the best, with shade from actual sunlight if such amount to much. Those of our plants in flower will need much skill to display to the greatest advantage among the crowd now taking a holiday, and should include Cyclamens, Abutelons, the earliest white Hyacinths, Winter Cherries, and probably a few late Fuchsias. **Bulbs** which were potted last month, in accordance with our minute and careful directions, will, towards the end of November, be making good pots full of roots and may then (but not until they have) be brought into a warm corner of the greenhouse or the forcing pit, if we have one, and should be well in flower by Christmas. Hyacinths need plenty of water while in active growth, Tulips less. If any bulbs were left over in last planting they may be put in late this month, and so the period of bloom may be considerably extended. Lilliums which have done flowering should be repotted in good rich stuff as soon as the stalks die down (removing all the smaller bulbs which need growing on before they yield good flowers). After potting the bigger bulbs in suitable sizes and with sufficient room, they should be stood aside in a shed where frost cannot reach them until they shoot of their own accord, when they are best removed to a light but cool pit. General directions to be observed for this month are, to counteract, as far as possible, the cold damp influence of the month by plenty of ventilation, even if a little fire heat should be needed to keep up the temperature, and to water but sparingly any of the plants in flower and growth, and not at all those at rest, beyond just such quantities of liquid as shall suffice to keep the bulbs from becoming dust dry. If we have a forcing house where, during the winter a temperature of 60° to 70° can be relied on, we may strike stock pots of Coleus, and may expect to rear a fine lot of Fuchsias by beginning now. The old plants should be put in heat, and so soon as they break, cuttings of the new shoots should be inserted into pans with half an inch of silver sand on the top of the mould. They will strike in a few days and must then be potted into thumbs and grown on in a brisk moist heat, repotting as each shift is filled with roots. The great secret of fine large Fuchsias is to begin early, and, once started, never to allow the plants to have a check in their growth. A somewhat lanky growth, provided the stalks are vigourous, is an advantage to this flower, as its graceful effect is enhanced rather than otherwise by the increased length between its joints. With plenty of light no harm will be done. The **Window boxes** will long ago have assumed a somewhat shady appearance, and should have been renewed almost by the end of last month, but lose no time in doing it now. Remove altogether the summer stuff, and turn out all the exhausted mould, if you can do this without disturbing any climbers or perennials. A Pompone Chrysanthemum or two, a few Enonymas, and some bulbs dotted in, will be about all we can advise attempting; but these will be quite enough to give a neat and gay look to the house, especially if the windows get a share of the little sun-

light to be expected. Watering must be judiciously done on warm, bright *mornings*, and with tepid water. In frosty weather withhold altogether.

Out of doors.—In the flower garden there is much to do, chiefly of the nature either of clearing up after the last summer, and preparing for the next. All the summer bedders ought to be removed before this, and the perennials divided and re-arranged, and all new shrubs, trees, and roses planted and staked. Dahlias, Gladiolus, and Cannas must be lifted, dried, and stored, together with any Lyridias or Lilliums we may have had in the open. Frost or damp kill these things, and, hence, must be guarded against. The borders must be properly forked over, and when all tidy, a few bulbs (if we can spare them) should be dotted in. Make up a frame in a sheltered corner, with a good depth of earth, say five or six inches, over which a layer of sharp sand, in which dibble at intervals of four inches each way cuttings of Calceolarias of all good sorts, and keep them close for a few days until struck; after which, give plenty of air on mild days, and protect at nights from actual frosts by mats, or straw hurdle covers. I find this method of preserving shrubby Calceolarias at once the easiest and best, and do not find it necessary to pot the plants in the spring, but simply remove them from the frame to the bed. As they grow, pinch out the long shoots to keep them bushy. Lawns will need no more mowing, but must be kept well swept and rolled. The leaves so accumulated in heaps with the gravel grit taken up with them, forms, when rolled, the most valuable of all composts leaf mould, and on no account must the gardener be allowed to burn these as is better done with most of the garden rubbish:—peas haulm, cabbage leaves, and such like.

In the Kitchen Garden we have much to do. Digging up into ridges, left high to allow frost to penetrate, carting manure, general clearing operations, are the order of the day. Every plant left in the ground after it is likely to be worth keeping is a waste and loss, apart from the look of the thing. Pyramid apples and pears, if their growth tends to wood too much, need root-pruning, and should be now seen to; but this operation requires much more care and skill than can be expected in an ordinary day labourer, therefore see to it yourself. Unless a tree is small, don't attempt to remove it altogether from the ground, but dig round it, and lay the finer roots in again near the surface after removing the coarser ones, and completely severing the lap roots, which go straight down from the stem into the cold deep earth. These lap roots appear to be the source of all the mischief, and bring to the sap too much watery element to form fruit and flavour. Some cabbages and lettuces should be planted out to stand for spring use, and if the garden is warm and sheltered, it is worth while to make sowings of small quantities of early peas. It often happens that the spring sowing gets ahead of those put in now, but, under favourable conditions, a few days are gained by immediate planting. Salading may be had all through the winter with care and constant attention. Radishes may be had in frames over hot beds at any time, and, by sowing in small pans in the greenhouse, constant supplies of mustard and cress can be maintained.

DECEMBER.

In the Conservatory.—Chrysanthemums will mostly be past their time, but a few late specimens will help us to brighten our stages still. Note directions for taking cuttings of these handsome flowers, as given in last month's calendar. In our forcing house we ought to have a supply of Primulas, early Pelargoniums, Roses, Cyclamens, etc., and as the bulbs, recently plunged in a dark shed, fill their pots with roots, a few at a time should be introduced to their warmer quarters to be in bloom about Christmas. Among the bulbs should be included Lily of the Valley,

Roman Hyacinths, Solomon's Seal, Tulips of variety, Crocus and Snowdrop, Scillas, and Narcissus, and the temperature should be about 60°. The cooler department ought not to exceed 50°, and may go 5° lower without disadvantage. If you have a house heated with flues or pipes, be careful not to stand Camellias too near or over them, as I find such situations to be nearly certain to cause the buds to dry up and drop off. Plants in cold frames or cool pits must be carefully watched and protected from extreme cold, and especially from damp weather. Very little water should be given, and that only on mild, bright mornings, and on all such occasions plenty of air ought to be given. At night, when there is any chance of frost, frames should be covered with a couple of Archangel mats, or straw hurdles, and during a continuance of extreme cold these may remain on day and night.

Out of doors.—Now is the time to complete digging and trenching operations; lay up the ground so dug in high ridges, to expose the mould to the full effect of frost, which is of the greatest benefit to it. Dig in the ordinary way all rubbish, rotted vegetables, and leaves, together with some manure suitable to the soil and the purpose for which it is intended, and, if too heavy, it will be useful to incorporate a good proportion of ashes, sandy road grit, or fine brick rubbish, if such can be easily got. Continue to roll lawns and paths when the weather is dry enough for them not to adhere to the roller, and generally keep things tidy within and without, and choose this somewhat slack month to carry out any radical alterations of plan, draining operations, and such work.

In the Kitchen Garden there is but little to be done other than what is contained in the foregoing directions for out of doors, for seeds sown in mid-winter do not in effect usually grow to perfection any sooner than those planted in the spring; indeed I have in some instances found the reverse to be the case. Small salading may be kept going all the winter in frames on hot beds, and dwarf French beans in pots similarly treated will afford an interesting and profitable variety.

THE HOUSEHOLD.

The Home Circle.—It is well enough to have a house designed upon the most approved plans, and built with every attention to health and comfort; well enough to have it decorated and furnished upon artistic principles, officered by efficient servants and directed by competent housekeeping; but a man may have all this and yet lead a solitary life, and one of the oldest sentences in the literature of the world declares, "It is not good for man to be alone." We have already dealt with the Building, buying, renting, decorating and furnishing of houses; with Housekeeping, accounts, servants, and cooking; with the Home Farm and the keeping of fowls, ducks, geese, turkeys, pigs; and Domestic Pets, dogs, cats, singing birds, pigeons, and rabbits; with gardening and the growth of flowers, vegetables, and fruits, and with needlework in all its branches; and now we have to deal with the "humans" for whose use and comfort all these elaborate preparations have been made. The basis of home life is marriage, and our first consideration in dealing with the home circle must be the relationship of *Husband* and *Wife*. This relationship has its legal, moral, and social ties, and as the legal is necessarily the first effected, we will give that our first attention.

Marriage.—To constitute a valid marriage in England the parties to it must be (1) single, (2) not within the prohibited degrees of consanguinity or affinity, and (3) not subject to any physical or mental disability, (4) the marriage must be celebrated in some form recognized as legal by the Courts of this country. Taking these conditions in their order as above we give the following definitions. (1) Single. This term includes all bachelors, spinsters, widowers, widows, and legally divorced persons.

(2) The "prohibited degrees" of consanguinity and affinity are those enumerated in the book of Common Prayer of the Church of England. (3) "Physical disability" of a nature to invalidate a marriage, must amount to sexual incapability on the part of either of the parties. "Mental disability", must amount to "*Lunacy*" existing at the time of marriage. (See post tit. "Nullity of marriage"). (4) Marriages in England proper, which term includes the whole of England and Wales to the exclusion of Scotland, Ireland, The Isle of Man and the Channel Islands, may be contracted in five different ways, (a) by "special license", (b) by an ordinary Bishop's license, (c) by banns, (d) by Superintendent Registrar's license, (e) by Superintendent Registrar's certificate.

Forms of Marriage (1) **Church of England.**—Taking the five forms of marriage as practised in England in order, they may be explained as follows. (a) "**Special licenses**" are granted by the Archbishop of Canterbury only, on special grounds, which must be sufficient to justify him in exercising his discretion, or to persons of very high rank; they cost just under £30. No period of residence is required, and they may authorise marriage at any hour or in any place, whether consecrated or not. (b) **Ordinary Bishop's licenses** are granted in each diocese by the Ordinary (*i.e.* the Bishop) through his Chancellor and Surrogates, and by the Archbishops of Canterbury and York through the Vicars General for their respective provinces. The cost of a license varies in different dioceses from about £2 to £3. Before an ordinary license can be granted one of the parties to the intended marriage must have had his or her "usual place of abode", for 15 days last past within the parish, Chapelry, or ecclesiastical district in the Church or Chapel of which the marriage is to be solemnized. The party need not have dwelt and slept in such abode without a break during the 15 days. If he or she has slept there for the greater number of 15 days, it will satisfy the statute, but it is not sufficient to engage a room without occupying it, as is very often supposed. The party applying for a license is required to make an affidavit as to residence, absence of lawful impediment, and consent of parents and guardians (if either party be a minor) when a license is applied for (as to the effect of a marriage where one or both of the parties is a minor, without the consent of parents and guardians, see post "Nullity of marriage"). False swearing to obtain a marriage license does not entail the penalties of perjury or any other penalty. The term of residence must be completed before the granting of the license. The marriage can take place as soon as ever the license is granted, but it can only be celebrated in the church or chapel in the license. The license only continues in force for three calendar months, after which time a fresh license must be obtained. Any one forging or altering a marriage license is liable to penal servitude for a term not exceeding 4 years, or to imprisonment with hard labour for a term not exceeding 2 years. All marriages of every sort or kind, except those by special license, solemnized in England, must take place between the hours of 8 a.m. and 3 p.m. (c) **For a Marriage by Banns** the parties to the marriage or one of them or some person on their behalf, must give notice to the clergyman of the parish or chapelry or ecclesiastical district in which they reside, with their names and residences. In the case of banns the greatest care must be taken to see that the names of both the parties are published correctly, otherwise the marriage may be absolutely null and void. There is a great difference between banns and license in this respect (see post tit. "Nullity of marriage"). The notice is usually given to the clerk and the usual fee for such notice is 1s. The clergyman has a right to require seven days' notice before publishing banns, but this right is not generally insisted on. Banns must be published according to the rubric prefixed to the Office of Matrimony in the Book

of Common Prayer, upon three several Sundays, preceding the solemnization of the Marriage—at Morning Service if there be one, if not at evening service—after the second lesson. As to residence for banns, it seems to be pretty clear that no period of previous residence is required, provided the parties are actually residing in the parish when the notice is given. After that, residence—in the same sense as explained above under the head of marriage by license—is required until the publication of the banns is completed. The marriage must be solemnized within three *calendar months* after the complete publication of banns, otherwise the banns must be republished. Where the parties to the marriage live in different parishes or chapelries, etc., banns must be published in both, and the marriage may be solemnized in either of the churches in which the banns have been published.

Forms of Marriage (2) By Registration.—The above (a) (b) and (c), apply exclusively to marriages in the Church of England. The following (d) and (e) apply to marriages in all churches, chapels, and other places registered for the solemnization of marriage outside the pale of the established Church. The principal difference between the two is that whereas any clergyman of the Church of England may celebrate a marriage in a church licensed for marriages, without the presence of the Registrar, no priest or minister outside the pale of the establishment can do so. This is due to the fact that a clergyman of the established church is a state functionary, as well as a minister of religion, whilst the others are ministers of religion only. (d) **"Superintendent Registrar's licenses".**—The conditions as to previous residence, for obtaining these licenses, are practically the same as those required for obtaining the ordinary Bishop's license. One of the parties to the marriage must give notice to the Superintendent Registrar, in a form the particulars of which can always be obtained at the Registry office. It is sufficient to state here, that such notice must contain a correct statement of the names, ages, condition, rank, profession, or occupation, and addresses of both the parties, also "the name of the church, chapel, registered building, or Register Office, or place of meeting (in the case of Quakers), or synagogue or private house (in the case of Jews), in which the marriage is to be solemnized, and where situate".—Where the parties live in different districts, the essential points are (1) that the notice shall be given to a Superintendent Registrar within whose district one of the parties has during the previous fifteen days had his or her usual place of abode; (2) The Superintendent Registrar to whom the notice must be given must grant the license; (3) The notice may be given by either party. Special provision is made by various acts of Parliament, for cases where parties dwell in a district within which there is not any registered building wherein marriage is celebrated according to the form or ceremony they desire to adopt, or where they desire to have their marriage solemnized in their "usual place of worship", such place being situated outside the district in which they reside, and for cases where one of the parties resides either in Ireland or in Scotland. In all such cases it is best to go to the Register Office and enquire as to the course to be adopted.—The notice of marriage must be entered in the "Marriage Notice Book" by the Registrar who is entitled to a fee of 1s. for such entry. In the case of a marriage by license, such entry must be open to inspection free of charge for one entire day, (other than Sunday, Christmas Day, or Good Friday) after the day of the entry of such notice. —The Superintendent Registrar then issues a certificate to accompany the license, provided that no lawful impediment to the issue of the certificate be shown, and that the issue of the certificate has not been forbidden by a person authorized on that behalf. For the issue of this certificate he is entitled to a fee of 1s. He then issues his license, for which he is entitled to further fees to the amount of £2. 2. 6, making the cost of marriage by superintendent registrar's license £2.4.6. The marriage can then be solemnized immediately, but it must be solemnized

within three calendar months after the entry of the notice. The facts contained in the notice of marriage must be verified by a solemn declaration, and any person who shall knowingly or wilfully make or sign or subscribe any false declaration, or who shall sign any false notice for the purpose of procuring a marriage, is liable to the penalties of perjury, a condition, as we have seen, from which the ordinary Bishop's license is exempt. (e)

Superintendent Registrar's certificate.—The notice required for this form of marriage and the penalties for making a false declaration of facts, are the same as those required for marriage by Superintendent Registrar's License, with this difference; that the notice must state how long the parties have resided in their respective districts. For further particulars enquire at the Register office. When the parties who desire to be married by certificate both reside in the same district, one of them must give the notice as above to the Superintendent Registrar of the district in which they have dwelt for not less than seven days next preceding the notice of marriage. When the parties dwell in different districts notice must be given to the Superintendent Registrars of each district. This notice, or an exact copy of it, is then posted on a board, in the Register office, for 21 successive days. After the expiration of 21 clear days after the day of the entry of the notice in the "Marriage Notice Book," the Superintendent Registrars may issue his certificate for the marriage, provided that no lawful impediment to the issue of the certificate be shown and that the issue of the certificate shall not have been forbidden by a person authorized in that behalf. Fee for the issue of this certificate 1s. If the parties reside in different districts certificates will be required from the Superintendent Registrars of each district, and 1s. each must be paid for each certificate. For cases where the parties desire to be married out of their own districts or when one of the parties resides in Scotland or Ireland, see what has been already said under the head of marriage by Superintendent Registrars by license. The marriage may be solemnized as soon as the certificate has been issued, but must take place within three calendar months, as in the case of license. It will be seen that the total cost of a marriage by certificate amounts only to 2s., as against £2.4.6. for a marriage by license.

Marriage out of England.—Ireland, Scotland, the Channel Islands, the Isle of Man, the British Colonies, and foreign countries generally, all have their own respective marriage laws. It may be laid down as a good general rule that any marriage valid by the law of the land in which it has been solemnized (with a single exception) will be held valid by the courts of this country. That is provided the parties were not at the time of such marriage subject to some disability known to our law. The exception is the case of Scotland.

Scotch Marriages.—In Scotland, there are four different kinds of marriage. (1) Marriage in the face of the Church. (2) Marriage before two witnesses, which is complete without any form or ceremony wherever two persons at any time or place declare themselves man and wife before any two other persons. (3) Marriage by repute, which is complete wherever a man lives with a woman openly as his wife and gives her his name. And (4) Marriage by promise followed by connection, which is complete wherever a man promises a woman to marry her, as a result of which she allows him to have sexual intercourse with her. By Lord Brougham's Act, commonly called the "Scotch Marriage Act" (19 and 20 Vict. c. 96) no marriage of the last three classes "shall be valid, unless one of the parties had at the date thereof, his or her usual place of residence in Scotland, or had lived there for 21 days next preceding such marriage." It has since been held that this residence of 21 days means 21 legal days according to the Scotch method of reckoning time, that is, each separate day must be reckoned from midnight to midnight.

Other marriages.—Marriages are

sometimes celebrated on board British vessels of war and British merchant ships. But it is impossible to deal further within our present space with the vast subject of foreign marriage laws, or of the marriage laws of the different portions of British territories situated outside the limits of England and Wales; If any of our readers desire to contract marriage outside those limits, their best course is to make enquiries on the spot as to the course they ought to pursue. (See further on this subject tit. "Nullity of Marriages".)

Married Women's Property.—This is now regulated by the Married Women's Property Act, 1882 (45 and 46 Vict. c. 75) which came into force Jan. 1st, 1883, and repeals and consolidates the previous statutes on the subject. Sec. 1 enacts that a married woman, whether married before or after Jan. 1st, 1883, shall be capable of (1) acquiring, holding, and disposing of by will or otherwise, any real or personal property, in the same manner as if she were unmarried, without the intervention of a trustee; (2) contracting so as to bind her separate property by her contracts as if she were unmarried; (3) that she shall *primâ facie* bind all her separate property—both existing and after acquired—by her contracts; and (4) if she trades separately she shall be subject to the Bankruptcy laws as though she were unmarried.—Sec. 2. applies only to women who have married since Jan. 1st, 1883. Every such woman is entitled to have and to hold as her separate property and to dispose of, all real and personal property belonging to her before or after marriage of every sort or kind, including any earnings of any sort by any trade or employment or occupation in which she is engaged or carries on separately from her husband, including the exercise of any literary, scientific, or artistic skill. By Sec. 3 all loans by a wife to her husband are to be treated as the husband's assets in case of his Bankruptcy, the wife having a right to claim a dividend after the claims of all the other creditors have been satisfied. Sec. 5 provides that property acquired after Jan. 1st, 1883, by a woman *married before that date*, is to be held and be disposable by her as though she were unmarried. By Secs. 6 to 9 all stock standing in the name of a married woman or of a married woman and another, is exempted from any control by her husband, and may be transferred without his concurrence. By Sec. 10 any investment by a wife of her husband's moneys without his consent, may be transferred to him. Sec. 11 enacts that policies of insurance effected by husband for his wife's benefit or vice versâ, and expressed to be so, shall form part of the estate of the party for whose benefit they are effected. Secs. 12 to 16 provide remedies for married women for the protection and security of their separate property, and enact that the wife shall remain liable for all antinuptial debts and other liabilities with a proviso that the husband shall be jointly liable with her to the extent of any of her property which he has acquired by his marriage with her.—By Sec. 16 a wife doing any act with respect to any property of the husband, which if done by the husband with respect to the property of the wife, would make him liable to criminal proceedings by her, shall in like manner be liable to criminal proceedings by him. By Sec. 17 questions between husband and wife as to property are to be decided in a summary way in the High Courts of Justice of England or Ireland. By Sec. 18 a married woman may act as executrix or trustee, and incurs the same liabilities in those capacities as though she were unmarried. Sec. 19 preserves all rights under existing and future marriage settlements. By Sections 20 and 21 married women may be held liable to the parish, to the extent of their separate property or earnings, for the support of their husbands and children. Sec. 23 repeals previous statutes and Sec. 24 places the legal personal representative of a deceased married woman, in respect to her separate estate in the same position as she would herself be in were she alive. The Act itself can

be very easily understood and is well worth perusal. Copies can be obtained from the Queen's printer at a small cost.

There is, of course, and will continue to be in existence for many years, a large number of women who were married before Jan. 1st, 1883.—These, as we have seen, are protected by Secs. 1 and 5 of the above act with respect to all property acquired by them since that date; with respect to property belonging to them before that date it is still, as far as it consists of personal estate, practically the property of the husband, except so far as it has been protected by marriage settlement and by the *Married Women's Property Acts, 1870, and 1874*. By these acts it is enacted among other things that a married woman's earnings and also her deposits in a Savings Bank, shall be her separate property; that she may procure investments to be made and stand in her own name as her separate property; and that personal property to any amount coming to her after Aug. 9th, 1870, as next of kin of an intestate, and personal property up to £200 coming to her under any deed or will, shall be her separate property.—As remarked with respect to the act of 1884 persons anxious to obtain information as to their position under these acts, will do well to obtain copies of them from the Queen's Printer. But as a matter of fact in nearly every case where persons marry who are possessed of property, their respective rights and liabilities are defined in a marriage settlement. Long may this continue to be so as, after all is said and done, a settlement is the only satisfactory protection for the property of married women and their children.—The above statement of the law as to married women's property applies to England and Ireland but not to Scotland, which has laws of its own of an entirely different character, and which are only understood by those who have a special training on the subject. The Law List and the London Directory contain the names of several gentlemen resident in London who are competent to advise on questions of Scotch law.

Matrimonial Causes.—Under this name are included all matters between husband and wife dealt with by the "Probate Divorce and Admiralty Division of the High Court of Justice," commonly spoken of as the "Divorce Court". They are 4 in number: (1) "Divorce" or "Dissolution of Marriage"; (2) "Judicial Separation"; (3) "Nullity of Marriage;" and (4) "Restitution of Conjugal Rights".—There is also a proceeding, which might be thought by persons unacquainted with the law to come properly into the description of a "Matrimonial cause" that is where a wife obtains a separation or maintenance or both before a Police Magistrate or Justice of the Peace. These proceedings are now regulated exclusively by the Married Women (Summary Jurisdiction) Act, 1895.

Divorce can be obtained by the husband on proving the conjugal infidelity of his wife, and by the wife on proving the conjugal infidelity of the husband coupled with cruelty. Bigamy is also a ground for the dissolution of marriage. Men convicted of certain other crimes can also be divorced. Desertion for upwards of two years coupled with conjugal infidelity is also a ground of divorce against the husband. Legal cruelty is difficult to define but it may be moral or physical and must be dangerous to the health of the aggrieved party. Promoters of any of these suits, must come into Court with clean hands. If the complaining party has been guilty of any matrimonial offence he or she cannot succeed, except under very special circumstances.—The decree for dissolution of marriage is a decree *nisi* in the first instance. At the end of six months, during which time the Queen's Proctor can intervene, it is made absolute. Once made absolute the Queen's Proctor's power of intervention ceases. Neither of the parties can re-marry until such decree is made absolute. The Court has power to order the husband to provide for the maintenance of the wife, after divorce, and to vary any settlements existing whether made before or after

marriage and can also make such orders as to the custody, education and maintenance of the children of the marriage as it thinks fit. It need not give the children to the custody of either parent. If both are unfit to have the children the Court can give them into the custody of third persons or provide for their being placed under the protection of the Court of Chancery.

Judicial Separation.—This form of decree may be obtained on any ground on which a divorce may be obtained. It may also be obtained by either a husband or a wife, for either conjugal infidelity, cruelty, or desertion, only the essential difference between it and a divorce is that it does not enable the parties to marry again. In other respects it gives complete emancipation from the matrimonial tie. The decree in this case is not a *decree nisi* but becomes complete in the first instance.

Nullity of Marriage.—The Court has also power to pronounce decrees of **nullity of marriage**. Like decrees for dissolution these are only decrees *nisi* in the first instance, and made absolute at the end of six months, during which time the Queen's Proctor can intervene on the ground of fraud. Some of the grounds of nullity are clear enough, as for instance where one of the parties to the marriage has committed bigamy; when the parties to the marriage are within the prohibited degrees of consanguinity or affinity. It is commonly believed that where a husband or a wife has been absent and not heard of for seven years, the other party may legally marry again. This is a mistake. Under such circumstances if a man or a woman contract a fresh marriage, he or she is not guilty of the criminal offence of bigamy and cannot be punished. But it is none the more a marriage, and if the absent party is alive, it is absolutely void. In this case, as well as in the case of a marriage within prohibited degrees, the marriage is void from the beginning and it is unnecessary to come to the Court to get it set aside. It is, however, usual—and no doubt the wisest course—to obtain a decree of nullity before marrying again. If either of the parties to a marriage can be shown to have been insane at the time of its celebration marriage can be set aside.—With respect to setting aside marriage on the ground of irregularity or informality in fulfilling any of the statutory requirements, the following general rules may be laid down: (1) every presumption will be taken by the Court in favour of the regularity of such marriage; (2) no marriage will be set aside because one of the parties has given a false name, or committed some irregularity in order to cheat the other; (3) where a marriage has been had by any form of license, either Bishop's or registrar's, it will not be set aside even if both parties have agreed to marry in false names; (4) if on the other hand a marriage has been by bann's or registrar's certificate the contrary is the case; (5) no marriage will be set aside in the case of minors, merely because the consent of parents and guardians has not been given, although such consent is required by statute. These rules, however, are very general, and are subject to exception.

Restitution of Conjugal Rights.—This is a proceeding instituted by a husband against a wife, or by a wife against a husband, who has withdrawn from cohabitation without lawful cause, to compel the return of such wife or husband. At least this is its ostensible object, in reality it is almost always instituted to being about a pecuniary settlement or as a preliminary to proceedings for a divorce or judicial separation. Unless the party sued can show that he or she had good ground for withdrawing from cohabitation the Court makes an order compelling him or her to return. If a husband or wife fails to obey a decree of the Court for restitution of conjugal rights he or she shall at once be guilty of desertion, of such a character as to enable the other party to obtain a decree of judicial separation and when coupled with conjugal infidelity a divorce.

Separation by Mutual Consent.—This is where a husband and wife agree to part without legal proceedings. The usual course is for the husband and wife to execute a deed of separation, embodying the terms on which they propose to part. The usual covenants are: (1) against mutual molestation; (2) to hold the husband harmless in respect of the wife's debts; (3) with respect to property, allowances, etc.; (4) with respect to custody, education, etc., of children (if any); and (5) that the deed shall become null and void, should the parties return to cohabitation. A deed of separation is a document that should always be drawn by a duly qualified legal practitioner.

The Summary Jurisdiction (Married Women) Act, 1895.—This important statute (58 and 59 Vict. C. 39) came into operation Jan. 1st, 1896. It does not extend to Scotland or Ireland.—The following are the most important provisions. By sec. 4 "any married woman whose husband shall have been convicted summarily of an aggravated assault upon her within the meaning of sec. 43, the offences against the person act, 1861, or whose hushand shall have been convicted upon indictment of an assault upon her, and sentenced to pay a fine of more than five pounds, or to a term of imprisonment exceeding two months, or whose husband shall have deserted her, or whose husband shall have been guilty of persistent cruelty to her, or wilful neglect to provide reasonable maintenance for her or her infant children whom he is legally liable to maintain, and shall by such cruelty or neglect have caused her to leave and live separately and apart from him, may apply" to "*the nearest magistrate*" or "*any magistrate within whose jurisdiction the offence was committed*", "for an order or orders under this act." The orders to be made by the justices under this act are specified in sec. 5 and are the following: (1) "a provision that the applicant be no longer bound to cohabit with her husband (which provision while in force shall have the effect in all respects of a decree of judicial separation on the ground of cruelty)"; (2) "a provision that the legal custody of children of the marriage between the applicant and her husband, while under the age of 16 years, be committed to the applicant"; (3) "a provision that the husband shall pay to the applicant personally, or for her use to any officer of the Court or third person on her behalf, such weekly sum not exceeding two pounds, as the Court shall, having regard to the means both of the husband and the wife consider reasonable"; (4) "provision for payment by the applicant or the husband, or both of them, of the costs of the Court and such reasonable costs of either of the parties as the Court may think fit." By sec. 5 no wife can obtain relief under this act who has been guilty of conjugal infidelity "provided that the husband has not condoned, or connived at, or by his wilful neglect or misconduct conduced to such misconduct." By sec. 7 the justices may subsequently vary or discharge any order made under this act. By sec. 10 the justices may refuse an order in any case where it shall be of opinion that the matters between the parties might be more conveniently dealt with by the High Court; but power is given to the High Court to send the matter back to the justices if it thinks fit. Sec. 11 gives an appeal against all orders made under this act to the Probate Divorce and Admiralty Division of the High Court of Justice. All applications under this statute must be made within six months of the commission of the offence by the husband. But desertion is a continuing act, therefore the application need not be made within six months of the time that such desertion first commenced.

After the Wedding.—Marriage is a business contract, in addition to being a great deal else. To the girl just entering upon its responsibilities the business side of it should not be ignored. By the neglect of this duty the greatest unhappiness is often caused. The man-

ner in which you begin your new life will largely affect the future. Let your plans and mode of living be arranged systematically. If, as in many cases, you are commencing with little, there is all the more need of care and system. And in order to do this successfully it is necessary that you be the undisputed mistress of your own home. If you are to be a success as a housekeeper it is essential that the money for household expenses be placed in your hands. You cannot act intelligently else. You cannot be a good housekeeper if you have to run to your husband for a shilling every time the occasion arises. Have a certain sum, then, each month for household expenses and out of this save what you can. Learn early in all household matters to act quite independently. And when your husband comes home of an evening let no domestic affair enter into your conversation. Let your day's cares be as a sealed book. This will seem a little hard at first, but you will soon accustom yourself to it, and the "familiarity that breeds contempt" will be kept farther away. Another thing of great importance, which in the heyday of youth and happiness is apt to be overlooked, is personal health. So much depends upon a woman's health that it is a wonder the young do not consider it more. Let your physical well-being be well looked after. On the early days of wedded life hang so many important chances of keeping or losing your health. Let nothing deter you from taking your daily walk. Have plenty of sunshine admitted into your house. Spend as much time as possible in the open air. While, generally speaking, early rising is healthful take all needful rest. Have your meals at proper times. If your husband is detained at his office beyond the regular dinner hour let no sentimental consideration induce you to go too long without food. Above all things keep cheerful. Do not let trifles ruffle your serenity. Cheerfulness does more to promote health than all other efforts. If you belong to the average community you will do well to begin your domestic affairs without a servant. You will get a better insight of matters and things, hitherto only theories with you, by attending to them personally for a time at least, and the longer the better. You will do a good many funny things, but each reverse is a step towards ultimate success if you are in earnest. Do not attempt too much. And do not despise the day of small things. Make the most of what you have. If your furniture is not costly, let it be kept scrupulously neat. Do not ever get very much at one time. Things will be enjoyed better if coming at intervals. You can make a great many little articles of fancy work, which are inexpensive and add so much to the appearance of a room. As to society, if you are a stranger in a strange land and have not a great deal of money, you will not at first have very much society. But do not trouble about that. Treat all who do come to see you with cordiality, but do not make any complaints of want of company. Learn to *feel* perfectly independent, but do not *act* so. Let your manner be unassuming. Be sure to return all your first calls promptly. Let nothing delay them beyond a week, or at the outside a fortnight. Let not one be neglected. Even if you have calls from persons whose further acquaintance for any reason is undesirable, remember that the *first* call must be returned. It is usually made as a matter of kindness, and it would be rude to ignore it.

Mutual Responsibility.—Observation, comparison of views, thought on the subject, will convince the observer that both the pleasure and the pain of home life are more dependant than many fancy on the question of money. Neither husband nor wife has a right to control the key of the exchequer. It belongs to both. Community of interests in marriage, equal responsibility, mutual respect, the harmonious adjustment of reciprocal obligations, and the fine sentiment of deference and courtesy which inheres in the best civilization, forbid the debtor and creditor system in home financiering. Notwithstanding the fact,

however, that a wise, fair, and clearly understood policy in pecuniary matters is, in the long run, the best economy, many persons go blundering on, year after year, hurting not themselves only, but their children and society, through their singularly short-sighted management of the money question in its bearing upon practical, every-day life. Probably not one bridegroom in a thousand, standing proudly at the altar with the woman of his choice, would believe the thing possible were some truth-telling prophet to whisper to him. "In one, or in two, or in five years, your wife will want money for needful expenses, personal to herself, or for your common advantage and comfort, and will shrink from asking you for it, lest you should upbraid her for extravagance or chide her for folly." What a blush would mount to the cheek of an ingenuous, well-meaning young man at such an aspersion! Quick to resent it, his instinctive exclamation would be that of Hazael: "Is thy servant a dog, that he should do this?" Nevertheless, in half the homes in the country, because the husband holds the funds and the wife must ask for her share, there is exasperation, there is false shame, there is undreamed-of distress. And the trouble springs not out of the greed of penurious men (for men are usually open-handed, generous, and anxious to treat their wives and daughters with liberality), but has its genesis in a mistaken principle at the beginning. Indulgence, liberality, and generosity, are terms wholly inapplicable to the situation when we are speaking of the relations of husband and wife. The one does not dispense an alms; the other does not accept a charity. They are partners in the business of life. For convenience sake, and because thus from the first hath God ordained it, it is his part to do the providing and hers to look after the use of the provisions. He attends to the outdoor economy; she to that of the interior; economy being taken in its root-sense of systematic government. She sees if she be like the beautiful portrait in the Proverbs, that the household is clothed in scarlet and fed on the finest of the wheat. He takes his place among the elders of the land, and goes forth from the shelter and the refuge of a happy, well-appointed home to the strife of the stock market, or the toil of the anvil, or the desk in the counting house.

> In true marriage lies
> Nor equal nor unequal;

yet there can be nothing but the farce of equality where the wife must account to the husband for every sixpence, and the husband, forgetful of the consideration due to his wife, allows her to be fretted and worried, worn to shreds, and subject to petty mortifications, because five days out of seven she is the possessor of an empty purse. Entire openness and confidence as to the resources of the home firm, a definite and exact method of keeping household accounts, and a recognition of the fact that bricks cannot be made without straw, and that a certain approximating annual expense must be proportioned to the position the family occupies in the community, would go far to bring in a millenium in many homes.

Mutual Consideration.—The Bear is the commonly accepted type of the surly, disagreeable, and "ill to live with" person, and yet as a wise and good writer has pointed out, no home can be happy without at least two of them. These two domestic bears are "Bear and Forbear." In all the relationships of life we have to give and take, and bearing and forbearing is the process by which we adjust differences. If the home is to be attractive either to the husband or to the growing boys or girls, it must be comfortable, and the comfort of a home depends much more upon the spirit of it than on its furniture and decoration. The home in which some one is always ready "to point the moral and adorn the tale," or who thinks it "meet that every nice offence should bear its comment," is not a home in which poor frail humanity can ever be very much

at ease. Nor is that home a comfortable one, in which what are called law and order are valued higher than the objects for which law and order exist. Homes were made for men, not men for homes, and the comfort of the occupant must always be of higher importance than the tidiness of the apartment. But this consideration must be mutual. If wives show their care for their homes by not being *over*-careful in matters of household order where husbands are concerned, husbands should reciprocate by not being too exacting with regard to household duties. "A woman's work is never done." And modern life has increased and intensified it. Cares have multiplied faster than conveniences. Life is more complex; its demands are greater and more numerous; society more exacting. The home keeper must be an artist in dress; a chemist of the kitchen; a sanitary engineer; a domestic doctor; a lady of literary culture; an executive officer skilful to compensate for the defects of poor service; an *ornament and a light in society*. This is a great deal to expect and needs all the encouragement a husband can give to sustain. To put oneself in another's place and consider things from another's point of view is the best test of differences, and the golden rule, "Do unto others as ye would that others should do unto you," is the best law of mutual consideration. In fact, the word *mutual* is the key of the situation. Home building is a serious undertaking, but it is a happy one when it is allowed to be a labour of love. Where mutual respect lays the foundation, where mutual affection is the contractor, where mutual sympathy is the architect, and mutual forbearance the builder, there must ever rise a temple of domestic peace.

Cooking Husbands.—Miss Corson, a well known writer on cooking, gives the following receipt for cooking husbands which she prefaces by saying that if followed, it will result in making husbands both "tender and good." "A good many husbands are utterly spoiled by mismanagement. Some women go about as if their husbands were bladders, and blow them up; others keep them constantly in hot water; others let them freeze by their carelessness and indifference. Some keep them in a stew by irritating ways and words. Others roast them. Some keep them in pickle all their lives. It cannot be supposed that any husband will be tender and good managed in this way, but they are really delicious when properly treated. In selecting your husband, you should not be guided by the silvery appearance, as in buying mackerel; nor by the golden tint, as if you wanted salmon. Be sure to select him yourself, as tastes differ. Do not go to market for him, as the best are always brought to your door. It is far better to have none unless you will patiently learn how to cook him. A preserving kettle of the finest porcelain is best; but, if you have nothing but an earthenware pipkin, it will do with care. See that the linen in which you wrap him is nicely washed and mended, with the required number of buttons and strings nicely sewed on. Tie him in the kettle by a strong silk cord called 'comfort,' as the one called 'duty' is apt to be weak. They are apt to fly out of the kettle, and be burned and crusty on the edges, since, like crabs and lobsters, you have to cook them while alive. Make a clear, steady fire out of love, neatness, and cheerfulness. Set him as near this as seems to agree with him. If he splutters and fizzes, do not be anxious; some husbands do this till they are quite done. Add a little sugar in the form of what confectioners call kisses, but no vinegar or pepper on any account. A little spice improves them, but it must be used with judgment. Do not stick any sharp instrument into him to see if he is becoming tender. Stir him gently; watch the while lest he lie too flat and close to the kettle, and so become useless. You cannot fail to know when he is done. If thus treated, you will find him very digestible, agreeing nicely with you and the children; and

he will keep as long as you want, unless you become careless, and set him in too cold a place."

Manufactured Troubles.—It was eight o'clock. The buggy was at the door, to take him to the train. His hand was on the knob. "Good-bye," he called out. There came from somewhere up stairs, through the half-open door, a feminine voice, "Good-bye;" then he had gone out into the glad spring air, odorous with the foretokens of coming life, and musical with the songs of the nest-builders. But there was no song in his heart, no spring hope and light in his life, as he took the reins out of his groom's hand and spoke to his impatient horse a sharp "Get on!" And as he rode through the royal avenue that let up to his house, this is what he thought: If I had been a guest, Martha would have been up and dressed. She would have had a spray of fresh flowers at my plate. She would have sat at the table and seen that my coffee was good, and my eggs hot, and my toast browned. And I should have at least a parting shake of the hand, and a hope expressed that I would come again, and perhaps a wave of the handkerchief from the balcony. And I should have carried away with me that smile that is brighter than the sunshine, as the last gift of her gracious hospitality. It is a chance if she would not even have proposed to ride to the station with me, to see me off; for she knows, if ever woman did, how to welcome the coming and speed the parting guest. But I am only her husband; and I can eat my breakfast alone, as if I were a bachelor; and get my coffee muddy or clear, hot or cold, as Bridget happens to make it; and take eggs hard or soft, and toast burnt or soggy, as it chances to come from a careless cook. And nobody cares. And when I go, "Good-bye" is flung after me like a dry bone after an ill-cared-for cur. Heigho! What's the use of being married, at all.

And this is what she thought as she put the last touches to her hair before her glass, and tried hard to keep the tears back from her eyes before she went down to see that the family breakfast was ready: I wonder if Hugh really cares anything for me any more. When we were first married he never would have gone off in this way, with a careless "Good-bye" tossed upstairs as he might toss a well-cleaned bone to a hungry dog. He would have found time to run up and kiss me good-bye, and tell me that he missed me at his breakfast, and ask if I was ill. He is gracious to his friends; a perfect gentleman to every one but his wife. I believe he is tired of me. I wish I could let him go. It would be hard for me; but if it would be better for him!—Well! well! I mustn't think such things as these. Perhaps he does love me, after all. But—but—it is coming to be hard to believe it. And so with a heavy heart she went to her work; and the April sun laughed in at the open windows, and the birds chirped cheer to her all day, and the flowers waved their most graceful beckonings to her in vain; all for want of that one farewell kiss. And yet the husband owes no such thoughtful courtesy to any other person as he owes to his wife; the wife owes no such attentive consideration to any guest as she owes to her husband; life is made up of little things, and ofttimes a little neglect is a harder burden for love to bear than an open and flagrant wrong.

Parent and Child.—The home circle has a way of widening and, as a rule, husband and wife have not had time to tire of each other before they have to turn their attention to the third person singular. When the baby comes, a new set of relationships arise, the legal aspect of which shall be our first consideration.

Custody and Guardianship of Children.—The common law right of a father to the custody of his legitimate children is absolute, unless he has waived or forfeited such right. It follows therefore that where a husband is the innocent party to a matrimonial cause it is un-

necessary for him to ask for the custody of his children, although as a matter of fact it is always asked for in practice. The whole of the High Court of Justice (though such jurisdiction is usually assigned to the Chancery Division) has absolute discretion as to the custody of infants on the application of the mother, but in practice the Court will not interfere with paternal authority except in cases of gross moral turpitude (including Atheistical belief), or where he has waived his rights. Antenuptial contracts as to religion or custody of children are held to be null and void, but stipulations in separation deeds as to custody of children are binding.—In case of a conviction of a parent for cruelty, or for certain offences under the Criminal Law Amendment Act, the Court can deprive such parent of the custody of children and give it to any person it thinks fit (See also tits. *Divorce*, etc., and *Summary Jurisdiction*, *Married Women*, Act, 1895). After the death of the father the mother is necessary guardian. The father has power to appoint guardians by deed or will, but if the mother survives him she must also be a guardian. The mother has also power to appoint guardians by deed or will, to act after the death of both herself and the others. When both parents appoint guardians, they act jointly. The duties of guardians are to maintain and educate the children out of their own property, and to see that they do not contract unfitting marriages, improper intimacies, etc.—The mother of an illegitimate child is entitled to its custody, and the Court will, in a proper case, give the same effect to her wishes as to care, maintenance and education, as it gives to the wishes of a father of a legitimate child. In both cases where a parent has allowed a child to be brought up by a third person, the Court will not order the child to be given up to the parent unless satisfied that it is for the welfare of the child. Formerly it was considered that the Courts would not make orders affecting the custody of children —others than Wards of Court—after the age of 16 in the case of boys and 14 in the case of girls. Now however —at all events in Matrimonial causes in the Probate Divorce and Admiralty Division—the Courts make orders affecting custody up to the age of 21 years. —Infants may be made Wards of Court, in other words, handed over to the custody of the Chancery Division of the High Court of Justice (as to declaration of unfitness of surviving parent for custody see tit. *Divorce*).

Education.—A contract for sending a child to school need not be in writing, but it is usually based on a prospectus or printed terms. When not expressed in terms there is probably in every case an implied contract on the part of the master or mistress that he or she shall take good care of the pupil, that medical assistance shall be called in when necessary—in the case of boarding schools, —that the education of the pupil shall be conducted by persons of sufficient skill and continued as long as the conduct of the pupil is not such as to warrant his expulsion. The parent on the other hand must be taken to agree to be bound by reasonable rules of discipline. As to the manner which a school contract is to be terminated, this is generally arranged beforehand. In the absence of a specific agreement as to notice, it may be taken to be quarterly or half-yearly, or by the term of three to the year. But as a general rule it is safe to say that the notice will vary according to the times at which the school fees are paid. Thus if the parent pays every half year the master or mistress will probably be entitled to six months' notice, and the same observations apply to day scholars. These are often paid for by the week, in which case a week's notice would suffice. There does not appear to be any decision of the High Court as to day schools, though the Country Court judge of Nottingham once held that there was only a contract from day to day, and no notice was necessary. It is however extremely doubtful, if this decision were tested, whether it would hold good. A con-

tinuing notice to leave is not good. If the master or mistress of the school dies, the contract is at an end, though probably his or her executors would be entitled to a pro ratâ payment for the time during which he or she taught the pupil. If the pupil dies it would seem to be the same thing as the pupil's removal without notice. If the parent dies, the guardian would probably be able to remove the pupil at the end of the current term, though this is doubtful. —If the master or mistress sells the school during the term and the parents remove the pupil in consequence, it is doubtful whether a pro ratâ payment can be demanded. If the contract to send a child to school is reduced into writing it should be stamped with a 6d. indented stamp, which is done in London at Somerset House, and in the country at the nearest Inland Revenue Office. If the prospectus of the school contains the whole contract, a copy should be procured from the master or mistress, and that identical copy should be stamped as above.—If fees are payable in advance they can be claimed as soon as the contract is complete, even though the parent neglect to send the child to school.—The terms of a written contract can of course be enforced.—In case of illness obliging the pupil to be taken away temporarily from school, the relation of master and pupil is suspended and the payment of fees also. There is no right of expulsion arbitrarily, but only for reasonable cause, and in a proper case of expulsion the right to school fees is not affected. Education in this country is now compulsory, and parents neglecting to provide any education for their children, are liable to be summoned before a magistrate, and punished. (For further information see *The Elementary Education Act*, 1870, the *Amending Acts*, 1880, 1890, 1891, and the *Education Act*, 1902, which came into operation in 1903.

Punishment of Children.—This, whether inflicted by parent, guardian or schoolmaster or mistress, must be "reasonable." No exact definition of "reasonable" has ever been laid down, but tying a child up for an unduly long time, leaving it in a dark place alone, beating it so severely that blood was drawn, or striking it with the buckle of a strap, would probably be held to be excessive punishment and would render the person inflicting it liable to punishment. Some magistrates have held beating on the hand to be improper. But it is impossible to lay down a general rule, as *undoubtedly*, certain acts would be held to be cruelty by some magistrates, which would not be held to be cruelty by others. Whether a punishment has been reasonable or not must always—until defined by the legislature—be a question of fact. The age of the child, the nature of the offence, and many other surrounding circumstances must be considered, in short each case must be decided on its merits. (See *Cruelty to Children*). In the absence of a special agreement to the contrary parents must be taken to have consented to allow a schoolmaster or mistress to inflict reasonable chastisement, corporal or otherwise, on their children. In some cases the school authorities, such as the School Boards, take the matter into their own hands and regulate the extent to which corporal punishment may be inflicted.

Cruelty to Children.—Various statutes have been passed limiting the hours and nature of the employment of children (such as the Factory and Mining Acts), and protecting them in various ways. The following is a fair summary of the law relating to cruelty to children. Whoever being over 16 years of age, having the custody of a child under 16, shall assault, ill-treat, neglect or abandon it, so as to cause the child unnecessary suffering or injury to health, including injury to or loss of sight or hearing or injury to limb or organ of the body or mental disarrangement, is guilty of a misdemeanour, for which he or she may be convicted summarily or sent for trial. In both cases the punishment is fine or imprisonment or both, but whereas a magistrate can only inflict a fine not exceeding £25 and imprisonment (with

or without hard labour) for a term not exceeding six calendar months, an Assize Court or Court of Quarter Sessions may inflict fine to the extent of £100 and imprisonment (with or without hard labour) up to two years.—If the person convicted is pecuniarily interested in the death of the child, the fine may be increased to £200, or a sentence of penal servitude not exceeding five years inflicted. But a prisoner cannot be sentenced to penal servitude and fined as well. Causing a child—if a boy under 14 or a girl under 16—to beg or induce the giving of alms, or to be on licensed premises between 9 p.m. and 6 a.m. for the purpose of begging, performing for profit, or offering anything for sale, or causing a child under 11 to sing, play, or perform for profit or offer anything for sale in licensed premises, or a street, or place of public entertainment, without a license from a petty sessional Court,—or in Scotland from the School Board,—or causing a child under 16 to be trained as an acrobat, except by its parent or guardian, is an offence punishable by a fine not exceeding £25 alternatively or in addition to imprisonment not exceeding 3 months. A constable may arrest offenders without warrant, if he sees the offence committed, or has reason to believe they will abscond.—In certain cases the constable may remove the child to a place of safety. Pending proceedings, the Court may make an order as to the custody of the child. On conviction the Court may, by order in writing, provide for the disposal of the child up to the age of 16. A custodian under such order has all parental powers and duties. The Court may order the offending parent to contribute to the maintenance of the child up to the amount of £1 a week. In case the person convicted be an habitual drunkard he or she may—instead of imprisonment—be sent to a retreat for inebriates for 12 months. Persons employing a child under 14 in a dangerous performance are liable to a fine of £10. If the child is injured it amounts to an assault, and the Court on conviction may award £20, by way of compensation, to the child.—Selling intoxicating liquor to a child under 13, for consumption on the premises, is an offence punishable by a fine not exceeding £1 for the first and £2 for subsequent offences. It is a criminal offence entailing severe penalties to have sexual intercourse with a female infant under the age of 16 years, *with or without consent*, as is also the procuration of females under the age of 21 years (For further information on this point see *The Factory Act* 1878, 41 Vic. c. 16; *Coal Mine Regulation Act* 1887, 50 and 51 Vic. c. 58; *Metalliferous Mines Regulation Act* 1872, 35 and 36 Vic. c. 77; *Children's Dangerous Performances Act* 1879, 42 and 43 Vic. c. 34; *Liquor Sale to Children Act* 1886, 49 and 50 Vic. c. 44, *the Prevention of Cruelty to and Protection of Children Act* 1890, 52 and 53 Vic. c. 44, and the *Criminal Law Amendment Act* 1885, 48 and 49 Vic. c. 69.)

Apprenticeship.—To apprentice a young person is to bind him or her by indentures (that is by deed) for a term of years to a tradesman or artificer who covenants to teach him his trade or mystery in return for a sum of money. The master is bound to instruct the apprentice, and to make him master of his art, so far as his capacity to learn will permit. The apprentice is bound to obey all reasonable demands of his master. Questions as to hours of labour, holidays, etc., are generally matters of agreement in the indentures. As a rule—though not always—the apprentice boards and lodges with the master, who is bound to provide him with sufficient food, etc., and is liable to be punished on conviction by fine or imprisonment, with or without hard labour, for neglecting to do so. (See *The Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act* 1875, 38 and 39 Vict. c. 86, sec. 6). Justices of the Peace have jurisdiction in many questions between master and apprentice.

Parental Obligations as to Minor Children.—It is now well established

that except under the operation of the Poor Law (in other words except when compelled to do so by the Parish) there is no legal obligation of parents to maintain their children, nor to educate them, except under the provisions of the Elementary Education Acts of 1870, 1880, 1890 and 1891. The only cases in which they can at present be held liable are when they have themselves contracted to do something with respect to their children or when they have done some act from which it may be reasonably presumed that they have themselves authorized some third person or the child itself to act as their agent in respect to some contract in which the child is interested. A minor is personally liable for necessaries, but not on any contract that is not for his or her benefit. What are necessaries is a question of fact, dependent on the age, position in life, and means of the infant. Any contracts void against infants, are not made valid by ratification after coming of age, even though a fresh consideration has been given for the new contract. If a child becomes chargeable to the poor rate, the father—or mother, if the father is dead—may be forced to maintain it, and may be imprisoned with hard labour if he or she has run away and deserted the child, for three months. Neglect to educate a child is punishable under the Elementary Education Acts, by a fine of 5/-, but the parent cannot be prosecuted again for 14 days from the date of the last fine.

The Moral Training of Children is a matter of great importance, not only to the child itself and to the family, but to the nation at large. Home discipline is at the very foundation of social order, and order is the basis of comfort. In a work like this but little space can be devoted to such a subject, and all that can be given here are a few hints on securing obedience, mistaken kindness, and home love and respect.

Securing Obedience.—Unless children are obedient, says H. L. Charles, the work of training in all other directions is brought under great disadvantage, and can at the best be only imperfectly done. Therefore, securing obedience may be considered, largely, as a preparatory work. When properly secured, it places in the hands of parents a power and influence over their children, and thus gives to youth for its guidance the experience and wisdom of maturer years. And this influence should be used not so much for the parents' benefit as for the children's good. But the question touching the proper use of this controlling influence does not bother the mother's brain so much, perhaps, as the one, How shall I obtain it? Experience is one of the best teachers. Let us look about us for knowledge on this subject, noticing the failures and successes of others that we may avoid their mistakes and profit by their wisdom. While conversing with a lady, not long since, she made the remark, "There is great difference in children. It seems natural for some to obey, and others you can do nothing with. I have a little boy belonging to this latter class. I have punished him until I am tired of it, but it doesn't seem to do any good. He is constantly disobeying me." Let us peep into this lady's house, and get a glimpse of her method of dealing with the boy. We find them both in the kitchen. The boy sits on the floor teasing the cat. In one corner are a few toys and a book; in another is a chair turned on its side. The mother is busy about her housework. Soon the boy's noise so disturbs her that she turns to him, saying. "Oh, Charlie, don't be so cruel. I am tired of talking to you about hurting that cat. I shall give her away if you don't treat her better. And see! there is your new book still lying on the floor. I asked you an hour ago to pick it up. I told you yesterday that I should whip you if you left it on the floor again; and I shall certainly have to do so if you do not take better care of it." Charlie keeps on playing with the cat, and a few moments of silence ensue,

broken only by an occasional "Me-o-w." "There, Charlie, is that chair on its side? Now, go directly and lift it up. You know I do not allow you to upset the chairs in that way." Just then the cat got away from her tormentor, and ran out of the room. The mother picks up the playthings and book, and lays them away in their respective places. Charlie goes to the chair, and in raising it hits it against the table and upsets a pitcher of water. "Oh, Charlie, what makes you such a bad, careless boy? You are too provoking for anything!" And the mother takes him by the shoulder, gives him a violent shake, and drags him into a dark closet and shuts the door. Now, what is the effect on Charlie's mind as he thinks over the matter in his closet, and remembers that all his acts of disobedience were overlooked, while his one attempt to obey brought disgrace and punishment? He will doubtless wish that he had left the chair, as he did the book, for his mother to pick up. This is the class of mothers who do the most punishing, and who have the most disobedient children, but who seldom realise that the fault is their own.

In punishment it is seldom necessary to resort to the rod. If used at all, it should be kept well in the background. It is willing obedience that should be sought. The feelings of childhood are so tender and impressible that, by commencing early, the affections may be won, and the plastic nature so moulded as shall lead into the path of obedience without having recourse to severe measures. It is highly important, however, that the work should commence early. There is great need of a gentle firmness; and the jewel of consistency should be constantly worn. No act of disobedience, however slight, should pass unnoticed; and no threats of punishment should be made, except such as are to be carried out strictly to the letter. This does not imply harshness or severity, but simply a truthfulness and decision of character which of itself will have a healthful influence on the youthful mind. Children are wonderfully apt in detecting any signs of weakness or inconsistency in the actions of their superiors; and they cannot have a proper respect for the parent between whose words and actions they discover discrepancies. And it is difficult for a child to be truly obedient to the wishes of one whom it does not both respect and love. I know a mother who seems well versed in the art of ruling by love. Her two little girls know just what she expects of them, and they strive very hard to act in accordance with her wishes. The mother's frown is the greatest punishment they could receive, and no happiness can come to their hearts while under her displeasure. She has won their entire affections, and possesses an influence over them that could be secured in no other way. It is true that children differ widely in their dispositions, and for this reason the characteristics of each should be carefully studied, plans should be thoughtfully laid, and results should be noted. This all means work, patience, and perseverance. But it is a duty, a sacred duty, and one that will be taken up willingly, lovingly, and prayerfully by every true mother.

Mistaken Kindness.—"Can a *mother* be too sympathetic?" asks Lucy Randolph Fleming. "I think the question may be answered Yes, *and* No." She adds. "Never too sympathetic and tender under some circumstances of her child's life; weakly, even criminally so, under others. And too often as a result of this injudicious softness of the mother, grow many uncomfortable children; children who are always unaccountably (to the mother) ailing; children who must ever be amused or waited upon by somebody; children who are uncomfortably timid and who have small idea of helping themselves or others. I do not now refer to what are usually known as *spoilt* children, who must be solaced with mother's work-basket, the mantel ornaments, father's watch, or anything attainable in the household, that their elders may be allowed the boon of ten

minutes' quiet, but in those homes where parents are in most respects endeavouring to train their little ones aright; where bursts of passion, or arrant freaks of mischief are duly punished; yet the gentle yielding of the mother puts undue work on her already pressed hands, and engrafts even disagreeable habits on her children. Willie or Minnie are bid to do some trifling errand across the hall, or upstairs, and the little one demurs. Mother, or some tender-hearted sister or auntie, seeing the hesitation, is very apt to yield to the disobliging indolence, and say, "Oh! well, I'll go." And the small feet lose the opportunity to spare the older ones, and the wee heart strengthens in its native selfishness. Katie loves to cut paper on the floor—a clean, pretty amusement—but she leaves her scissors and snippings to go to other play. At first you call her back, but seeing the gathering frown on the fair little brow, the sympathetic mother hastens to say, "Go to your dollies, mother will pick all this up." So the little girl's lesson in neatness is unlearned, and a bad habit of leaving things "for mother to do" is fast forming. Charlie or Nellie is not strong, but their mother "cannot bear to punish them" by withholding certain injurious articles of food. So Nellie has her meat at night with papa, and, as a result, tosses and mutters in her sleep, frequently disturbing the too fond mother's own needed rest. Charlie *will* have green apples and cucumbers in their season, and mother doses, and doctors, and grows alarmed over the severe cramps and diarrhœa, which a little firmness in saying "No" might have prevented. And, indeed, there are many mothers too tender-hearted (?) to insist upon sick children swallowing the needful medicine when found unpalatable. I have myself heard, with amazement, a mother whose child was almost at the point of death (and did finally die) with croup, say, "I can't get her to take enough of this to do any good; *she don't like the taste of it!*" There can be no question but that it is natural for some children to be far less daring and self-reliant than others; but that timidity and nervous terrors are much increased by the over-sympathy of mothers, I have not the slightest doubt. Bid your two-year-old Carrie to bring some article from the next room. "It's dark," she says, shrinkingly. "Oh! not too dark to get mother what she wants," you answer cheerily; and almost invariably the child will go at once. Be careful not to prelude your request by, "are you *afraid* to go in the dark?" Too often the mother says, pityingly, "Oh! she's afraid, I'll go," and the result is the child *never* ventures alone in a darkened room. Somebody must go upstairs with it, somebody must get it a drink of water, somebody must put away its books or hat, because "it's dark." We have seen this child-formed habit cling to persons even of mature years, a habit exceedingly uncomfortable to themselves and others. This unwise sympathy of mothers causes themselves much unnecessary work, inasmuch as it renders children more dependent than they need be. There are mothers too sympathetic to teach infants to sit alone, but weary back and arms, holding them. This unwise sympathy causes a child to magnify trifling ills into great misfortunes, and helps to strengthen as with cords the too ready selfishness of the heart. As an excellent writer said but lately, "a saintly, unselfish woman may have very disagreeable, selfish children, ever putting herself last; *but it is her own fault.*" Expect something of your child, and show him or her that you do expect something, and nine cases out of ten your child responds to you, even at a much earlier age than soft disciplinarians will admit. As a character in a late book for girls energetically puts it, "Set your children on their feet—*on their own feet!* They are neither angels nor toys, but human beings with immortal souls, whose usefulness and happiness in this world, and preparations for another, may be greatly marred, if not lost, by unwise training."

Home love and respect.—One of the most striking contrasts between the present and the past in domestic life is the changed attitude in which parents and children stand to one another. Less than a hundred years ago, a respectably trained child would hardly have ventured to sit down in the presence of his father, unless bidden. When away at school, his letters home would be addressed to his "honoured parents," and signed "your obedient son." Imagine a boy of the old-time beginning a letter "Dear Pa," and closing with "your loving Dick." It would almost have been cause for "suspension," as involuntary absence from school was termed. There seems to have been a closer and tenderer tie between mothers and daughters, yet hardly the relation of companionship that now exists. This feeling and expression of honour and reverence for their seniors and parents must have been a charming characteristic, where genuine. "My respected Sire," spoken in earnest, had a manly ring that is lacking in the brazen familiarity that refers to the father of the family as "the governor" and the "old man," while at the same time these vulgar expressions must be recognised as the relics of an old-time formality that was often hollow, not real. The girls were not required to be so formal in address, hence we have not these degenerated terms of respect between mother and daughter. No matter how rude a girl may be, we do not hear her speaking of "the old woman" or the "old lady." The parents who command esteem from purity and excellence of character, and who combine with that an affectionate interest in all that concerns their children, need never fear that in after years they will be treated with disrespect. The sympathetic father and mother who join their children in the holiday season skating with them or watching them skate, guarding them from dangers, yielding them sweet companionship, will never in their old age be spoken of as "the old woman" and the "old man." Of course not every mother can go to the skating pond or the tennis court with her daughter, but many a one who gladly sacrifices time, strength, eyesight, and patience in ministering to the toilet or the appetite of her children, would do better to divide the effort, and sacrifice more to the games, the outdoor pleasures, and the companionship of her little ones. There is nothing of more importance that you can give to your children than the memory of a happy childhood. A child with such an inheritance will combine dutiful, loving respect and tender affection for those who have given this happiness; and all life will seem better seen from such a vantage-ground. Let the boys and girls have a good time with father and mother, and let father and mother remember that childhood comes but once. Mutual love and mutual respect should make that time golden.

Etiquette.—The laws of etiquette, like those of the higher arts, are deductions made from the practice of those who are deemed masters of the craft. It is what the great masters have done, far more than what the critics have said, that makes law in the world of art; and it is what the best men and women in the most refined circles have done, and are in the habit of doing, under exceptional circumstances and in the ordinary routine of life, that constitutes the best laws of etiquette. A friend of the writer once had occasion to wait "professionally" on the Prince of Wales. Quite unaccustomed to royal society, he looked forward to the meeting with some feeling of trepidation, and yet when the moment arrived, the Prince, "to the manner born," placed him quite at his ease by the graciousness of his bearing, and the interview, which was anticipated with dread, is now looked back upon with feelings of pleasure. This, of course, is true politeness—the manners in a man, which of their own fulness, make up for the deficiencies of others—Etiquette is the codified practice of true politeness.

The Nature of Etiquette.—In so far as national law is wise, it facilitates the

conduct of public business, and creates safeguards which are only barriers to evil-doers. Etiquette also, in so far as it is proper, and free from affectation, conduces to easy and comfortable social intercourse, and is irksome only to those who are offenders against good taste, and against whom society has a right to defend itself. When etiquette becomes like a coat of mail—unwieldy, irksome, and embarrassing—it should be placed with all other coats of mail in the musty niches of antiquarian collections, as unsuited to modern use however well adapted to older times, but when it is what it should be, a well-fitting garment of refined material, it may be always worn, for, while giving ease of movement to the wearer, it will hide nothing of the grace of form and figure which it is its true office to adorn. **The School of Etiquette.**—The best school of Etiquette is of course good society, and the student of manners who is content to occupy a modest place and pursue an unobtrusive course in the best society that is open to him, may, if he is a careful observer of, what to many are "unconsidered trifles" in word and action, learn more from actual contact with polite life than he can ever acquire from books. Fixed rules and regulations prescribed for definite occasions may of course easily be learned by rote and applied as occasion may require. But the spirit which underlies the bearing of the true gentleman and which not only applies the right law to the right occasion, but which inspires a law of the moment to apply to extraordinary cases and so makes precedents for other men to follow, is a thing of intuition, which, when absent, can only be made up for by long association with those who possess it. Etiquette embraces not only the mere practice of politeness and the proper observance of the rules of behaviour in polite society—its mission is of a higher and more positive character, for it takes within its scope the manifestation of kindly feeling and candour to all who move in the same circle. Its true moral basis is the golden rule, "As ye would that men should do unto you do ye also to them likewise," Luke VI-31. **Etiquette in the Home.**—With too many people, etiquette is a garment put on for special wear on special occasions, when visiting or when receiving visitors, but not habitually worn and not an outgrowth of the character of the wearer. These "company manners" as they have been called, are at best but ill-fitting garments, and it is often easy to see that the wearer is not comfortable in them. Whether obvious or not, however, the wearer of other people's manners (for they are not his own) always feels them irksome, and takes the earliest possible opportunity of throwing them off. Such manners, it need hardly be pointed out, are not to be relied upon. If good manners are not natural or at least habitual (*i.e.*, an outcome of second nature) they are not to be trusted. If they come naturally they will always be in evidence, if they have to be put on and are to be worn with ease it is absolutely necessary that they should be studied and practised in the home. Deference to those older or weaker than oneself is a fundamental principle of etiquette. In the house this will show itself in the treatment of parents by children, the treatment of sisters by brothers, and the treatment of servants by all. Parents have a right to the respect, deference, and obedience of their children, as have also those who fill the difficult position of step-relationship. Sisters have a right to expect the same courtesy and attention from their brothers that they see them pay to other people's sisters, and brothers have a right to expect of sisters the same sweetness and amiability which they are accustomed to see them display before other people's brothers. Servants have a right to expect not only courtesy from those they serve, but protection if need be, and every master should be jealous of his servant's honour. If society itself is the best academy of manners, the house is certainly the best preparatory school. Here the "two bears, bear and forbear," should act as

monitors, and mutual affection and charitable interpretation smooth rough places and promote peace. If it be true that "grievous words stir up anger," it should be remembered that "a soft answer turneth away wrath," and that though *one* may find it easy to be irritable, *two* are necessary to make a quarrel. Inside the sacred circle of the home faults may be pointed out without attracting undue attention, and friendless indeed is he who has no friend sincere or candid enough to remind him of his faults. Sincere sympathy, gracious tact, and wise opportunity are all that are necessary to make advice palatable, and these are all within the reach of loving hearts. In dealing with the faults of others it is well to remember Shakespeare's words, "It is not meet that every nice offence should bear its comment," to which may be added the old proverb, "Simply glance at the faults of your neighbours but never stare at them." At the same time it is important to note and check the first small relaxations of the discipline of good manners.—Familiarity breeds contempt, and it is very easy in the unrestricted freedom of the home to relapse into a state of mental as well as physical dishabille in which one's manners become as slovenly as one's dress. Young men are perhaps the chief offenders in this regard. In their love of ease they forget the respect they owe to others, in habit, dress, and deportment, and show a carelessness in these matters in the home circle which they would not show in the homes of others. This is to show disrespect where respect is most clearly due. Beware of small omissions. Let not those who are newly-married give up the delicate attentions, in which, in all likelihood, their attachment to each other first began. How often has carelessness of attire and the omission on the part of the wife of the small arts by which she won her husband's love proved the beginning of a feeling of indifference on the husband's part. This suggestion may seem unimportant; but a desire for the admiration of those whom we love is by no means an unworthy ambition. Women who dress to look well, and to be admired abroad, should surely endeavour to inspire the same feeling at home; general admiration is very dearly bought when home interests are sacrificed in the purchase of it. Let the dream of courtship be realised in marriage. Let those qualities and habits which first enlisted the sympathy and engaged the affections of each remain intact, not suffering either by their absence or even by their diminution.

The Etiquette of Conversation.—In conversation it is important that we should avoid improprieties of speech. That we must be grammatical goes without saying, but beyond mere verbal accuracy it is necessary to observe strict laws of propriety as to things said and the time of saying them. It is obviously rude to monopolize conversations, to interrupt other speakers, or to answer a question which is put to another. Speaking to gratify one's own peculiar notions or belief—or to ventilate some favourite crotchet—always has the appearance of arrogance or vanity, and is distasteful to all who have the power of thinking for themselves. Good conversationalists are an acquisition in society, but good conversationalists are not to be confounded with valuable talkers, for these exceed the bounds both of patience and of taste. A good conversationalist draws as much conversation from others as he contributes himself, but a mere talker does all the talking. What can be more thoroughly objectionable to a person of good taste than to be compelled to listen to an egotistical parade? what more irritating than to be bored with the private actions of men and women of whose history they have little knowledge, and with whose acts or opinions they have no concern? Yet, even in such situations, a good and courteous listener will be careful not to show the annoyance or discomfort that cannot fail to be produced by enforced silence—silence which a natural tenderness for the feelings of others should always suggest. Sir Walter Scott was a great

talker, and he readily acknowledged his failing, but he was also a good listener; and he has been known to state that to the last-named habit he attributed the fact that he was a constant learner. It need hardly be pointed out that ill natured remarks either addressed to one present, or referring to others absent, should have no place in polite conversation, much less the back-biting and scandal so popular with would-be fashionables. Except in the house circle, or in dealing with very near friends or in the cases of one holding higher position by seniority or social status, it is rude to offer advice where it is not solicited, though in cases of estrangement the kindly offices of a common friend may be offered to both parties with a view to reconciliation.

Introductions should never be made without first ascertaining that they will be agreeable to both parties. This rule is sometimes relaxed at dances, and in appointing gentlemen to take ladies down to supper, but it is otherwise invariable, and it is only omitted on these occasions as a matter of convenience, the introduction being looked upon as an arrangement of the moment, not involving after acquaintance. A gentleman is always introduced to the lady, however high his rank may be, without reference to hers;—this rule is invariable—"*place aux dames*." In making an introduction the correct form is to mention the gentleman's name first, thus addressing the lady—"Allow me to introduce my friend Mr. Black, Miss White"; and then addressing the gentleman repeat the lady's name Miss White. This done, suiting the action to the word with a slight bow and a polite wave of either hand and the introduction is complete. On introduction the gentleman must never offer his hand, nor should the lady, but if either does so the other ought to take it. The same applies to the offer of the hand on other occasions as far as gentlemen are concerned, the initiative always being left with the lady. All etiquette in these matters is based upon the recognition of the lady as the social superior and the necessity of leaving her free to determine the degree of intimacy to be allowed. Recognition out of doors is determined in the same way. A nod is enough between male friends who are equal, though it can never be out of place for the younger to bow to the senior or the lower in rank to raise his hat to his social superior. In all cases when there is a lady with either or both of the gentlemen, both gentlemen must raise their hats. On a gentleman meeting a lady he must wait for her recognition before he indicates his own. If she bows he must acknowledge it, if she pauses he must stop, unless he wishes to drop the acquaintance, in which case he may raise his hat and pass on. Under ordinary circumstances, if the lady offer her hand it must be taken, but the gentleman should never offer his own unless she does. The mistress of the house should shake hands with every one introduced to her. In sending guests down to dinner, who are strangers to each other, the hostess should introduce the gentleman to the lady whom he is appointed to escort.

Cards and card-leaving is a practice which principally devolves on the mistress of the house, who should leave cards on behalf of herself and her husband; it is not etiquette, however, to include bachelor friends, for whom the husband alone leaves his card. Bachelors, however, are expected to leave their cards for both husband and wife, on hearing that they have arrived either at their town house or their country seat. A visiting card should not only have the name on it, but the prefix also—"Mrs."—the omission of which is an impropriety. Initials, signifying degrees, at the end of the name, should neither be printed nor written on the card. For instance, the addition of Q.C., of M.D., or M.P., is not in accordance with polite usage. Military titles or professional degrees should necessarily *precede* the name—thus, Colonel, Captn., Revd., or Dr.—and the address be printed in the right-hand

corner. Cards must invariably be left in person—never sent, neither by hand nor by post. It is expected that married ladies should leave their cards on coming to their residence, either in town or country: it cannot be expected that their friends and acquaintances should leave cards for *them*, until informed *pro forma*, of their arrival. A lady's visiting card should be thin, and without glaze, about three and a half inches by two, name in centre, address right-hand side, and using the husband's christian name, if his father or elder brother be living. A gentleman's visiting card should be three inches by one and a half in size, white in colour and the lettering should be in italics. Young ladies have their names printed beneath that of their mother; in the case where the mother is not living, beneath that of their father. Cards should always be returned within ten days. They should be left after any invitation, whether the invitation be accepted or otherwise, as soon as possible, and between the hours of 3,30 and 6.30. Wedding cards, funeral cards, and christening, are out of date—the two last-named especially.

Morning calls.—From three to four o'clock is the recognised time for morning calls. Ceremonious calls should never be made on Sunday. Husbands and wives usually make calls together. When they announce themselves to the servant, they should invariably put the prefix Lady, Lord, Mr. or Mrs. to their names —the only exception being "The Honourable." Of course, if the host or hostess be absent from the drawing-room, no conversation whatever should take place with the servant. A gentleman calling on a lady takes his hat and stick with him into the drawing-room and continues to hold them in his hand unless asked to put them down; nor should he resume his hat until he reaches the hall. A man may leave his overcoat in the hall but to leave his hat is inadmissible; it would look as if he had come to stay. It is equally inadmissible to take an umbrella into the drawing-room. The visitor gives his name to the servant who announces it as he enters the drawing-room, cards are left in the hall on returning, one for the ladies and one for the gentlemen of the house. He should remove his right hand glove and carry it with his hat and stick in his left hand, so that his right hand may be free to take the hand of his hostess when it is offered. A gloved hand is never given to a lady except under exceptional circumstances. Having greeted his hostess he is at liberty to look round the room and acknowledge any other acquaintance who may be present, the terms of the greeting to be determined by the degree of the intimacy, after which he takes a seat. A call should not exceed half an hour in duration, unless the caller is expressly asked to continue it, and it need not exceed fifteen or twenty minutes. Calls should be made and cards left after and within a few days of any entertainment at which the caller may have been present. Fussy behaviour, whether practised by host, hostess, or guest, is in bad taste—fussiness is a conclusive proof of inferior breeding.

Dinner Parties are, perhaps, more appreciated than any other form of entertainment; the master of the house occupies a prominent position—a position assumed by him on no other occasion. For large and ceremonious dinners, twenty-one days' notice is usual; for small parties a week or ten days' are sufficient. During the London season it is often necessary to give much longer notice. Refusals should be sent without delay. The hostess sends out the invitations; young ladies are not often asked to dinner. Guests should arrive within fifteen minutes of the hour named on the invitation. Hats, overcoats, and wraps are handed to the servants in the hall or in a room appointed for the purpose. A lady and gentleman should not enter the room arm-in-arm—the lady takes precedence. On entering the drawing-room the visitors present themselves to the hostess first, even if they have to pass old friends in doing so. This holds good of all receptions. This done they are at liberty to pay their attentions to

any others present whom they may know. The lady of highest rank is taken from the drawing-room by the host; the gentleman of highest rank takes the hostess; relations should never go down to dinner together. The host usually tells each gentleman, on his arrival, the name of the lady to whom he is to be the escort to the table and introduces them if necessary. In accompanying a lady downstairs the lady takes the inside place, *i.e.* the place nearest the wall. The lady whom the host has selected, sits on his right, that order being strictly preserved by all the guests. The host stands at the bottom of the table to place his guests. Cards with the names inscribed, are now in disuse. As soon as a lady takes her seat, she removes her gloves and unfolds her *serviette.* Men do not wear gloves at dinner parties and therefore do not have to divest themselves of them. Fanciful ménuholders are much in use; but in small, unceremonious parties, they may well be dispensed with altogether. Conversation at dinner-parties, as a rule, is to be indulged in and encouraged. The dinners now are almost universally served *à la Russe.* The dessert is usually arranged down the centre of the table, with the flowers and plate. Fish should be eaten with a silver knife and fork, and not with two forks; or, worse still, with a single fork and a crust of bread, a mode that Dickens describes as "chasing the fish all over the plate." For sweetbreads and cutlets, the knife is necessary. In eating asparagus, a knife and fork should be used, cutting off the points with the knife. It is, however, sometimes handled by the fingers in the same way as celery. In the case of stone-fruit tarts—damson, plum, or cherry—the dessert-spoon or fork should convey the stone from the mouth to the plate. Jellies, blancmange, etc., are eaten with a fork, not with a spoon. Gentlemen do not pledge one another, and ladies take no more than one glass of wine at dessert. Grace is sometimes observed and sometimes omitted. If observed, a short grace is alone admissable, and it should be simple. The grace used by a well known London clergyman, "Benedictus benedicat", is both brief and expressive, but for ordinary use the old formula is perhaps the best: "For what we are about to receive may the Lord make us truly thankful." Any clergyman present will say grace, of course, in his own way, otherwise grace should be said by the host. Visitors begin dinner immediately on being served and without waiting for others to be served. A safe rule for a novice to follow is that of watching veterans and doing as others do, only it is important to take a good model. When the ladies rise to return to the drawing-room the gentleman nearest the door opens it for them and holds it open while they pass out, closing it after them. When the gentlemen follow them the most distinguished guest leads the way and the host brings up the rear. There is no rule as to the hour of departure of guests at a dinner party, ten or half past ten is, however, regarded as a suitable hour. There is no necessity to tip servants. Evening dress is indispensable.

Balls and dancing parties.—The lady of the house should have a room prepared for the reception of lady guests, with an attendant to assist in the uncloaking, and in arranging the dress generally, of those of the visitors who require these attentions. If the assembly be on a large scale, it is proper to issue numbered tickets, and affix a duplicate of the number to the cloak or wrapper, a plan that will be found greatly to facilitate departure. A separate room for refreshments should be provided in the case we have named; but if the gathering be small and unceremonious, light refreshments may be handed round. The lady of the house generally opens the ball; but should circumstances prevent her from doing so, the husband takes her place, mostly selecting as his partner the lady of the highest rank; or, in some cases, the greatest stranger, which is always considered an act so gracious that it cannot fail to be free from all offence to the

other visitors. And here the positive duty on the part of host or hostess, as far as dancing is concerned, may very properly cease, except that it is the duty of the host or some one whom he may appoint, to act as master of the ceremonies to make introductions where necessary, and generally to facilitate the conduct of the programme. Partners in the supper dance (that immediately preceding supper) accompany each other to the supper table. In dancing, care must be taken not to usurp a place previously engaged, or to join in a country dance, otherwise than by taking a station below that of the last couple. On departure, a slight intimation may be made to the host and hostess; but all kinds of ceremony in taking a farewell should be studiously avoided. To retire in silence, and without attracting attention, is not only quite permissible, but is perhaps the best mode of making a "graceful retreat." A call afterwards affords an opportunity for passing a few compliments upon the arrangements of the evening, and more especially upon the quality and refinement of the company who were present. These calls should be made within a week, or, better still, within a day or two of the gathering, for they are always a source of gratification to those who have endeavoured to entertain their friends, while they promote the exercise of a kind and friendly feeling on each side.

Receiving Visitors.—The grace of true courtesy, says A. H. Howard, is perhaps never more conspicuous than in the reception of visitors. The ill-bred or vulgar woman has two sets of manners; and treats those whom she admires or wishes to honour with excessive cordiality and cringing politeness, while towards those whom she considers beneath her she assumes a manner of patronising kindness, or else treats them with frigidity and haughtiness. Such people are rightly termed "snobs." There is never the slightest excuse for incivility, even if the guest be a bore, or an interruption, or not particularly congenial, "*Noblesse oblige.*" The true lady receives all her visitors with courtesy. Not with a kiss of pretended affection, nor with a formal, frigid bow of chilling politeness, nor with a broad grin of pretended pleasure upon her lips, or assurances of welcome which she does not feel, but always with a bow that implies respect and kindly feeling, a smile in the eye and with no thought of self. For after all, true courtesy is really the art of forgetting ourselves and living for the time in those around us. The pretentious man or woman is always vulgar. As Ruskin says, "Vulgarity is a deathful selfishness."

The well-bred woman always carefully avoids making herself conspicuous in any way. She shrinks from loud talking, laughing, or from anything that might attract attention. For the same reason she avoids tawdry finery and showy dress and ornaments in public, and especially in church. Quietness, gentleness and kindness are among the essentials of good breeding. The true lady receives her visitors without fuss or pretence, and with a cordiality that corresponds with the size of her heart. She makes her visitor as easy and comfortable as possible, and then waits for her to open the conversation. She endeavours to follow up the topic introduced by her guest; listens deferentially and with interest, and then gives all she may have to say upon the subject in return. Never engross the conversation. Learn to be a good listener. Endeavour to draw out others to speak rather than to display your own knowledge. Do not talk much about yourself, or tell stories in which you figure as hero. The history of your ailments, your servants, your trials, haps or mishaps, may be very interesting to yourself but it seldom is so to other people. Avoid speaking of things that interest no one but yourself. Endeavour to follow the train of thought suggested by your companion. Never interrupt while another is speaking. It is very rude to change the subject of conversation suddenly, or before all present have had time to express their opinions. When a topic

of conversation is exhausted, and dulness or silence seems to require the introduction of something new, be careful to introduce something that will be of interest to those present. Talk of things rather than of people. People are always interested in subjects that they know and understand best. Sir Walter Scott always made it a point to converse with everyone he met upon the subject with which they were best acquainted. Thus, when in conversation with a lawyer he talked of law, with a sailor of his voyages and adventures, with a farmer of agriculture, with a soldier of battles, and even a Highland peasant woman might help him by furnishing a model for one of his inimitable characters. No one was too old or too poor to be beneath his notice, and thus he not only made friends everywhere, but acquired that fund of valuable information that enriched his works and made him one of the greatest writers of the world.

The true lady is a lady always.—She has not two sets of manners. Her charwoman, laundress, or servant are addressed with the same gentle tones of kindly feeling and courteous consideration that she bestows upon her friends in the drawing-room. She is not too polite and attentive to some, and too cold and haughty to others. People of real greatness are always perfectly simple and unaffected in their manners, without the least trace of haughtiness. It is said that when the friends of Washington expostulated with him for condescending to lift his hat to return the salute of a coloured servant, he said, "Shall I let him outdo me in politeness?" "Be courteous," is a command of the Apostle Paul; and a complete summary of the laws of good breeding is given in 1 Corinthians xiii, which teaches the charity that "suffereth long and is kind; envieth not, vaunteth not itself, is not puffed up, doth not behave itself unseemly, seeketh not her own, is not easily provoked, thinketh no evil." Vainly, indeed, may we seek a better code of manners! What can be more graceful or attractive than the beautiful picture here described? Alas! that in this age of self-conceit, noise, show, and self-seeking, it is so rarely found!

Births Registration.—Within six weeks of the birth of a child the father, mother, or any occupier of the house in which a child was born, must attend at the registry office, and give notice of the birth, and the name of the child. The person giving such information, must also enter his or her name in the register, otherwise it cannot be received as evidence. Heavy penalties are attached to incorrect registration, or to the omission of registration within the time specified, viz., six weeks after birth. The announcement of the event should be placed in the papers within the week and immediately after its appearance, the friends of the family should call and leave, or send their cards, with kind messages of enquiry. After two or three weeks, cards of thanks for kind enquiries are then sent out in return, after which calls can be made upon mother and child, and the latter is introduced to the mother's friends.

Baptism.—The etiquette connected with the baptism, or christening of a child, of course varies with the body of Christians to which the parents belong. In the Established Church, the rite is celebrated during the afternoon or before the evening service, sometimes just before the afternoon service. It is customary for the father to attend, also the sponsors and the nurse. Other friends are also usually present, though only the godparents and the nurse proceed to the font with the clergyman, while the other members of the party seat themselves near it. The godmother should stand on the left of the clergyman, and hold the infant until the part in the service where the ceremony is performed, when she should hand her charge to the clergyman, who takes it on his left arm. When he says "Name this child," the godfather should be careful to mention the names distinctly, otherwise mistakes are made. After the ceremony the clergyman hands the

child to the nurse, and the father follows the clergyman to the vestry, to see that the register is properly made. The fee to the clergyman, of course, varies with the father's means, but it is not a legal charge, and in some churches, the christening fees are put aside for charitable purposes. It is usual for godfathers and godmothers to give "christening presents," and a christening party is often held, to which the clergyman, who officiated at the christening, is often invited.

Marriages.—When, in the language of the fashionable newspapers, a marriage has been "arranged"—it is customary for the gentleman to present the lady with an "engagement ring," which he places on the third finger of the left hand, and which she wears during the entire period of the engagement. At the wedding the plain gold wedding-ring, of course, takes its place, but the engagement ring is often worn as well on the same finger. The offer of marriage, of course, usually comes from the gentleman, but with the lady and her friends rests the privilege of naming the day of marriage. The bridegroom can of course give what fee he pleases, according to his means, but for a midde-class wedding £2 2s., or even 21s. to the officiating minister or clergyman is generally considered sufficient.

The ceremony.—The success of a wedding depends largely upon the bridegroom's "best man." He makes nearly all the bridegroom's arrangements, and accompanies him to the church, where they wait for the arrival of the bride with her party. As the time approaches for the arrival of the bride, the bridegroom and the "best man" take up their places near the altar, and the invited guests seat themselves as near as convenient. The bridesmaids arrive just before the bride and await her coming in the porch. The bride is usually accompanied by her father, guardian, or nearest male relative, who is to "give her away," and, leaning on his right arm, she passes through her group of bridesmaids who have arranged themselves in double line, and who walk "two and two" behind her to the altar. Here she meets her bridegroom and takes her stand at his *left* hand, her father, consequently, being at *her* left hand. Her mother and married sisters who may have accompanied her, group themselves near the father, and the bridesmaids range themselves behind the bride, the chief bridesmaid being, of course, nearest. At the conclusion of the ceremony the bride takes the left arm of her newly-made husband and follows the minister to sign the register. The father, mother, bridesmaids, etc., also follow, and all offer congratulations to the bride. On returning from the vestry the bride of course retains her husband's arm

Wedding Breakfasts.—The etiquette of wedding breakfasts is capable of great variation in its minor details. Sometimes the bride does not even appear, and the meal itself is of a very light description, being, in fact, but a stand-up luncheon—otherwise, the tables are arranged in form of a T or horse-shoe, the newly-married couple being seated at the top of the T or at the top outside of the curve, the bride at the bridegroom's right hand with her parents next her; the bridegroom's parents being next their son. Soup, game, tongue, made-dishes, jellies, and sweets, etc., often constitute the fare, and the meal far more frequently resembles a ball supper than an ordinary breakfast. Much, of course, depends upon the means of the giver of the feast, and the minor details of etiquette concerning "what is right to have" vary very much. As a rule, it is as well to place the affairs in the hands of a competent caterer and let him manage everything. At the conclusion of the repast the bride-cake is placed before the bride, who takes a knife and inserts it in the cake. It is then cut into small pieces and handed round. **Toasts.**—Then come the toasts, the order being as follows:—first, the bride's father or guardian proposes the health of the "happy pair," to which the bridegroom

replies and proposes the health of the bridesmaids; to this the "best man" responds. The bridegroom then proposes the health of his wife's parents, and then the health of his own parents is proposed sometimes by the bride's father, or elder brother, or according to arrangement; other toasts may then follow, according to circumstances. They should, however, be short, as it is not wise to prolong the breakfast. **Going away.**—At the conclusion of the breakfast the bride retires to change her dress for travelling, and she and her husband go off for their honeymoon. The etiquette of the ball or whatever entertainment may be planned for the remainder of the day, is the same as on other occasions. Small pieces of wedding cake should be sent to those friends who were not present at the wedding, and especially to those who have sent gifts, and of course the names of the bride and bridegroom are attached, to show whence the piece comes. The custom of sending wedding cards is now very seldom practised.

Wedding Dresses.—As to the dress on the wedding day, the bride's costume depends very much upon the amount of money she is able to spend upon it, the taste of the wearer, and the time of year, etc. The bridegroom's costume, however, is usually dark blue frock coat, light trowsers, light neck tie, and gloves; "a button hole," and new silk hat. Some gentlemen also wear patent leather boots. The "best man" also dresses like the bridegroom.

Wedding Presents should be selected with care and due regard to the circumstances of the young couple. It is quite usual to give presents at this time which may be of service in furnishing the house and table. It is also allowable to ask the young couple beforehand what they would like, in order to prevent duplicates of the same present being sent. They should be sent within the fortnight before the wedding, but there is no absolute rule. The presents are generally placed together on a table, in the house of the bride's father, before the ceremony; and sometimes afternoon tea is served on the day preceding the wedding, when the friends inspect them. The gifts of the "best man" to the bridesmaids are usually the bouquet, which he causes to be sent to the residence of each on the wedding morning, and he often gives a locket, brooch, bracelet, or some such present at the same time as a memorial of the day. He also often gives the bride a present of the same kind, which she wears for the first time that day. The bride's bouquet is sometimes given by the "best man," and consists of white flowers only. The bridegroom gives him also a scarf pin, or ring, or some article of jewellery.

Deaths Registration.—Notice of death must be given to the registrar of the district within five days of the decease; and within eight days, information must also be given as to the cause (to the best of the informant's belief) and day of death, name, age, and other particulars. The notice to the registrar must be given by someone present at the time of death, or some inmate of the house in which the death occurred, and the informant must sign his or her name in the registration book, otherwise the entry cannot be used as evidence. Any false statement renders the informant liable to punishment as for perjury. The Registrar then gives a certificate of death, and undertakers performing funerals without such certificate are liable to a heavy penalty.

Funeral Arrangements.—As soon as possible after the sad event, the blinds of the house are drawn down, and remain down until after the funeral, and the undertaker is also instructed as soon as posssible after the death, and the funeral arrangements are in a great measure left to him. Notes are sent to relatives and friends, conveying the mournful news, and it is also usual to place an announcement in the deaths column of the newspapers. Invitations are then sent out to those persons who are to attend the funeral. They duly assemble at the time ap-

pointed (which should be within a week of death) and should be careful to be punctual. Light refreshments are usually on the table. The ladies of the family are not always present on these occasions, and if they intend to follow in the funeral procession, they do not leave their rooms until the hour of starting. The nearest relatives follow next to the hearse or coffin, and others according to their relationship. Empty carriages, sent out of compliment, of course come last. In Nonconformist Churches, as in the Established Churches, the coffin is frequently taken first to the church or chapel where the first part of the service is celebrated, and the minister then precedes the procession to the grave, the mourners following in order as before. As soon as the ceremony is over, the mourners separate, each taking his way home, or return together, according to arrangement. Visitors who are not on the most intimate terms are not expected to call, that is, to enter beyond the door until a week after the funeral.

Modes of addressing people of Title.—Titles are so many and distinctions so various, that it is impossible for ordinary people to remember the proper order of precedence as regulated by court-etiquette or the different titles of distinction conferred by patent or observed by courtesy. Many lists of titles with the modes of address peculiar to them have been published, but the most concise and complete one for ordinary purposes is that published in "Hazell's Annual" which by the courtesy of the Editor we are enabled to reproduce. **Archbishop**—commence *My Lord Archbishop;* refer to personally as *Your Grace;* and address letter to "His Grace the Archbishop of ——." **An Archbishop's wife and other members of his family** enjoy no title as such. **Archdeacon**—commence *Venerable Sir;* refer to as *Sir;* address to "The Venerable the Archdeacon of ——." **Baron**—commence *My Lord;* refer to personally as *Your Lordship* or *My Lord;* and address letter to "The Rt. Hon. Lord ——." **Baroness** or **Baron's wife**—commence *Madam;* refer to personally as *Your Ladyship* or *My Lady;* and address to "The Lady ——," or more strictly "The Rt. Hon. the Baroness ——." **Baron's son**—commence *Sir;* refer to as *Sir;* and address to "The Hon. John ——." **Baron's daughter**—commence *Madam;* refer to as *Madam;* and address, if unmarried, to "The Hon. Jane ——," if married to an esquire to "The Hon. Mrs. ——." **Baronet**—commence *Sir;* refer to as *Sir;* address to "Sir William ——, Bart." **Baronet's wife**—commence *Madam;* refer to as *Your Ladyship;* address to "Lady ——" (without Christian name, unless she be the daughter of a duke, marquis, or earl). **Bishop**—commence *My Lord;* refer to as *Your Lordship;* address to "The Right Rev. the Lord Bishop of ——." **Retired Bishops**—commence *Right Rev. Sir;* address to the "Right Rev. Bishop" [then the surname]. **Bishops Suffragan**—commence in the same way, and address to "The Bishop Suffragan of ——." **A Bishop's wife and children** enjoy no title whatsoever as such. **Canon**—commence *Rev. Sir;* refer to as *Sir;* address to the "Rev. Canon ——." **Cardinal**—commence *Your Eminence*, refer to as same, address to "*His Eminence* ——." **Clerk in Holy Orders**—commence *Rev. Sir;* refer to as *Sir;* address to "The Rev. John Jones," or, if the Christian name be not known, to "The Rev. Jones." **Countess** (see Earl). **Dean**—commence *Very Rev. Sir;* refer to personally as *Sir;* address to "Very Rev. the Dean of ——." **Diplomatic**: Ambassador—commence *My Lord* or *Sir*, according to rank; refer to as *Your Excellency;* and address to "His Excellency Lord —— or Sir Thomas ——, as the case may be), H.B.M.'s Ambassador Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to ——." The style of "Excellency" is not used in the case of a minister or minister resident: these should be addressed as "H.B.M. Minister" or "H.B.M. Minister Resident." The same initials are used in the case of a

consul. **Dowager**—the widow of a peer or baronet should be addressed as "The Dowager Duchess of ——," or "The Dowager Lady ——," when her son or grandson succeeds to the title and is married. **Duke**—commence *My Lord Duke;* refer to as *Your Grace;* and address to "His Grace the Duke of——." **Duchess** commence *Madam;* refer to as *Your Grace;* and address to "Her Grace the Duchess of ——." **Duke's eldest son,** as if he held legally the second title of his father. **Duke's younger son**—commence *My Lord;* refer to as *Your Lordship;* and address to "The Lord Henry ——." **Duke's daughter**—commence *Madam;* refer to as *Your Ladyship;* and address to "The Lady Ellen ——." **Earl**—commence *My Lord;* refer to as *Your Lordship;* and address to "The Rt. Hon. the Earl of——." **Earl's eldest son,** as if he held legally the second title of his father. **Earl's younger son,** same as the younger son of baron. **Earl's daughter,** same as the daughter of a duke. **Countess**—commence *Madam;* refer to as *Your Ladyship;* address to "The Rt. Hon. the Countess of ——." **Judge of the High Court of Justice**—commence *Sir;* refer to in letter only as *Sir*, but on the bench as *My Lord*; address to "The Hon. Sir John ——." **Judge, Scottish**—commence *My Lord;* address to "The Hon. Lord ——." **Knight**—commence and refer to as *Sir;* and address to "Sir Thomas ——." If a **Knight Bachelor** (Kt., the form of knighthood usually conferred upon a judge, and the law officers amongst others) it is not customary to add "Knight," except in formal documents; but if the person addressed be a K.G. or K.T. or K.P. or G.C.B., etc., etc., it is usual to add the initials after the name. When the person addressed is a knight of several orders, give at least the initials of the most illustrious. **Knight's wife,** same as wife of a baronet. **Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland**—commence *My Lord Marquis* or *My Lord*, according to rank; address to "His Excellency the Lord-Lieutenant," or, if a duke, to "His Grace the Lord-Lieutenant." **Lord Mayor**—commence *My Lord;* refer to as *My lord* or *Your Lordship;* and address to "The Right Hon. the Lord Mayor of London, or York, or Dublin," as the case may be. **Lady Mayoress,** same as baroness, addressing to "The Rt. Hon. the Lady Mayoress." **Lord Provost of Edinburgh**—commence *My Lord*; address to "The Right Hon. the Lord Provost." **Lord Provost of Glasgow**—commence the same; but address to "The Hon. the Lord Provost." **Marquis**—commence *My Lord Marquis;* and refer to as *My Lord* or *Your Lordship*; and address "The Most Hon. the Marquis of ——." **Marchioness**—commence, *Madam*; refer to as *Your Ladyship*; and address to "The Most Hon. the Marchioness of ——." **Eldest son,** as if he legally held the second title of his father. **Younger son,** same as younger son of a duke. **Marquis's daughter,** same as daughter of a duke. **Mayor**—commence and refer to as *Sir;* and address to "The Mayor of ——," or in any formal documents to "The Right Worshipful the Mayor of ——." **Prince**—commence *Sir;* refer to as *Your Royal Highness;* and address, if a prince, "His Royal Highness Prince ——," or, if a duke also, "His Royal Highness the Duke of ——." **Princess**—commence, *Madam;* refer to personally as *Your Royal Highness;* and address to "Her Royal Highness the Princess ——," or, if a duchess, to "Her Royal Highness the Duchess of ——." **Privy Councillor**—commence and refer to according to rank, but address to the "Right Honourable ——," and if a commoner omit Esq. (*e.g.*, "The Rt. Hon. E. T. Bouverie"). **M.P.** should be added after the surname, or after Bart. or Esq., if belonging to the House, a baronet, etc. (*e.g.*, Sir Joseph W. Pease, Bart., M.P.; Jesse Collings, Esq., M.P.). A Privy Councillor's wife and children take no title as such. **Queen**—commence *Madam;* refer to personally as *Your Majesty;* and

address "The Queen's Most Excellent Majesty." **Viscount**—commence *My Lord*; refer to as *Your Lordship* or *My Lord*; address to "The Rt. Hon. Lord Viscount," "The Lord Viscount ——." **Viscountess**—commence *Madam*; refer to as *Your Ladyship*; and address to "The Rt. Hon. the Viscountess ——," or "The Viscountess ——." Viscount's son or daughter, same as son or daughter of a baron. Note.—A marquis, or an earl, or a viscount by courtesy is addressed as if he were a peer and enjoyed one of those titles by right. In communications upon official business give the office held by the person addressed in a line beneath the name. In writing proper names the first part of a compound name must not be confused with a Christian name: *e.g.*, J. Robinson-Browne must not be addressed as "Robinson-Browne, Esq."; and in the case of a knight, Sir William Jones-Smith must not be written to as Sir Jones-Smith, which would be as incorrect as Sir Champbell or Sir Jones. In '93 it was officially announced that the Queen "has been pleased to approve of the use and recognition throughout Her Majesty's dominions of the title of 'Honourable,' at present appertaining only locally to members of executive or legislative councils in colonies possessing responsible government, for so long as they may remain entitled thereto, whether for life, or during tenure of the qualifying office."

Order of Precedence Men.

The Sovereign.
The Prince of Wales.
The Younger sons of the Sovereign.
Grandsons of the Sovereign.
The Archbishop of Canterbury.
The Lord High Chancellor.
The Archbishop of York.
The Lord President of the Council.
The Lord Privy Seal.
The Lord Great Chamberlain.
The Earl Marshal.
The Lord Steward of Her Majesty's Household.
The Lord Chamberlain.
The last four rank above all Peers of their own degree.
Dukes, according to their Patents of Creation.
1. Of England; 2. Of Scotland; 3. Of Great Britain; 4. Of Ireland.
5. Those created since the Union.
Marquises according to their Patents, in the same order as Dukes.
Dukes' eldest Sons.
Earls, according to their Patents, in the same order as Dukes.
Marquises' eldest Sons.
Dukes' younger Sons.
Viscounts, according to their Patents, in the same order as Dukes.
Earls' eldest Sons.
Marquises' younger Sons.
Bishops of London, Durham, and Winchester.
All other English Bishops, according to their seniority of Consecration.
Bishops of the Irish Church, created before 1869, according to seniority.
Secretaries of State, if of the degree of a Baron.
Barons, according to their Patents, in the same order as Dukes.
Speaker of the House of Commons.
Treasurer of H.M.'s Household.
Comptroller of H.M.'s Household.
Master of the Horse.
Vice-Chamberlain of Household.
Secretaries of State under the degree of Barons.
Viscounts' eldest Sons.
Earls' younger Sons.
Barons' eldest Sons.
Knights of the Garter.
Privy Councillors.
Chancellor of the Exchequer.
Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster.
Lord Chief Justice Queen's Bench.
Master of the Rolls.
The Lords Justices of Appeal.
Lords of Appeal.
Judges according to seniority.
Viscounts' younger Sons.
Barons' younger Sons.
Baronets of England, Scotland, Ireland, and United Kingdom, according to date of Patents.
Knights of the Thistle.
Knights of St. Patrick.

Knights Grand Gross of the Bath.
Knights Grand Commanders of the Star of India.
Knights Grand Cross of St. Michael and St. George.
Knights Grand Commanders of the Indian Empire.
Knights Commanders of the Bath.
Knights Commanders of the Star of India.
Knights Commanders of St. Michael and St. George.
Knights Commanders of the Indian Empire.
Knights Bachelors.
Judges of County Courts.
Companions of the Bath.
Companions of the Star of India.
Companions of St. Michael and St. George.
Companions of the Indian Empire.
Companions of the Distinguished Service Order.
Eldest Sons of the younger Sons of Peers.
Baronets' eldest Sons.
Eldest Sons of Knights—1. Garter; 2. Thistle; 3. St. Patrick; 4. The Bath; 5. Star of India; 6. St. Michael and St. George; 7. Indian Empire; 8. Knights Bachelors
Younger Sons of the younger Sons of Peers.
Baronets' younger Sons.
Younger Sons of Knights in the same order as eldest Sons.
Gentlemen entitled to bear arms.

Order of Precedence Women.—Married women rank with their husbands whether higher or lower than their original rank, though the daughter of a peer retains her title as Lady or Honourable though she marries a commoner. Unmarried daughters of peers rank next after the wives of their elder brothers and before the wives of their younger brothers. Official rank on the part of the husband does not confer similar precedence on the wife.

Local Precedence.—In Counties the Lord Lieutenant stands first and the Sheriff second. In Towns the Mayor stands first, the Sheriff second, the Aldermen are next followed by the chief officers and the livery. The High Sheriff takes precedence of the Vice Chancellor at Oxford and Cambridge.

NEEDLEWORK.

Plain Needlework.—Plain needlework is a very comprehensive term. It includes the homely Patch or Darn and the trimmed undergarment often ornate and elaborate. In these days of public examinations the teaching of plain needlework is but too often neglected, and yet a girl's education is not complete until she has learnt, at least, how to cut out and make ordinary undergarments and articles for household use. The brilliant girl, who can pass her examinations easily, and to whom we can refer, when in doubt on any learned subject, is a source of pride to her friends, but the one, who is able, by the skilful use of her needle, to meet any need in the more homely matters of the household, is a great source of comfort to all around her. Many who have given no attention to needlework regard it as dull and uninteresting, and yet in the hands of an adept, it may easily become a fine art. To some the occupation of needlework affords a soothing influence which is by no means unbeneficial. For the guidance of the uninstructed in cutting out and making articles for the ordinary household, the following hints are given. Most of the illustrations will represent garments of plain, simple patterns, for when once the rudiments are mastered individual skill and taste will dictate the rest. About the choice of material no definite rules can be laid down. The needlewoman will select her material with a view to the purpose to which it is to be put. She should bear in mind that for hard wear, it is unwise to buy thin, cheap calico, at the same time, in order to be strong it need not be coarse. For ordinary garments such as chemises, white shirts, combinations, knickers, nightdresses, a fine, even-threaded longcloth is, perhaps, of the most prac-

tical use. It is now quite possible to get undressed cloth of any texture, on which it is a pleasure to work, instead of the highly glazed calico of old, which it was well-nigh impossible to make up before it had been washed. Any cloth which will not readily take the point of a pin is undesirable for hand made undergarments.

Terms in Common Use.—In the course of the following remarks we shall have to refer frequently to **Seams, Gussets, Bands, Gathers, Button-holes,** etc., and as it is important that we should thoroughly understand these terms before we employ them we will begin by defining and illustrating them.

Seams.—When we join two parts of a garment we make a seam. Seams should always be begun at the top of the garment. They are done in various ways. We run and fell them, we sew them, we sew and fell them; for very thin materials such as muslin of various

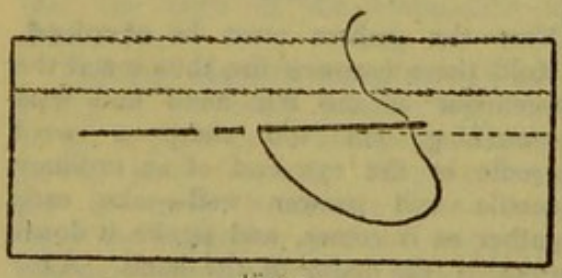


Fig. 1.

kinds, we make double seams, and on flannel work we run and herring-bone or stitch and herring-bone them. (See under Flannel work). The **Run and Felled Seam** is, perhaps, the most used of all. To do this turn the garment to the wrong side, and holding the top towards the right hand, place the edge of one width below the edge of the other width leaving a little less than a quarter of an inch between the two edges, and after tacking them run the seam. The running should be done in even stitches about half an inch from the top edge, as in Fig. 1.

Now turn the top edge over the lower one and fell—that is hem down. Fig. 2.

Sewed Seam.—When we have two selvedges, as we often do when we put on gores to nightdresses etc., we may put the two together and oversew them.

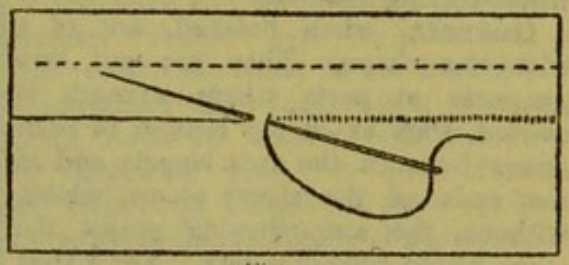


Fig. 2.

The **Sewed-and-felled Seam** is still sometimes used, although much less often than it formerly was. To fix this turn down nearly a quarter of an inch, then make another fold the opposite way fan-like. Take the other width and turn it down once; put the two widths together (the foldings will all be inside), firmly tack and then over-sew the seam. In doing over-sewing the work should always be held between the thumb and forefinger, and along the forefinger **not over** it as in hemming. When the sewing, which is on the right side, is done, the ridge of the seam must be smoothed down with the thumb nail, the garment turned and the seam felled. For thin materials such as Nainsook, Cambric, and fine Muslins we often use a **Double Seam.** This we run or stitch once on the right side rather near the edge; then turn and stitch again on the wrong side. Care must be taken that none of the raw edge comes out beyond the second stitching—it must be entirely enclosed.

Back-Stitching.—This is done by putting the needle two threads forward, then taking two threads back putting the needle to meet end of last stitch thus:—

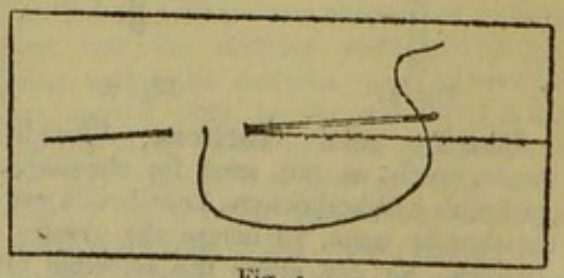


Fig. 3.

When back-stitching has to be done on a perfectly straight line, as along

the linen wristband of a shirt a thread should be drawn and the stitching worked along the line.

Gussets, when finished, are of a triangular shape. They are put into garments at parts where strength is needed, such as at the bottom of shirt seams between the two lappets and at the ends of the sleeve seams, where, without the strengthening gusset the seam would probably tear. For a shirt gusset cut a piece of longcloth, or whatever material you are using, about two inches square. Turn under a little piece all round. Place one point of the gusset where the seam ends. Sew on the right side, or stitch on the wrong side, down two sides of the square, from point at end of seam towards the two middle points, but do not work quite up to these points—leave about half an inch (besides the turned down piece).

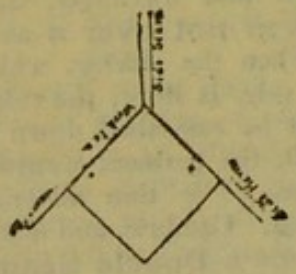


Fig. 4.

Now turn to the wrong side and hem the gusset down—stitch across on right side.

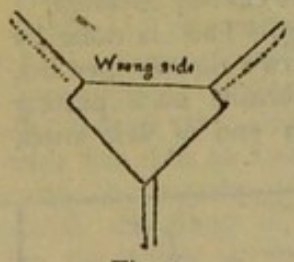


Fig. 5.

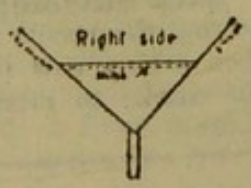


Fig. 6.

Bands and Gathers.—Straight bands, such as are used for chemises, children's knickerbockers, knee-bands and wristbands must, to insure the greatest strength, be cut along the selvedge of material. Of course, it is impossible to cut the whole of a shaped band this way. Banding may be done as follows: Divide the band into even lengths—say quarters—and mark with pins or creases, also mark, by pins, the same number of divisions on the work to be gathered. Now do the gathers. These must be run on the right side of the stuff in regular stitches about a quarter of an inch from the edge. A crease in material will help a beginner to keep the running straight. When sufficient running has been done the gathers must be drawn close together and, to secure them, the gathering thread can be wound round a pin stuck in the cloth thus:—

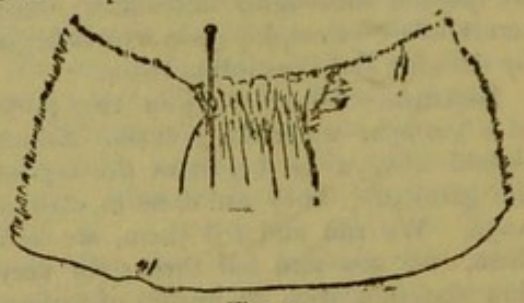


Fig. 7.

Now the gathers must be **stroked.** Hold them between the thumb and the forefinger of the left hand and with something not too sharp—a wool needle or the eye end of an ordinary needle will answer well—take each gather as it comes, and stroke it down towards the palm of the hand. After the undergathers have been stroked turn and attend to the upper part in the same way. The gathering thread can now be loosened, and the band fixed on. Let the gathers be fixed into the divisions marked for them on the band. Hem on the band in even, upright stitches.

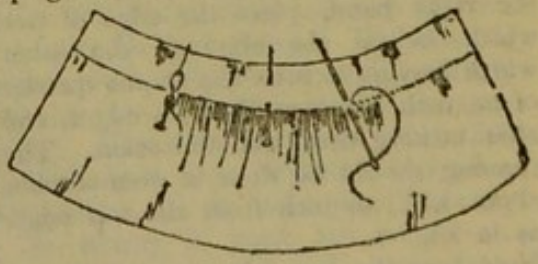


Fig. 8.

Button-holes.—First carefully tack round the place where the hole is to

be made, and then, with a pair of proper button-hole scissors, cut a hole the size of the button it is intended to hold. Now insert the needle a few threads from the edge of the slit, and bring it out between the two folds of material; then take a stitch about four threads up and bring the needle through, always taking care that your thread comes under the needle, as shown in illustration.

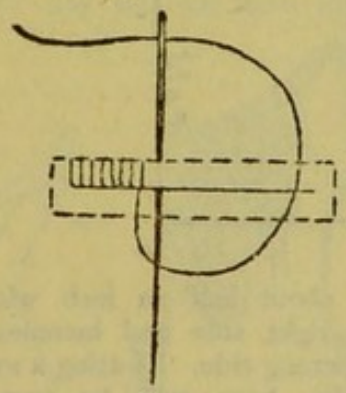


Fig. 9.

Be sure to make the stitches quite even at the top by a thread, and see that the edge of the button-hole is drawn even.

Taking Measurements.—In preparing to cut out a garment it is well to get a good up-to-date pattern of the special kind required. These patterns are so easily procurable now-a-days, and, by supplying measurements, one can have them cut to any size. But a stock pattern may be very well managed if a comparison is made between its measurements and those taken of the person for whom the garment is to be made. For a **Chemise** measure: 1. for length from shoulder to half-way below knee, allowing an extra inch for bottom hem; 2. for the breadth of shoulder; 3. size round armhole, allowing an inch or two more than the actual size for the sake of comfort.

Ladies' Knickerbockers. 1. Length from hip to just below knee. 2. Size of waist. 3. Size of knee-band giving sufficient length to allow the bands to be loose. **Nightdress.** 1. For length from shoulder to ankle, allowing a little more than an inch for hem. This measurement doubled will give the back and front of a nightdress made without a yoke. When cutting for a whole yoke (back and front), of course, the depth of the yoke can be deducted from both widths. Should there be, however, a half yoke only (that is at back as in illustration), the back width of nightdress must be shorter than the front by depth of yoke. 2. Size of neck for collar. 3. Length of arm. 4. Size of wristband. 5. Depth of shoulder for yoke. **Under-bodice.** 1. Size across front. 2. Size across back. 3. Length from neck to waist. 4. Size round armhole. 5. Length of shoulder. 6. Length from armhole to waist. **Combinations.** 1. From shoulder to just below knee. 2. Size across back in widest part. 3. Breadth of shoulder. 4. Length from neck to waist. 5. Size round armhole. 6. Size of knee-band. **Shirt.** 1. Length from shoulder to leg a little above the knee. 2. Size of neck for collar, allowing an extra inch for the curve of front. 3. Width of shoulder for yoke (across back). 4. Length of shoulder (for slanting part of yoke). 5. Length of sleeve. 6. Size of wrist.

Cutting-out and Making-up.—In cutting-out, the principal point to be remembered is that all the parts of the garment must be cut the right way of the stuff. The diagrams of specimen garments show how the different parts should be laid on. Lengths from **Linen, Muslin, Coloured Shirting,** or any fancy material should be cut **not torn** from the piece, but it is better to tear **longcloth.** In dealing with longcloth it will often be found that, when the length has been torn off, it appears to be uneven at the ends. Never cut off this seemingly uneven part, but pull it into shape. In cutting out use the scissors with the larger side under the material, and, to prevent an uneven edge, or the making of holes in the stuff, never use the pointed end of the scissors downwards. The making-up should be done in a common-sense fashion. Do not grudge the necessary time and care to make the seams, etc., sufficiently strong, and on

the other hand do not put too heavy work in very fine material. Be sure that all finishing-off is done **neatly**. For the unsightly **knot** there is absolutely no place—it will never appear in a well made garment. Before the actual work is begun, the parts should be well tacked together. A little extra time spent in tacking is seldom spent amiss, and novices, especially, should be particular over this part of their preparation, for a puckered seam leaves the bottom of a garment uneven, and an attempt to cut it straight makes a crooked hem, and the work is spoilt. After these few general hints, let us take some specimen garments and see how they are cut out and made up. They can of course be made of longcloth or flannel, but, for the sake of clearness, the following remarks on making-up will apply to longcloth garments, flannel-work having attention in another paragraph.

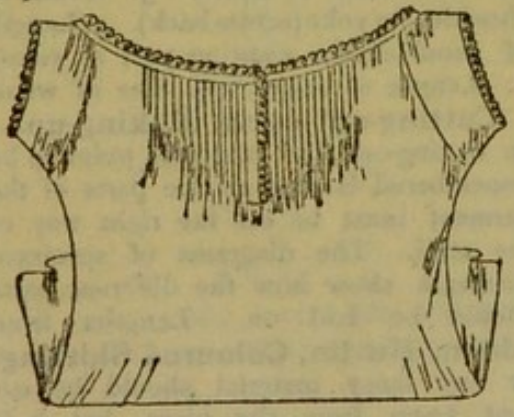


Fig. 10.

Chemise.—Lay the pattern on longcloth as shown in Fig. 11, and cut out, then tack sides together and proceed with seams. These should be run and felled; then turn down for the hem, first about half an inch, and then turn again over the other fold about an inch. For handwork it should be turned down and hemmed on the wrong side, and for machine work on the right side. The side seams done, and the bottom hemmed, the sleeve should now have attention. Turn it to the wrong side and join up by a little run and felled seam. The bottom of the sleeve will have a false hem—that is a strip of cloth to make

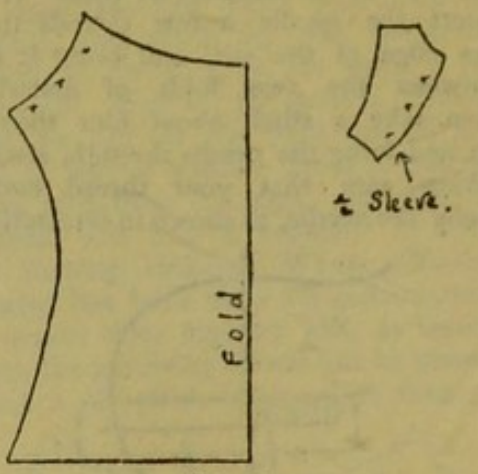


Fig. 11.

a hem about half an inch wide, run on the right side and hemmed down on the wrong side. If using a machine-stitch the hem will be turned up on the right side. The sleeve made, the part marked with crosses should be joined to the corresponding part in the body of chemise, with a run and felled seam. Now cut, down the middle of the front width, an opening about five inches long. On the left side make a narrow hem and on the right side a wider one, either by turning down the edge of the chemise or by a strap of cloth run on and hemmed by hand, or laid on the right side and stitched by machine. The wider hem should be stitched firmly at the bottom over the narrow one. (All garments for women and girls should fasten right over left, those for men and boys just the reverse—left over right). Now for the banding. Cut the selvedge way of longcloth a strip long enough to go easily over the shoulders and about two inches in width. Divide this by creases or pencil marks into back and front, from top of sleeve to top of sleeve, allowing a little more—say two inches—for the front than for the back. The extra two inches will give a little more width to the chest and allow for turnings at front ends of band. The fulness of the front of chemise must be pleated into **Tucks** or run for **Gath-**

ers to the size of band, and the middle of the back must be gathered. Now pin the fulness into the parts marked on band and hem the band on. A **Button-hole** must be worked on the upper part of the band and a button securely stitched on the under part. The chemise may be trimmed according to taste with embroidery, Coventry frilling, or any suitable kind of lace.

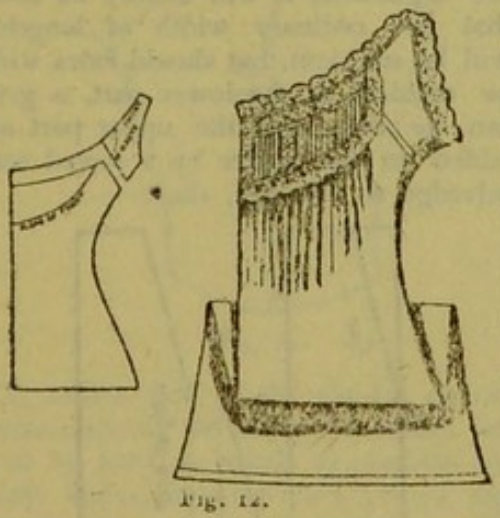


Fig. 12.

Fig. **12** shows a more fully-trimmed chemise, which fastens on the shoulder, the top trimming being taken round the sleeve. The front is made separate from the other part and then joined. The diagram gives directions for cutting out.

Ladies' Knickerbockers (Fig. 13). —In Fig. 14, No. 1. marks the back, 2. the front, 3. the part at which comes the fold of longcloth, 4. the place where the gathers must be run, and 5. the half of band.

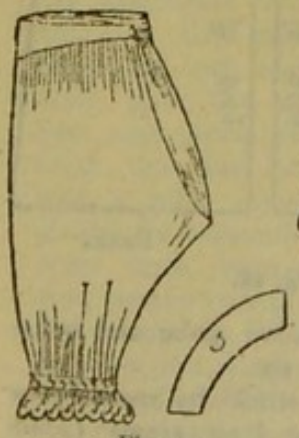


Fig. 13.

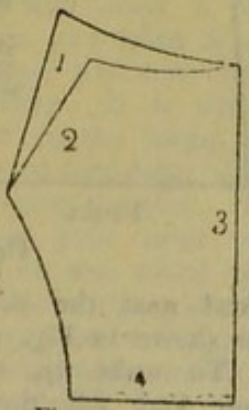


Fig. 14.

After cutting out according to diagram join by running and felling the two fronts of the legs nearly half way down, now run and fell the side seams of the legs and hem round the top part. Join the knee-bands; gather the legs at bottom to size of band, and after carefully stroking down the gathers set on the bands. (For knickers buttoned at knee leave a small opening at end of side seam, and make this good either by a narrow hem, or by a narrow crossway band, stitched on the right side and felled down on the wrong side, and when gathering leave about an inch plain each side of the opening). Now gather straight along the top. Stitch the four pieces of the band together. The front seam of band will, of course, mark the half; fold to get the quarters and mark with a crease or pin. Put the half of waistband to middle seam of knickers and the quarter of the band a little beyond the half of leg to allow for the buttoning over of the band. When the band is hemmed on it should have two button-holes worked on the upper part and two buttons sewed strongly on the under part.

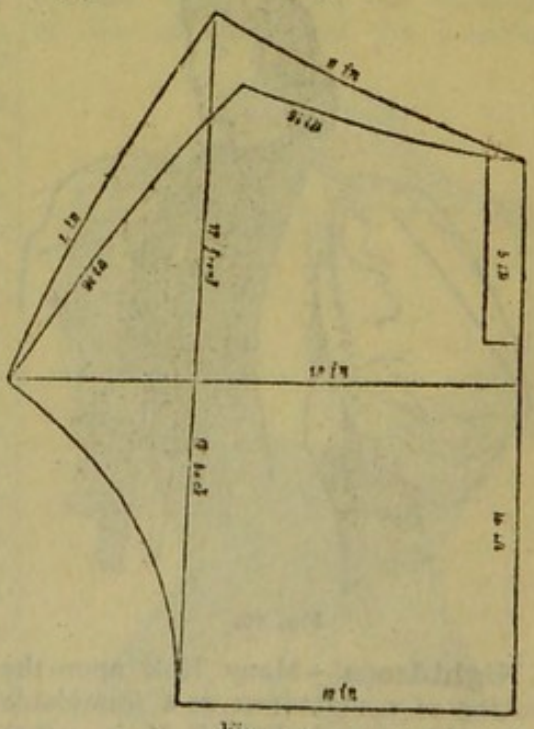


Fig. 15.

Fig. 15 gives measurements and shows how to cut out a pair of knickerbockers

for a child of seven or eight years. The legs should be carefully joined. See that the front seams are placed together, as they are a little shorter than the back; cut down the sides of leg about four inches, hem the front side, on the other side run on a piece of cloth cut from the selvedge way and about two inches wide, turn it over and fell down; at the bottom end stitch this down firmly, allowing it to lap a little over the front hem, gather the bottom of legs leaving an inch plain from the seam, join the band and fell it on to the gathers which must be neatly stroked. Gather the top of front and back, leaving an inch plain from side opening, and put on the bands, the shorter, 11 inches long on the front, and the longer, 13 inches, on the back. The waistband should be cut, to allow for turnings, 4 inches wide. Make button-holes at the ends of the bands length-wise, and one in the middle of front band crosswise. The back should button over the front.



Fig. 16.

Nightdress.—Many look upon the making of a nightdress as a formidable undertaking, and indeed it is rather tedious, and we do not wonder that ladies, who do not care for plain needle-work, and who have not much leisure, should buy the larger garments ready-made. Really pretty garments may be purchased of such firms as Messrs. Debenham and Freebody's from whose catalogue the illustration of the nightdress here shown is selected. It is truly elegant and not too elaborate. A garment somewhat similar may be made from the following directions. In cutting out the nightdress it will usually be found that the ordinary width of longcloth will be sufficient, but should extra width be required at the lower part, a **gore** can be cut from the upper part and added to the lower by a sewed seam selvedge to selvedge, thus:—

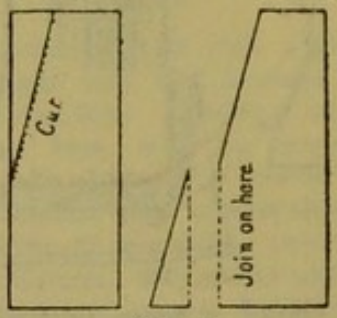


Fig. 17.

Now cut out the back and front. See Fig. 18:—

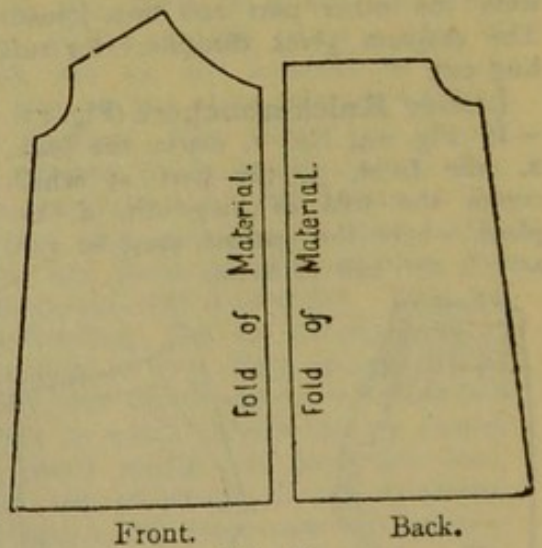


Fig. 18.

And next the sleeve yoke and collar as shown in Fig. 19.

To make up, stitch by machine or run and fell the long seams (some ladies still prefer these sewed and

felled), and hem the bottom with an inch hem. Now take the front.

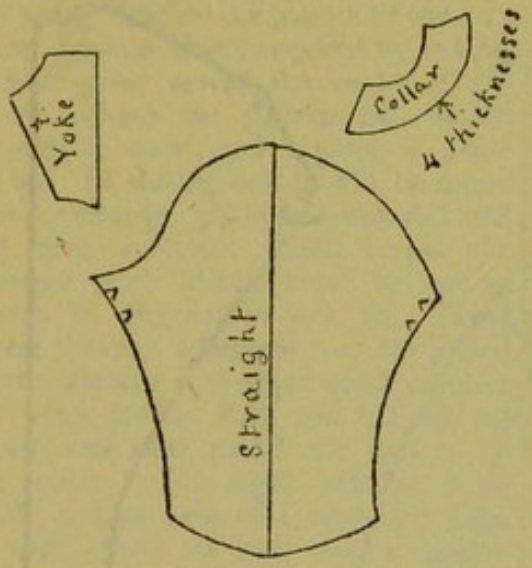


Fig. 19.

On either side of the slit for opening, which should be about 16 inches long, run by hand or stitch by machine some tiny tucks, making two groups separated by a strip of insertion. Now prepare a piece of insertion, rather longer than the slit made, and rounded, or folded into a point at the lower end. This may be edged with straight or full embroidery. Many make this good by putting the raw-edge of the embroidery under the fold of insertion and stitching the whole down, either with machine, with plain **back stitch** or **feather stitch**, to the front of nightdress. This band must come on the right side so that the nightdress will fasten right over left. On the left side make a hem about an inch wide, and when this is done, pleat the upper part over lower hem and stitch firmly. It is well to finish this part off on the wrong side with a little piece of longcloth, which should be hemmed over the pleat. The front done, compare your work with your measurements for size round neck and along the shoulder (the part that joins on the slanting side of the yoke). Take back half of nightdress and divide it into three; tack rather less than a third (plain) into the yoke at each end, then gather the remaining middle part, stroke it neatly, and set the gathers into the middle of yoke, stitch or hem the crossway parts of yoke on to the shoulders of nightdress front, and then line the yoke, taking care to leave no wrinkles. Now join the four parts of the collar, first taking two pieces and stitching them together at the back, and then stitching the other two pieces together in the same way. This done, place the two parts of the collar together, and stitch all round except at neck part. Turn to right side and trim with insertion and edging. The collar may now be set on as you would set on a band—either by stitching one side to nightdress neck and then hemming the other side down, or by hemming on both ways. The seams of the sleeves may now be **run** and **felled** and the bottom **gathered** for wrist-bands. The sleeves must be put in with some fulness on the shoulder. Stitch them in on the wrong side and fell them over. The sleeves and collar may be trimmed with **whipped** embroidery, or the embroidery may be stitched between the two thicknesses of the collar and of the wristbands.

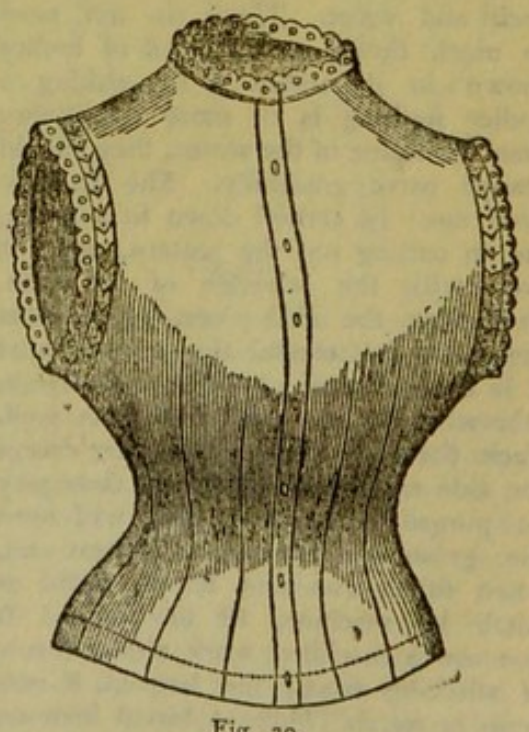


Fig. 20.

Fig. 20 shows a plain **Under-bodice**

and the diagrams give directions for cutting out (Figs. 21 and 22). For summer

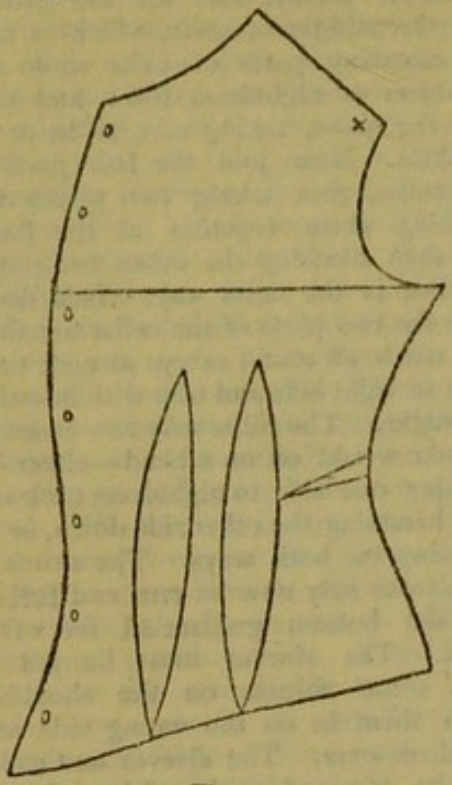


Fig. 21.

wear many ladies prefer camisoles made of nainsook or cambric, tucked down front and back and drawn in at the neck and waist. These do not need so much fitting as the kind of bodice shown in illustration. In making a bodice nothing is of more importance than the shape of the seams, they should always curve gracefully. The hem in front must be turned down in a curve, but in cutting out the pattern, make it even with the selvedge of the cloth. In cutting the side piece, which joins the back be careful that at the waist it is exactly on the straight of the cloth, otherwise the back will never set well. Tack the parts firmly together, except the side and shoulder seams, these may be pinned, as probably they will need the greatest alteration. Try on and, when fitted, run and fell by hand or stitch by machine, all the seams. If you use a machine, work a double row of stitching round the bottom, if not, hem as usual. Make a broad hem on each side of the front, and work button holes on the right side. A cord, stitched in the edge of the button-hole hem,

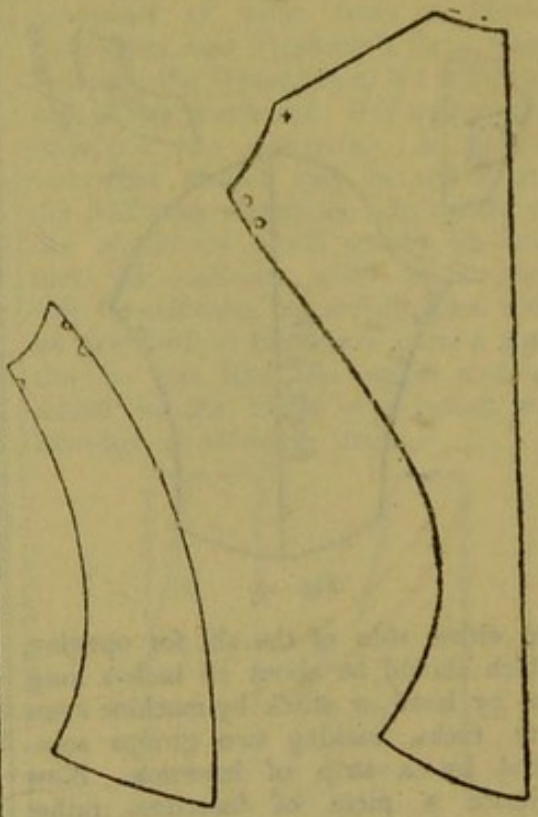


Fig. 22a. Fig. 22.

greatly strengthens it. The neck and armholes may be finished off by a crossway false hem, run on and felled over.

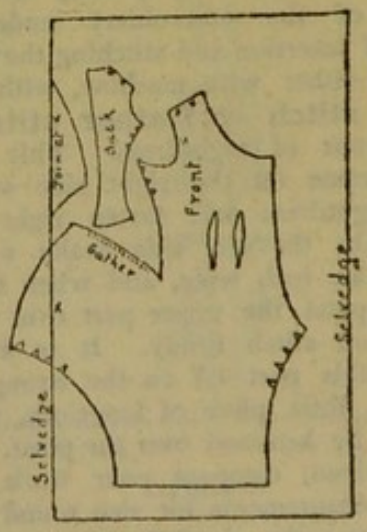


Fig. 23.

If after taking measurements for Combinations, Fig. 23, it should be found that they do not agree with

pattern, alterations can, of course, be made. Perhaps in this garment the greatest difficulty will present itself in the back. Should the pattern be too long waisted get the length required by making a little pleat across the back; if too short waisted the pattern can be cut through at waist, and a piece of paper let in. In cutting out it will be found that ordinarily 36 inches material will not give sufficient width across the drawers part; pieces must be cut as shown in diagram to join on. These pieces having selvedges can be joined to the selvedge at the part which requires the extra piece. Run and fell the leg seams and hem round the part to be left open. The right side of front needs a false hem of a crossway piece of stuff about an inch and a quarter wide when finished; this can be stitched on the right side and hemmed on the wrong side (it will meet the hem round legs). The breast darts can be regulated to suit any individual figure, sometimes they are left out altogether. When needed they may be stitched, cut and felled down, or they may be left uncut after the stitching is done. Join the two parts of back by centre seam; run and fell sides of back and side of front together, and run and fell the shoulder seams. Gather top of drawers part into size of back, allowing two inches plain at the back of each leg to lap over. Hem or stitch the back on to gathers on right side and make them neat on the wrong side by a crossway band of stuff (about an inch when finished) hemmed over. The neck and armholes may be finished off with a narrow false hem. Gather at the knee and set the gathers into a little band. If a buttoned knee-band is required, directions given for Knickerbockers will be applicable for this garment. The trimmings will be added according to taste, falling frills of lace at neck, arms and knees make a pretty finish, but a trimming of embroidery insertion and edging stitched on is more durable. For fastenings work button-holes on right side of front at even distances and sew linen buttons on the under part.

When making a **Shirt** one has to take into consideration what kind is needed. The dress shirt with stiff linen front is generally now bought ready made, the following instructions will, therefore, be for the making of an ordinary cotton shirt. (Fig. 24 and 25.)

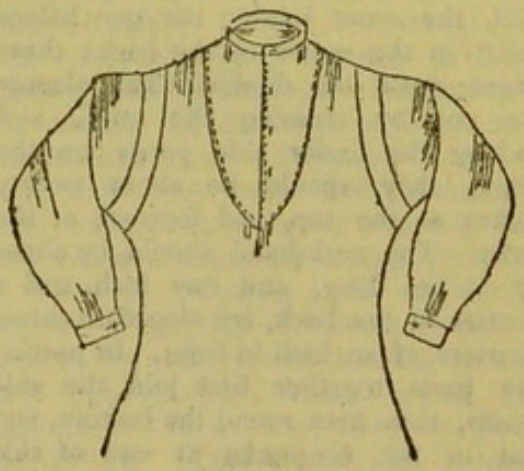


Fig. 24.

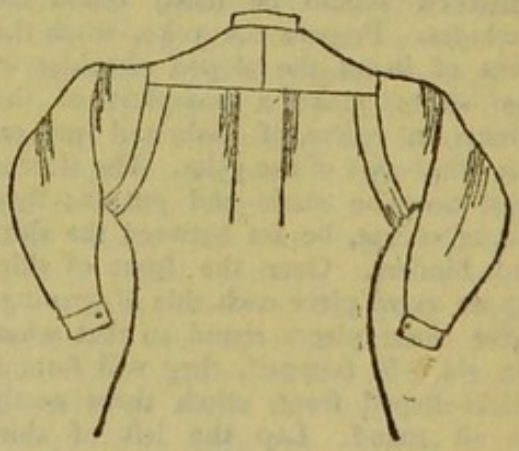


Fig. 25.

Have two widths of the same length and lay them one on the other, making allowance on one width for the depth of yoke piece. The back will then be longer than the front. Allow nine inches from the top for the slope of the armhole; curve the side seam, rounding off the corners of the lower part of the shirt. The slope of the armhole is made by marking off two inches at the top, and cutting down to within two inches of the part marked off; this must be curved to a point. The shoulder must be a little sloped; the length of

the seam will be about six inches, sufficient slope can be secured by turning down an inch at the armhole and slanting this up to a point at the neck. The front of neck must be sloped and a slit made about 14 inches deep for opening. The yoke must be laid on material so that the back from shoulder to shoulder is on the crossway of the stuff, the seam joining the two halves being in the centre of the back; these pieces must be double. The sleeves are cut by crossing the stuff, and making the under side partly on the cross; they should be about twenty inches at the top, and fourteen at the wrist. The neck-band should be about 17 inches long, and one inch and a quarter at the back, but sloped to three-quarters of an inch in front. In putting the parts together first join the side seams, then hem round the bottom, and put in the **Gussets** at end of side seams. Some strengthening pieces called **Binders** should be felled round the armholes. Prepare the yoke, stitch the front of it on the sloped shoulder of the shirt; make a box-pleat of the fulness in centre of back and put on the other part of the yoke. The sleeves must now be made and put in; they can, of course, be set between the shirt and binders. Over the front of shirt lay an extra piece each side of opening; curve these pieces round so that when the shirt is fastened, they will form a shield-shaped front, stitch these neatly on all round. Lap the left of shirt over right and stitch firmly; on the wrong side make this tidy and strong with a little piece of the shirting. Now put on the collar band, and work the button holes. For a nightshirt a greater length must be allowed and the collar and wristbands made wider. Strong calico or twill is best for this purpose, but there is little difference in the cutting out, except that the side seams need not be sloped. Flannel shirts can be made from the same pattern. The collar and wristbands of a shirt of any kind should be stitched round; this stitching secures the thicknesses together and at the same time gives a neat appearance to the work.

Trimmings for undergarments are of many different kinds. We see embroidery and lace insertions, and edgings of embroidery, Coventry frilling, crochet, Torchon and other lace. Embroidery may be **laid-on** the cloth, or it may be **let-in**. When it is **laid-on** it can be stitched down with plain or fancy stitching. When **laid-on** insertion is to be edged with embroidery as for the front of a chemise or nightdress, the raw part of the edging may be placed under the fold of insertion, and the whole may be stitched round. To **let-in** insertion is much more difficult, as the cloth at the back of it has to be cut away and the edges made good. They can be turned neatly under and hemmed down, but the stitches which show on the right side must be covered with **Fancy Stitching**. Machine-stitching, taken through all the thicknesses, makes it very neat. Embroidery edging is sometimes **whipped** and sewn to the garment. **Whipping** is done by rolling the edge of the stuff under the thumb and finger, sewing it over the roll and drawing it. The stitches should be as close as they can go to draw, but they must draw, so that the embroidery may be fulled on. Coventry frilling, Crochet, Torchon and all laces that have firm edges may be over-sewn on the wrong side. There are several fancy stitches used in the trimming of undergarments. There are **Chain Stitch**, and the different kinds of **Feather**, **Coral** or **Tree Stitch**. **Chain Stitch**, (Fig. 26) and single Feather Stitch, sometimes called **Baby Stitch** (Fig. 27) are much used in the trimming of children's clothes. The one, perhaps,

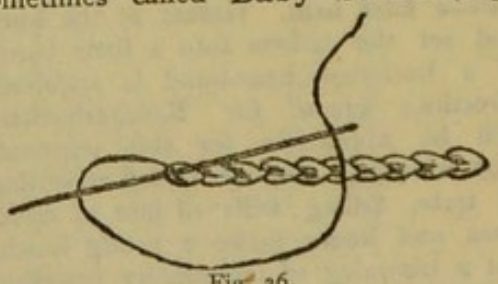


Fig. 26.

most in use for ordinary undergarments is the double **Feather Stitch** (Fig. 28). Sometimes three stitches instead of two are worked each side, making it

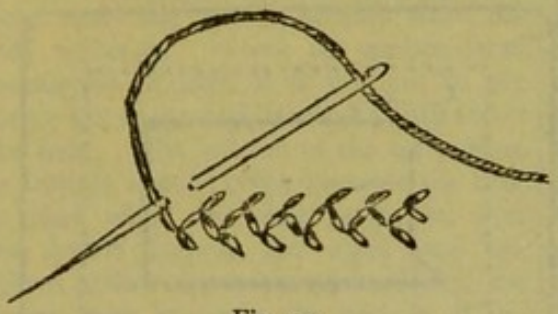


Fig. 27.

a treble feather stitch. These fancy stitches are suitable for decorating any of the ladies' garments here illustrated.

Flannel Work.—The principal stitch in making flannel garments is

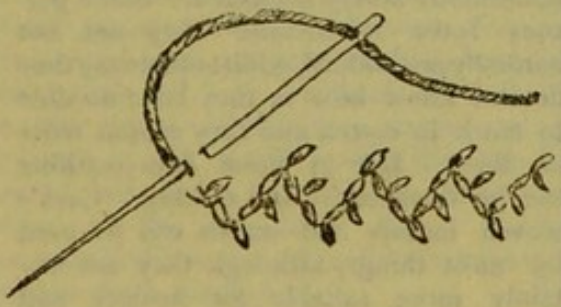


Fig. 28.

Herring-bone Stitch. It is used in felling seams and doing hems, and is worked from left to right, thus:—

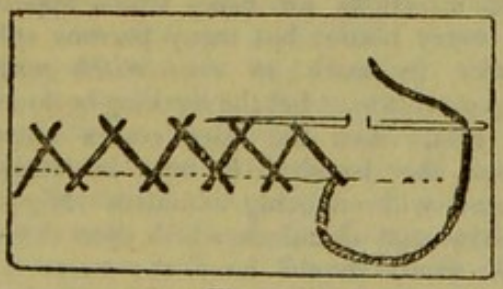


Fig. 29.

Flannel seams may be done in several different ways, but the method given here is the strongest and altogether the most satisfactory. First run or back-stitch the two widths together leaving the farther edge to come a little above the other (as in a **Run** and **Felled Seam**). Now turn the farther edge over the other without folding under, and herring-bone along the raw edge of flannel, working from left to right. For a flannel hem turn down the edge once only, and herring-bone along the raw edge. To trim flannel garments a coarse Torchon lace is sometimes used, but flannel embroidery seems to be more suitable. This can be bought ready for use, or can be worked on the garment itself. There is, perhaps, no better way of edging a flannel garment than by making scallops. For example the bottom of a flannel petticoat may be finished thus:—Turn up a broad hem, then trace round it some scallops with tracing paper, or by marking half way round a coin—for a large petticoat a florin or a penny will do, for a child's a shilling is more suitable. Outline the scallops with a strong thread, and run another thread round the scallops to show how deep to place the needle. Work round with button-hole stitch, using washing silk or a good flourishing thread. When done press on the wrong side and cut round.

Mending (Darning and Patching).—It is well, without waiting for startling rents or holes to arouse us, to make a periodical inspection of under-garments and household linen. We should then come across little warnings, which, if heeded, might, perhaps, save us many a wearisome task—a thin place might be neatly darned and a patch avoided for a time at least; or if a patch seemed inevitable a small one might be made instead of a large one. A few words will explain **how to darn** a thin place. Be sure that the cotton or whatever you use is of the proper thickness; never have it too coarse for the stuff, it is even well sometimes to darn with some of the ravellings drawn from what is to be mended. Darning should be done on the wrong side thus: Work backwards and forwards making rows of even stitches—picking up and leaving an even number of threads, or taking up one and leaving two—until the thin place is well covered. Then work across for the second row, picking up the darning thread only. See Fig. 30.

Should there be an actual hole, but one too small to patch, threads must be taken right across for the first row, and in the second row these threads

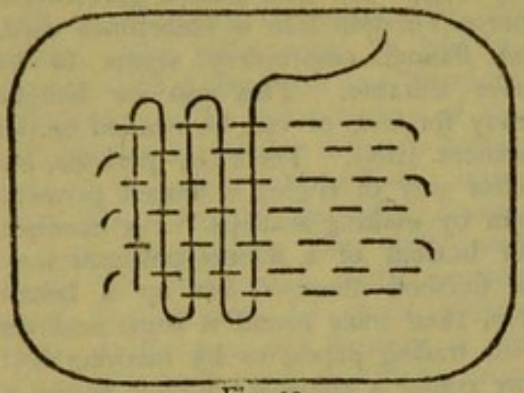


Fig. 30.

will be alternately picked up and passed over. Be sure to make it firm by darning the sides of the hole, as well as the hole itself. When a patch cannot be avoided it may be neatly done if the following hints be taken. The patch may be put on either the right or wrong side, and it may be any shape; we, however, see most oblong and square patches. Choose a piece of stuff as near as possible like the worn material; see that it is cut the same way of the material as that on which it is to be laid. Take it well over the thin part, or your work will be almost thrown away. Cut off tiny corners, so that the turning down can be done neatly. After turning under the edges, tack the patch on and hem all round as shown in Fig. 31.

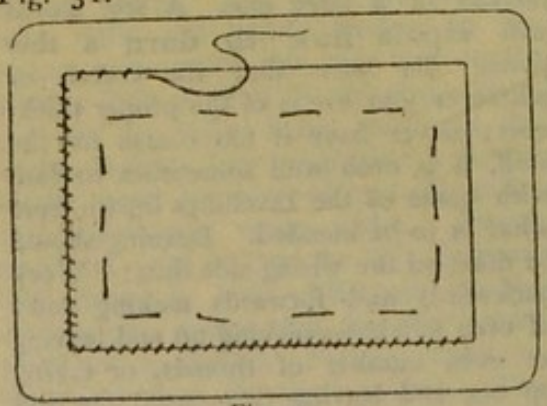


Fig. 31.

Now cut away the ragged part round the hole, snip the corners for turning in and hem. Fig. 32.

A flannel patch may be laid on in the same way, but no turning under for the hem is necessary, and both sides must be very carefully herring-boned.

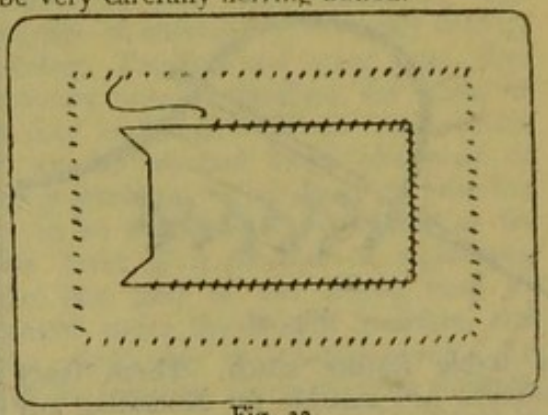


Fig. 32.

Marking Linen.—The marking of linen, although so important, is in many households sorely neglected. Some persons leave it because they are not naturally methodical, whilst others say they do not know how or they have no time to mark in cotton and they cannot write on linen. But in these days marking can be done easily and quickly. Cash's woven initials and names can be used for most things, although they are certainly more suitable for hosiery and flannels than for house-linen. Now-a-days, except when it is embroidered, we generally mark under-linen and household linen with marking-ink, directions for using which appear on every bottle; but many persons still prefer to mark in *cross-stitch* with ingrain cotton. Let the marking be done, so that, when the linen comes home from the laundry, it may be easily sorted without being unfolded. Night-dresses and chemises, which open down the front, should have the name or initials below the opening; when chemises are not open the mark should be put on the neck-band inside. Embroidered initials of a chemise should be put a little below the neck-band. Mark bodices on the right side of front hem, below the bottom button-hole. Knickerbockers, and petticoats that have bands fastening behind are marked on the right hand side of the band, but when a petticoat has a drawn band it is better for the

mark to be put in the front. All articles of household linen are usually marked with marking-ink or cotton in the left corner an inch or two from the hem and the same distance from the side selvedge. When an embroidered monogram is used it is not put in the corner but in the middle of the width above the hem. The bottom of the monogram or initials should come towards the hem so that when the sheet is turned over the letters appear the right way up. When pillow cases are embroidered the letters may come in the middle of the width or, if only for show during the day, and to be removed at night, they may be placed in the centre of the pillow case. The articles of a trousseau should bear the initial or initials of the lady's Christian name, and the initial of the surname of the bridegroom elect. Household linen, properly marked, bears the initials of both husband and wife or the initials of Christian names and surname in full, together with the number of each article and the year it was added to the household stock. For instance William and Alice Brown might have a sheet marked thus

W. A. B.		W. A. Brown.
24	or	24
1898.		1898.

Fancy Needlework.—In decorating the home the assistance of feminine taste and skill is needed in almost every part, and the way in which this taste is most often shown is in the use of *Fancy Needlework*. In the very early times needlework was one of the most important recreations of ladies, whose work adorned the homes and churches, as well as the vestments of those who were engaged in the services of the churches. Ladies of rank, and sometimes even those of royal birth, had classes of young ladies whose mornings were spent at their embroidery or tambour frames. It was, however, in convents that needlework was most successfully done, and in these were produced exquisite laces and embroideries. After the dissolution of the monasteries and convents, needlework began to decline, and anyone capable of teaching the art could command large sums for giving instruction therein. During the last century a variety of so-called fancy-works replaced the more useful, and more ornamental work of by-gone days. Of late years, however, efforts have been made to restore this useful and decorative art to its early position. A few paragraphs will now be devoted to a description of some of the generally approved kinds of work of these days, as a guide to some who have never learnt to do fancy-work, and, perhaps, to others, whose knowledge of the art is limited.

Embroidery.—This work may be said to take the first place in a list of the different kinds of work. By *Embroidery* we do not merely mean, what our grandmothers, who lived before the revival of silk embroidery, understood by the term. They produced from punctured pieces of linen or muslin wonderful robes for the little ones or trimmings for their own garments. We mean rather what is really a modern form of the old tapestry which was, in the 16th and 17th centuries, the approved work of the ladies of rank. Ornamentations of the walls, elaborate coverlets, curtains, etc., were the result of much labour over tapestry frames. Silk embroidery revived some years ago under the name of *Crewel Work*, came from the East and is of ancient origin. The oriental embroidery takes the first place among work of its kind. It is scarcely to be hoped that Europeans will ever be able to rival the Indian workmen whose productions are evidences of intense and patient application. Many of the Chinese designs, too, are elaborate and exquisite. Though we cannot equal the Orientals, we may endeavour to follow in their footsteps, if only at a considerable distance. It is not the purpose of the following to give elaborate designs for imitation—almost every year brings its own style of work—but rather to explain and illustrate the way to do useful stitches, many of which are used over and over again, in different

combinations, on different materials, and under different names. Of late years almost every possible material, from a piece of house-flannel to the most delicate velvet or satin, has served for a foundation, on which taste and ingenuity have been displayed. We have seen lovely specimens of white work, but it is in dealing with colours that the correct taste of the worker is necessary. For, no matter how skilfully the stitches may be done, if a proper blending of the shades do not appear, the work will be spoilt. In preparing a piece of work three things should be borne in mind. 1. The material should be suitable for the purpose which it is to serve. 2. The pattern chosen should be one which is suitable for the material, as well as the article required. 3. The material for working the pattern should be the one which will most effectively bring out the design and also be the most suitable to the material on which it is to be worked. For large articles bold, handsome patterns are now mostly used. Crewel wools are suitable only for linen and woollen materials. For silk, satin, and Roman satin, silks look well, velvet and plush may be worked in silk, or chenille and gold thread. For such articles as will be sent, when soiled, to the cleaner's, filoselle may be used with advantage. Flax thread is also much used to work designs on linen. For ordinary crewel work it is not necessary to learn more than three different stitches—*Crewel* or *Stem Stitch*, *Satin Stitch* and *French Knot Stitch*, but pieces of elaborate embroidery are often marvellous works of art, so varied are the stitches used to produce the whole effect. The design may be merely outlined; it may be partly outlined and partly filled in, or it may be wholly filled-in.

Crewel or **Stem Stitch.**—This is used both for outlining and filling-in purposes. It is worked thus:—The needle must be put into the material in a slanting direction, with the point towards the left and, in outlining, the thread must be kept to the right of the needle. In filling in a leaf or a flower wich this stitch, begin on the right hand side at the bottom, and work towards the top, with the thread to the right of the needle from the centre to the edge, then with the thread to the left of the needle from the edge to the centre. In working the left side of a leaf this order will be reversed. The rows must be worked closely together so that none of the foundation material can be seen between.

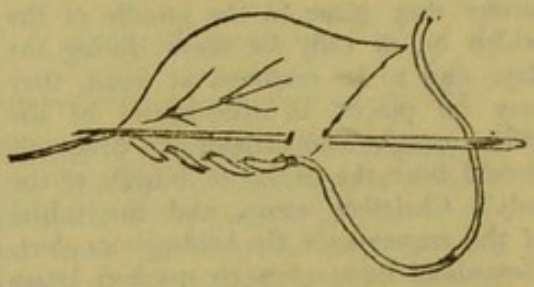


Fig. 1.

This stitch is sometimes called *Outline Stitch;* the stitches may be worked, if desired, so small and close together that an even outline is kept.

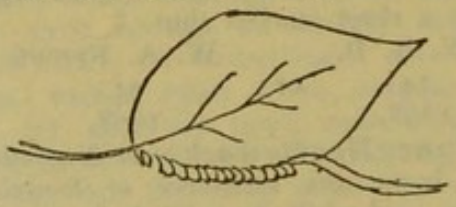


Fig. 2.

Point de Tige.—Trace the outline of the design with coarse thread, and afterwards overcast it with silk, being careful to take up no more of the material than is covered by the lines. This is useful for stems of flowers.

Raised Stem Stitch.—This is similar to Point de Tige, but, instead of the over-casting being done over one thread, it is worked over several threads. The padding, which should be of cotton of the same colour as the silk, cotton, or wool with which you are working, should be completely covered with diagonal stitches.

Chain or **Tambour Stitch** is very much used for outlining and is worked thus:—Bring the needle through the

material, then, holding the thread down with the left thumb, put the needle in the same place from which it first came, and bring it out over the thread you hold down. This forms one loop. Continue putting the needle where the last stitch finished and bringing it through the loop thus:—

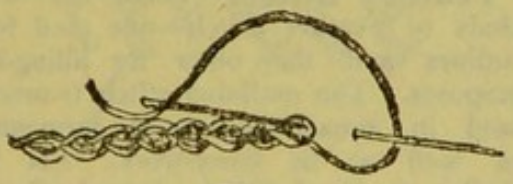


Fig. 3.

Twisted Chain or **Rope Stitch**.—This somewhat resembles the ordinary chain. The needle is brought out each time through the loop, but, instead of being put back to the same place to begin the new stitch, it is taken behind the last—about half way—and so pushes it on one side.

Cording Stitch.—This is done by working each stitch a little to the right of the last. Hold the thread down with the left thumb and set in the needle so as to make a slightly slanting stitch.

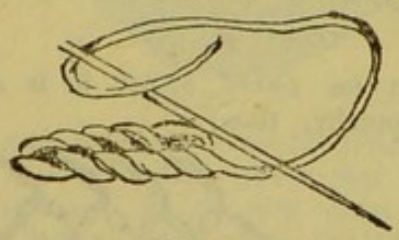


Fig. 4.

Snail Trail Stitch.—This can be better explained by diagram than by written words. A careful study of the illustration will show how the needle should be set in.

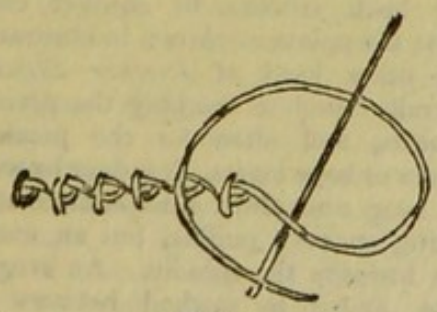


Fig. 5.

Cable Stitch is a pretty stitch for outlining or stems. When you have brought the thread through to the right side, make a small loop similar to a chain stitch, then put the needle in an upward direction under the thread and bring the point out close under the place it came from before, thus:—

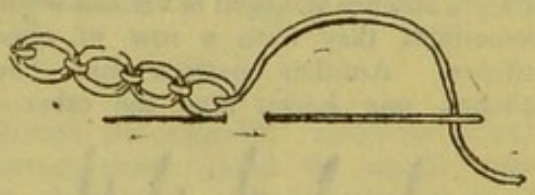


Fig. 6.

(This will form the strap of the cable). Now insert the needle as shown in the illustration and make a loop as in chain stitch.

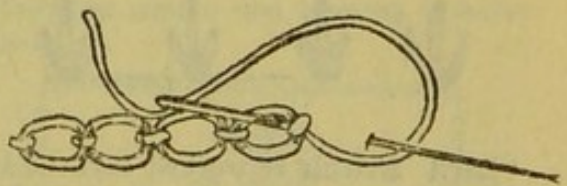


Fig. 7.

Wheat Ear Stitch.—In order to keep this pretty stitch even, three lines, a quarter of an inch apart should be drawn. Along the centre line the chain stitch will come, and the other lines will keep the spikes regular.

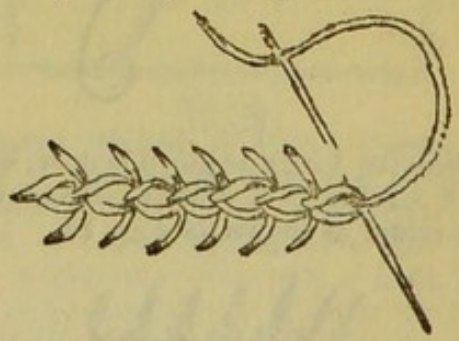


Fig. 8.

Couching is often used for outlining, when we have to work with chenille, gold thread, or thick tapestry wool, which could not well be drawn through the material. It may form an outline of itself or with chain stitch. The chenille, wool, or cord is laid round the edge of the design, and is fastened

down by crossing it at regular intervals with silk or fine gold thread. The ends of the strands should be pushed to the wrong side through a little hole, which can easily be made with a stiletto.

Spike Stitches.—These generally form an outer edge to chain or rope stitch. There are many different spike stitches, but they all consist of long straight stitches arranged in various ways. Sometimes they form a row of cross stitches. Another pattern has two stitches, one longer than the other—

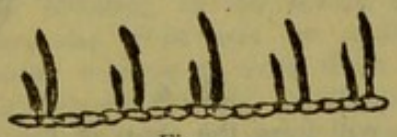


Fig. 9.

and another consists of three stitches in a group—



Fig. 10.

Bird Stitch is worked backwards, with the thread to the right in doing the left hand stitches, and to the left for the right hand stitches, thus:—

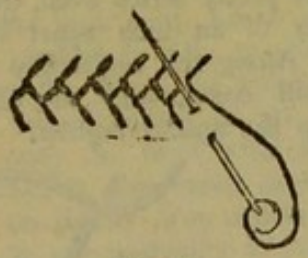


Fig. 11.

When the length required is done, work back stitches of a different colour along the centre as shown in Fig. 12.

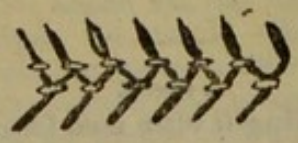


Fig. 12.

Double Herring-bone.—A very effective stitch may be made thus:—Work a row of simple herring-bone (illustrated in Plain Needlework) with the stitches far apart. Then work another row so that the two rows cross, and to finish it fasten the lines down with back stitches, thus:—

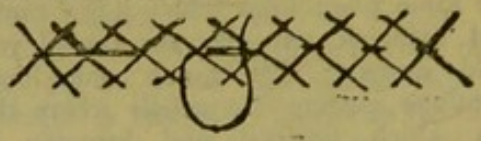


Fig. 13.

Feather Stitch.—There are two kinds of Feather Stitch—one used for outlines and the other for filling-in purposes. The outlining stitch is much used in ornamenting under-garments, as well as in fancy-work. It is similar to Coral Stitch, indeed *Coral Stitch* is the name by which some workers know it. Others make a distinction between the two and say *Feather Stitch* is worked by putting the needle in an oblique direction—

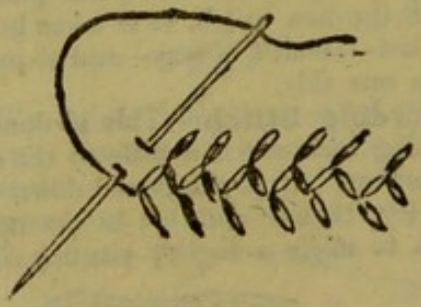


Fig. 14.

whilst for *Coral Stitch* it is set in horizontally, thus:—

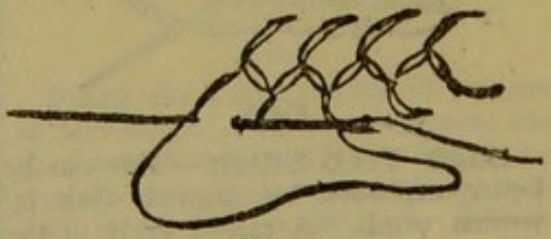


Fig. 15.

Feather stitch may be varied by working little back stitches in another colour across the points as shown in illustration. The other kind of *Feather Stitch* is generally used in working the plumage of birds, and often for the petals of flowers or large leaves. It is done by working long and short stitches alternately, making an even outline, but an uneven edge towards the middle. An irregular *Stem Stitch* is worked between the

rows of uneven edge stitches to fill in and finish the whole. Flowers can be

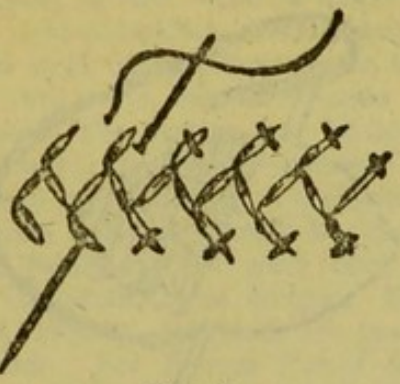


Fig. 16.

effectively shaded with feather stitch, as by it two shades can be easily blended into each other.

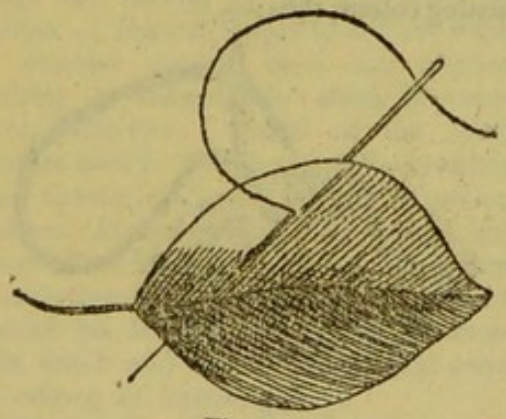


Fig. 17.

French Knots.—Set in the needle for quite a small stitch, where you wish the knot to be; do not draw the needle through, but wind the thread round it once, twice or more times, according to the size of the knot required. Now draw the needle through with the right hand, holding the knot itself with the left thumb, and put the needle back through the same place from which it came. French Knots from very effective flower centres; when placed a little way apart they can be used for outlining.

Bullion Stitch.—This stitch takes the form of a little roll of thread or silk lying on the work. It is worked thus:—First bring the needle from back to front of the work; then insert it a little way off, taking up as much material as is required for the length of the stitch and bringing out the point of the needle to meet the thread at the place where it came

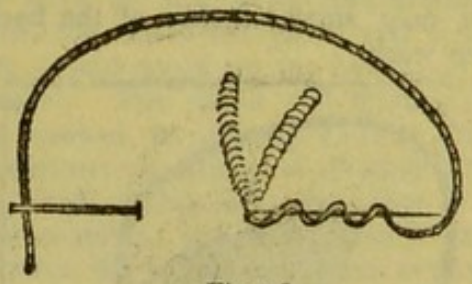


Fig. 18.

through the material. Twist the thread several times round the needle with the right hand, and with the left hand hold the needle down. Now, with the thumb still on the needle, pull the needle through and draw up the thread. Now, take off the thumb and put the needle through to the back at the place where the needle was inserted to make the stitch.

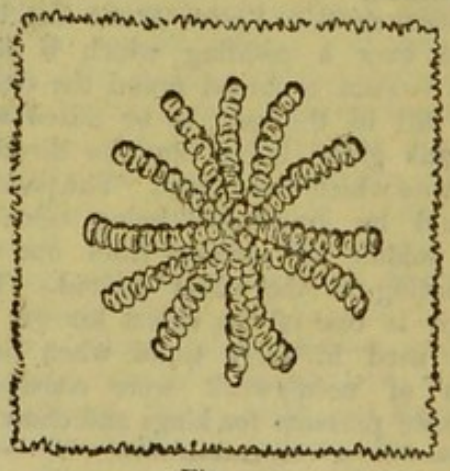


Fig. 19.

Satin Stitch or **Point Passé.**—This is one of the most used stitches for filling-in purposes. Sometimes the stitch is taken right across a leaf, but this is generally when only a small leaf has to be worked. It is more effective to divide a larger one by the vein indicating the mid-rib. The needle is brought up through the material from the back and is put in again exactly on the opposite side of the leaf or petal. The stitches must not overlap but must lie side by side. As the thread of silk has each time to cross the back to be put in close beside the beginning of the last stitch, the wrong side will

show as much silk as the right, and for this reason *Satin Stitch* is less economical than *Crewel Stitch*, which needs only small stitches at the back of the work.

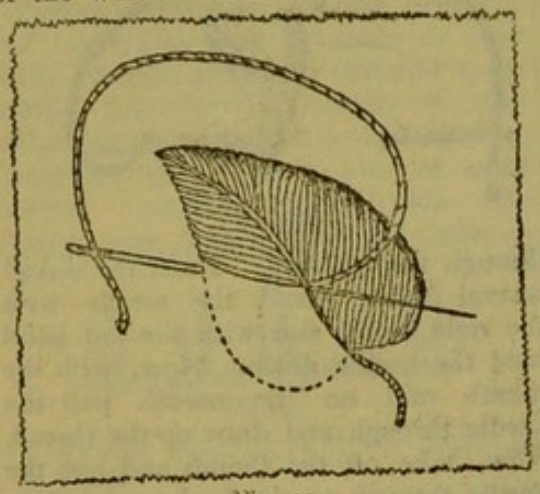


Fig. 20.

Raised Satin Stitch or **Point Plumetis** is worked in the same manner as flat *Satin Stitch* but it is done over a padding which is made thus:—Run a thread round the design and fill in the part to be raised with threads going in an opposite direction to those which cover them. The padding should be graduated, being raised in the middle or sloping from one side according to the effect desired. This stitch is one of the oldest known. It was used in early times when costly gifts of needlework were considered suitable presents for kings and churches.



Fig. 21.

Arabian Stitch is suitable for filling in large designs only. It may be done effectively in silk, filoselle, flax thread tapestry wool, etc. First fill in the leaf with stitches worked straight across or diagonally, thus:—

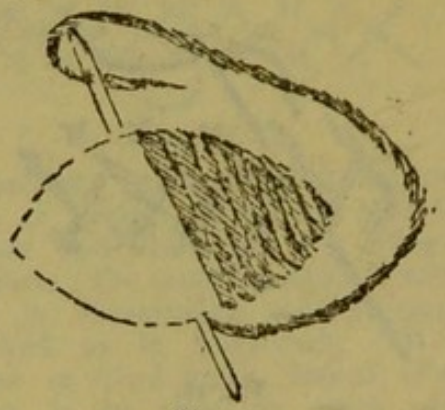


Fig. 22.

Then across these stitches, but in a contrary direction, work others of a contrasting colour, thus:—

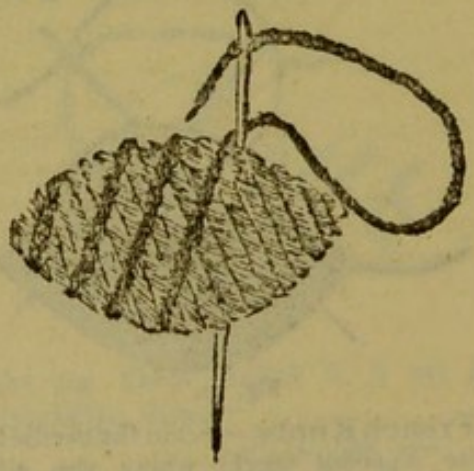


Fig. 23.

and for a third row fasten these bars down at intervals with back stitches of the same colour as that of the groundwork as shown in illustration:—



Fig. 24.

Sometimes two back stitches are worked together, and the arrangement of the rows so as to produce a honey-comb effect makes another variation.

Mountmellick Embroidery is

worked with Strutt's Knitting Cotton on a foundation of White Satin Jean, this material being more suitable than a thin fabric as the work is raised and heavy. Mountmellick Embroidery is used to work quilts, pillow shams, toilet covers and mats, nightdress-cases and such like. The designs may be bought ready traced, or transfer patterns may be bought and traced upon the material. Handsome patterns should be chosen, as the beauty of the work does not appear in small, close designs. Many stitches, already described, are used in this work. For flowers *Raised Satin Stitch* is much used with *French Knots* and fancy stitches, whilst for leaves there is great scope for ingenuity and taste. *Flat* or *Raised Satin Stitch* may cover the leaves, or we may work an outline of *French Knots* to enclose veins of *Feather Stitch*, or a leaf worked entirely in button-hole stitch is sometimes effective. Some of the other stitches used in Mountmellick Embroidery are Crewel, Chain, Cable, Cording, Bullion, Herring-bone, Wheat-ear, and Loop stitches, all of which have been already described. This embroidery work should be worked round with button-hole stitch and beyond this should come an edging of knitted fringe.

Appliqué.—Our grandmothers used to cut out the beautiful flowers and sprigs of their rich old laces and sew them on to Brussels net to preserve them. We transfer birds, butterflies, and flowers to plush, silk, velvet, or any suitable material. This work we call *Appliqué*. Transfers in the form of birds, butterflies, etc. may be bought ready to stick on the plush or velvet, but an effective and much less expensive piece of work may be done with flowers, leaves, etc. cut from cretonne and transferred to velveteen or any firm material. The object should be carefully tacked on or gummed to the foundation, and then worked round in button-hole stitch with silk, gold thread, or crewel wool, according to the material it is to adorn. After the edge has been overcast with *Button-hole Stitch* the dark shading of the leaves and flowers should be worked, also the veinings of the leaves, the latter should be done in silk, when crewel wool is used for the other part; and a little silk should touch up the centres of the flowers. The stems and shading may be worked in ordinary *Crewel Stitch*. Sometimes an edging of *Feather Stitch* or *Coral Stitch* takes the place of the button-holing, and some take a strand of wool the colour of the leaf or flower, and catch it down at regular intervals with silk of the same colour.

Cross Stitch.—The materials on which we can work cross stitch are numerous, as are also the designs we can work. For gentlemen's slippers nothing is stronger than Berlin wool work on canvas. We still use cross stitch to mark household linen. Mats, curtains, mantel-borders, cosies, antimacassars, etc., etc., may be worked on coloured felt, and canvas; and there is linen in various widths and colours, suitable for making washable antimacassars, quilts, towels, table-covers, tray-cloths, etc., etc. There is also a great variety in the materials used in working cross stitch. Ingrain cotton, white and coloured flax threads are suitable for washing materials; silks and filoselles for articles which will be sent to the cleaner's when soiled, whether worked on cotton or woollen foundations; wools for ordinary Berlin work and knitting cotton in white or colours for such larger things as quilts, etc. Cross stitch is so very simple that almost anyone can learn it with very little instruction and practice. The most important thing is to have all the stitches crossed the same way. The illustration will show how the simplest cross stitch may be worked.

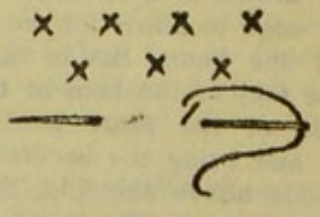


Fig. 25.

Leviathan Stitch is a more complicated stitch. For this a square of four stitches must be covered as in ordinary cross stitch, and the stitches thus made must be crossed again.



Fig. 26.

Holbein Stitch called by some *Italian Stitch*, and by others *Outline Stitch* is often used as an embellishment to cross stitch. All stitches are short and of equal length, worked like *Satin Stitch* with both sides alike.

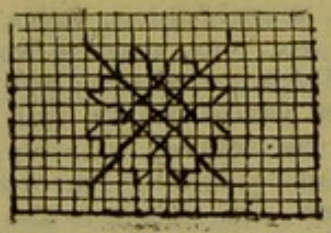


Fig. 27.

Hem Stitch.—In drawn linen work much use is made of the *Hem Stitch*. For the edges of tray-cloths, or table-covers, it forms of itself quite a finish, and looks much better than an ordinary machined hem, for the bottom of a muslin apron, a handkerchief border, or the top hem of a linen sheet. There are, at least, three different ways of doing hem stitch, but the one described here is very easy to do. Threads, varying in number according to the material worked upon, should be drawn. For a handkerchief four, or for a sheet five or six would be suitable. They must be drawn at a sufficient distance from the edge to allow for the required width of the hem. Set in the cotton under the fold of the hem at the right hand side of the piece to be hem-stitched, and bring the needle through two threads above the fold, then take the needle down to the drawn part and pick up upon it three of the threads, working from right to left. Now put the needle through in the same place where it was inserted before, and bring the point out two threads above the fold of hem, thus:—

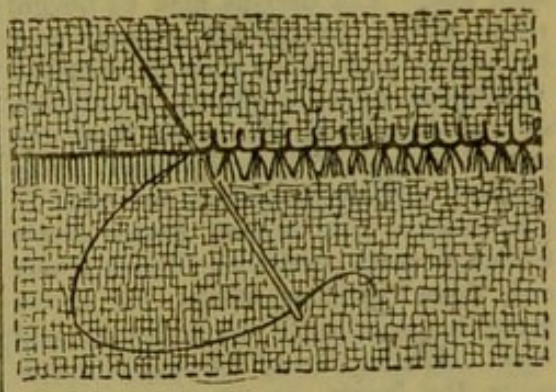


Fig. 28.

Knitting.—There is scarcely a school-girl who is ignorant of this work. Almost everyone knows how to do, at least, plain knitting. And even if it were not so generally known, a lesson of only a few minutes' duration from an expect knitter would be of more practical use to a beginner than many pages of printed directions. Yet, whilst this is so, a few hints concerning the work, together with the explanation of terms used in knitting may not come amiss in these columns.

As everybody knows, the stitches are formed from loops worked on needles. Great care is needed to prevent these loops from being slipped off the needles. A dropped stitch should be picked up at once, or it will run down and make an open space in the work. In order to pick up a stitch the work must be undone to the place where the loop is. The loop must be picked up and put on the needle. Stitches are sometimes dropped purposely to make an open-work effect, and sometimes in decreasing, but they should always be secured so that they will not unravel farther than is wished. To secure a stitch, slip it from the left to the right needle, knit or purl the following stitch and pass the slip stitch over. It may then, with

safety, be dropped, as it is fastened by the second stitch.

Casting on.—This means making the first row of loops on the needle. To cast on make a loop and put it on the left needle. Now put the right needle through this loop, throw the cotton or wool over the right needle and draw it through the loop. A new loop is now formed on the right needle. This must be passed to the left needle. Now put the needle through the newly made loop, throw the cotton over; draw through and pass the fresh loop to the left needle—and so on until enough stitches have been formed.

Casting off or **Binding off.**—We do this by knitting two stitches and passing the first over the second, then by knitting another and passing the loop on the right over the loop just made by knitting the stitch, and so on to the end of the row.

Plain Knitting.—Put the right needle through the nearest loop on the left needle, pass the cotton over the right needle, draw through and slip from the needle the loop through which the cotton has been drawn.

Purling, Seaming, Back Stitch, or **Rib Stitch.**—This is knitted with the yarn or cotton to the front, and by putting the needle through the loop from back to front instead of from front to back as in plain knitting.

Narrowing means decreasing by knitting two stitches together.

Increasing.—We *widen* or increase by bringing the yarn forward round the needle and in the next row knitting the loop thus made. Sometimes we increase by picking up a loop from the last row and knitting it as a stitch.

A Rib is made by working alternate rows of plain and purl. By working two rows in the same stitch we make a *turn*.

A Slipped or **Passed Stitch** is one we take from one needle to the other without working it.

Garter Stitch.—This is plain knitting on two needles, the work being turned at the end of each row. The turning forms ridges.

A Plain-knitted Surface, such as is often used for making socks and stockings, is produced on two needles by doing alternate rows of knitting and purling. In doing round knitting, with four or five needles, on which the rows are not turned the plain surface is made by doing every row in plain knitting.

Crochet.—The knowledge of this work is of comparatively recent date. In the 16th century, it was done in convents, the nuns making lovely specimens of the work, which was then called *Nun's Work*. It has only become generally known during the present reign. Nearly every girl can do the ordinary stitches and it seems, perhaps, superfluous to describe them, yet a few directions may be of use. Whatever variations may be made in this work the foundation of it all is the *Chain Stitch*. This is always, therefore, learnt first. Make a loop, catch the wool or cotton over the hook and draw through.

Single Crochet.—To work this the hook is put into a chain or wherever the stitch is to go, the cotton is caught over the hook and drawn through both stitch and loop.

Double Crochet.—Put the hook through a stitch and draw the cotton through. Two loops will be on the hook; catch the cotton over the hook and draw through both loops at once.

Treble Stitch.—Catch the cotton over the hook, put the hook through a stitch; catch the cotton again round the hook and draw through. There are now three loops on the hook. Catch the cotton once more over the hook and draw through two loops, then putting the cotton over the hook again. draw through the remaining two loops,

Long Double Crochet.—To work this stitch you proceed exactly as for treble, until you have the three loops on the hook; then put the cotton round the hook and draw through all three loops at once, instead of two at a time as in treble.

Long Crochet Stitches are made like ordinary trebles except that instead of

putting the cotton round the hook once it is put round twice and sometimes three times. The loops are worked off two at a time as in treble.

Increasing and Decreasing.—When one wishes to increase two stitches may be worked in the same loop. Stitches are made by working a chain before the first stitch and another after the last and these chains must be crocheted in the next row. To decrease some miss a stitch of the preceding row, and others crochet two stitches together.

THE SEWING MACHINE.

The question has often been put to us, "Which do you consider the best kind of Sewing Machine?" Our answer has usually depended very much upon who the person putting the question might happen to be. For to a bachelor, for example, the most appropriate reply would certainly be, "A good wife;" but for the wives and daughters who may turn to this page for information, we will endeavour, as simply as pos sible, to explain the points of difference and excellence in the construction and operation of those useful little machines which have made such a revolution of late years in the work-room, and have enabled our sisters, our cousins and our aunts, to get through with ease such tasks, in the way of stitching, and felling, and gathering, and hemming, as would have driven our grandmothers well nigh crazy.

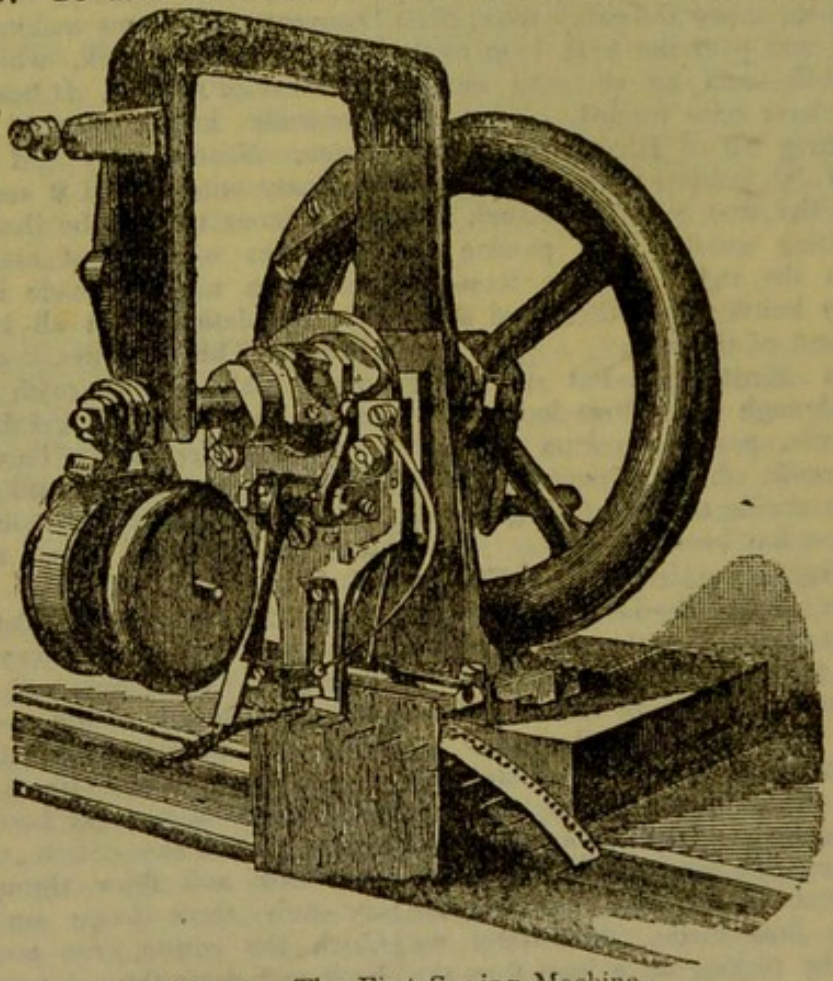


Fig. A. The First Sewing Machine.

The Invention of the Sewing Machine.—We have no space to enter into the somewhat vexed question of who it was first conceived and put in practice the idea of making stitches by machinery. England, France and Ameri-

ca, all claim the honour of the invention; this much is certain, that the eye-pointed needle was patented in England, in the year 1841, by Newton and Archbold, and a continuous thread was used, as long ago as 1790, by Thomas Saint, of our own good city of London; while, in 1830, Barthelmy Thimonnier obtained a patent in France for a wooden sewing machine, of which he had a number at work, in a clothing factory in Paris, making a chain-stitch by means of a barbed needle. These were all destroyed by an angry mob, and the inventor barely escaped with his life. The inventor of the shuttle, for making the lock-stitch, was Walter Hunt, of New York, who, in 1834, made a machine having a curved eye-pointed needle, a vibrating arm, and a reciprocating shuttle; but poor Hunt, although in his way quite a genius, lacked business ability, and neglected to secure to himself the advantages of his invention. It was left to his countryman, Elias Howe, to bring together all the crude inventions which were already in existence, to add many improvements of his own—among the most important being an automatic feed (it must be confessed of a very rude and primitive kind, but still it did carry the work forward) to be soon the combination of these four things, the eye-pointed needle, the continuous thread, the reciprocating shuttle, and the automatic feed, which made up the machine for which Howe obtained his patents, and by means of which, after many hardships and long years of patient endeavour, he amassed a very considerable fortune.

These machines, like the Singer, work with a straight needle and reciprocating shuttle; but differ from it very materially in the mechanical parts. The feed in use in the Howe machine is of two kinds, depending upon the class of work. These are known respectively as the step and wheel feeds. The tension wheel of the Howe machine is an important and unique feature, and produces, perhaps, the most perfect and even tension of any.

Domestic Sewing Machines.—Sewing machines adapted to domestic use may be broadly divided into four distinct classes. First, those making a loop or chain-stitch by means of a straight needle and a rotating hook. Of these, the machine called the Willcox and Gibbs' is the best known. Second, the double-loop-stitch, of which the Grover and Baker machine is the most striking example. These machines use a curved needle at the top, and a circular needle below, each feeding from a continuous spool, the one above the other below the cloth, and making the stitch by the interlocking of these two. Several other machines of this class have been introduced at various times, as for example the Excelsior machine of Messrs. Whight and Mann, which, however, had a long straight-top needle, forming its own feed motion; but as double-loop-stitch machines have now become almost obsolete, we shall not have occasion to refer to them again. The third class is that making the lock-stitch by means of a curved needle, a rotating hook and a flat bobbin to carry the lower thread, and answering the purpose of a shuttle. Of these, the well-known and justly celebrated Wheeler-Wilson machine is the most esteemed example; it has also the famous four-motion feed, invented by Mr. Allan B. Wilson, to which we shall make further reference later on. The fourth, and by far the most important class, may be described as the shuttle lock-stitch machines, to which belong those known as the Singer, the Howe, the Thomas, the Wanzer, the White, and many others varying in detail, some of them having very important improvements, but all agreeing in the possession of an eye-pointed straight needle, and a thread-carrying shuttle for forming the lock-stitch; and it seems probable, judging by the experience of the last few years, that this type of machine will in time supersede all others.

If we were asked to define, in a few words, the peculiar excellences of each of these four kinds of machines, we should say that the No. 1, or chain-stitch, is the quickest and most simple

in its operation; the No. 2, or double-loop, produces the most elastic stitch, and is best adapted for embroidery and fancy work; the No. 3, or Wheeler-Wilson, in the hands of a good operator, makes the finest and most beautiful lock-stitch; while for strength and durability, for the largest range of household work, the palm must certainly be given to the fourth class, or lock-stitch, straight-needle shuttle machines: these are easy of adjustment, simple in their mode of construction, the best kinds have very few parts to get out of order, and work with the smallest amount of friction—which, of course, means least wear and tear in the mechanism, and least fatigue to the operator.

We now propose to describe, in detail, some of the best-known types of each class, to assist still further the judgment of our readers in the selection of that particular kind of machine which shall be best adapted to their requirements. And here let us say, that in sewing machines, as in everything else, the best are the cheapest, and that imitations of established and approved kinds should always be carefully avoided.

In Class 1, making what is known as the chain-stitch, there is a very favourite and inexpensive little machine made in England, and known as the Weir, which can be purchased for some two or three pounds; but by far the best of this class is the Willcox and Gibbs', made very much in the form of the letter G, and with which doubtless

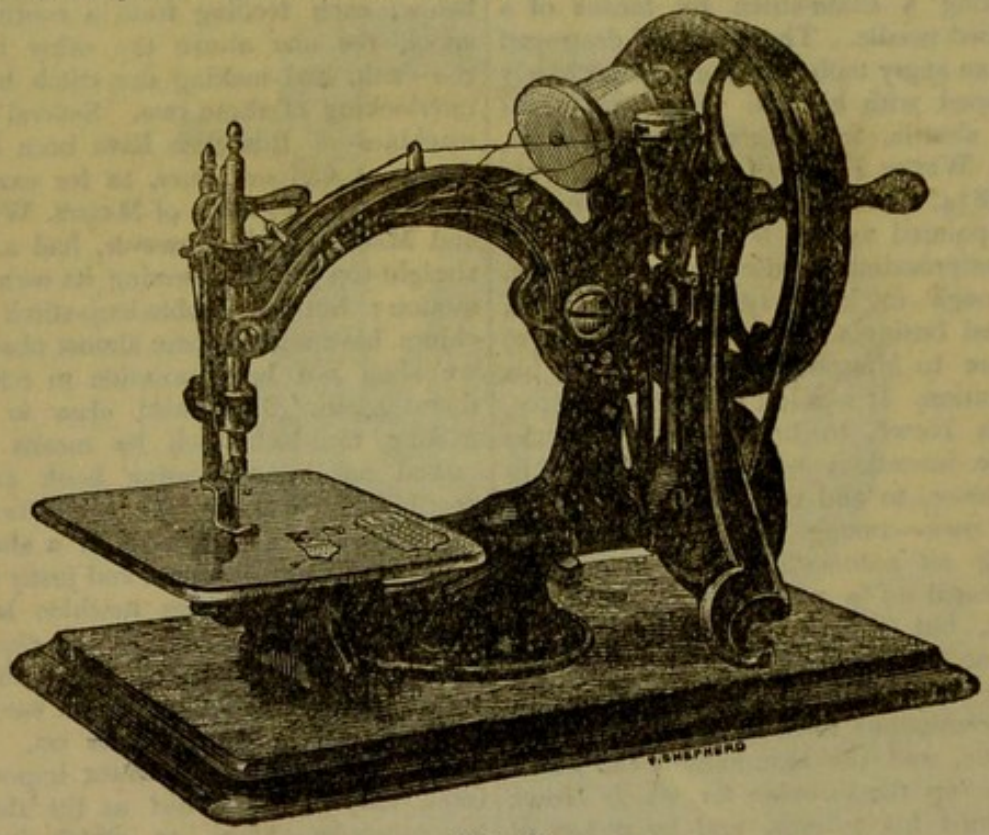


Fig. B.

most of our readers are familiar. (See Fig. B.) This machine, made originally under patents granted to C. H. Willcox, T. E. A. Gibbs, and others, is shewn in our illustration; it makes a twisted loop-stitch by means of a straight needle, grooved on one side to facilitate the setting, and give additional firmness. This needle carries the thread below the plate, where it is caught by a rotating double hook, which forms the twisted loop. There have been many improvements introduced into this machine of late years; chief among which we may

note the automatic tension, which releases from the spool just as much thread at a given time as is required for the formation of the stitch. The Willcox and Gibbs' machine is beautifully finished in all its parts; its manipulation is easily acquired; it is very rapid in its operation; and for those who prefer a single-thread machine, it is certainly by far the best of its kind.

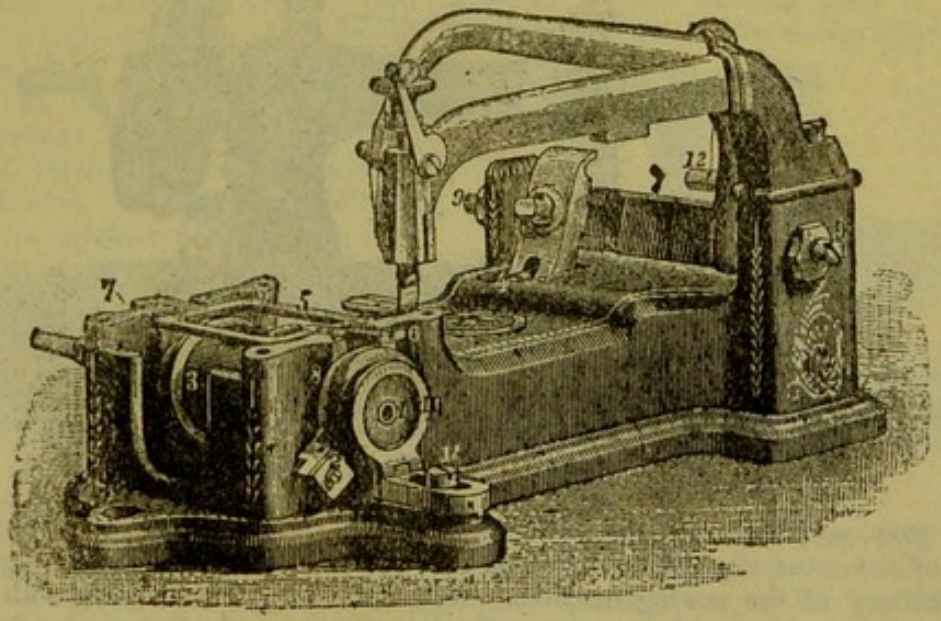


Fig. C.

Of the double-thread loop-stitch machines, forming Class 2, we have already said all that is needed. The Grover and Baker was a good machine; at one time in extensive use. Its stitch was very elastic; and, consequently, not easily broken by a strain upon the fabric; but it consumed a great deal of thread, and, for ordinary sewing, it left a ridge on the underside which was not very sightly.

Class 3, which consists, as we have said, of machines making the lock-stitch, by means of a curved needle and a disc bobbin, carried in a rotating hook, which serves the purpose of a shuttle, is best represented by the Wheeler and Wilson machines, Nos. 1 to 5. We give a sketch (Fig. C) of one of these machines, with the cloth-plate removed, to show the working parts. In the hands of an operator sufficiently skilled and careful, it makes a perfect, plump, and even stitch. Indeed, for the finer kinds of white work, such as the stitching of shirt-fronts and the like, it is without an equal; but the curved needle requires very careful setting, and many of the parts need the nicest adjustment, in order to produce satisfactory results. The mode by which the stitch is produced will be understood by a reference to Fig. D,

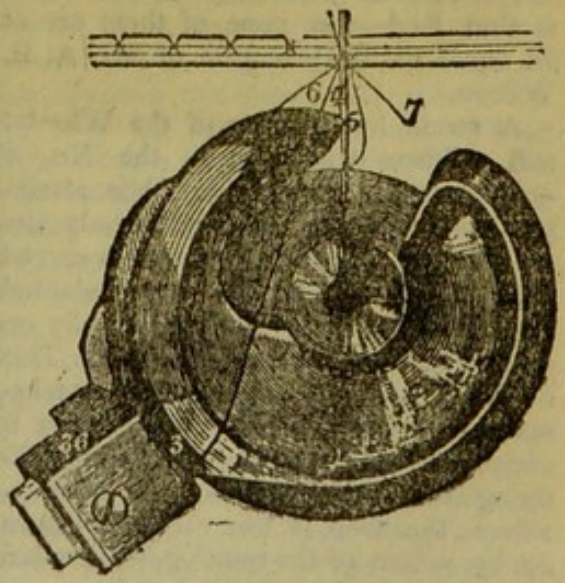


Fig. D.

shewing the descent of the needle (4) through the fabric; the upper thread (6) being carried round till it meets with

the loop-check brush (3), when it locks with the lower thread (7), which is brought from the disc bobbin. All these machines are actuated by the four-motion feed previously referred to. This was one of the most important inventions in the history of the sewing machine. It consists of a plate, with serrated surface so novel as to rise first against the material; second, to move horizontally with the material; third, to fall from it; and, fourth, to return to its original position. There are many other devices for moving the cloth—as the wheel-feed, the needle or awl-feed, and the two-motion feed—but none of them are at all equal to the invention of Mr. A. B. Wilson.

A recent introduction of the Wheeler and Wilson Company is the No. 8 machine (Fig. E); which, while retaining many of the features already described, has a straight instead of a curved needle; and is, therefore, more adapted for many kinds of work, especially on cloth and heavy household linen. This machine has also an independent take-up, by means of which each stitch is completed before another is begun; differing thus from the No. 1 machine, where the loop of one stitch is drawn up by means of the rotating-hook, when expanding the loop for the next.

We have now to deal with Class 4, or shuttle lock-stitch machines; and our remarks will, of course, be confined to those kinds which, from their size and kind, are adapted to household use; and, perhaps, the most widely-known of this class is the Singer Family machine, of

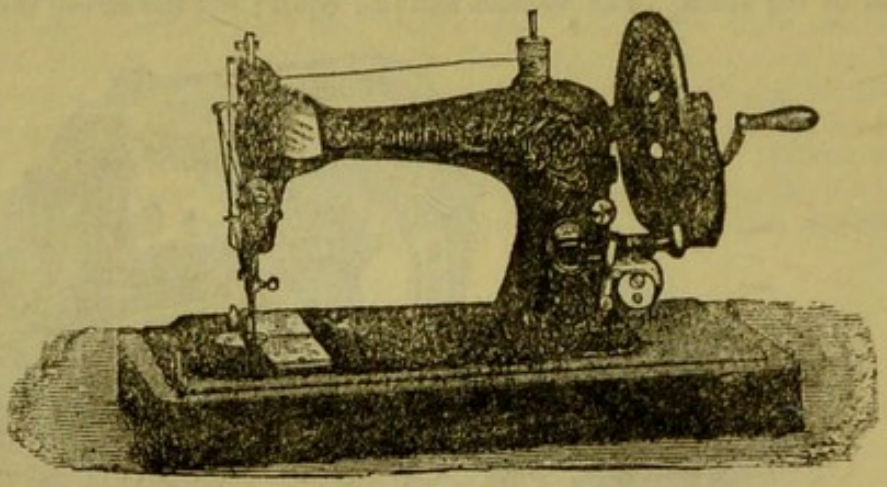


Fig. E.

which, we believe, some hundreds of thousands are made every year. It has a fiddle-shaped box; works with a straight needle; uses the four-motion feed, which is operated through a horizontal lever, actuated from the vertical shaft, and it has a longitudinally reciprocating shuttle. The machinery which operates the needle-bar is of a very simple character, and is concealed within the covered arm. The shuttle-motion is obtained by means of a wheel gearing on the main shaft, which engages another wheel gearing on the other shaft, provided with a crank connected with the shuttle-carrier.

Machines of this class are now usually provided with a loose-wheel arrangement, by means of which the balance-wheel can be made either to communicate motion to the machine, or to revolve by itself. In the centre of the wheel, as will be seen, is a disc, in the edge of which are two indentations—the one square, the other angular—and on the wheel there is a pawl, hinged upon its centre, capable of adjustment in three positions, and being retained in either by means of a spring. Thus the machine for cleaning or other purposes, can immediately be thrown out of gear, and as readily thrown in again. Other arrangements as for instance two holes in the

main driving wheel with a pin are provided by others makers.

No machine has been made the subject of more unscrupulous imitation than the Singer; and if imitation be the sincerest form of flattery, its merits should be of a very high order (Fig. E). One of the secrets of its great success consists, we think, in the extreme simplicity of its construction; combining the highest amount of efficiency with the smallest number of parts. The friction is thereby reduced to a minimum, and it will, consequently, run for years without being in any degree the worse for wear. For many years all Singer machines were manufactured in the United States; but, of late years, the company have established extensive factories in Glasgow, where all the machines required for sale in the United Kingdom are now made.

Another very excellent machine of this class, is that known as the "White." It is of American manufacture, and similar in its working parts to the Singer. One noticeable feature is the great width of the treadle. As will be seen, there is far more than the usual amount of space for the feet of the operator, an item that will be especially appreciated by beginners, who are liable to suffer cramp from the use of some of the very narrow treadles we have seen. The White is a very light-running machine, and will make an average of 1,000 stitches a minute. The shuttle is operated by means of a lever. It has the loose-wheel, and is got up in a variety of styles as to the drawers and general cabinet work. There is very little friction in the mechanical parts, and we should judge it to be very durable.

Differing very materially in its mechanical construction from any of the lock-stitch machines we have dealt with, is the Vertical-feed machine; in which, instead of the fabric being moved along by means of an under-feed, it is projected from above by the operation of the upper-feed (A), as shewn in the diagram. (Fig. F.) The idea is by no means a new one; but, as far as we can see, the objections to this mode of operation have all been overcome, and as there is a perfectly flat surface for the work to travel over, great evenness of seam can be obtained; and the mechanical construction of the working parts is very greatly simplified. The *modus operandi*

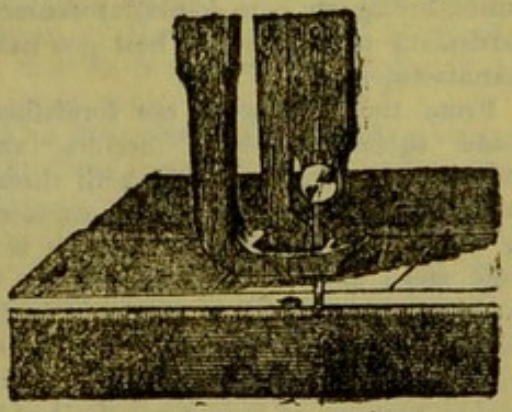


Fig. F.

is as follows:—The presser foot (B) holds the work until the feed (A) has stepped forward, and, at the same time, the needle (C) penetrates the cloth. When the needle has reached its lowest point, the presser foot is raised. The feed and the needle then move forward together, carrying the work the desired length of the stitch. It will be seen, therefore, that as the material is *preceded* in its movements by the raising of the presser foot, it can meet with no obstacles. How largely the mechanism of the machine can thus be simplified, will be seen by a glance at the working parts of the vertical, which are of the very simplest character. It was a bold stroke to return to the old system of top-feed; but, in this case, it certainly has been very successful. The machine has only recently been introduced into this country, but is, we are told, rapidly gaining ground.

We hope that, in our description, we have not been too technical. We have tried to put our words in the plainest possible manner, our aim being to point out, as briefly and clearly as possible, the salient features of each machine. We have endeavoured only to refer to sewing machines for domestic purposes, and have not referred to special machines

used in factories or warehouses for the manufacture of clothes, hats, mantles, etc., as being outside domestic requirements; nor have we said anything about the accessories supplied extra when required—for brushing, quilting, binding, button-holing, etc.—to domestic machines, particulars of which are best got from manufacturers.

From the days when our forefathers made themselves bone needles, and sewed their rude garments with thread made of the sinews of animals captured in the chase, up to the present is a long step; but, we believe, the art of sewing by machinery is still only in its infancy, and that we shall live to see such adaptations of man's skill to the benign purpose of lightening the handiwork of our households by mechanical appliances, as the boldest of us scarcely dare to dream.

Taste in Dress.—Emerson was once much amused by hearing a woman remark, as she walked down a long room where the women who hated her were looking at her back, that there was more moral support conveyed by a Paris-made dress than could be derived from the best religious principles. This is unfortunately too true; but then we cannot all afford to go to Worth and have our figures, complexions, and types of beauty studied, and dressed in such taste, that we are carried through embarrassing situations, when the eyes of the multitude are upon us, by the self-satisfied consciousness that our toilets are without reproach. Good taste in dress is the enjoyment of but few, and in spite of the æsthetic revolution and the efforts of those who spend their lives in inducing others to appreciate the beautiful, the majority of women are still content to hand themselves over to the relentless mercies of dressmakers, who force the prevailing fashion among them, no matter how unbeautiful or unsuitable it may be. Now, better taste might be cultivated by a good many with a little pains, and there are several points upon which every woman could decide for herself better than her dressmaker. We are not speaking of those who cannot tack a ruche straight, put a pin in straight, or fasten their skirts in the proper position. These are almost hopeless cases for any one to influence, but there are plenty who are perfectly capable of deciding for themselves upon the colour, make, and shape of their dresses better than a stranger who knows neither their weak nor their good points of form or colour. The make is, perhaps, not so important as the colour, provided it be simple, and does not hang to fall in direct contradistinction to the lines of the figure, or exaggerate to some unsightly degree the fashion of the moment. Of course we should all, for the sake of our appearance in other people's eyes, try to set off our figures to the best advantage, to remedy their defects, or to enhance their beauties, and as we must remember that there are but few very beautiful figures, and even they require study to bring out all their perfections, those who have poorer figures should be more careful as to dress. The greatest possible mistakes are often made by people through imitation, especially by those with short fat figures, who, when they see a tall, elegant person in a becoming dress, immediately order one like it, not thinking that the very reverse style is probably the only correct one for them. Still more mistakes are made in the choice of colours. Many women, forgetting that crimson and red are the chief warm colours, wear them in summer instead of in winter, but though they are admirably adapted for winter walking dresses, skating costumes, and bright evening dinner dresses, they are decidedly out of place, from an artistic point of view, in warm weather. Blue, on the contrary, is cold, especially as seen in an entire pale blue dress, and therefore is rightly a favourite summer hue. All its varieties, dark blue, purple, mauve, etc., are also cold colours. Indigo blue is very cold and dull, turquoise blue less cold, but all yellows, browns, and greens are warm colours. Apart from the coldness or warmth of a colour, there is the consideration as to what

suits a particular hair or complexion best, and this is the rock upon which so many wreck their charms. Some people avoid colours, and always wear black, thinking that they must be safe, as black suits every one. But this is not so. Either a dark or fair girl, with a clear ivory or blush-rose complexion, will have her beauty enhanced by black, but most people, unless they wear a considerable quantity of white at the throat and wrists, will be made to look yellower than usual. This is especially the case with fresh-coloured, brown-haired girls, but then they have this consolation—that they can wear almost every other colour equally as well. A dull-haired, sallow-faced girl is in a much worse predicament. She can never wear any colour which brings out the yellow or greenish hues of her complexion, and, if she be fair and sallow, must avoid imitating the colours she sees worn becomingly by a dark sallow person. The only safe rule is to avoid a colour when it is found to be trying.

HOUSEHOLD HYGIENE.

Medical Self-Help.—In this chapter an effort is made to give an intelligent statement in a short and simple way on matters regarding health, disease, and accident, such as ought to be in the knowledge of everyone. All that rightly does not come within this scope has been carefully avoided, but it is hoped that nothing of importance has been omitted which should have been included. In order to make subsequent observations and directions more easy to understand, a very slight sketch of the structure of the body is first given.

The Structure of the Body may be conveniently stated as follows: **The Skeleton** or bony system, knit together by tough, strong bands called Ligaments. This gives support, and strength, and form, to the whole body. A bone is not an impermeable solid, as it appears to the naked eye, but is traversed in every direction by innumerable little channels, arranged in the most interesting and beautiful manner, by which blood and nourishment is freely conveyed to every part. A cut or injured bone bleeds very freely, the blood oozing from every spot of the broken surface like water from a sponge. This abundant supply it is that so quickly mends a broken bone. Ligaments, on the other hand, heal slowly and unsatisfactorily because of their poor supply of blood, so that it is a common saying, "A sprain is worse than a break."

The Muscles.—A muscle is a living, fleshy band, attached at its ends to the bones—of which one is usually moveable. When the muscle contracts, as it will do under direction from the Will, the moveable point is drawn towards the other point of attachment—in other words, the one bone is moved upon the other, as may be observed in movements of the legs or arms. This is essential in all bodily motion, whether within the body itself or in going from place to place. Muscles may act singly or in groups to bring about movement.

The Blood and Circulation.—The blood, with the appearance of which all are familiar, consists of two essential parts, a fluid part called *Liquor Sanguinis*, and, floating in this, myriads of minute living bodies called *Corpuscles*. The Corpuscles form two thirds of the mass of the blood by weight. There are two kinds, the red and white, in the proportion of from 400 to 500 of the former to 1 of the latter. An important function of the red corpuscles is to take up oxygen in the lungs, which they convey and deliver to other parts of the body. The function of the white corpuscles has not been clearly determined, but late observations tend to show that they perform a most interesting part in defending the body against the invasion of disease. It was previously known that they played an important part in the healing of injuries. The fluid part of the blood contains Water 784, Albumen 70, Salts 6, Fats 1.5, Febrin 2, other matters 6 per 1000 parts—all the elements, of course, which go to build and restore all and every structure of the body.

The blood itself is re-stored from two sources, from the Lungs, and from the Stomach and digestion. In twenty-four hours, a male adult inhales from 400 to 1000 cubic feet of air, according as he is at rest or at work. There are 21 parts of oxygen in every 100 of fresh air, and 5 parts of the twenty-one are taken up by the blood from the air in the lungs at every respiration, giving up an approximately equal quantity of Carbonic acid gas and other products of waste in the body. The re-storation from Food comes into the blood in two ways. First, the more readily assimilable matters, like water, salts and sugars, are absorbed by the mucous membrane of the mouth, stomach, and intestines, and so pass immediately into the blood-current. Food elements that are less digestible have to undergo a good deal of preparation in the stomach and in the part of the intestine which comes next to it, and then they are absorbed by little points which dip from the wall of the bowel into the digested food, or chyle, as it is called at this stage. From these points lead minute channels which convey the chyle into a main channel called the *Chyle-Duct*. This duct runs up as far as the neck, lying close to the back-bone in its course, and it empties the chyle-stream into a large vein. The vein-stream is on its way to the right side of the heart, from which it goes to the lungs to be further purified, and prepared to nourish the parts towards which the next beat of the heart sends it. It is important to remember that all food, whether directly absorbed into the veins, or by the chyle course, must go to the lungs first before it is ready for the purposes of nutrition. It should be understood that this is but a very crude statement of the processes of Assimilation. Of the wonderful gland systems which perform the finest part in the preparation of the food before it enters the blood, and even after it has done so, it is impossible to say anything appreciable in such a simple statement as this.

The Mechanism of Circulation cannot be detailed at any length. The re-stored and cleansed blood is conveyed in the arteries to every part and tissue throughout the body. The heart acts as a pump, giving its impulse to the blood-current through the arteries; but there are several other aids to the circulation, the most important being general muscular exercise, which makes the whole body become as it were a heart. After the living blood has permeated the living tissues, it comes back to the heart and to the lungs, again to discharge its waste and to be again stored with the necessary oxygen. If this cleansing and this re-storing does not, for any reason, take place, the body is not alone starved but poisoned also, and will die if relief does not come.

Respiration. The Lungs.—If we imagine a silken sheet, some 60 feet long and 40 broad, as thin as gossamer, we have thereby perhaps the best conception of what the lungs really are, and it will help us to understand their use and service. The object of respiration is (1) to nourish the blood, and through the blood the whole body, by means of the oxygen taken in from the air, and (2) to purify the blood from the carbonic acid gas and products of waste which it has brought back in its current from all parts of the body. How this interchange comes about is not easy to explain, nor necessary to explain here. The lungs are, however, the means by which the exchange takes place. On one side of the sheet is spread out in an inconceivably thin layer the two ounces or so of blood which the right side of the heart spreads over it; on the other side lies the inspired air. This separating membrane, the sheet, is so thin and so permeable that the interchanges mentioned readily take place—and the blood thus purified and replenished is swept off, and passes on, to give place to the next heartful of blood which comes with the next beat. The blood of the body is about 1/12 of the total weight—say 12 or 13 lbs.—and all this is passed through the lungs in perhaps less than a minute of time. Thus the whole blood

is aerated by being spread over an area of something like 10,000 square feet in less time than every minute. Of course, our sheet is not spread out its full length and breadth, but is neatly folded within the cavity of the chest, in the familiar form of the lungs. It is there just the same, and acts just the same, as if it were fully spread out.

The Nervous System consists roughly of Brain, Nerves, and Terminal Organs. The nervous system acts, so far, in a manner identical with a telegraphic system. Nerves are merely conductors, just like telegraph wires, the Brain and Terminal Organs corresponding to the offices or rather to the instruments which despatch and receive messages. Nerves have been named Afferent or Sensory as they convey impressions from the end-organs inwards *to the brain*, and Efferent or Motor as they convey impulses *from the brain* to muscles and parts without. The end-organs are essential to the receiving of an impression, and the brain is the interpreter, just as the receiving instrument and the instrument at the other end which spells out and interprets the message. The eye, for instance, and the ear are end-organs or receiving instruments, taking the impressions of light waves and sound waves. All over the skin and over the whole body such special sense organs abound, as may be readily understood, for no impression can be received but by one or more of these. A nerve must be continuous, distinct, and uninjured, from the surface or end-organ to the brain, or no sensation results—just as a defective wire cannot convey a message. The *nerve trunks* then, which may be as thick as the thumb, are exactly like telegraphic cables containing many wires, but each distinct and separate from the other in its whole course. The Spinal Cord, as regards sensation and motion, or the inward and outward impulse, may be looked upon as a nerve. If the Cord is cut across, all feeling is lost in the body below that point, showing that the impressions from below cannot reach the brain and are therefore not interpreted—because the conducting medium is broken. On the other hand, in such a case, however much a person so suffering may desire to move his legs, or any part below the injury, he cannot do so—because the Efferent or outward channel, by which the impulses from the will and brain are carried, is destroyed. The paths of impulse through the Cord are extremely interesting but too complicated to explain here. When the portion of the brain controlling any part, as say the legs, is injured, paralysis of that part follows. Feeling, and the power of movement are lost in it, and by and by, indeed very soon, the part begins to wither. This withering shows that the nerves have to do with the health and nutrition of the part, and that it dies if cut off from the control and influence of the brain—whether by disease of the brain itself or because the Cord of the Nerve to the part is injured.

Food and Feeding.—Food serves two purposes. It supplies the *material* for the building and for the repairing of the structures of the body, and it supplies the heat and *energy* which keeps the body alive and in health, and enables it to perform such work or labour as it may undertake. It will be readily understood that to build up so many and so different tissues as are contained in the body, and to sustain them, different elements of food must be supplied in appropriate forms and quantities. It has been learned both from experience and experiment that two principal elements in somewhat definite proportions are essential to healthy diet, namely Nitrogen and Carbon. Foods which contain the former element in comparatively large quantity are variously named Nitrogenous, Albuminous, Proteid, etc. Non-nitrogenous foods again are divided into the two classes of hydrocarbons and carbohydrates. The hydrocarbons are so named because they contain the chemical elements hydrogen and carbon as the principal and sometimes their only constituents. The carbohydrates are composed of carbon in combination with the elements of *water* (*hudor*

H_2O). Nitrogenous food is represented by cheese, meat, and eggs, as will be understood from the following table: Hydrocarbons are represented by fats and oils; and carbohydrates by starchy foods and the sugars. The following shows the composition of some common food substances. There is in every 100 parts of

	Water	N	HC	CH_2O	Salts
Cheese	38	33	24		5
Salt Beef	49	29½	⅛		21
Meat	74	18	3		1
Fish	78	18	3		1
Egg (White)	84	11	2		½
Egg (Yolk)	52	17	29		1
Butter	21	1	78		
Bacon	15	9	73		3
Lentils	11	27	2½	56	1½
Peas	15	22	2	53	2
Rice	10	5	1	83	1
Flower	15	11	2	71	1
Oatmeal	15	13	5½	63	3
Bread	40	8	1½	50	½
Potatoes	74	1½	1/10	24	½
Cabbages	79	2	½	14	2
Carrots	85	1½	⅛	8	1½
Apples	82	½		8	½
Milk	87	5	4	5	1

N = Nitrogenous.
HC = Hydrocarbons.
CH_2O = Carbohydrates.

An Average Diet for a man of 10 stones in weight, occupied in manual or muscular labour of ordinary severity, should contain about 4½ ounces of water-free albuminous food, 3 ounces of fatty substances, over 14 ounces of the carbohydrates, and an ounce of the salts met in food substances. This gives a ratio of each element 1 Nitrogenous, ⅔ Fatty, 3 Starchy, and ⅛ Saline. Roughly speaking, nitrogenous substances, like the gluten of flour, the albumen of egg, the syntonin of muscle or flesh, and the casein of cheese and milk, are the *tissue-formers;* the others, the fats namely, and the sugary elements, are the heat and *energy-producers.* Although we may, for an ordinary adult in ordinary circumstances, determine a comparatively exact and useful ratio between the quantity of the one kind of food which should be given and that of the other, it will be understood that this ratio, or the relative proportion of the one food to the other, in diet, must vary greatly with the varying circumstances of the individual. A growing young person needs more of the building materials, so the nitrogenous food substances should be given freely. In old age the demand is not so much for tissue forming elements as for heat. A man living in idleness needs less of both kinds than a hardworking man. An Esquimo needs more of heat-producers than an Indian; the fat man less of the hydrocarbons than the thin or starved man. For an average adult European, doing an average amount of work, something like 4800 grains of carbon and 300 of nitrogen *per diem* is necessary—giving a ratio of 16 to 1. A pound of bread gives 1975 grains of carbon and 88 grains of nitrogen. A man fed on bread alone would therefore need 3½ lbs. of bread to give him his necessary quantity of nitrogen but in this quantity he takes 6912 grains of carbon, too much by a great deal, as will be seen. If, on the other hand, he tried to live on meat which gives per pound 1854 grains and 184—he should have nearly sufficient nitrogen in a pound and a half, but only 2788 grains of carbon, which is far too little. But by taking bread with the meat—say two pounds—he should have 3950 grains of carbon and 176 of nitrogen in the bread, and this with just about ¾ pound of meat gives, as nearly as possible, the necessary quantity of both elements. Again by adding a little butter, which gives 6456 grains of carbon to the pound and no nitrogen, he should be able to reduce his bread item. This is the explanation of the need for a *mixed diet.* Milk is a good type of a complete diet. It contains 4.1 of nitrogenous matter, 3.9 of fat, 5.2 sugar, 1 of salts—per 100 parts. It gives 599 of carbon and 44 of nitrogen per pound or a ratio of 13 to 1—an excess of nitrogen to meet the special need of the growing animal for the nourishment

of which it is intended. Good Cheddar cheese gives 3344 and 306 grains per pound of the essential elements, with a good percentage in the form of fat. Skim cheese gives 1947 and 483 grains. It is not difficult to see that a thoroughly reliable diet can be made from Cheddar with bread alone, and of course some form of drink. It will also be seen that skim cheese has relatively an excess of nitrogen which has to be balanced on the other side as is usually done by putting butter on the bread.

The Choice of Food must in many cases be made with regard to price, and it should always be made with regard to quality. "Cheap and nasty" applies to nothing so appropriately as to food. The worst possible form of economy is to buy what is of little or no value as a diet, or may even be poisonous and entail danger to health and life. Fortunately at the present day good food is abundantly available at remarkably low prices. Every housekeeper should know the leading points which characterise sound and healthy meat, fish, and vegetables, and other common articles of food; and they should know also how to make the best of everything in the cooking. Perhaps the best test of meat is that if lightly pressed with the finger it is found to be elastic and will not retain the impression. The colour should be a deep red; pale sinewy-looking meat indicates that it is the flesh of an old and ill-fed beast. The bloom or sheen on the cut surface of meat is an excellent proof that it has not been too long killed. The fat of healthy beef should be almost the colour of fresh butter, dry and free from bloodspots; that of mutton should be dry also and hard and white as marble. The gills of fish that is fresh and in good condition should be pinky red, full, and not flabby. The eyes too, should be full and not sunken or discoloured. The flesh should be resistent and elastic, and should not retain the impress of the fingertip. It may be made a safe test that according as the depression remains and does not come up level as before, the fish is in that degree not fresh and not the best of food. All vegetables and fruit should be used as fresh as possible. It is likely that on the basis of economy, and perhaps too with no disadvantage to health, our diet should contain more of fruit and vegetables than is customary. The scientific essential of nutrition, which has been just stated, can be satisfied, as will be observed, from cereals and fruits, and vegetables alone, without any animal food. It is not devoid of interest that peas alone constitute very nearly a scientifically perfect diet, giving 2700 grains of carbon and 248 grains of nitrogen to the pound, and giving also a good proportion of fat and of salts. Oatmeal also approximates the essential standard, and it will be readily seen that with a little addition several others of the food substances mentioned may fulfil the conditions of a full diet.

Digestion.—The circumstances which are favourable to digestion and those which are not favourable are worthy of attention. The first thing to recognise is that "one man's meat may be another man's poison" and that no fixed rule can be laid down as to what is or is not the right food for any person. The stomach must remain judge of what it can or cannot digest. There is, however, a common consent based on experience largely, and to a certain extent on experiment also, that some things as compared with others may be referred to as indigestible, such as pork, veal, and stringy meat. But the manner in which food is prepared counts for a great deal. There are two processes in digestion—a mechanical process which breaks down food substances to their minutest division, and a chemical process, the essential process, to which the mechanical is merely preparatory. It is clear that the more thoroughly the mechanical process is carried out the more easily and intimately will the digestive juices mix with the food, and so the quicker and better the digestion. The mechanical process starts with the cooking, and is carried further by proper mastication. The movements of the stomach and intestines are not meant to be part of this process; they simply mix the already finely

broken food with the digestive fluids. If cooking and mastication be not carefully and completely attended to, a new and unnatural burden is thrown on the stomach, which in time must inevitably do it injury. The stomach is part of the body, and when the body is exhausted or tired the stomach also is so. It is not well therefore to take a heavy meal when very tired. A rest should be indulged in first, or only some readily assimilable light nourishment should be taken. It is not well to drink too much fluid of any kind before or with meals, for the digestion is thereby retarded. The blood of the body goes in large quantity into the stomach and the other organs of digestion when the process is in active progress. If anything diverts this influx of the blood, digestion is to that extent interfered with. No work of any kind, of body or of mind should be engaged in till digestion is well on. "After dining sit a while" has thus a most respectable scientific basis. Worry, anxiety, anger and all their killing kind are hardest of work in the truest sense. It is therefore that they retard and often arrest digestion altogether. It is in vain that a man flies to pills in order to remedy this evil, for which peace is alone the cure. The stomach should have a clear interval of complete rest between one meal and another.

The Disorders of Digestion may be referred to three sources of cause, namely (1) **The Food** which may be of improper quality or too much or too little in quantity (2) **The Digestive Fluids** which also may be defective or excessive as to quantity, and quality, and (3) **Mechanical Defects of the Organs of Digestion.** Manifestly, causes from the last source must be outside the scope of our observations here. Causes from the second source are themselves secondary to the influence of causes from the first or from emotional and nervous or exhausting causes from other directions. It should be understood that emotional excitement, and indeed all excitement whatsoever, is a form of hard labour, and especially exhausting. The stomach and other organs of digestion participate in all bodily exhaustion, and when exhausted they cannot perform their proper functions. In such frames of body and of mind the wisest thing to do is to take some readily available fluid nourishment which does not require much digestion. It is almost certain that a heavy meal in such conditions would do more harm than good. By far the most common causes of indigestion are in the first channel of improper food and of food in excessive or defective quantity. We shall not discuss the question of simple starvation here. That state of things is fortunately not frequent with us in our day, though we know that even now it sometimes does occur, to our shame. Short however of this, a chronic starvation, a perennial defect of good, wholesome, appropriate nourishment, is a serious fact in our civilisation. To the educated life our streets are full of bitter proof of this observation. This is a social question. By far the greater number of all derangements of digestion come from excess, from excess of eating and of drinking—and from smoking. It is extremely difficult to put the operations of cause in the order of their natural sequence. For instance a man with a healthy stomach will digest a large meal, even an excessive meal, with comparative impunity; but the man who has chronic inflammation of the stomach from excess of alcohol will fail to digest the meal, as will also the man whose constant smoking has overstimulated and exhausted the secretions of the digestive glands. These are the people who complain of their "liver." There are two elements always in digestion, the stomach and the food. If the stomach is unfit the food must be such and on such quantity as it can use. It is of course only accessory to point out that alcohol and smoking—and the use of drugs—should be watched in all cases of indigestion. I am safe in saying that the worst cases of indigestion ever I saw were caused by the quack "certain cures" which are so widely advertised. What the stomach

in such a state needs is rest, and restoration of tone and power. Small and light nutritive meals should therefore be the rule; and if any of the food taken remains undigested after an hour or so, it may be well to flush it away with a good cup of hot water. A simple post prandial pill may be found serviceable to the same end or best of all a teaspoonful of castor oil.

Indigestion is the most general term used in this connection and perhaps the most useful. **Dispepsia** is a narrower term implying a theory that the digestive prudents are not secreted in sufficient quantity by the stomach glands. It is on this last theory that rational medicine aims at assisting digestion by artificial digestive means, such as pepsin and acids. It is clear, however, that such means can only serve a temporary purpose; and it is clear also that their indiscriminate use is certain to do harm. Bloodless women—young women as a rule—are very liable to indigestion, especially such as are bound down to a close sedentary life. Among dressmakers, for instance, it is painfully frequent. It may continue for weeks and months till the health is quite undermined, and they are compelled to give up. An important word of warning is here necessary. Of course it is foolishness not to take the earliest warnings in this as in every disease; but there is a further and most serious danger that this state of things will so degenerate or destroy the lining and tissues of the stomach that what is called **Gastric Ulcer** will result, and this is one of the most treacherous and dangerous of all diseases. No one should bear with a persistent state of indigestion for long even if there was no other danger but this alone.

Clothing is of service to keep the body warm or cool, and clean. The substances commonly used in clothing are linen, cotton, silk, and wool. Each of these differs in the important respect that one receives or takes in heat readily and as readily parts with it, while another receives heat and takes it in slowly and as slowly parts with it. The one is therefore called a good conductor of heat, the other a bad conductor. Linen is in this respect a better conductor than cotton, cotton than silk, and silk than wool. In other words wool is the warmest of all clothing because it prevents the escape of the heat of the body, and linen is the coolest clothing, for the opposite reason. This, however, is not quite correct. There is a constant exhalation from the skin, some pounds of water with gases and waste products being daily given off in this way. It is of the highest importance to health that this exhalation should have free escape. This will manifestly depend upon the texture of the clothing next to the skin, and indeed on the other clothing also. It has been found that the open texture of woollen fabrics is by far the best to this end. So, for these two most important reasons wool is the best clothing. For children, whose store of heat is small and who give it off very fast, wool is absolutely necessary; and for aged people in whom heat production is gone down, it is very necessary to secure all they have by warm woollen clothing. In adult life these indications are not so imperative. Still, if wool is at all within reach it is the best clothing for all, and for every reason—certainly, no one in this variable, trying climate should be without a flannel or woven woollen garment next the skin. It is indeed most dangerous to wear linen things if a person is hot and perspiring; it is incomparably safer to have nothing on. Woollen shirts should not be tight-fitting but large and loose and easy, that the air may freely bathe the skin at all times. With such a clothing it is quite surprising how much heat one can endure with coolness and comfort. The only difficulty attending the use of woollen fabrics hitherto has been their weight, but that is overcome now. Cricketing flannels, and even lighter woollen stuffs, make the best clothing possible from the point of view of comfort and health.

The use of **Overcoats** is not free

from risk. We may take it that if a man is walking, or working, or in any way exercising himself sufficiently to keep warm naturally, an overcoat is not necessary, but may be harmful. If a person gets heated in a closely buttoned overcoat, and especially if the coat be of impermeable texture such as india-rubber, he simply cannot avoid a chill if he should chance to open it, even for a few seconds. The overcoat in walking should be thrown freely open. Travelling in a train or carriage, an overcoat is most necessary in cold weather, and there is no such risk as has been just mentioned.

The **Feet** should always be kept warm and dry. Warm woollen stockings and well-soled shoes are perhaps the most important part of our clothing. In summer these may of course be lighter. Brown leather shoes are certainly cooler for summer wear, and in dry weather, canvas shoes with leather soles—never india-rubber—are very light and agreeable. The stockings should always be wool.

The Bath and Bathing.—A bath should be within reach of everyone, of even the poorest. It is absolutely necessary in the impure atmosphere of large towns to keep the skin always clean and free. The **Cold Bath** or morning dip is to be looked upon as a tonic and healthy stimulant rather than a cleaning or washing operation. It should never be more than a dip, the very shortest and quickest dip, in cold weather especially. So used it is far and away the best tonic available. One second of time is quite long enough to get the best results. Done in this quick way it is remarkable that many who cannot take a cold bath of the usual five, ten, or fifteen minutes, can indulge it with pleasure and with every benefit. To stop even for two or three minutes in a cold bath, especially in winter and in cold weather, is without reason, especially when the freedom of movement, which makes open bathing enjoyable, is not possible. It is injurious even to the strong, very dangerous to the weakly and aged, and no benefit to anyone. A cold plunge should never be taken when the body is cold or chilled. It is well therefore to take it immediately on rising in the morning. It should not be taken when the body is perspiring, from whatever cause. The head should always be freely dipped or laved and cooled before immersing the rest of the body. A good rough Turkish towel must be esteemed a necessary element in the full enjoyment of the "cold tub."

Open Bathing in fresh or salt water differs from the cold plunge in nothing but that it may be indulged to advantage for a longer time because of the movement and exercise which is part of it. There does not seem to be any doubt that salt water is more invigorating than fresh water. The test for, as well as the infallible guide to, cold bathing is the after-effect. If the bathing induces a warm glow and a feeling of well-being, it is good and does good, but if it does not, but chills and depresses, it is wrong and harmful. It is very rarely indeed that one is met with who cannot indulge in cold bathing with benefit if properly directed. Many who for years were not able to bathe in cold water have come to be able to do so freely by coming to it gradually. For the first day or two a simple cold sponging of the body, done as quickly as possible, followed by vigorous friction, then in a day or so a single sharp dip, next day perhaps a minute in the water, and so on, gradually; that is the plan I usually commend, and I cannot recall one single instance of a person who was not able to enjoy the full pleasure and benefit of cold bathing.

"I believe a cold bath would be one of the most healthful exercises in the world, were it made use of in the education of youth. It would make their bodies more than proof to the injuries of time and weather. It would be something like what the poet tells us of Achilles, whom his mother is said to have dipped, when a child, in the river Styx. The story adds that this made him invulnerable all over, excepting that part which his mother held in her hand

during his immersion, and which by that means lost the benefit of these hardening waters"—*Guardian Essays*, No. 102. This statement is an admirable speculation, but considerable experience enables us to say that actual fact bears it out to the utmost. There is not the least reason why any person should have even as much as a cough wrong with the organs of respiration if cold water is used as it ought to be, and evil habits like hot drinks, hot rooms, and hot clothing avoided. Again, in disorders of the stomach which always arise from too much food or from wrong food or from ardent drinks, a flush of cold water is beyond every thing the best treatment. Skin diseases properly so called are made impossible by cleanliness. Weakly, nervous, and hysterical people are wonderfully strung together and improved by the tonic effects of cold water. So the allegory has a solid basis in actual facts. Cold bathing should not be indulged in while the body from any cause is in an exhausted state.

The Tepid Bath is, according to my experience, open to suspicion. In by far the greater number of cases of chronic lung trouble which I have had to deal with, the patient was in the habit of taking a luke-warm bath. In those who take a distinctly hot bath followed by cold spray or sponging or plunge, bronchitis is rare, and in such as habitually have the cold dip bronchitis is never met with, unless from quite exceptional causes. In fact, the sponging of the chest, back and front, with a sponge wrung almost dry out of cold water, and then rubbing with a coarse towel till the skin is red and hot, is not only a practically perfect preventive, but a great help to cure also, in chronic low and slow states. It is difficult to see what the place is for the tepid bath. It is an enervating proceeding always, and there would not appear to be any pleasure attached to it. **The Hot Bath** of temperature 100° to 110° F. is, for mere washing purposes, far better than the tepid, and it is not depressing, but distinctly stimulating and agreeable. Perhaps the best step that can be taken in the initial stage of cold, influenza, or indeed any feverish state, is to take a hot bath and then envelop the body in a warmed blanket. A free perspiration usually follows, and great relief if not permanent benefit. The occasional hot bath for cleansing purposes should always be followed by cold douche or spray, or even sponging. The best time for a hot bath is last thing before going into bed. A most important point to remember is that no form of bath or bathing should be indulged in immediately after a meal.

Rest and Amusement are nearly allied in their first meaning, the one being rather applied to the body, the other to the mind. The word *rest* as applied to the body means a cessation of labour; a man must labour before he can rest. Amusement again expresses the rest of the mind, or that which switches the mind from its lines of active thought into thoughtlessness or into being *a*(not)-*mused*. Adequate rest is absolutely necessary to good health—rest of body to the man who uses his body in labour, rest of mind to the thinker and the man with business anxieties and worries. **Sleep** is the completest rest to both body and mind, and the man who can sleep well and is fully refreshed by it, however arduous his labours of body or mind may be, is safe; but the man who does not have sufficient good, restful, refreshing sleep, will break down most certainly. Defective, unrefreshing sleep is one of the earliest indications to a healthy man that he is overdrawing on his vitality. Most commonly, however, sleeplessness follows upon indigestion and defective nutrition, and these again upon his not taking sufficient food, or because he does not give himself time to digest what he takes. Restlessness from this direction can only be cured by sensible rest. Worry and anxiety are severe causes of unrest, and very little can be done for the trouble they induce—but of course to endeavour to escape the cause of the anxiety or worry. Clearly in all cases of sleeplessness the stomach must be seen to; for, usually, what-

ever improves digestion improves sleep also.

If the feet are cold and the head hot, a footbath of hot water with mustard, and some cold application to the head is a great help, and the worried anxious man may with hope of benefit take a whole bath, distinctly hot, before going into bed. Nervous and exhausted people often go to sleep after a cup of beef-tea, or a little spirits and hot water, or a glass of wine, or of any readily assimilable fluid nourishment, taken last thing. A change of scene and surroundings may be imperatively necessary in some cases. The occasional rest in a man's daily work need not be referred to, except to say that a short rest before food is desirable, and after food particularly necessary.

The Annual Rest or Holiday should be appropriate to the way in which a man is employed. A sedentary clerk should indulge in open-air exercise and change; the student should lie fallow, and have abundant open-air exercise and amusement; the hard manual labourer should retire to some quiet healthy place, just to "loaf" about, to eat, and to sleep, —especially for the first week or so; the worried anxious man should go to sea if possible, so as to be cut off from post and telegraph and telephone, and from the possibility of doing anything if he wished to. The sea, by the way, is not for the melancholy, moody, person; in fact, such should avoid the sea. Change of occupation has been said to be rest, but it is not so always. A tired exhausted man benefits in no way by indulging in any active recreation—in games, say, like football and cricket. His primary duty is to do nothing until his energy has been restored. From the revulsion which overcomes the mind by reason of perhaps uninteresting, monotonous but easy work, change of occupation is a rest as it is a relief; it is in truth a form of amusement. A change, however, is almost always an advantageous element in securing rest and amusement, for the presence or proximity of one's work, or duty, is always a cause of discomfort.

Health and Disease.—These words in their common usage indicate two different and opposed states of the body. The word Health expresses the idea that the body is hale or whole and not in any way defective, incomplete, or wrong. The word Disease has its best meaning on the face of it. It used to mean the dis-ease, or discomfort, or unrest, which came of a defective, un-whole, or wrong state. Because it is used as the opposite of health it has come to be applied to conditions which are unnatural, even though they are not attended with pain or discomfort. The word has indeed so intensified its signification and departed from its first meaning that it is now only used by medical men for the structural changes which take place in diseased states, as in cancer for instance. We speak of the growth as "the disease," even when it is not attended with dis-ease. Every feeling of unrest, discomfort, or dis-ease, declares that there is something wrong which ought to be put right. It is really Nature's voice of warning, which should be listened to without any delay. It is safe to say that if this were intelligently and obediently done, we might save ourselves a very great percentage of all the severe illnesses from which we suffer. Persistent indigestion, sleeplessness, loss of flesh, irritability, want of tone and "go," and all that is conveyed by the expressions "Out of sorts," "run down," etc., these are dis-eases in the truest sense, and demand attention from the very first, for if neglected they will surely end in very serious illness.

Common Ailments.—Respiratory Organs.—A Cold.—The common cold which comes of exposure is not often a serious matter. A hot bath or even a hot foot bath at bedtime, plenty of simple warm drink, a simple purgative, light diet for a day, and perhaps, if convenient, a day in bed, is all that is necessary as a rule. In every feverish state the over sheet should be removed; the covering should be blanket or wool entirely.

The state of the health is an element that must not be forgotten in colds. A strong man takes cold with difficulty, and he throws it off easily. A weak man, especially if he has inherited a weak chest, takes cold readily, and it sticks to him. It is a very bad sign to be "taking cold upon cold". It is a sure sign that the health is low and should be seen to, or it is quite certain that this order of things will end in severe illness. Going out into the cold night air, from hot, close, and crowded rooms, is one of the most common causes of cold. The exhausted and vitiated air of such places reduces the vitality very much, and the natural resistance of the body is thereby diminished, and this, more than the difference of temperatures, is the cause of evil. Cold and damp feet, especially if footgear is not changed immediately, on ceasing active work or walking, furnish another common cause. Wearing heavy overcoats or close waterproofs, especially if walking or exercising, is also wrong, and so is every kind of "coddling". If the feet are kept dry and warm by means of woollen stockings and good strong shoes, and if a good flannel shirt is worn next the skin without a tight fitting under-vest or any linen at all, it is remarkable how little else is necessary beyond every day and ordinary clothes to protect us even against our violent changes of weather.

The Throat may be the seat of many forms of disease but only the familiar forms can be referred to here; viz. **Laryngitis** or simple inflammation of the mucous membrane, **Quinsy** or acute inflammation of the tonsils, **Croup, and Diphtheria.**

Laryngitis is usually the result of "catching cold." Speakers are particularly liable to it, especially if they have to exercise the voice in a hot, close atmosphere—and then perhaps come out into the cold damp night air. If once it has occurred anything like severely it will always remain the weak spot afterwards. A good deal can be done to prevent it. The wearing of cravats, furs, or anything close and heavy, around the neck, predisposes to cold. Washing or sponging the neck and chest with a cold wet sponge in the morning is the best form of prevention. Gargling the mouth and throat with simple cold water night and morning will greatly strengthen and give tone to all the parts. The treatment of this state consists in rest of the parts, confinement to a warm room, the usual first steps taken for a cold, the application of a irritant externally, and the use internally of some soothing vapour, or spray, or gargle. The external application will vary with the intensity of the internal condition. If it is only a mild attack, perhaps a liniment of equal parts of Camphorated Oil and Turpentine, applied to the front of the neck on flannel will be sufficient. If the case be urgent, and the difficulty of breathing increasing, a mustard poultice, or even pure mustard or a fly blistering may be necessary. But it should always be remembered in using such things that *the slower they act the deeper seems to be their effect.* A pure mustard application, for instance, will act so quickly and so painfully that it must be removed before we can believe it has had any deep effect to speak of. The inhalation of the vapour of simple hot water or of hot water with a few drops of Iodine or a little Turpentine gives relief. The spray, however, is the most effective means of conveying remedies; but these except the very simplest must always come under medical direction. A little borax solution, or alum, or Condy's fluid according to the condition, may with safety be used by anyone.

Quinsy also commonly follows upon exposure to cold and especially so if the health is low. A disposition or a readiness to Quinsy is often inherited, and when once it has occurred it remains always the weak point. As this is a most painful and very troublesome form of illness if it goes its course the very first hint of its coming should be taken and obeyed. Anyone liable to Quinsy who feels a dryness at the throat, per-

haps slightly painful, and perhaps a shivery feeling of the skin and a general feeling of not being quite well, should at once go home and take a good dessert spoonful of castor oil or any simple efficient purgative. He should then have a hot bath and go to bed in blankets at once and drink plenty of any simple warm drink and keep quite quiet—and wait. If he escapes he should be thankful. One day of care in order to avoid ten or fifteen of very severe suffering is a good investment of time. If unfortunately the disease goes on, and one or both the tonsils get large and inflamed and ultimately break down, this is not a condition that can lightly do without skilled treatment.

Croup, a disease of childhood, also seems to come by heredity. There is always to be found in the parents or relatives a history of some form of chest weakness. Between croup and diphtheria it is not easy to draw a every clear line. In some places it is not attempted to draw a line; the two are looked upon as essentially the same disease, only varying by the degree of its intensity. There is, however, a disease which such as hold this view would name **False Croup**, in which there is no high fever and no membranous collection as in Diphtheria—a spasm and narrowing of the throat causing very great difficulty in breathing but not usually so dangerous as it would appear to be. This is what is here meant by **Croup**. It comes on quite suddenly, at night perhaps always, and is very nasty while it lasts. A smart dose of oil and glycerine, a distinctly hot bath and then to bed in blankets, a temperature of the room above the usual, even 70° F., sponges or packs of flannel wrung out of boiling hot water (repeated as they cool) to the front of the throat, and a dose of Ipecacuanha wine is about all that can be done without medical assistance.

Diphtheria is a matter so serious that it should be put at once under the most competent skill and treatment. The difficulty is to recognise it early enough. There is really no conclusive proof of Diphtheria but the exudation, the membranous patch of grey which is seen to occupy some part of the back of the throat. If diphtheria is, however, epidemic in a neighbourhood the safe and right thing to do is to suspect every sore throat and to watch carefully. There is with diphtheria a peculiar depression of vitality that does not go with the other forms of sore throat. The fever is not usually every high but there is always the "chill" or shivery feeling which indicates the access of fever. The neck is usually stiff even if it is not very painful, and the glands at the sides are usually swelled and painful. A discharge from the nose even when little or no membrane is visible in the throat is almost conclusive for diphtheria. It should be remembered that simple ulcerated conditions of the throat may be taken for diphtheria. Sometimes the thought of so serious a disease frightens people exceedingly, and great hardship comes not infrequently from errors of recognition.

A Cough is not a disease but is the indication of something wrong in the throat or air-passages, or in the lungs. It is not a very reasonable proceeding to "stop that cough" as quack advertisements advise. We should know the cause of a cough first; and then if we can remove the cause the cough ceases. If the cause is enlarged tonsils they should be removed. If irritation of the throat by some outside cause then by escaping the cause the cough ceases. If bronchitis or pneumonia is the cause, the diseased state must be treated and not the cough. To suppress a cough by means of drugs, quack or otherwise, is wrong unless, as happens sometimes, the cough itself aggravates the condition which causes it, in which case it is right to stop the cough, but even in such a case with great care and caution. "Cough mixtures", which almost always contain opium in some form, do far more harm than good. They upset digestion in several ways; and in most diseases, digestion and the economy of

the power to assimilate nourishment is the first consideration.

Hooping Cough is a specific infectious disease. It is not of itself dangerous, but it has almost always some bronchitis attending it, and a peculiarly susceptible condition of the lungs. This makes it dangerous. It is by no means easy to distinguish hooping cough from ordinary cough in the early stage—until the "whoop" has developed. In some cases there never is a distinct "whoop", and the disease may therefore not be recognised. If a child is suffering from a persistent troublesome cough which does not give way to ordinary treatment—and especially if hooping cough is about—the best way is to suspect hooping cough, and to deal with the case as such. The cause of the disease is evidently an organic specific poison or disease-germ infecting the air passages. In the hope of destroying this germ and so *disinfecting* the affected parts, recourse has been had to various forms of "germicides" or germ-killers, but the difficulty has been how to get the germicide in contact with the germ. Disinfectant solutions of various kinds have been tried, but without very apparent success. Following out the same idea I have devised an instrument whereby a *vapour* of some of the tar products may be carried into the nostrils, throat, and lungs, even when the child is asleep, and I have good reason to believe that by this means I have been able to cut this very disagreeable ailment short. No drug administered by mouth has been found to do any good. When children are sick with the cough, they should be fed immediately after a fit so that they may get as much as possible digested and used up before the next fit comes on. If a child with hooping cough gets feverish and restless at night, it is certain that something is going wrong, and it should be referred to the medical adviser; but if there is no fever, however severe the cough, there is no danger.

Bronchitis is usually classed as either Acute or Chronic according as the condition so named is or is not attended with fever. The slow chronic state is really a continued unhealthy habit of the channels of respiration. It is not an immediately dangerous state but it is always a wrong state which should be got rid of as soon as possible. It will be found in every such case that the sufferer indulges in some wrong habit, or is exposed to some unhealthy conditions. He may be in the habit of wrapping up too much, so exposing him to be caught by the least cold when he is not wrapped up. He may by choice or perhaps necessity be passing part of his time in an overheated confined and exhausted atmosphere; he is extremely susceptible to catch cold on going out. He may be in the habit of taking hot drinks, and that also makes him susceptible. Hewer masons are liable to bronchitis arising from the inhalation of irritating dust—so are coal workers, millers, and steel-grinders for similar reasons. Whenever an unhealthy habit, or exposure, or occupation, is given up, the tendency for bronchitis of this kind is to get right and to clear away. In weakly and in old people the natural powers of recovery may be so defective that even after removal of, or from, the cause the bronchitis continues through the whole period of life. A change to a warm seaside climate is a great aid to get rid of such a condition, as is also any and every means which sustains or improves the strength. An old lady who had chronic bronchitis for about twenty years got rid of it by simply sponging the chest every morning with a sponge wrung dry out of cold water and rubbing the skin to redness with a coarse towel, at the same time gradually leaving off many layers of greasy flannel which she wore—for protection.

Acute Bronchitis is a serious affair and it should not be treated without direction. Of course a warm room, uniformly warm (about 60° F.), and well ventilated without draught is the first essential. Then a dose of castor oil and glycerine in equal parts, say a teaspoonful of each for an adult, given every night is perhaps next in importance. A good stimulating liniment on flannel placed over the lungs back and

front is a useful aid. I advise, with all the emphasis I can, that *the lungs should never for any reason be poulticed.* I cannot give my reasons in this place; but let it be sufficient that since I stopped poulticing, now ten years ago, I have not lost one person, young or old, from bronchitis or pneumonia. Light and sufficient nourishment given at regular intervals is a most important part of treatment. Stimulants should not be used in the early stages of this or of any caute illness, but in the last stages when the strength is exhausted, stimulants are of great value if wisely used. A very good way is not to give any in the day-time even in the very low conditions, except for urgent reasons. In this way the full advantage is secured for the night time and the early morning when vitality is usually at its lowest. A man who habitually takes stimulants gets little or no benefit from them in illness.

Pneumonia is an inflammation of the deepest and finest structures of the lungs. There can be no doubt that a low state of health is the prime cause in this also, though of late years there is a disposition to look upon it somewhat in the light of a contagious disease having a specific disease-germ of its own. Pneumonia is an extremely severe illness usually attended by high fever and great waste. There is danger that it may lead directly to utter exhaustion by this way alone. In very bad constitutions this is really what happens. In ordinary circumstances, however, the danger lies in another direction. The lungs in this state lose their character of air-filled cells and become solid and airless, very like the dense structure of the liver. They cannot aerify or cleanse the blood, which is their function, and the sufferer dies of poisoned blood just as if suffocated. What usually happens, however, is that one lung has two or three days' start of the other. In this way when the one is quite solid and useless the other is yet able to breathe, and by the time this latter becomes useless the other has gone through the course and has begun to breathe again. If the two lungs began together and got to the worst point at the same time, and if the whole substance of each lung were involved, the sufferer could not get round the corner. This is an extremely rare condition, if it ever exists. Sometimes it is only one part of even one lung that is affected, at another a whole lung is affected and this is the most common event. It is rarely, however, that the second lung escapes at least some degree of inflammation.

The treatment of pneumonia, so far as private attention is concerned, is the same as for acute bronchitis.

Pleurisy is the name given to an inflammation of the pleura or the smooth thin membrane which covers the lungs and also the inside of the chest walls contiguous to the lungs. It is like a closed sac having one side adherent at the lungs and the other side to the thorax. By this arrangement the two inner surfaces of this sac lie against each other, and move on each other freely as the lungs move within the chest in respiration. In health the two surfaces are as smooth as glass, and being well lubricated by a special fluid secretion of their own, friction between them is reduced to a minimum and they glide on each other with perfect smoothness just as the eyelid does over the surface of the eyeball when the eye is in a perfectly healthy state. The pleura, which we cannot see, gets inflamed as we know the eye does. The smooth surfaces get dry and red and angry, and painful as they rub one against the other. That is pleurisy. It is safe to say that a person is never taken with pleurisy who has not previously for some time been out of sorts and going down hill. The severe pain calls for rest, and compels us to give it. In fact the whole treatment is covered by two words, rest and nourishment. The pain may be so severe as to prevent rest and may therefore demand skilled intervention. We must believe that the fact of an inflammation starting in the pleura rather than in any other part of the body—apart of course from direct injury—

shows that this part is the weakest part and that the inflammation has a reparative intention which we can encourage by the use of hot fomentations or other warm gentle application. After a short time, and by the assistance no doubt of the applied remedies, the inflamed surfaces get again moist and they pour out an abundant secretion, filling the sac in less or more, and so separating the two surfaces. The pain then ceases and the fever which attended the acute inflamed stage diminishes. The issue now depends on the state of constitution which determines the quality of the effused fluid, and determines also the possibility of its being reabsorbed. If the health is very low, the effused fluid may break down and form pus, which cannot be taken back into the system but must be removed by surgical interference. The whole lesson is, that though pleurisy in itself is not a serious matter, still the fact of its coming without direct cause is not a good indication of the state of the general health. It must be a time of some anxiety till it is quite gone, and after it is gone we should not be satisfied, as we are not safe, till the health is completely restored—raised if possible to a higher level than it has occupied perhaps for a long time past. We should also watch carefully that loss of flesh and tone and "go" are never again neglected, for pleurisy or some other illness is at the bottom of this downward journey always.

Consumption is largely an inherited disease, or rather an inherited weakness or disposition towards disease in this direction. It is a great error and too often a fatal error to look upon consumption as a disease of the lungs. The disease is far advanced in most cases before the lungs are affected, and when the lungs are to any extent affected the prospect is not good. I have good reasons for believing that consumption can be prevented. If a person who has inherited a known disposition towards this form of disease intelligently understands that in this way lies his danger and if he so orders his life that he avoids all that would lead him that way, and sustains his life at a high level of vitality, it is not too much to say that he is safe from consumption as if he inherited no disposition. But if from any cause or for any reason he loses tone and strength and flesh, consumption in the form of diseased lungs will meet him soon, without any possibility of escape. If, however, he takes warning, and takes care by rest and nourishment, and perhaps a short change, to check his waste and to stop it, he need not go the whole dangerous way. He has a ready means within his reach at any time to know how he is, or how he is progressing. If a man who is, or has been for some time, losing weight, causes that loss to cease by care and attention, his condition is not necessarily dangerous; in fact, to stop losing weight is a distinct gain. If such a man not only stops the loss of weight but puts on even one pound he is perfectly safe, for this means that he has yet in him the power to recover if he only husbands and directs it in a sensible manner. On the other hand, the man who cannot put on any of the weight he has lost, even if there is not a spot of disease in the lungs, is already fatally diseased. The whole rational treatment of consumption consists in preventing it. All manners of cure coming in at late stages of the disease, have hitherto failed. "Prevention is better than cure" for consumption, in even a peculiar sense. Prevention is perhaps always possible and comparatively easy; cure is always difficult and too often impossible.

Influenza.—In the early stages it is not easy to distinguish this very serious form of illness from a severe cold; but it is much safer to mistake a simple cold for influenza than influenza for cold. No harm is done in the one case; great harm may be done in the other. The high fever, severe headache, pains all over, and peculiar prostration which characterise influenza demand attention at any time and from whatever cause; and, if influenza is about, it is safe to put such symptoms down to it. The

ordinary simple means of treating a common cold are quite in order for influenza also, and the sufferer should be immediately put to bed and kept there for two or three days, however slight the attack. The loss of a day or two is nothing, however urgent the duty may be, compared with the disaster of a lifetime that may follow, and too often does follow, on neglect or exposure after influenza. Business men are special sinners in this respect—that they cannot be kept at home. We can unfortunately recall not a few whose transgression was repented of when it was too late, hence our anxiety to impress this matter. Rest in bed is the first thing and perhaps the most important. Then the preliminary steps as in a simple cold may be followed. I have thought that more than ordinary benefit is derived from a thorough flushing with oatmeal water, having a slice of lemon in it or even a pinch of salt, or with a fourth of milk. I always advise this. The ammoniated tincture of quinine, and indeed quinine in any form, is without doubt a good medicine in such cases. There is almost always some bronchitis following on the acute stage of influenza, but it is practically free from risk if the sufferer keeps in bed. If, however, he acts foolishly, danger lies this way. An otherwise trifling thing may run into a violent illness, which, catching him in a low and exhausted state, is exceedingly serious. One other important thing. We are constantly hearing of men who "have never been themselves since that influenza"—and this months or years after the illness. How much this means only those who have suffered can know. The cause of it all was that they did not take care or time to recover sufficiently at the time of the illness. They went about their duties before they had recovered their lost strength, and never again had the chance to recuperate; and there, at this low lovel of life, and in this most unsatisfactory and risky state, they remain through all the rest of life perhaps. There are other dangers also from influenza, and it picks out our weak points—but the danger from the lungs and the low after-state, both arising from carelessness, are the most serious, and should never be forgotten or neglected.

Headaches are usually classed as arising from structural disease within the brain, from inflammation of the brain coverings, from congestion or too much blood within the head, from nervous exhaustion, and from an unhealthy state of the blood arising from indigestion for instance, or from defective action of liver or kidney or other function, or from any form of blood poisoning as foul air or alcohol. To relieve a headache some clear understanding should be come to as to the cause. A headache from structural disease is, as a rule, fixed in one place, constant and persistent. This headache is of course a serious matter always, and should be under skilled treatment. The headache of inflammation is also a serious matter. It is most commonly part of a serious general condition. The nervous headache is the headache of exhaustion. It comes on with worry or anxiety or exhaustive labour of any kind. The cure for it is peace and rest and nourishment. The headache from unhealthy blood can only be relieved by removing or preventing the cause. If indigestion is the cause, that must be put right. If foul air, that must be avoided. If disease of the liver or kidneys, these must be treated and not the headache directly. If alcohol, it must be stopped.

It is very instructive how some light form of nourishment, as a glass of wine or a cup of tea or beef tea, will relieve the headache of exhaustion and it is quite as instructive to observe how a smart drain by means of a saline purge will relieve the congestive headache of alcoholism. The headache of worry is often wonderfully relieved by a hot foot-bath with mustard. A very useful hint for the use of the foot-bath is given by the cold feet which nearly always accompany this headache; and the heat of the head suggests, at the same time, the use of cooling applications such as Eau de Cologne or any spirit, or what is best of all in very severe cases, pounded ice

in a waterproof bag. A mustard poultice applied over the nape of the neck frequently gives relief.

External Headaches are often very severe. Bad teeth, rheumatism and diseases of the nerves are the most common causes. When teeth are bad they must be seen to. The favourite place for rheumatic headache is at the back of the head, though it may be anywhere. Perhaps the blister or the application of heat is the best thing that can be done in such case—not, of course, neglecting the general cause. Active painful disease of a nerve is extremely difficult to relieve in many cases, and it is always a matter for skilled attention.

Nursing the Sick. The Sick-room.—When a case of illness promises to be of long duration, and the patient is to be nursed in a private house, by relatives perhaps, the first thing to do is to choose a suitable room—if fortunately there is a choice. Other things being equal, a room near at hand and readily got at is to be chosen for an illness that is not infectious, and a room well removed if the case is infectious. Other considerations which determine the choice of a sick room are size, and roominess, cheerfulness, exposure, quietness and the available means of ventilation. A southern exposure is the best. **Cleanliness and Ventilation.** Apart from the nourishing of a sick person and the attention to strictly medical details, the whole duty of nursing is covered by these two words, which in truth are inseparable. We cannot have cleanliness in a room if foul air is not removed and an abundant supply of fresh air taking its place. On the other hand, however good the circulation and supply of air may be, if the room is dirty and the sick person and his bed and surroundings are reeking with the accumulated poisonous filth of disease, it is clear that the air cannot be kept pure by any amount of ventilation. **Cleanliness** comes first. The best thing to do indeed is to give the room, before occupying it, a thorough refreshing wash from floor to ceiling. If some chloride of lime is used for the boards, and for the walls where that can be done, so much the better. Then as little furniture should be put in as possible, consistent with a feeling of comfort. In infectious cases no carpet at all, and even when in non-infectious cases only slips round the bed and loose pieces which can be easily carried out for a beating and airing. No bed hangings and no valances—nothing to harbour or to hide dust or dirt. Whatever little air there is, or however much, should be kept as clean as possible. The excreta should be at once removed and never left in the room for a single moment, and vessels should not be brought back without being thoroughly cleansed and dried. This precaution is absolutely necessary in typhoid fever, for the sake of saving others, and apart from our duty to the sufferer. In such cases some good disinfectant should be put in the vessels when used, say some form of Carbolic acid or Chlorinated soda. Disinfectants spread about in cases of infection serve little or no good purpose. They do harm if they in the smallest degree take the place of cleanliness which is the only sure disinfectant. The **sick person** should be kept as cleanly as possible. It only needs a little handiness to wash a helpless sick person without causing him any trouble to speak of. The only danger is from chill, so a time should be chosen when the room is warm, and only a small part of the body should be exposed at one time. Soiled bed clothing should not be allowed to remain on the bed even in the poorest house. Anything is better than that. In cases where there is a liability to soiling, a draw-sheet should always be used and the bed protected by waterproof cloth. The worst possible obstacle to cleanliness, is a soft feather or flock bed and it should never be used or tolerated in illness. Even a hard mattress if covered softly and smoothly is far better, but if a stiff wire-mattress is available it is cleanest and best of all—so long as

it is not covered by flock or feathers.

Ventilation aims at constantly removing exhausted and foul air from the room, and providing an abundant supply of fresh air from the outside without causing draughts or exposing the sufferer to chill. In modern houses there is usually provision made to secure ventilation, but as yet in by far the greater number of houses there is no such provision. It is comparatively easy to ventilate a sick room in the **day time**, especially if the day is fine, by throwing the window or windows of the room wide open. The patient's bed should be surrounded, if need be, by a screen, or some substitute can be devised if there is no screen at hand; or he might be covered over lightly during the time the windows are open, if there is any draught. A window in the next or in another room may often be kept open with great advantage. In the **night time** the matter is more difficult. The first thing to do is to economise the available air within. Cleanliness, as we saw, helps greatly. A nice bright fire in winter is also a help, but gas or candle light should be diminished to the least possible, as these use up the air just like the human being. Again there should not be more than one reliable person in the room, besides the sick; and even that one person should go into an adjacent room as soon as the sufferer can with safety be left, even if only for a short time. The lower window sash may be raised about three inches, the opening at bottom being closed with a sand bag or something. This will admit a draught at the middle of the window and it will be directed upwards by the overlapping sashes. If the top sash is down even half an inch it will be a help. It is in cases of lung disease that the problem of ventilating the sickroom is very difficult. In all other cases it is not nearly so difficult.

The **Temperature** of the sickroom should be as near 60° F. as possible. That does for every case. If a room is kept at 70° or 75°, as some do in treating lung diseases the sufferer dare not for a long time, even after he is out of danger, let the room down to a reasonable temperature, without risk. I never find it necessary to go above 60° F. and if by chance the temperature goes above 65° F. I look upon it as wrong. There are two ways of keeping up the temperature, and keeping it uniform should be the great thing. In small houses, and even in lung cases, it is quite the ordinary state of things to find the bedroom door opening on to a landing or rather on to the top of a staircase. If this room is kept at a temperature of 60° F. on a cold winter day, it is evident that the whole column of cold air from the front door and, from the lower parts of the house, at a temperature of 40° F. say or 30° F. or even lower is only waiting for the opening of the door to rush in and reduce the temperature by perhaps 10 degrees in as many seconds of time. It is a purely sisyphean and hopeless task to keep such a room warm and uniform, and such sudden drops are most unfavourable and even dangerous to a child say, or a feeble old person, struggling against an acute bronchitis or a pneumonia. The only thing to do is to suspend a large sheet or drapery *outside* the door. It should be large enough to extend well on each side of the door and full at the bottom so that a person going into the room may slip quite inside it before opening the door. With a little care this will serve the purpose very well. This is the saving or economical way of keeping the room warm, the other is of course the positive one of generating heat. The temperature in cold weather should be kept as near 60° F. as possible, and to this end a clean fire is the best means. The fire should always be kept uniform. It is better to bring coals in bags or pieces of paper in small quantities, each sufficient for one replenish. This is clean, and saves noise. The night, and especially the early morning, is the time of danger to such as need a uniform temperature. It is simply astonishing how, in spite of every care, a room

gets so miserable and cold from five to seven o'clock in the winter morning. I look upon this time and this single fact as always the greatest danger in lung diseases. It is hardly necessary to say that no sickroom should be without a thermometer suspended over the bed in which the patient lies.

Decorations.—Any little thing in a quiet way which can be introduced to decorate or brighten the room is always agreeable, and nothing in this way is more so than a few flowers.

Attendance on the Sick.—The sick or suffering person should always, even in the poorest home, be put on the care of some *one* sensible proper person who should choose another if necessary to give assistance or relief—but one person should have the responsibility. Of course others may assist this responsible person in endless little ways without coming in actual contact with the sufferer. There can almost always be found within a family or in the circle of near friends a sensible, gentle person with a "knack" of doing things neatly and quietly without fuss and with a quick instinct to *know*, without asking, what ought to be done and when—that is the person for the sickroom. Loquacious elderly ladies with "great experience" are poison, and should never be allowed near a sick person. A bright and tidy young person without any experience at all, is infinitely more desirable. The doctor should bring the experience and it will always be a pleasure for him to assist and direct such a nurse. It is always best to keep a bright and cheerful face and manner in the sickroom. Every action and movement should be as free and natural as possible, so long as noise or an irritating restlessness is avoided. The patient should not be drawn into any conversation except when he desires it, and then only for so long as not to exhaust or excite him in any way. The subject of conversation should never have reference, even in a remote way, to his own condition but should be of a diverting and agreeable nature always.

The Bed.—As has been already stated a sick person should not be on a feather or flock bed. The best bed is a *single* iron bedstead with a hair-mattress, or better still a woven wire mattress without any hangings or valances or drapery of any kind. The bed should be perfectly level and smooth without any lumps or wrinkles, and it should not be so soft that the patient sinks into it nor so hard that it hurts or chafes, though short of this the more resistent it is the better. If the mattress is too hard, a blanket may be laid over it below the under-sheet, but care should be taken that it lies and is kept perfectly smooth. It is most undesirable to remove the *under* bedclothing oftener than is necessary; so, if there is any offensive discharge, the bedding should be protected by a draw-sheet having a strip of mackintosh underneath it. When the under-sheet must be removed the patient should, if he can, sit up, or he may be supported in the sitting position. The new sheet should be aired, and ready rolled down to half. Then the soiled sheet is rolled from the upper end down as far as possible, and the clean sheet is put in its place also so far. The two rolls have now to be passed together under the buttock which, with one on each side of the bed and almost always with some little assistance from the patient, is not a very difficult matter. The rest is easy. In case of a fractured thigh or in any case in which the patient cannot sit up the sheet must be carried from one side of the bed to the other—instead of from the *end*. In many forms of acute illness, in rheumatic fever especially and indeed in all the fevers, I dispense with an over-sheet and have nothing over the patient but woollen blankets. It allows the escape of the excessive heat and exhalation instead of boxing it in as sheets do.

Nourishment of the Sick becomes sometimes a matter of extreme difficulty. It depends entirely upon the state of the sufferer, and the capacity of the stomach to retain and to use food. If the stomach retains and digests the food given, that is right food to give—unless in exceptional cases, which the medical

adviser alone can know. If, however, the stomach refuses the food we give, or if it causes discomfort or disturbance, it is wrong, even if theoretically it may appear to be right. It is remarkable how limited the field of selection is for the feeding of invalids. Milk and meat, with a few farinaceous things, and perhaps eggs, is practically all there is to chose from; but a deft cook will present even so little in so many inviting ways that a great deal can be done with them. Special attention has been of late directed by many good firms to the nourishment of sickness, and with very excellent results. There are many very delicate preparations of the staple foods on the market, so that in the very worst cases of stomach failure, something can be got to agree. **Milk** itself is a great power in illness, if judiciously used; but certainly it needs watching. If it curdles on the stomach and fails to digest it is positively dangerous. The combination with soda-water is very good and most grateful to a feverish sufferer, especially if a piece of ice is added. The important thing is not to give milk in too strong a state. One part of milk in three, or even four, of aerated water, or of the water of oatmeal or barley or rice or toast, is good and sufficient. A little lime water with milk prevents curdling and this addition may enable a sick person to keep and to use milk which otherwise he could not. A little fluid magnesia may be added to the milk of hand-fed infants with advantage, if the digestion is wrong, as shown by acid offensive motions. A most important point to remember is that the merest trifling change in the flavour or in the form of food, may be quite sufficient to make it tolerable or even agreeable to a patient who is getting very tired of it. The addition of a piece of lemon to oatmeal water or toast water makes quite a new and agreeable drink. It should also be remembered that a great quantity of nourishment may be given in these fluid forms. Oatmeal water alone, or with a little milk, is quite sufficient to carry a person through a long illness. To the **Cooked Forms of Milk** there is practically no limit—with the little changes that so alter the thing in appearance, flavour, and acceptableness. Milk jellies, custards, puddings with vermicelli, barley, rice, etc., may be rung the changes upon to a peculiar extent. I don't know that any of the prepared forms of milk are so good as those home-made from good fresh milk. **Beef-Tea** and beef-jellies, and other preparations, are a valuable aid in the nourishment of sickness, but these should always interchange freely with milk and farinaceous foods. It would seem indeed that in feverish states beef preparations are not so good as the "cooler" milk and farina diet. The commercial preparations of meat are, many of them, exceedingly valuable, but home-made beef-tea or jelly always has a commendation to the sufferer in the kindness which devised it. Mutton and chicken broth are very useful changes; so are veal and beef soup. **Farinaceous Food-Preparations** for the sick are numerous—and they are all of them, at any rate those of good firms, usually reliable. It is quite impossible, however, to say which will or will not suit or agree with a sick person. This can only be found out by trying. **Malt Extracts** of the various forms are an excellent assistance. They are both food and digestive in one.

One or two points should always be remembered in sick nursing. The patient should never be asked what he will have, but if he express a wish to have anything, or give a hint that he would like it or take it, that thing should be given if there is not clear reason against it. I have seen patients starving and going altogether wrong, under medical direction too, by being too exclusive in the choice of nourishment; and I have seen these same people improve fast on being allowed to eat things from which they had been debarred. It is desirable to have a regular interval in nourishment, and in severe cases every

item should be written down against its time. In ordinary and not too severe cases a very good way is to give something at the usual meal times, and something in between—"sub-meals" as I, for convenience, call them. It is hardly necessary to say that change in the form, and if possible in the substance of the food presented, is always agreeable. It is much better to give too little than too much nourishment, and a patient should but rarely be pressed to take more if he takes anything at all like sufficient. He should never be wakened from sleep to take food if he is not dangerously weak; but if he is, then the interval should have reference to the measure of nourishment previously taken before going to sleep. **The Use of Stimulants** in illness is a most important matter to consider. A fairly safe rule is not to use stimulants while fever lasts—for the fever is Nature's stimulant—but, in exhausted states, after severe illness, alcoholic stimulants are, if judiciously used, simply invaluable. A teaspoonful, or even a few drops, of brandy, given in the early hours of the winter's morning to a child just gone through pneumonia, so entirely alters the complexion of things as to be sufficient to convince the most sceptical. I have seen brandy carry aged people over gulfs which seemed quite desperate; and good port wine is beyond question a food of great value. *It is the abstemious man, however, and the total abstainer, that get the full benefit from stimulants.* To the habitual tippler they are little or no good; to the drunkard they are no good at all. It is a good plan, so far as it may be practicable, not to give stimulants in the day time, but to reserve them for night. The night, or rather the very early morning, from, say, 3 o'clock, is the time of depression and of greatest danger, and it is a great comfort to the anxious attendant to know that there is something in reserve which may be drawn upon in the moment of urgency. Medicated wines have lately got into extensive use. Marza Wine and Vin Mariani as well as the various forms of "Coca Wine" are doubtless useful aids, and there are some excellent combinations of wine with beef extract to be had on market.

Common Injuries and Accidents.

Cuts.—The treatment of a clean cut is very simple if it is not in a dangerous part and if the bleeding is not excessive. It should be cleansed thoroughly by a plentiful stream of cold water containing some disinfectant. This in many cases will be quite sufficient to stop the bleeding also, if an artery is not cut. The edges of the wound should then be brought together as neatly as possible and fixed so by a strip or two of good plaster, then bandaged and put at rest. Whenever a splint can be applied without too much inconvenience, that should be done, especially if the cut is near a joint the movement of which prevents the rest necessary to healing. If a wound is rightly cleansed and dressed and kept at rest it should not be interfered with, not even looked at, till it is quite healed. If the offensive smell of suppuration, however, comes from the dressing it must be taken down and cleaned and put up again with some antiseptic dressing.

Bleeding.—A very small wound may bleed dangerously. I remember the case of a woman who, in cutting bread, scooped a bit about the size of a three-penny bit out of the artery at the wrist. She nearly bled to death before the thing was rightly attended to, and she will not recover the evil consequence in all her life. The most simple knowledge could have saved all this. If anyone had the sense to press the bleeding spot with the tip of one finger there should have been no bleeding. In most cases, simple direct pressure is quite sufficient to stop bleeding from a skin wound. The worst thing to do is to wrap the part in large masses of cotton wool, as was done in this case. Another error, very common in cases of severe bleeding or in even trifling bleeding if the person faints, is to give stimulants. The heart in cases of severe bleeding slows down, and

though this gives the feeling of faintness it is a good condition for it makes the bleeding less. It is plain that if we give stimulants in such a state we must, by increasing the force and action of the heart, accelerate the bleeding. So even if it takes some courage to withhold stimulants from a fainting person it is clearly the right thing to do in case of bleeding. The current in the arteries is from the heart towards the extremities, that in the veins is the opposite way. An artery bleeds bright red blood in jets, but a vein a darkish blood in a continuous stream. In bleeding from an artery therefore, if it cannot be stopped by pressure at the wound, pressure must be applied *above* the wound, and in the case of a vein, *below*. If bleeding is from **a Varicose Vein** the best plan is to lie down and raise the limb above the level of the body and apply pressure at the bleeding point. Bleeding from the **Nose** is usually stopped by the application of cold to the face and head and back of the neck. It may be necessary to introduce a plug of cotton wool into the bleeding nostril, and if this does not do, a surgeon should be seen.

Fractures.—If there is any reason to believe that a bone is broken the least done till the surgeon arrives, the better. He should be sent for at once as it is much easier to set a bone immediately after the injury than later, and it causes much less pain to the sufferer. The best way is to let the sufferer lie where he falls if he can be made at all comfortable. The clothes on the injured part should be ripped open on the seam, not pulled off. If it is seen that the bone is not through the skin, matters should be left exactly as they are, unless indeed the patient *must* be removed, in which case the limb should be kept at perfect rest and on no account moved about. This may be done by putting one or even two men in charge of the injured limb while others lift the body; or, if there is not much displacement of the bones or parts, the limb may be fixed with improvised splints—pieces of any rigid material long enough to extend a good way above and below the injury—tied above and below with one or two handkerchiefs. If, however, on removing the clothes the skin is seen to be broken and the bone projecting and the wound bleeding, seriously perhaps, coolness and intelligent courage may be necessary to save life. The first thing to do is to stop the bleeding and this must be done by pressure on the main artery *above* the wound. If a person has even a rough knowledge of the position of the great bloodvessels—a knowledge which every person should have in our day—it is an easy matter to control the bleeding; and in any case, a cord or rope or handkerchief tied round the limb and then screwed as tightly as possible by means of a stick will almost certainly stop the bleeding. Beyond this nothing should be done till the surgeon arrives. But if the case is far from a surgeon and something must be done the upper part of the limb must be held firmly and the lower displaced bone should be pulled steadily and strongly *in the direction in which it is lying* until the protruding part is well within the skin and then, keeping it on full stretch, it should be moved round into its natural position. Splints should then be fixed and the patient removed. The carriage of a man with broken bones is a most difficult matter but the great thing is to fix and guard the injured part.

Dislocations.—It is very little that can be done by lay hands in cases of dislocation. A dislocated finger may with comparative safety be pulled and directed into position. A handkerchief or some soft band may be tied on the finger to enable traction to be made. It is best tied with what is called the "Clove Hitch". A bone which has been dislocated, should be kept fixed in position for some time after it has been reduced. Dislocation at the shoulder may be reduced in many cases with comparative ease. Traction should always be made in the line in which the dislocated upper arm is lying—this in fact

applies to every dislocation. If the bone lies dislocated backwards it should be pulled, in that line forwards and *vice-versa*. If it is thrown down into the arm pit the traction should be outwards from the side. The foot of the person reducing should be placed in such a position as to fix the other end of the line in which the arm is drawn. While one man is pulling at the limb, another may manipulate the head of the bone into the socket. It should be understood that the only excuse for lay intervention in cases of dislocation is in that the muscles are always in a relaxed condition of shock for some time immediately after an injury. When this state passes away and they go on full tension again, it will be much more difficult to overcome them—and their pull is the cause of the dislocation. Let these few words apply to other dislocations also.

A dislocation of the lower jaw is not an infrequent occurence, and it ought to be in the power of a person of ordinary intelligence to give assistance in such a case. The patient should be seated on a low chair. Then the operator should press the jaw down with his two thumbs placed as far back or the molar teeth as possible. The thumbs should be covered with a towel as there is risk that he may get a nasty snap when the jaw goes back.

Sprain is the name given to the overstretching or tearing of the ligaments of a joint. A sprain is always a matter worth attention; it is sometimes a most serious affair. Ligaments and tendons have but a poor supply of blood and for this reason they are very slow to repair and heal. When a young and healthy person gets a sprain, more or less of an inflammation follows which, with the absolute rest that should be insisted on in every case, will likely be sufficient to repair the injury. The joint should be fixed on a splint in even most simple cases on the principle that whatever is worth doing is worth doing well, and it may save a great deal of trouble in after life. I have of late years used some stimulant applications, turpentine, or mustard, or even a blister, to the part after the first inflammation has passed off, and I have every reason to be pleased with the results. The object is to further promote the nutrition and so the strengthening of the weakened ligaments. Rubbing, of which people are too fond, is wrong in such a case, at any rate until the injury is quite repaired after which, if there is swelling or stiffness, massage will be useful and right. Rest and repair are wanted, and anything that interferes with either is wrong. **A Strain** is the overstretching or tearing of a muscle. It is the same in every respect as a sprain and is to be similarly treated. In this, however, nourishment and the substances of repair are abundant, so it is a much shorter and simpler matter.

Bruises in a healthy person are not usually very serious, and almost all the treatment they need is rest, but a bruise of any consequence should be put at rest until it has disappeared. People are too fond of rubbing bruises with or without some liniment. This is wrong especially in the early stage. A bruise, or the black patch so named which appears through the skin, is blood which has escaped from the rupture of the fine bloodvessels in the flesh beneath. It is evident that by any rubbing or disturbance we prevent the ruptured vessels from healing and closing and so we aggravate the condition. The best way is to put the part at absolute rest. If ice or any other means of cold application is at hand it may help to stop the bleeding. After a few days, if the effusion is excessive, stimulation of the parts round about the bruise may help to remove it. Hot fomentations, liniments, turpentine, and mustard may be used for this purpose with massage also of the limb or neighbourhood. If, after a few days, things don't go on in the ordinary familiar way a surgeon should be consulted, for it may be more than a mere bruise.

Poisoned Wounds and the Bites of Dogs, Reptiles, and Insects—I have for some years treated by the

following method. First, by tying something round the limb above the wound in order, if possible, to stop the circulation of the poison which is assumed to have been implanted in the wound. Then, washing the wound with as hot water as can be borne while a blister of cantharides is being procured. A strong blistering fluid is best for the purpose. After drying the part thoroughly the blister is applied. It will take effect in a young person almost immediately. When the blister has "risen" and is full of fluid it should be freely opened and discharged. That is all that is necessary unless there is special reason to fear that the wound is poisoned in which case a hot poultice will cleanse and further encourage the outward discharge.

A Fall or a Blow on the Head may cause concussion of the brain or compression. Concussion means, as the word indicates, a more or less severe shaking up of the delicate brain matter and a derangement of the supremely fine order of the brain parts. By far the most important thing to do is to let the patient alone, to rest in peace. The pale countenance, cold skin and feeble breathing always suggest that we should give stimulants, but it is a most questionable proceeding to give stimulants. This suspension of active power is Nature's way of securing rest, and it is better not to interfere if nothing more unfavourable comes about. This remark is meant to apply to the half hour or so immediately following the injury. If there is no inclination then towards brightening up, a little stimulant may be given—with perfect rest. **Compression** in such a case is caused by the bone being pressed down upon the brain substance; and it may be by the rupture of a vessel inside and consequent pressure from effused blood. When the bone is driven down on the brain it is a matter for skilled treatment, and in case of bleeding it is equally so, though the application of cold to the head, the giving of a purgative to relieve the blood pressure, warmth to the lower extremities, and perfect rest are quite within the lay duty.

Concussion comes on at once, compression from bleeding, some short time after an injury. The power of speech and sensation is lost and there is some paralysis in compression, but in concussion there is no paralysis, and speech and sensation are maintained. External bleeding from the cut scalp may be always stopped by pressure at the bleeding point.

Burns and Scalds are dangerous beyond their appearance. An extensive superficial burn or scald which destroys nothing but the mere epidermis is more dangerous than a limited deep burn destroying the whole skin and even the tissues beneath. Children bear burns very badly; in fact it is rare for a child to survive a scalding of any considerable portion of the skin. Perhaps there is no better way of treating a burn than by the familiar Carron Oil (equal parts of Linseed Oil and Lime Water). A little Carbolic Acid may be added with advantage (say 1 to 120) and a little laudanum if the pain is very severe. A piece of lint large enough to cover the burned surface should be soaked in the oil and laid on. As it is of highest importance to exclude the air and to keep the injured surface rigidly clean this again might be covered by a layer of cotton wool—antiseptic if possible. The dressing should not be removed if the surface keeps clean and healthy. The lint may be kept soaked by the oil without removing it. If a scald, and there are large blisters, they should be pricked, but that is all the interference necessary.

Infants and Children.—Two forms of illness especially beset the lives of infants and young children, namely troubles of digestion and bronchitis, which latter always takes a more or less acute form. Many believe that measles, scarlet fever, and other "children's diseases," are necessary and unavoidable, but this is altogether wrong. None of these, and no disease whatever, is either necessary or unavoidable. They are all of them

quite unnecessary; they may all be avoided. **The Feeding of Infants** that are brought up by hand, as so very many are in our day, is an extremely delicate and sometimes difficult matter. Of course, the right food for an infant is its mother's milk, and if for any reason it cannot have that, it must have something as near to it as possible. The substitutes readily available and usually resorted to are cow's milk, and the various "Foods for Infants." It cannot be too clearly understood that biscuit powder, flour, and farinaceous food of every such kind is quite unsuitable to a young child. Cow's milk, if good, is perhaps the best substitute, but its composition shows, as will be seen, important points of difference which must be corrected, so far as that can be done.* The Caseine or Albuminoid element is in excess in cow's milk, and for that reason it must be diluted in the early infant stage with from two-thirds to a half of water. The Sugar is, however, less in cow's milk, and it is therefore well to add a little sugar, or preferably sugar of milk, to the bottle. The fats and salts are also relatively too much in cow's milk, but the dilution with water corrects this. Several of the foods prepared by our best firms are very good substitutes, but it is remarkable how one may suit one child exceedingly well, and altogether disagree with another. What is one child's food is another's poison without doubt. A food, however, that may be suitable enough is often prejudiced by giving too much of it at a time. In fact the rule of greatest importance in the feeding of infants is, *Don't over-feed.* My usual advice to mothers is, *Starve that child—if you can.* It is not a very elegant advice but it emphasises and perhaps impresses the fact that overfeeding is the great danger, and that the child itself will make its wants well known. For the first month or two, even an ounce of fluid (two tablespoonfuls) is quite sufficient at one time, and an interval of two hours between each such meal is usually suitable. If an infant is asleep it should not be wakened for food. It is nothing short of comical how correct time a properly tended child keeps—better than even the clocks, I sometimes have thought. If a child wakens before its time and cries, it is hungry, or it has an indigestion or a discomforting feeling of some kind. If there is reason to suspect indigestion, which may readily be known from the state of the excreta by the bowel, ten drops of castor oil should be given to clear away the offending indigested food —and less should be afterwards given at a time. If the child wakens from hunger the quantity should be increased a little. Rigid **Cleanliness** is absolutely necessary. It is quite surprising how difficult it is to keep a child's bottle perfectly sweet and clean. It is better to have two bottles in use. Immediately the child has finished the bottle should be thoroughly scalded and washed with a little soap powder, and even after that it should lie till the next time it is used, in a basin of cold water with just a drop or two of Condy's fluid. It is quite safe to say that with these few and simple precautions a healthy child will thrive and have nothing whatsoever the matter, and will give no trouble or anxiety to speak of. It cannot be too clearly or too widely understood that so-called Thrush, Ulceration, Putrid Sore Throat, Indigestion, Vomiting, Diarrhœa, Consumptive Bowels, *et hoc omne*, are the outcome and evidence always of shameful ignorance or neglect. The right **Clothing** for infants is wool, and everything else is wrong. This is true for children also, but in a less imperative degree. Woollen material is at the same time the warmest and the coolest clothing. If a child has a good woollen garment next the skin it matters very little what else it has or has not on. In cold weather

	Solids.	*Sugar.*	*Fat.*	*Caseine.*	*Salts.*
* Human Milk	111 =	43·5	26	39	1.3
Cow s Milk	136 =	38	36	55	6.9

a full and not tight-fitting garment, covering the extremities well, and fitting well up to the neck, is invaluable. In warm weather one loose woollen garment is, for warmth, all that is necessary. People are too fond of putting heavy, hot, headgear on children. It is far better to have nothing at all on the head than such things. It is better still to spend the money in warm stockings and in good shoes for the feet—which ought to be kept warm.

The Binder so commonly used is of doubtful advantage. One cannot readily see what good comes of it, but on the other hand there is reason to fear that it is not rarely an element in the cause of ruptures in weakly children, and that especially if they suffer from cough. After the first week or so it is better to leave it off. Infants and children should always be so clothed as to have complete freedom to move and exercise their limbs. They should also have as much fresh air as possible, of course guarding against chill or cold.

Pneumonia and Bronchitis in the case of infants and children becomes serious from the quickness with which the condition develops and goes its course. If, however, a child is not poulticed, and if there has been no previous exhausting illness, and if the digestion is healthy, I am fully satisfied that there is no danger to life from these conditions. A uniform temperature, a little castor oil with glycerine—from ten to thirty drops of each according to age, and a nice attention to nourishment, with perhaps a little medicine for the fever, is all the treatment that is necessary. None of the stronger drugs containing antimony, morphia, antipyrin, etc., ought to be given to a child. A little Ipecacuanha Wine with Ether and Glycerine is usually quite sufficient, but this matter is in the duty of the medical adviser. A warm bath at night if the child is not too weak is for good, and if a liniment has been used for the chest it is necessary in order to wash and cleanse the skin. Whatever good comes from liniments and oily preparations, they do harm if allowed to clog the skin. Careful ventilation is of extreme value in the lung diseases of infants and children. I have more than once found that a mere change of room gave the wished-for turn to a case in which there seemed to be a state of suspense after the acute stage was past. In the houses of the poor the position of closets should always be inquired into, and the state of the sanitary arrangements, for it is in vain that all else is attended to if this is at fault. The sensible method, however, is to prevent such illnesses by proper Clothing and Protection.

Measles is now the commonest contagion amongst children. It is not itself a dangerous form of illness, but some very nasty consequences too often follow on it. The first thing to do is to give the child a distinctly hot bath and put him into bed in blankets. After that it is well to give plenty of warm drink and a gentle dose of castor oil, and then interfere as little as possible. The first and chief danger is from the lungs. There is always, and as part of the disease, some bronchitis with measles, but it is not dangerous if cold is avoided. It will pass away in a day or two as the disease passes away—if all goes well. The other danger, though not nearly so common an accident, is the troublesome diarrhœa, for which the dose of castor oil is the best cure as the best preventive, combined with perhaps one or two drops of laudanum. The worst consequences follow, it may be, some time after seeming recovery, namely disease of the ears—a most troublesome and most damaging form of disease. I believe all this is avoidable by care at the time, and if people knew how much trouble they save themselves, and how much evil they can avert with care, they would surely give it. If the child is kept warm in bed for a week or ten days after the complete disappearance of the rash, and well fed, I am confident that almost all, if not all indeed, of these very evil consequences may be avoided.

Scarlet Fever is a serious disease and exceedingly infectious. It is one of the diseases which must be notified to the Medical Officer of Health, and the Sanitary Authorities have power to remove the patient from home, so that the disease may be isolated and not spread to others. It is most important that the disease should be recognised as early as possible. The earlier and most reliable symptoms are aching of limbs, vomiting, rapid pulse, sudden feverishness, "strawberry tongue," dry sore throat, and perhaps swollen glands of the neck. The rash may appear as early as the second day of illness, but the other symptoms, some or all of them, should be sufficient to make us watchful. In the event of a case having to be nursed at home—and this may be done with comparative safety if there is plenty of suitable accommodation and no other children—the nursing room should be cleared of furniture, except the bed and just so much as is necessary for resting convenience of the person in attendance. Carpets should be removed, and all such hangings as are likely to harbour dust; and even the bed should be as simply clothed as possible. In all diseases in which a rash comes out it should be encouraged and never checked by chill or cold. A distinctly hot bath every night I have found to be most useful; and if the skin is washed with a gentle carbolic soap, so much the better. In all feverish states, it is better to have no over-sheet and nothing but a woollen blanket covering the patient. A teaspoonful of castor oil with as much glycerine every other night is a valuable aid. Plenty of simple cool drink should be given. Milk and water, the water of barley, toast, or oatmeal, or simple home-made lemonade are good. If the throat is bad or the fever high, the medical adviser should be at once consulted. The great thing is to keep the temperature of the room uniformly warm, so that the activity of the skin is in no way checked. When pealing has begun the nightly hot bath with carbolic washing is necessary. It is a good plan to smear the skin, at this stage, lightly with carbolised oil, so that the fine particles of diseased and infectious skin may be made innocuous, and heavy also, thus preventing their flying about in the atmosphere of the room. For some considerable time after convalescence the child should be clothed warmly in wool; for, the function of the skin is weakened and any chill may suppress it altogether, so throwing too much work on the kidneys, which may cause them injury and lead to the serious condition known as Bright's Disease. A spray of Condy's fluid or of Chlorinated Soda will greatly help to freshen the room during the period of nursing, but no aid of this kind should be allowed to take the place of good ventilation.

Chicken Pox is as a rule not a serious matter. If the child is kept warm and in bed for two days, this, with perhaps a dose of fluid Magnesia is all that is necessary.

The Diarrhœa of Infants is often dangerous and always a troublesome and serious matter. The cause is, almost always, wrong nutrition. Indigestible, unsuitable, food becomes poison to a child, and the purging induced is Nature's endeavour to get rid of it. If it is still, however, continued, constant irritation of the bowel passes into inflammation and danger; but if the wrong food is discontinued, and the bowel gently cleaned out with a few drops of Castor oil, the trouble is at once at an end. Too much of right food is just as bad as wrong food, and calls for the same treatment. The bowel should be cleaned out and put at rest till it has quite recovered its tone and function, and then the feeding should be rather under than over what the child can easily digest. Remembering this always, that indigestion from too much food or from unsuitable food is the great cause of disturbance—other causes may be kept in mind. The nervous disturbance which accompanies teething may be part cause in a troublesome diarrhœa, but if the bowel is kept

clean and at rest, not alone is the trouble from diarrhœa lessened or avoided, but the nervous disturbance also, which is always a risky element, is diminished. There is good reason to believe that excessive heat and excessive cold may determine a very troublesome diarrhœa in children. The one and the other seems to paralyse the digestive system, and I have found that in hot weather an excellent aid to the cure of diarrhœa is a cold sponging of the whole body once or twice a day; and if cold has been the cause, a hot bath is of the highest value as an aid. Perhaps the most important advice that can be given regarding diarrhœa is not to let it go on too long. A few hours of it is far too much, a few days may be, and too often is, fatal.

HEALTH NOTES.

The Mackintosh: its Use and Abuse.—A word of caution is offered by a writer in the *Lancet* as to the use and abuse of this serviceable, but when improperly employed, dangerous article of clothing. When once a mackintosh is put on to defend the body from wet, it should on no account be taken off until the wearer has not only taken shelter, but is in a position to change his clothes. What a covering of oiled silk does for a wet rag in surgery—namely, convert it into a poultice—the mackintosh does for the clothes of its wearer. The insensible perspiration which finds a way of escape through ordinary clothing is kept in by the waterproof, and the clothes are saturated with moisture. A very few minutes will suffice to render the underclothing "damp" under a mackintosh, particularly if either the wearer perspires freely, or the weather be what is called "muggy" as well as wet. When, therefore, the wearer of a mackintosh takes off that article of clothing because if has ceased to rain, he is in the position of a person who has damp clothes on, and if he sits in the saddle, or walks home, or rides in an open trap, he is more likely to take cold than if he had not used the mackintosh at all. If therefore, we say, a mackintosh is once put on, it should on no account be removed until the clothes can be changed or dried by a fire without reduction of bodily temperature. The use of a mackintosh is to protect a man from a severe storm of rain. His clothes *must* be damp if he wears one of these protectors. The sole gain from using it is to render the moisture warm instead of cold, and to prevent loss of heat by evaporation. If the mackintosh be removed, evaporation commences immediately, with all the consequent risks of that process.

Chills: their Causes and Consequences.—A person in good health, says the *Lancet*, with fair play, easily resists cold. But when the health flags a little and liberties are taken with the stomach or the nervous system, a chill is easily taken, and, according to the weak spot of the individual, assumes the form of a cold, or a pneumonia, or it may be a jaundice. Of all causes of "cold," probably fatigue is one of the most efficient. A jaded man coming home at night from a long day's work, a growing youth losing two hours' sleep over evening parties two or three times a week, a young lady heavily "doing the season," young children at this festive season overfed, and with a short allowance of sleep, are common instances of the victims of "cold." Luxury is favourable to chill-taking; very hot rooms, soft chairs, and feather beds create a sensitiveness that leads to catarrhs. It is not, after all, the "cold" that is so much to be feared as the antecedent conditions that give the attack a chance of doing harm. Some of the worst "colds" happen to those who do not leave their house or even their bed, and those who are most invulnerable are often those who are most exposed to changes of temperature, and who by good sleep, cold bathing, and regular habits preserve the tone of their nervous system and circulation. Probably many chills are contracted at night or at the fag end of the day, when tired people get the equilibrium of their circulation

disturbed by either overheated sitting-rooms or underheated bedrooms and beds. This is especially the case with elderly people. In such cases the mischief is not always done instantaneously, or in a single night. It often takes place insidiously, extending over days, or even weeks. It thus appears that "taking cold" is not by any means a simple result of a lower temperature, but depends largely on personal conditions and habits, affecting especially the nervous and muscular energy of the body.

Sunstroke.—The condition brought about by sunstroke, says a writer in the *Lancet*, is an exaggerated form of the disturbance occasioned by entering too suddenly the "hot" room of a Turkish bath. The skin does not immediately perform its function as an evaporating and therefore cooling surface, and an acute febrile state of the organism is established, with a disturbed balance of circulation, and more or less cerebral irritation as a prominent feature of the complaint. Death may suddenly occur at the outset of the complaint, as it has happened in a Turkish bath, where the subject labours under some predisposition to apoplexy, or has a weak or diseased heart. It should suffice to point out the danger and to explain, by way of warning, that although the degree of heat registered by the thermometer, or the power of the sun's rays, do not seem to suggest especial caution, all sudden changes from a low to a high temperature are attended with danger to weak organism. The avoidance of undue exercise is an obvious precaution on days marked by a relatively, if not absolutely, high temperature. We direct attention to this matter because it is obvious the peculiar peril of over-heating the body by exertion on the first burst of fine weather is not generally realised. It is forgotten that the increased temperature must be measured by the elevation which has recently taken place, not the number of degrees of heat at present recorded. The registered temperature may be more or less than that which occurred a year ago; but its immediate effects on the organism will be determined by the conditions which have preceded it and the violence of the change.

Early Rising.—The proper time to rise, says the *Lancet*, is when sleep, properly so called, ends. *Dozing* is not admissible from any reasonable or health point of view. The brain falls into the state we call sleep and the other organs of the body follow it. True sleep is the aggregate of sleeps. In other words, sleep, which must be a natural function —that is, physiological instead of pathological, or induced by disease or drugs —is a state which consists in the sleeping or *rest* of all the several parts of the organism. Sometimes one and at other times another part of the body as a whole may be the least fatigued and so the first to awake, or the most exhausted, and therefore the most difficult to arouse. The secret of good sleep is—the physiological condition of *rest* being established—to so work and weary the several parts of the organism as to give them a proportionally equal need of rest at the same moment. The cerebrum or mind-organ, the sense organs, the muscular system, and the viscera should be all ready to sleep together, and, so far as may be possible, they should be equally tired. To wake early and feel ready to rise, this fair and equal start of the sleeper should be secured; and the wise selfmanager should not allow a drowsy feeling of the consciousness or weary senses, or an exhausted muscular system, to beguile him into the folly of going asleep again when once his consciousness has been aroused, After a very few days of self-discipline the man who resolves not to "doze"—that is, to allow some still sleepy part of his body to keep him in bed after his brain has once awakened—will find himself, without knowing how, an "early riser."

Gymnastics for Girls.—Dr. John Holm writing to the *Lancet* says:—The whole question whether gymnastic exercises are good or bad depends upon whether the system practised is a sound

one or the reverse, and, further, whether it be properly applied to meet individual exigencies. This stands quite apart from sex, for as much harm can be done to the male as to the female by ill-advised or excessive exercises. The practice of gymnastics has been left too much in the hands of those unacquainted with the structure and functions of the body, hence the evils which have arisen; and instead of harmonious development being the sole object, as it should be, of the gymnast, this or that exercise is given without definite aim, and often for the sake of mere display. Exercises should be directed to the equal development of all parts of the body, and kept within the compass of the vital power of the individual. If, on the contrary, certain sets of muscles are brought into play, either solely, or in excess to the exclusion of others, the proper balance is not maintained. Certain parts are made unnecessarily strong at the expense of others neglected, and when, added to this, the exercises are in excess of strength, undue strain is placed upon the heart and lungs. In this way nutrition, instead of being increased, becomes distributed unequally, and when the evil passes beyond a given point, even serious disease of internal organs may be caused. The exercises one sees ordinarily in vogue are much too exclusively directed to act on the flexors of the trunk and on the muscles of the arms, including the pectorals and the capsular muscles of the shoulder. On the other hand, the trapezii, rhomboidei, and extensors of the spine, except so far as they are used indirectly or in climbing, are too much neglected, their more important physiological function of keeping the spine erect and the scapulæ drawn well backwards being almost overlooked. The respiratory muscles also are hardly ever called into play except by indirect action, and the legs are but seldom exercised sufficiently. It is from these points being overlooked that harm is so often done, especially to the weakly, by unscientific gymnastics; but if these errors are avoided and harmony of development alone kept in view, gymnastic exercises can only be productive of good, giving increased strength, suppleness, and better carriage. A more equal distribution of vascular and nerve force is also induced with greater respiratory power, setting up a generally healthier functional condition of the whole body. While a sound system of physical education is in the highest degree desirable for both sexes, the want is not so urgent in the male as in the female, owing to the greater activity of the sports and occupations of the former. The feeble condition of circulation so commonly existing in girls and women, and manifested in their cold hands and feet, is, in the majority of cases, entirely remediable by a little judicious exercise, and thus an important factor in the production of disease may be removed. The conditions I have indicated as necessary to rational gymnastics are fully found in Ling's Swedish system, which is so well devised that, while the exercises are equal to the needs of the strongest, they are so exactly graduated as to be fully suitable to those who are weak.

The Clothing of Girls.—One of the first principles in dress, says the *Lancet*, is that the clothing should so cover the body as to maintain it in all parts, as far as possible, at an equable temperature. How is this principle observed in the attire of a child of five or six years old? The arms are commonly bare from the shoulders, and the child can exhibit upon those limbs the familiar effects of external cold upon the circulation of the surface. The lower limbs also are covered by a short and scanty skirt, and by meagre petticoats separated from the extremities they are supposed to warm by an encircling ring of cold air. From the united effects of unsuitable material and inconsiderate application, it comes to pass that the little girl of modern days wears more clothes than she needs, and is saddled with a burden that, while it impairs the free use of the limbs, involves, at the same time, a fair amount of needless muscular effort. Linen, it is un-

necessary to say, is, from its active properties as a good heat-conductor, a very unsuitable substance to be worn next to be skin, especially in a climate subject to abrupt changes of temperature. In the clothing of young girls, then, some, woollen fabric should be worn next to the skin, and should clothe the entire body as evenly as possible. The dress should be suitably long, and should be so made as to be suspended from the shoulders, and not from the waist. The petticoat also should be attached to an under-bodice, which, like the dress, should receive its attachment from the shoulders. The stockings should be suspended from this bodice, and socks should be entirely discarded as affording but a partial covering to the limbs. The neck, again, should never be left wholly uncovered. The ornamentation of the dress should be as scanty as possible, and should aim at making the least possible addition to the weight of the attire.

How to test of Purity of Water.—For persons who cannot command chemical analysis, the following tests are recommended as being generally available and reliable:—**Colour.**—Fill a bottle made of colourless glass with the water; look through the water at some black object; the water should appear perfectly colourless and free from suspended matter. A muddy or turbid appearance indicates the presence of soluble organic matter in suspension. It should be "clear as crystal." **Odour.**—Empty out some of the water, leaving the bottle half full; cork up the bottle and place it for a few hours in a warm place; shake up the water, remove the cork and critically smell the air contained in the bottle. If it has any smell, and especially if the odour is in the least repulsive, the water should be rejected for domestic use. By heating the water to boiling, an odour is evolved sometimes that otherwise does not appear. **Taste.**—Water fresh from the well is usually tasteless, even though it may contain a large amount of putrescible organic matter. Water for domestic use should be perfectly tasteless, and remain so even after it has been warmed, since warming often develops a taste in water which is tasteless when cold. If the water, at any time, has a repulsive or even disagreeable taste, it should be rejected. **Heisch's Test for Sewage Contamination.**—The delicacy of the sense of smell or taste varies greatly in different individuals; one person may fail to detect the foul contamination of a given water, which would be very evident to a person of a finer organisation. But if the cause of a bad smell or taste exists in the water, the injurious effect on health will remain the same, whether recognised or not. Moreover, some water of very dangerous quality will fail to give any indication by smell or taste. For these reasons sanitarians attach special importance to Heisch's test for sewage contamination or the presence of putrescible organic matter. The test is so simple that any one can use it. Fill a clean pint bottle three-fourths full of the water to be tested, and dissolve in the water a teaspoonful of the purest sugar—loaf or granulated sugar will answer—cork the bottle and place it in a warm place for two days. If in twenty-four to forty-eight hours the water becomes cloudy or muddy, it is unfit for domestic use. If it remains perfectly clear it is probably safe to use.

Table of Weight for Age and Height.—The rate of growth for young children varies greatly at different periods of infancy, and follows laws of its own. In the first two years after birth a child should gain 20 lb. in weight, and 10 in. in height. The chief increase in growth and weight is in the first year, 13 lb. or 14 lb. of the gain in weight being in the first year, and 7 lb. or 8 lb. in the second. The third year, also, is one of active growth, the first dentition is completed, and the child often gains 5 in. in height, with 5 lb. to 6 lb. in weight. From three to ten years of age, a more uniform increase proceeds, at the rate of about 5 lb. a year in weight, and 3 in. in height. Unsuitable food, defective teeth, bad hygiene, and the

Table of Children's Heights and Weights.

Age.	Common Height.	Extreme Measurements.		Avge. Hght.	Avge. Wght.	Extreme Weight.		Common Weight.
	ft. in.	Highest.	Lowest.	in.	lb.	Highest.	Lowest.	Stones.
At birth.		22 in.	16 in.	20	7	11 lb.	5 lb.	About ½
1 year	2 4	32 „	23 „	28	21	25 „	20 „	„ 1½
2 „	2 8	36 „	28 „	32	28	30 „	26 „	„ 2
3 „	3 0	39 „	33 „	36	31	34 „	28 „	„ 2½
4 „	3 3	41 „	35 „	38	35	40 „	30 „	„ 2½
5 „	3 5	45 „	37 „	41	40	43 „	37 „	„ 2¾
6 „	3 7	48 „	42 „	44	44	51 „	38 „	„ 3
7 „	3 9	51 „	43 „	46	48	56 „	40 „	„ 3½
8 „	3 11	52 „	44 „	48	52	62 „	42 „	„ 4
9 „	4 0	54 „	46 „	51	56	68 „	46 „	„ 4½
10 „	4 3	56 „	48 „	53	62	72 „	50 „	„ 4½
11 „	4 6	59 „	50 „	56	70	82 „	56 „	„ 5
12 „	4 9	64 „	51 „	59	80	93 „	60 „	„ 5½

Average Weight of Girls.

Age.	Stone.	lbs.
5	2	12
6	3	1
7	3	6
8	3	10
9	4	1
10	4	6
11	4	13
12	5	8
13	6	5
14	7	0
15	7	8

State board of health report, Boston, Mass., U.S.A.

Average Weight of Boys.

Age.	Stone.	lbs.
5	3	8
6	3	12
7	4	1
8	4	4
9	4	9
10	4	13
11	5	3
12	5	9
13	6	0
14	6	8
15	7	5

From British Association Anthropometric Committee's Report.

Average Weight of a Woman.

Feet.	Inches.	Stones.	lbs.
4	10	7	0
4	11	7	4
5	0	7	7
5	1	7	12
5	2	8	2
5	3	8	9
5	4	9	2
5	5	9	9
5	6	9	13
5	7	10	8
5	8	11	4

Compiled from Dr. Hutchinson's Tables.

Average Weight of a Man.

Feet.	Inches.	Stones.	lbs.
5	2	9	0
5	3	9	7
5	4	9	13
5	5	10	2
5	6	10	5
5	7	10	8
5	8	11	1
5	9	11	8
5	10	12	1
5	11	12	6
6	0	12	10

Compiled from Dr. Hutchinson's Tables.

various infantile ailments at any time check nutrition, so that the weight of 65 lb. and the height of 54 in., or 4 ft. 6 in., is not always attained at ten years of age. Up to this time, sex makes very little difference; girls grow as fast as boys, and often increase as much in weight. Some of the highest figures in both respects are among girls. At twelve and thirteen some girls are as tall as boys, and many weigh as much; but growth sooner ceases.

LIFE INSURANCE.

Life Insurance.—Next to the duty of providing for one's family during life, comes that of making some provision for their necessities after one's death. Where one's means are not sufficient to render it unnecessary, insurance offers the simplest and best way of making this provision, and insurance is now made so easy and inexpensive that there is no excuse for its neglect. Insurance may be made in several ways. The simplest form is by the payment of a sum of money quarterly, half yearly or annually throughout life insuring the payment of a certain sum to one's representative after one's death. These are called Whole Life Policies.

Whole Life Policies are of two kinds, those sharing and those not sharing in the profits of the company. The appended tables (p. 355-6) show the amount of the premiums to be paid annually to assure one hundred pounds payable at death as charged by some of the principle companies. Under table A the insurer does not share in the profits, under table B he does. For obvious reasons the premiums payable under table A are lower than those payable under table B.

Profit Sharing may be made in several ways. The profit may be added to the value of the policy and paid at death, it may be applied to the reduction of the annual premiums, or to limiting the number of future premiums, or to changing a whole term policy into an assurance payable on attaining a certain age, or when earned by such a policy to shortening the term at which it is to mature, or it may be handed over immediately as a cash payment. All offices do not offer quite the same facilities, nor are the rates and conditions the same in every case, but generally it may be taken that the profits earned under the profit sharing tables of a company represent a certain value which will be allowed for in transforming the policy from any one table of the company to any other, and naturally the more deferred this payment the larger the amount placed to the credit of the assured. Profits added to the policy for payment at death not only increase the value of the policy to the extent of the sum added but increase the earning power of the policy by the same amount. This will be made quite clear by the following example from the tables of the North British and Mercantile Insurance Company. Example:—Policy for £1000, effected in 1853. After the division in 1880 the £1000 had increased by compound bonuses to £1,410.10.0. In 1885 bonus at 29/- per cent. per annum was declared, and upon £1,410.10.0 £102.6.0. Raising the amount of Insurance to £1,512.16.0. In 1890 bonus at 29/- per cent. per annum was declared, and upon £1,512.16.0 £109.13.6. Raising the amount of Insurance to £1,622.9.6. Although a complete valuation takes place once in five years only, this company allows a prospective, or intermediate bonus to all participating policies which become payable between dates of division, and thus the assured participate, in effect, in an *Annual Division* of Surplus. The value of such policies for various purposes the following example from the tables of the Scottish Widows Fund Mutual Life Assurance Society will show. Under a policy for £1000, effected in 1855, payable on the death of a person aged 35, at an annual premium of £29.1.8—**The Family have enjoyed,** for 39 years, the protection of an assurance, which has increased annually from £1000 to £1859. **The Member may be**

relieved of all future premiums by converting the policy into a paid-up one (entitled to profits) for £1620. **He may borrow,** on security of the policy, any sum up to £1130. **He may surrender** the policy to the Society for the sum of £1194. In taking a bonus as a cash payment the assured leaves his policy at the value it held before the bonus was declared and looses the opportunity of adding both to the value and to the earning power of his policy. Still there are many cases in which it may be very convenient to realise a sum of money upon one's policy without reducing the amount of the original insurance. Of this the following from the tables of the North British and Mercantile Insurance Company is an illustration. Policy for £1000 opened in 1851, at the age of 30. The age in 1891 was 70, and for the surrender of the reversionary bonus additions of £661.16.1 the company allowed a payment in cash of £456.18.2, leaving the original insurance of £1000 intact. Examples of the other forms of application of bonuses are given in the tables of the various companies.

Endowment Assurances are those made for the payment of a certain sum on the attainment of a given age, or earlier in case of death. Premiums are paid in the same way as on whole life policies and insurances may be effected to share, or not to share, in profits as the case may be. The only difference in this case is that a higher rate for premium is charged to cover the earlier payment of the sum assured. Fifty, fifty-five, sixty, and sixty-five are the ages at which such insurances are usually made payable, but the companies are always ready to arrange for special cases pro rata.

Terminable Premiums are those paid for a given number of years to effect an insurance which may be paid at death or on attaining a certain age. These may be 10, 15, 20, or more in number according to arrangement, the annual premium being more or less according to the number of the payments.

Short Period Assurances are those effected to cover the risk of death within one, three, five, seven, or more years. Under this arrangement a young man of twenty years of age can insure in the North British and Mercantile Company for one year for 17/6, for three years for 18/1 per annum, for four years at 18/10 per annum, for seven years at 19/9 per annum, and for ten years at £1.1.6. per annum. Other ages in proportion.

Joint Life Assurances, are assurances made on the lives of two or more persons for the benefit of the survivor. The rates charged for such assurances may be judged from the following, taken from the tables of the North British and Mercantile Insurance Co. Example.—Two persons of the ages of 25 and 30 may assure £100, payable to the survivor, for an Annual Premium, during their joint lives, of £3.1.9 without Profits, or £3.10.4 with Profits.

Ages not exceeding		Without Profits.			With Profits.		
		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
20	20	2	12	9	2	19	6
	25	2	15	1	3	2	11
	30	2	19	4	3	7	8
	35	3	4	11	3	13	3
	40	3	12	4	4	1	10
	45	4	2	7	4	12	9
	50	4	16	4	5	7	4
	55	5	15	3	6	7	2
	60	7	1	5	7	14	5

Endowments for Children, are insurances made on behalf of children whereby they become entitled to receive a given sum at a given age. The following rates of annual payment are quoted by the Standard Assurance Company as necessary to secure £100 payable on a Child of any of the Ages under mentioned attaining to the Age of 18 or 21.

Age next Birth-day.	Annual Premiums, except the first, Returnable in the Event of Death before the given Age is attained.					
	To be paid at Age 18.			To be paid at Age 21.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1	4	12	1	3	12	9
2	5	0	2	3	18	5
3	5	9	4	4	4	10
4	5	19	5	4	12	0
5	6	12	0	5	0	0
6	7	6	3	5	9	1
7	8	3	1	5	19	7
8	9	3	4	6	11	9
9	10	8	2	7	6	0
10		—		8	2	10
11		—		9	3	1
12		—		10	7	11

Endowment Assurances may be effected with or without the return of premiums in the event of the child dying before attaining to the age specified, a lower premium being charged in cases where they are not liable to be returned. As will be seen above when endowments are effected "with returns" in the Standard office, all premiums except the first are returned in the event of the child dying before reaching the specified age, and some other offices follow the same rule. The "Gresham", the "Royal" and other companies return the whole of the premiums in such an event but without interest. The "Royal" effects endowment insurance on the lives of children at a lower rate than either of the companies named.

Annuities, either immediate or deferred, may be arranged for with many insurance companies; immediate by the payment of a lump sum, and deferred by the payment of annual premiums for a given number of years. **Immediate Annuities,** on one or more Lives, are granted as follows. A husband and wife aged respectively 65 and 60 may, for each £100 sunk, secure an Annuity of £7.0.0 during their joint life and the life of the Survivor, or an Annuity of £12.17.8 ceasing at the death of either. An immediate annuity of £10 can be purchased on the life of a man aged 30 for £198.0.5, on that of a woman of the same age for £217.7.10. **Survivorship Annuities,** upon one life after the death of another, may also be secured. For Example.—A husband aged 30 years may secure to his wife aged 25, a Survivorship Annuity of £10, for an Annual Premium during their *joint life* of £3.3.6 without return of the Premiums paid in the event of his being the survivor. **Deferred Annuities,** or **Pensions,** to commence at any specified age, may be secured, either with or without return of Premiums should death occur before commencement of the Annuity. For Example.—A man aged 30 may secure an Annuity of £10 to commence on his attaining the age of 60, for an Annual Premium of £1.14.11, without return of Premiums to his heirs in the event of his not arriving at 60. Similarly, a woman aged 27 may secure an Annuity of £10 commencing at age 65, for an Annual Premium of £1.0.0 (non-returnable), or £1.9.8 (returnable). The above are from the tables of the North British and Mercantile Insurance Co.

Old Age Pensions may be secured from many Insurance companies under favourable conditions. The scheme of the North British and Mercantile Insurance Co. embraces several valuable options. Under **Scheme A. 1. A fixed income** of known amount is secured. There is no trouble or anxiety at any time regarding Investments. 2. **The Policy-holder may withdraw** at any time before the Pension commences to accrue, receiving back as Surrender Value the whole of the premiums paid after the first year, with simple interest at 2½ per cent. 3. **The Pension is non-forfeitable.** A Policy-holder who desires to cease further payment may, instead of closing the contract by accepting the cash surrender value, elect instead a fully-paid Pension of reduced amount, proportioned to the number of premiums

received. Example.—Age at entry 30—Pension £100 per annum commencing at age 60—Annual Premium, £24.2.6. After 10 years the Policy might be surrendered for a cash payment of £244.5.4, or exchanged for a fully-paid Policy securing $\frac{1}{8}$ths of £100 or £33.6.8, commencing at age 60—without further payment. 4. **Should death occur** before the Pension-age, 95 per cent., of the premiums paid, together with simple interest at 2½ per cent., are returned by the Company.

ANNUAL PREMIUM TO SECURE A PENSION OF £10.

Scheme A.

Age last Birthday.	Pension to commence at Age 60.			Pension to commence at Age 65.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
30	2	8	3	1	11	3
31	2	10	9	1	12	9
32	2	13	6	1	14	3
33	2	16	6	1	16	0
34	2	19	9	1	17	10
35	3	3	4	1	19	9

Under Scheme B no Return of premium is made in the event of death before the Pension-age, nor is any Cash Surrender Value guaranteed, in view of which the insurance is effected at a lower cost. At any time, however, after payment of two years' premiums the Policy may, on application, be converted into a fully-paid one for a Pension proportioned to the number of premiums paid. Example.—A Policy effected at age 30 securing a Pension commencing at age 60, might after payment of ten years' premiums be converted into one securing $\frac{1}{8}$ths of the Pension originally fixed, without further payment.

ANNUAL PREMIUM TO SECURE A PENSION OF £10.

Scheme B.

Age last Birthday.	Pension to commence at Age 60.			Pension to commence at Age 65.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
30	1	14	11	1	0	6
31	1	16	11	1	1	7
32	1	19	1	1	2	8
33	2	1	6	1	3	11
34	2	4	1	1	5	3
35	2	7	0	1	6	8

Family Settlement Policies are now issued on the life of the husband, guaranteeing, after his death to pay to his widow five per cent. per annum on the principle so long as she lives, and after her death to pay 3½ per cent. to the representative of the family until the youngest child becomes 21 years of age. Thus, a Husband, aged 35 next birthday, whose Wife is 25 next birthday, may insure his life for £1000 at an Annual Premium of £28.16.8, payable during the whole of his life, or £39.5.0 limited to 20 payments. Should his Wife survive him, the Company will pay interest thereon during her life at the rate of 5 per cent., or £50 per annum. At the death of the Survivor of Husband and Wife, the sum assured of £1000 will either be at once paid over, or will be held, bearing interest at 3½ per cent., until the youngest child attains 21—as the Father may have at the outset directed. This plan has the advantage of enabling the husband who is presumably the better qualified to invest the results of his own policy in the interests of his wife and children. The figures above are from the tables of the North British and Mercantile Insurance Company.

TABLE OF EXPECTATION OF LIFE.

The following Table showing the Expectation of Life from 11 to 79 years of age is quoted from the tables of the United Kingdom Temperance and General Provident, Institution.

Age.	Expectancy. Years.	Age.	Expectancy. Years.
11	48	46	23
12	47	47	23
13	46	48	22
14	45	49	21
15	45	50	21
16	44	51	20
17	43	52	19
18	42	53	19
19	42	54	18
20	41	55	17
21	40	56	16
22	40	57	16
23	39	58	15
24	38	59	14
25	37	60	14
26	37	61	13
27	36	62	13
28	35	63	12
29	35	64	12
30	34	65	11
31	33	66	11
32	33	67	10
33	32	68	10
34	31	69	9
35	31	70	9
36	30	71	9
37	29	72	8
38	29	73	8
39	28	74	7
40	27	75	7
41	27	76	7
42	26	77	6
43	25	78	6
44	25	79	6
45	24		

TABLE (A).

Showing the amount of premium to be paid annually to assure one hundred pounds payable at death as charged by six of the principal companies.

WITHOUT PROFITS.

Age.	Scottish Widows Fund. Funds £12,872,934	Prudential Insurance (ordinary). Funds £11,150,948	North British and Mercantile. Funds £9,144,615	Standard Life Assurance. Funds £7,978,337	Gresham Life Assurance. Funds £5,752,263	Royal Insurance Company. Funds £5,141,592
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
21	1 12 11	1 15 0	1 13 9	1 12 10	1 13 5	1 13 8
22	1 13 9	1 15 10	1 14 7	1 13 4	1 14 3	1 14 4
23	1 14 8	1 16 10	1 15 6	1 13 11	1 15 0	1 15 0
24	1 15 7	1 17 10	1 16 6	1 14 7	1 16 0	1 15 8
25	1 16 7	1 18 11	1 17 6	1 15 3	1 17 0	1 16 8
26	1 17 8	1 19 11	1 18 7	1 16 0	1 18 0	1 17 8
27	1 18 9	2 1 2	1 19 8	1 16 11	1 19 3	1 18 8
28	1 19 10	2 2 4	2 0 10	1 17 10	2 0 3	1 19 8
29	2 0 11	2 3 6	2 1 11	1 18 10	2 1 5	2 0 8
30	2 2 0	2 4 7	2 3 0	1 19 6	2 2 8	2 1 8
31	2 3 0	2 5 9	2 4 1	2 0 8	2 4 0	2 2 8
32	2 4 2	2 6 11	2 5 3	2 1 7	2 5 3	2 3 8
33	2 5 4	2 8 2	2 6 5	2 3 0	2 6 8	2 5 0
34	2 6 8	2 9 7	2 7 9	2 4 2	2 8 3	2 6 4
35	2 8 0	2 11 0	2 9 2	2 5 6	2 9 10	2 7 8
36	2 9 5	2 12 6	2 10 8	2 7 0	2 11 5	2 9 0
37	2 11 0	2 14 2	2 12 2	2 8 8	2 13 0	2 10 8
38	2 12 7	2 15 10	2 13 10	2 10 4	2 14 10	2 12 4
39	2 14 2	2 17 7	2 15 6	2 12 1	2 16 10	2 14 0
40	2 15 11	2 19 4	2 17 3	2 14 0	2 18 10	2 15 8
41	2 17 7	3 1 2	2 18 11	2 15 11	3 0 10	2 17 8
42	2 19 3	3 3 0	3 0 8	2 17 11	3 3 2	2 19 8
43	3 1 1	3 4 10	3 2 6	3 0 2	3 5 8	3 1 8
44	3 3 5	3 6 10	3 4 5	3 2 6	3 8 2	3 4 0
45	3 5 10	3 8 11	3 6 5	3 5 0	3 10 10	3 6 4
46	3 8 5	3 11 2	3 8 7	3 7 8	3 13 10	3 9 0
47	3 11 2	3 13 8	3 11 0	3 10 7	3 16 8	3 11 8
48	3 14 0	3 16 4	3 13 7	3 13 5	3 19 10	3 14 4
49	3 17 0	3 19 5	3 16 6	3 16 5	4 3 3	3 17 4
50	4 0 2	4 2 9	3 19 9	3 19 7	4 6 10	4 0 8
51	4 3 7	4 6 5	4 3 4	4 3 0	4 10 8	4 4 0
52	4 7 2	4 10 4	4 7 3	4 6 7	4 14 8	4 7 8
53	4 11 0	4 14 6	4 11 1	4 10 5	4 18 10	4 11 8
54	4 15 1	4 19 0	4 15 5	4 14 6	5 3 5	4 15 8
55	4 19 6	5 3 9	5 0 0	4 18 10	5 8 5	5 0 0
56	5 4 2	5 8 11	5 4 4	5 3 6	5 13 5	5 4 8
57	5 9 1	5 14 6	5 8 10	5 8 5	5 19 0	5 9 8
58	5 14 4	6 0 5	5 13 8	5 13 8	6 4 10	5 15 0
59	6 0 0	6 6 4	5 18 5	5 19 2	6 11 3	6 0 8
60	6 6 0	6 12 3	6 3 1	6 5 0	6 17 10	6 7 0

Funds quoted from reports to Dec. 31, 1895.

TABLE (B).

Showing the amount of premium to be paid annually to assure one hundred pounds payable at death as charged by six of the principal companies.

WITH PROFITS.

Age.	Scottish Widows Fund. Funds £12,872,934	Prudential Insurance Company. Funds £11,150,948	North British and Mercantile. Funds £9,144,615	Standard Life Assurance. Funds £7,978,387	Scottish Provident Institution. Funds £9,357,527	United Kingdom Temp.&Gen. Funds £6,041,494
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
21	2 3 1	1 18 10	1 19 1	1 18 9	1 16 3	1 18 4
22	2 3 11	1 19 10	2 0 1	1 19 9	1 16 9	1 19 4
23	2 4 9	2 0 11	2 1 2	2 0 9	1 17 2	2 0 4
24	2 5 7	2 2 0	2 2 3	2 1 10	1 17 7	2 1 5
25	2 6 6	2 3 2	2 3 5	2 2 11	1 18 0	2 2 7
26	2 7 6	2 4 5	2 4 8	2 4 1	1 18 6	2 3 10
27	2 8 6	2 5 8	2 6 0	2 5 3	1 19 2	2 5 0
28	2 9 7	2 7 0	2 7 4	2 6 6	1 19 11	2 6 4
29	2 10 8	2 8 4	2 8 7	2 7 9	2 0 8	2 7 7
30	2 11 9	2 9 6	2 9 10	2 8 11	2 1 6	2 8 10
31	2 12 11	2 10 9	2 11 1	2 10 1	2 2 6	2 10 0
32	2 14 2	2 12 1	2 12 5	2 11 4	2 3 5	2 11 4
33	2 15 5	2 13 6	2 13 10	2 12 8	2 4 6	2 12 9
34	2 16 9	2 15 0	2 15 5	2 14 1	2 5 7	2 14 3
35	2 18 2	2 16 8	2 17 0	2 15 8	2 6 10	2 15 7
36	2 19 9	2 18 4	2 18 6	2 17 3	2 8 2	2 17 6
37	3 1 3	3 0 2	3 0 2	2 18 11	2 9 8	2 19 3
38	3 3 0	3 2 0	3 2 0	3 0 8	2 11 3	3 1 1
39	3 4 6	3 3 11	3 4 1	3 2 6	2 12 11	3 3 0
40	3 6 3	3 5 11	3 6 1	3 4 5	2 14 9	3 4 11
41	3 8 2	3 7 11	3 7 11	3 6 3	2 16 8	3 6 11
42	3 10 0	3 9 11	3 9 11	3 8 2	2 18 8	3 8 11
43	3 12 0	3 12 0	3 12 0	3 10 2	3 0 11	3 10 11
44	3 14 1	3 14 3	3 14 4	3 12 3	3 3 3	3 13 1
45	3 16 4	3 16 6	3 16 7	3 14 6	3 5 9	3 15 5
46	3 18 7	3 19 1	3 19 1	3 16 10	3 8 5	3 17 11
47	4 1 1	4 1 10	4 1 11	3 19 5	3 11 5	4 0 8
48	4 3 7	4 4 10	4 4 10	4 2 3	3 14 8	4 3 7
49	4 6 11	4 8 2	4 8 3	4 5 5	3 18 1	4 6 11
50	4 10 7	4 11 11	4 11 11	4 9 0	4 1 7	4 10 6
51	4 14 8	4 16 0	4 15 5	4 12 10	4 5 6	4 14 7
52	4 18 11	5 0 5	4 18 11	4 17 0	4 9 5	4 18 11
53	5 3 6	5 5 0	5 2 9	5 1 5	4 13 5	5 3 6
54	5 8 5	5 9 11	5 6 9	5 6 1	4 17 8	5 8 4
55	5 13 8	5 15 4	5 11 2	5 11 2	5 1 11	5 13 8
56	5 19 3	6 1 0	5 15 10	5 16 7	5 6 4	5 19 3
57	6 5 4	6 7 3	6 0 9	6 2 5	5 10 11	6 5 4
58	6 11 10	6 13 9	6 5 11	6 8 7	5 15 9	6 11 10
59	6 18 4	7 0 5	6 11 1	6 14 10	6 1 0	6 18 4
60	7 4 9	7 6 11	6 16 2	7 1 0	6 6 7	7 4 9

Funds quoted from reports to Dec. 31, 1895.

THE LAW OF WILLS AND TESTAMENTS.

Wills.—A Will is defined to be "The just sentence of our will touching that which we would have done after our death." (1) It must be "*just*" meaning lawful, solemn, and complete; (2) it must be "*the sentence*", that is the advised purpose or destination of the testator's mind; (3) it must be "*of our will*", that is "*of our free will*", not urged by violence or threats, or misled by fraud; (4) it must take effect after our death, not before. Lastly—to be valid in England—it must be duly executed in accordance with the law of England, or of the land in which it is made; and all wills made in England bearing date on or after January 1, 1838, must be executed in accordance with the Will's Act (1 Vict. c. 26). A "*codicil*", in the modern acceptation of the term, is "an addition made by the testator and annexed to, and to be taken as a part of, a testament, being, for its explanation or alteration, or to make some addition to, or else some subtraction from the former disposition of the testator," and as such it becomes part of the will, the two together making but one testament. Every will or codicil is revocable as long as the testator lives. Provided a will or codicil is properly executed it does not matter what words are used so as they are sufficient to pass the property; but every will ought to appoint an executor or executors and also contain a clause disposing of the residue of the testator's property, after enumerating the specific legacies or bequests, otherwise complications constantly arise. This is the case even though the testator may think that he has so completely disposed of all his estate that there is no residue left to dispose of. For example, a man makes his will ten years before his death bequeathing—as he thinks—all his property to the persons he desires to take it. Between that date and his death, he acquires other property which he forgets to dispose of specifically, and often it does not occur to him that he will leave a balance at his bankers, if not savings out of income. These things go to make a residue, and after paying debts, legacies, and funeral expenses, etc., there is frequently a sum of money over, constituting such residue. If this is not disposed of by means of a residuary clause, there is an intestacy with respect to it, with the result sometimes that it goes in a manner directly opposed to the testator's wishes.—Again, if no executor is appointed, no probate can be obtained and there are constant disputes resulting too frequently in the estate being squandered in law, as to who is, or is not, entitled to what is termed a grant of "administration with the will annexed." The obvious course to be adopted to avoid these complications is for no man or woman ever to attempt to make his or her own will, nor to get it made for them by anyone but a duly qualified lawyer. It is almost incredible how many thousands of pounds go annually into the pockets of lawyers, simply because testators will make their own wills, or get them made for them by clergymen, doctors, school-masters and other irresponsible persons, who think they understand that which they know nothing about. The shilling will form sold by the law stationers, is also a prolific source of revenue to the legal practitioner, as the person using it constantly makes a muddle of it. All persons who are not idiots, lunatics, or persons imbecile from disease, old age, or drunkenness, are capable of making wills. Even a will made by a lunatic during a lucid interval is valid. But a testator must not only be in a condition to know what he is doing, but he must know and approve of the contents of the document he is executing. So as has been seen, a will obtained by undue influence, force or fraud, is invalid. The term "*undue influence*" as applied to wills is commonly misunderstood. No amount of mere persuasion or working on the affections of a sick or dying person will amount to "*undue influence*". It must be something more, that is,

an influence destroying free will, and amounting to force and fraud. It is often a difficult question to decide, when people have made their wills whilst sick or dying, whether they fully understood what they were about or not. Therefore it is the part of wisdom for persons to make their wills whilst in good health. A person who knows he or she is going to take a material benefit under the will of another person, should under no circumstances be induced to make that will, but should get it done by somebody thoroughly disinterested, as wills, made by persons interested, are always open to suspicion.—Married women may dispose of their separate estate by will, except so far as this right may be limited by any marriage settlement.

The most important part of a will is its execution, as, if any of the formalities required are neglected, the will is invalid. Here again the safest, and often the cheapest course in the long run is to assume that you do not know how to execute your will and call in a lawyer to show you how to do it. The execution of wills in England is now regulated by Sec. 9 of the Wills Act (1 Vict. c. 26) as explained by 15 Vict. c. 24 sec. 1. (commonly called "Locke King's Act"). These statutes provide that every will shall be signed "by the testator, or by some other person in his presence and by his direction; and such signature shall be made or acknowledged by the testator in the presence of two or more witnesses, present at the same time, and such witnesses shall attest and shall subscribe the will in the presence of the testator, but no form of attestation shall be necessary." All these formalities must be strictly observed. The testator must actually sign in the presence of both witnesses and they must be in the room all three at the same time, and all three sign in each other's presence. Any thing short of this, renders a will invalid. Sec. 11 of the Wills Act is in the following terms:—"Provided always * * * that any soldier, being in actual military service, or any mariner or seaman being at sea, may dispose of his personal estate, as he might have done before the making of this Act." The terms "soldier" and "mariner or seaman" include all members of these professions from the highest to the lowest. The practical effect of this section is that subject to the Navy and Marines (Wills) Act, 1865 (28 and 29 Vict. c. 72), which applies only to inferior officers and ordinary seamen, and was passed to prevent the numerous frauds to which seamen are peculiarly liable, almost any document, however executed, emanating from the classes of persons mentioned above, is good as a will. By the Act 24 and 25 Vict. c. 114, wills of British subjects made out of England proper or Ireland is good if made according to the law of the place in which it was made, or according to "the laws then in force in that part of Her Majesty's dominions where 'the testator' had his domicile or origin." The Wills Act applies to England and Ireland but not to Scotland, or any other part of Her Majesty's dominions, each of which has its own laws as to this as well as to other matters. A will or codicil once executed can only be revoked by some writing declaring an intention to revoke it and executed in the same manner as a will or codicil is required to be executed, "or by the burning, tearing, or otherwise destroying the same by the testator, or by some person in his presence and by his direction, with the intention of revoking the same." "Burning or tearing" must be of such a nature as practically to destroy the will; "otherwise destroying" means destroying by some act of a like nature. It is, therefore, not enough to draw a pen through the signatures of the testator or attesting witnesses, or both, and to write "null and void" across the will or codicil. Nor is it enough to partially obliterate a will or codicil. Cutting the signatures right off has, however, a sufficient revocation. It must be borne in mind that these acts must be done with the intention to revoke. If done by accident, or when the testator was non-

compos., they are of no avail and the will or codicil can be proved by a copy.—A will accidentally lost may be proved by a copy. "Obliterations and interlineations" in a will or codicil are of no effect, unless made before execution, or unless the will or codicil was re-executed after they were made. Unless it can be shown that this is so, probate will be granted of the will, or codicil, as far as possible, as it stood without the alterations or obliterations.—The usual course is for the testator and witnesses to initial such alterations at the time of execution. A will or codicil once revoked, can only be subsequently revived by some writing showing an intention to revive the same and executed in the same manner as a will or codicil. Sometimes a testator makes a will or codicil, revoking a previous will, and at his death both documents are in existence. If the later document should subsequently turn out from any cause to be void, the previous will will be valid, because it follows it has never been legally revoked.

Probate of Wills.—Every executor is entitled to probate of the will of which he is executor as a matter of course, thought he is not bound to act. He can, if he likes, renounce his right to probate, and file his renunciation in the probate Registry. Sometimes, where there are several executors, probate is granted to one of them, leave being reserved to the others to come in and prove afterwards.—If no executors are appointed by the will, or where the executors have renounced, a grant is made of "Administration with the will annexed." This is generally made to one of the legatees, as a rule the one having the majority of interest under the will.—There are certain differences between "Executors" and "Administrators" whether with or without the annexed. An executor being the nominee of the deceased is not bound to give any bond for the due performance of his duties, and, on his death his rights and liabilities pass at once to his personal representative without any fresh grant. On the other hand, every class of administrator has to give a bond to the judge of the Probate Division—usually to the amount of double the value of the estate—for the due execution of his duties, and if such administrator dies, a fresh grant is necessary. As soon as he is clothed with a grant of "probate" or "administration," an executor or administrator is entitled to deal with the estate and can sue or be sued, to the extent of any property passing to him under the grant. The subject of the liabilities of executors and administrators is too wide a subject to be treated of here, except in the most general terms. It is enough to say that they are responsible for the due administration of the estate. *To obtain probate or administration with the will annexed* (*if you object to the wiser course of employing a solicitor*), *you can go either to the Principal Probate Registry, at Somerset House, or to the District Probate Registry, for the district in which the deceased died, whichever you prefer. It is always wisest, to choose Somerset House, unless the distance from London is prohibitive. The Officials of the Probate Registries, whether in London or the country, are well known for their courtesy, and are not only bound to, but are always most willing to inform you at every step what you ought to do.*

Intestacy.—If persons die intestate their real estate, except as provided by the Intestates' Estates Act, 1890, passes to their heirs at law, whilst their personal property is distributed among their next of kin.

This act does not extend to Scotland. Anyone of the next of kin is entitled to take out letters of administration, but as a rule males are preferred to females and an elder to a younger relative. Where the claims of two applicants are equal the first in the field is usually preferred. Like an administrator with the will annexed an ordinary administrator has to give a bond for the due administration of the estate before he can get his grant, but when once clothed

with the grant, he is in the same position as an executor (See tit. *Probate of Wills*).

If the administrator die, a fresh grant is necessary, but the person entitled to it must be sought for not among the next of kin of the deceased administrator, but among those of the original deceased. *In order to obtain a grant of letters of administration follow the directions laid down tit.* "Probate of Wills."

TABLE
of the division of property of Intestates.

The following table shows the order in which distribution should take place, and the amounts to which each degree is entitled:—

If the intestate die, leaving wife and child, or children, his representatives take in the proportion following. One-third to wife, rest to child or children; and if children are dead, then to the representatives (that is their lineal descendants), except such child or children, not heirs-at-law, who had estate by settlement of intestate, or were advanced by him in his lifetime, equal to other share.

Wife only, no blood relations. Half to wife, other half to the Crown.

Wife, no near relations. Half to wife, rest to next-of-kin in equal degree to intestate, or their legal representatives.

No wife or child. All to next-of-kin and their legal representatives.

No wife, but child, children or representatives of them, whether such child or children by one or more wives. All to him, her, or them.

Children by two wives. Equally to all.

If no child, children, or representatives of them. All to next-of-kin in equal degree to intestate.

Child, and grand-child by deceased child. Half to child, half to grand-child, who takes by representation.

Husband. Whole to him.

Father, and brother or sister. Whole to father.

Mother, and brother or sister. Whole to them equally.

Wife, mother, brothers, sisters and nieces. Half to wife, residue to mother, brothers, sisters and nieces.

Wife and father. Half to wife, and half to father.

Wife, mother, nephews and nieces. Half to wife, one fourth to mother, and other fourth to nephews and nieces.

Wife, brothers or sisters and mother. Half to wife, half to brothers or sisters and mother.

Mother, but no wife, child, father, brother, sister, nephew or niece. The whole to mother.

Wife, and mother. Half to wife, half to mother.

Brother or sister of whole blood, and brother or sister of half blood. Equally to both.

Posthumous brother or sister, and mother. Equally to both.

Posthumous brother or sister, and brother or sister born in lifetime of father. Equally to both.

Father's father, and mother's mother. Equally to both.

Uncle's or aunt's children, and brother's or sister's grandchildren. Equally to all.

Grandmother, uncle or aunt. All to grandmother.

Two aunts, nephew and niece. Equally to all.

Uncle, and deceased uncle's child. All to uncle.

Uncle by mother's side, and deceased uncle or aunt's child. All to uncle.

Nephew by brother, and nephew by half-sister. Equally *per capita.* *

Nephew by deceased brother, and nephews and nieces by deceased sister. Each in equal shares *per capita*, and not *per stirpes.*

Brother and grandfather. Whole to brother.

Brother's grandson, and brother's or sister's daughter. All to daughter.

Brother, and two aunts. All to brother.

Brother, and wife. Half to brother, half to wife.

Mother, and brother. Equally.

Wife, mother, and children of a deceased brother or sister. Half to wife, a fourth to mother, and a fourth *per stirpes* to deceased brother's or sister's children.

Wife, brother or sister, and children of a deceased brother or sister. Half to wife, one fourth to brother or sister *per capita*, one fourth to deceased brother's or sister's children *per stirpes.*

Brother or sister, and children of a deceased brother or sister. Half to brother or sister *per capita*, half to children of deceased brother or sister *per stirpes.*

Grandfather, no nearer relation. All to grandfather.

By the Act 19 and 20 Vict. c. 94, all special *local* customs relating to intestates' estates are abolished.

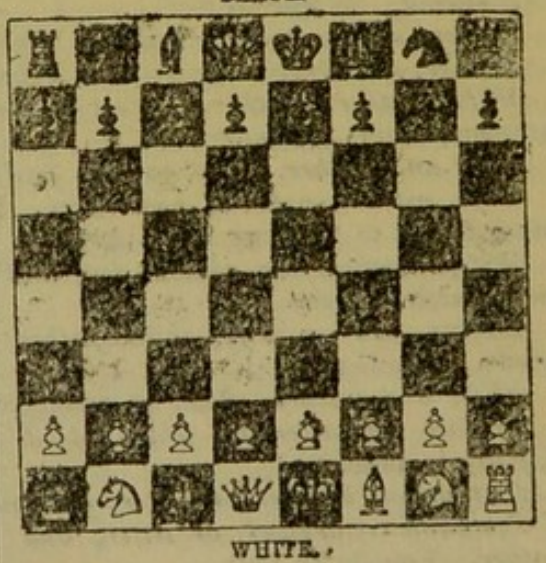
By the Intestates' Estates Act, 1890 (53 and 54 Vict. c. 29), it is enacted as follows:—

Sect 1. "The real and personal estates of every man who shall die intestate after the first day of September one thousand eight hundred and ninety leaving a widow but no issue shall, in all cases where the net value of such real and personal estates shall not exceed five hundred pounds, belong to his widow absolutely and exclusively."

Sect 2. "Where the net value of the real and personal estates in the preceding section mentioned shall exceed the sum of five hundred pounds, the widow of such intestate shall be entitled to five hundred pounds part thereof absolutely and exclusively, and shall have a charge upon the whole of such real and personal estates for such five hundred pounds, with interest thereon from the date of the death of the intestate at four per cent. per annum until payment."

HOME AMUSEMENTS.

Games.—Chess has been called the king of indoor games, and certainly it is the most intellectual of home recreations



Followed with the avidity it sometimes is, it becomes an all absorbing passion, in some cases a business from which

* That is, taking individually, and not by representation. Thus if A. die, leaving three brothers or sisters, they each take an equal part of his effects in his or her own right. But if either of them die, leaving children, his children would take his share *per stirpes*, that is *through him*, and not in their own rights.

relaxation and recreation must be sought in other and lighter employments. Without riding the hobby to death, however, an immense amount of healthy amusement may be got out of the game which may be made like all true recreations to strengthen and develop the faculties for dealing with the problems of life. In a work like this no more than elementary information can be given, but it is hoped that this may be found useful to beginners. **The Chess Board** is a square board containing within the one square 64 smaller squares of alternate colours as diagram.

Let the student take a chess board and place it before him. He must be careful to place it with a *white* square at the lower right hand corner, as, from long custom, this is the invariable rule. **Chess Men.**—There are sixteen men on each side, divided into eight pieces and eight pawns. The eight pieces are composed of the following:—


One King, which stands on the fourth square, counting from the white player's right hand. This brings each King on to a square of an *opposite* colour to itself; that is, the White King on to a black square, and the Black King on to a white square.


One Queen, which occupies the fifth square, counting from the White player's right hand. The Queens thus stand on squares of *like* colour to themselves; the White Queen being on a white square, and the Black Queen on a black square.


Two Bishops, which occupy the squares next to the King and Queen. That one nearest the King is called the King's Bishop; the other, the Queen's.


Two Knights, which occupy the squares next to the two Bishops; similarly, the Knight nearest the King is called the King's Knight; the other, the Queen's.

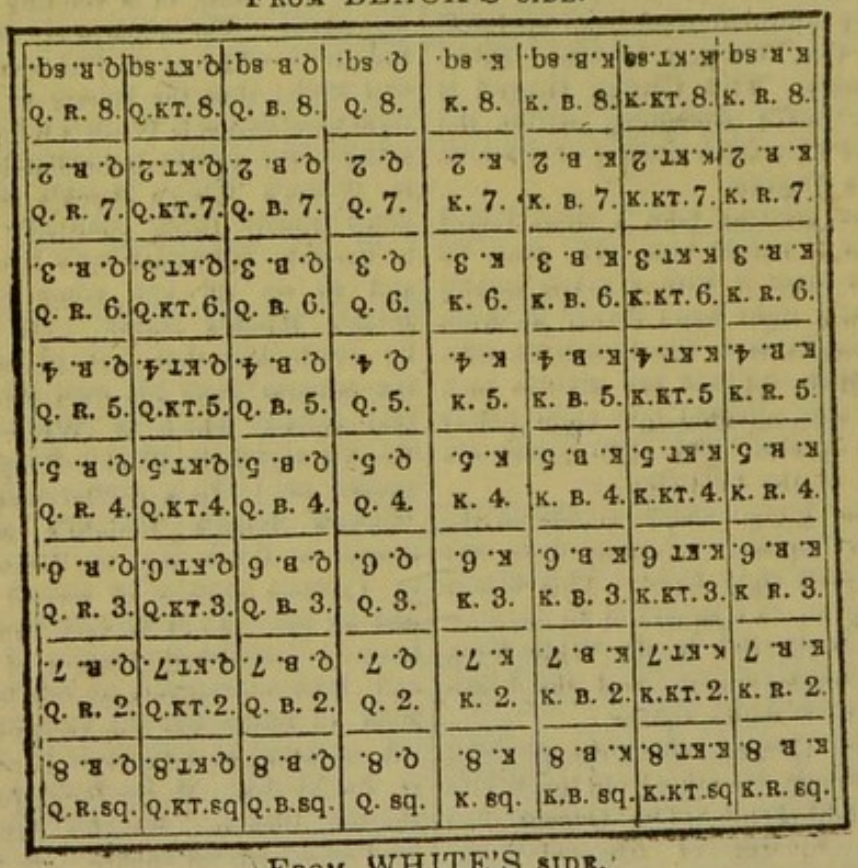

Two Rooks (or Castles), which occupy the two corner squares next to the Knights; the one nearest the King being the King's Rook, and the other, the Queen's.


In front of these superior pieces stand the eight Pawns. These are named after the pieces in front of which they stand, as the King's Pawn, the Queen's Pawn, the King's Bishop's Pawn, the Queen's Rook's Pawn, etc. **The Squares** running across the board are termed *ranks;* those running up and down, *files;* and those in a slanting direction, *diagonals.* The squares are named from the pieces which at starting occupied their first rank; thus the square at the lower right hand corner is White's King's Rook's square; the square immediately in front is White's King's Rook's second (the word square being omitted); the next in front is White's King's Rook's third, and so on till you come to White's King's Rook's eighth. (It must not be overlooked that each player reckons the squares from his own side, so that that square which is White's King's Rook's eighth is Black's King's Rook's square, etc.) In a similar way you get White's King's Knight's square, or second or third, etc.; or White's King's or Queen's square, or second or third, and so on. As it is very cumbrous to have to describe the names of the pieces and their movements at full length, we shall in future use the recognised English notation as follows:—K. for King. Q. for Queen. R. for Rook (or Castle). B. for Bishop. Kt. for Knight. P. for Pawn. sq. for square. ch. for check. dis. ch. for discovered check. doub. ch. for double check. Written in this way —King's Rook's Pawn becomes K.R.P., and Queen's Knight's square Q.Kt.sq. and so on. Let our students proceed at once to make themselves familiar with the names of the men and squares as thus given, and acquire quickness in setting up the men in correct order, and they will then be in a position to accompany us in our next lesson, which will be upon the moves and powers of the various men.

As, in order to read the moves correctly, it is all important for the learner clearly to understand the method of nameing the squares, we annex a diagram, with each square numbered from

both the White and the Black sides.

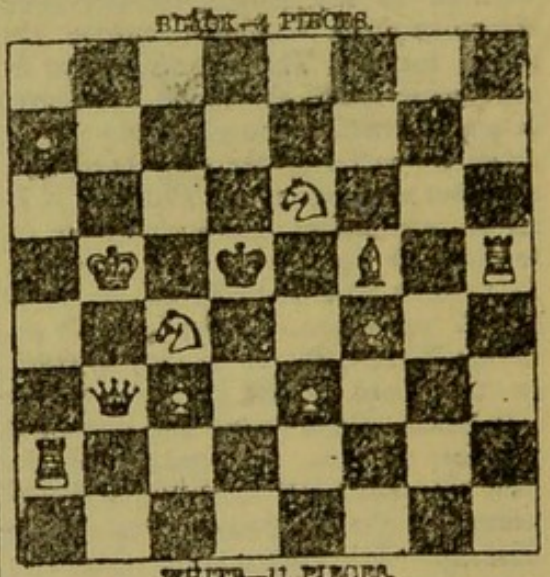
The Moves.—With the assistance of this diagram, and the instruction already given, it will be easy for the student speedily to remember the name of each square, whether counted from White's



or Black's side of the board, and we therefore now pass on to describe the moves of the various men. **The King.**—Although the King is the most important piece on the board, inasmuch as a successful attack upon him (as will be explained later on) involves the loss of the game, yet his moves are much more circumscribed than any other man except the Pawn. He moves only one square at a time, but that move can be made in any direction—that is, to any adjacent square, either forward, backward, sidewise, or diagonally. Place the King on his own square, and he can move to Q sq, K B sq, Q 2, K 2, or K B 2. Similarly, if he be placed on a centre square, he can move on to any of the eight adjacent squares. The King captures in the same direction in which he moves by the enemy's piece, on an adjacent square being removed, and the King being placed on the square. The King cannot move on to any square commanded by an enemy's piece, or, as it is technically called, he cannot move into check; neither can two Kings occupy adjacent squares. **The Queen.**—The Queen is, from the great range of her moves, by far the most powerful piece on the board. She, like the King, can move in any direction; but not merely to adjacent squares, but as far as the limit of the board will permit, provided no piece or pawn interrupts her march. Place her on her own square, and she can be moved to any of twenty-one squares, Q B sq, Q Kt sq, Q R sq, K sq, K B sq, K Kt sq, K R sq, Q 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7,

and 8 squares, Q B 2, Q Kt 3, Q R 4, K 2, K B 3, K Kt 4, or K R 5. Similarly, placed on a centre square, say Q 4 or 5, or K 4 or 5, and it will be found that she commands (that is, can be moved on to) no less than twenty-seven squares if there is no man in the way. The Queen takes in the same direction as she moves, by displacing the enemy's man and occupying the square herself. **The Rook.**—Next in importance comes the Rook. It moves in any direction—forward, backward, or sidewise—as far as the open board permits, but not diagonally. Place the K R on its own square, and it can move on to fourteen squares, namely, R's 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8, or K Kt sq, K B sq, K sq, Q sq, Q B sq, Q Kt sq, or Q R sq. Placed in any position on the board, it will be found that it commands neither more nor less than fourteen squares. It captures in the same direction as it moves, in a similar manner to the King and Queen. **The Bishop.**—The Bishop moves diagonally only, but to any distance. Place the K B on its own square, and it can move on to any of the following seven squares, namely, Kt 2, R 3, K 2, Q 3, B 4, Kt 5, or R 6. Placed on a centre square it commands thirteen squares. It captures in the same direction as it moves, and in a manner similar to the King or Queen. From the nature of its move, the Bishop can never leave the colour of the square on which it stood at first; therefore the W K B is always on a White square, and the B K B upon a Black one. **The Knight.**—Whilst the move of the Knight is one of the most beautiful upon the chess board, it is also the most difficult to describe, though not by any means difficult to acquire by a little practice. It may be described as a combination of the shortest move of the Rook with the shortest move of the Bishop; that is, one square in a straight direction —forward, backward, or sidewise—and one square in a diagonal direction. Place the K's Kt on his own square, and it can move on to the following three squares, namely, K's 2, B's 3, and R's 3. Placed on a centre square, say K's 4, it commands eight squares—K B 2, Kt 3, Kt 5, B 6, Q 6, Q B 5, Q B 3, and Q 2. It will be noticed that it invariably moves on to a square differing in colour from that it has just left; or, in other words, that it leaps from a White square to a Black one, and from a Black square to a White one. This peculiarity arises from the combination of the R and B moves. Place the Kt again on K's 4 (a White square), and it will be seen that the Rook's move brings it on to a square of a different colour (a Black one)—either K's 3, Q 4, K 5, or B 4—and then the Bishop's move keeps it on the same colour. It captures as it moves, in the same manner as the other pieces. It has one advantage possessed by no other man, and that is the power of leaping over any intervening piece or Pawn. For example, when the men are first set out in battle array, the only piece that can move without some of the Pawns first making an opening is the Kt, for he can at once spring on to B 3 or R 3, despite of the intervening Pawns. **The Pawns.**—The Pawn moves in one direction only, and that is straight forward, and that only one square at a time, with the exception of its first move, when it has the option of moving forward either one or two squares. Place the K's P on its square, and it can move either to K's 3 or 4. Placed on K's 4, however, it can only move to K's 5. Unlike the pieces, the Pawn does not capture in the same direction that it moves, but diagonally, like a Bishop, but one square only. Place a P at K's 4, and, whilst it can move to K's 5, it can only capture at Q 5 or B 5. The capture is effected as it is by the pieces, by removing the enemy's man and placing the Pawn in the vacated square. The Pawn has the privilege of claiming promotion as soon as it reaches the eighth square. This is done by its being exchanged for any piece—excepting a King—which the player may desire.

Terms used.—Having described the moves of the various men, we now proceed to explain the technical terms used in connection with the game. **Check.**—This term signifies that the King is attacked by one of the adversary's men. It is one of the very fundamental principles of the game that the King cannot be captured, and, therefore, when a move is made by which he is attacked, notice thereof must be given by audibly saying, "Check!" The King is now said to be "checked" or "in check," and this check must be at once parried. There are three methods by which this can be done. 1. By moving the King on to a square not commanded by any of the adversary's men. 2. By interposing a man between the attacking piece and the King. 3. By capturing the attacking man. Failing any of these methods of escape it is checkmate, and the game is lost. There are three descriptions of check: the "direct check," which is given by a piece or Pawn directly attacking the King; the "discovered check" or "check by discovery," which is given by a piece which, whilst it does not attack the King itself, yet, by its removal, uncovers the attack of another piece; and "double check," which is given by a piece directly attacking the King, and at the same time uncovering the attack of another piece. This last is the most dangerous of all the checks, as it cannot be parried by interposing a piece, thus lessening the available defences of the King. The annexed diagram illustrates these various methods of checking. In the first place let White play R to Q 2 and it is a *direct* check. The King cannot move out of check, as all the squares adjoining his present position are guarded by White pieces, or blocked by his own; neither can the R be taken, for no Black piece attacks it. Black has, however, one move to parry the check, and that is Q to Q 5, or interposing the Q as it is termed. Similarly White can play Q to Q sq. again giving *direct* check, to which Black can again only play Q to Q 5. Once more White can play P to R 8, becoming a Q, and again there is *direct* check, to which Black's only reply is Q to Q Kt 2. If a B instead of a Q had been claimed by White, the *direct* check would still have been given. If, however, White play Kt to Q 2 he gives a *discovered* check, that is, by so moving his Kt, he uncovers the attack of the Q upon the



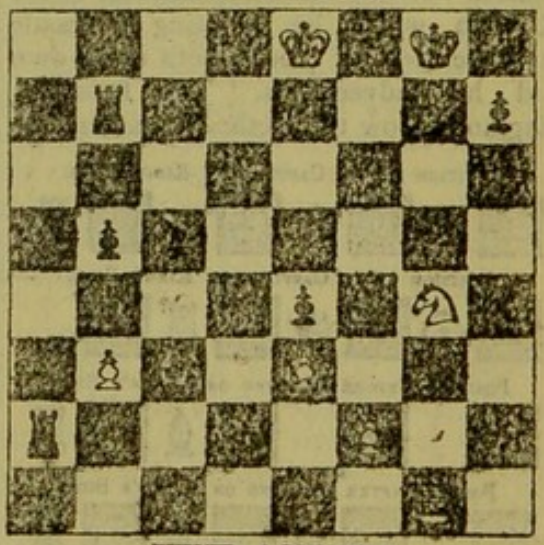
K, or in other words the Kt moving discovers the check by the Q. In reply to this move Black has once more only one move, that being P to B 5, or interposing the P. If White play B to R 7, Q 3, B 2, or Kt sq, there is again a *discovered* check, for the R now attacks the K. In reply, Black has three lines of play, namely, K takes Kt (at K 3), which is left unguarded by the removal of the B, or by playing the Q either to Kt 4, or K 4 interposing. If the B had gone to Kt 6, the Queen could only interpose at K 4; and if it had gone to Kt 4 or R 3 the K could not then capture the Kt, but, instead, could have moved to K 5 out of check. If, however, the B move to K 4, there is then given *double* check, for he directly checks the King himself, and at the same time discovers the check by the R, and the K must therefore move. He has two lines of escape, one by capturing the Kt at K 3, the other by capturing the B which checks him. **Checkmate.**

—As we have already said, when the King is put into check and cannot escape by any of the three ways pointed out above, he is *checkmated*, and the game is lost for his side. Referring again to the diagram, let White play P to K 4, and the K is in direct check, but it is now *checkmate*, for the K has no possible move, and the checking Pawn cannot be taken. Again, let White play Kt to Kt 6 and he gives *double* check, for the Kt checks, and has further discovered the check by the Q. Once more this is *checkmate*, for the K has no possible escape. It will be noticed that when the Kt was played to Q 2 discovering check, the P could interpose at B 5, but this move is of no avail now, for though it still parries the check from the Q, it leaves the check by the Kt still in force. This aptly illustrates what we have already said as to the extra danger of a double check.

Stalemate.—If it be a player's turn to move, and he has no Pawn or piece (including the K) that can legally move, and his K is *not* in check, it is *stalemate*, and the game is drawn. In the diagram before us, let White's Kt capture the Q, and it is *stalemate*, for the Black K has no square on to which he can legally move, and neither of his P's can move, one being blocked by their own K; the other by the White Kt. This power of stalemating is sometimes of great use in drawing games in desperate positions. If it were Black's turn to play in the position before us, he could force a stalemate, and thereby secure a draw, despite of the great odds against him. He plays Q to Q 2 ch, and the White K must go to R 5 or 6. Black now plays Q to Kt 4 ch, and whether the K or Q captures the Q, it is stalemate, for Black has no legal move. Let the student note that Q to Q Kt 2 ch would not draw, for White would not then move his K, but would play Kt to Kt 6, double-check, and mate!

Perpetual Check.—If a game is in such a position that one player can give a check which can only be parried by allowing another check to be given, and so on *ad infinitum*, the series of checks which can be so given is termed "perpetual check;" and if such player elect to give this series of recurring checks, the game is "drawn by perpetual check." It often happens that a game can be drawn in this manner when, from the great force possessed by one side, it would seem at first sight to be absolutely lost. We give such a position in the annexed diagram:—

BLACK—10 PIECES.



WHITE—6 PIECES.

Now in this position the disparity of the two opposing forces is very great, and indeed, were it Black's turn to play, he could at once give checkmate in several ways, as the student will easily perceive; but, let it be White's turn to move, and the game is only drawn. White plays Kt to R 6 ch, in reply to which Black can neither play P takes Kt, for that would discover the check from the R, nor K to B sq or B 2, for both these squares are commanded by the W K; there then remain, only K to R sq. White now plays Kt to B 7 ch, when the K must return to Kt sq, whereupon White again plays Kt to R 6 ch, and the game is drawn by perpetual check.

Castling.—This is a compound move of the K and either R, and can only be made once in a game. Ordinarily, as already explained, the K can only move one square at a time, but in effecting the compound move of castling he moves two squares

to either side of his own square, and to complete the operation the R is moved on to the square over which the K has just passed. The privilege of castling can only be exercised under the following conditions:—1. The K must not, at the time, be in check. 2. He must not have previously moved in the game. 3. The R, in conjunction with which he castles, must not have moved. 4. The K must not pass *over* or *on to* any square commanded by an adverse man. 5. All the squares betwixt his own and that of the R with which he is going to castle must be clear of pieces, both of his own and his adversary's. The following diagrams show the method of castling:—



It will thus be seen that, in castling on the King's side, the K moves to K Kt sq, and the R leaps over him to K B sq; whilst, in castling on the Queen's side, the K moves to Q B sq, and the R leaps over him to Q sq. **Doubled Pawn.**—When two Pawns of the same colour are on the same file, they are said to be "doubled," and the front one is called a "Doubled Pawn." In the diagram accompanying this lesson, the P's on Black's Q Kt's 4 and 5 are doubled. **Isolated Pawn.**—A P occupying any file without any P of the same colour occupying either of the adjacent files, is called an "Isolated Pawn." In the diagram the P's on White's Q Kt 3, and Black's K 5, are both isolated. **Passed Pawn.**—A P having no adverse P in front of it and beyond the range of attack of any adverse P at either side, is called a "Passed Pawn." In the diagram, the P's on Black's Q B 6, and K R 2, are both passed. **En Passant.**—To take *en passant* is a power possessed by a P at its fifth square, when an adverse P has just advanced two squares at its first move. The capture is effected by removing the adverse P and placing the capturing P on the square which the adverse P would have occupied had it moved one square only. This power can only be exercised on the move immediately following the adverse P's advancing two squares. On the diagram, if White were to play P to K B 4, Black could capture it *en passant* if he so please. This he would do by removing the W P from the board, and placing his own P on his K B 6 precisely as if the W P had moved only one square instead of two. The power of capturing *en passant* is restricted to the P's—no piece having the power of so capturing. **Doubled Rooks.**—When two Rooks of the same colour are posted on the same file or on the same rank, with no man intervening, they are said to be "doubled," and this is their strongest relative position. **The Exchange.**—If a player win one of his opponent's Rooks for one of his own Bishops or Knights, he is said to have "won the exchange." **Forking.**—"To fork" was the term originally applied when a P attacked two of his opponent's pieces at one time. It is now, however, extended so as to include the minor pieces when any one of them attack two pieces at the same time. **Pinning.**—When a piece is so situated that it alone interposes between its K and an attacking piece, it is said to be "pinned." If a piece stand between its Q and an attacking piece, it is also sometimes said to be "pinned." **Interposing.**—When the K or any superior piece is attacked and a man moves in between it and the attacking piece, the man so moved is said to be "interposed." It will be noticed that the piece so "interposing," is for the time being "pinned." **Open File. Open Rank.**—When an entire row of squares from Black's side to White's is clear of all men, it is termed an "oper

file." Similarly, when an entire row of squares from left to right is devoid of men, it is termed an "open rank." **Diagonal. Long Diagonal.**—A row of squares of the same colour running slantwise from the sides of the board to the top or bottom is called a "diagonal." The row of squares slanting from one extreme corner of the board to the other is called the "long diagonal." **Forced Move.**—A move which the player is compelled to make without any option on his part, as when he has only one move to escape from check, or when he has only one legal move on the board, is called a "forced move." **En Prise.**—This term signifies that a man is in a position to be captured by an enemy's man. The K is, however, never said to be "*en prise*," for when he is attacked, as already explained, it is "check." **Queening a Pawn.**—When a player is enabled to advance one of his Pawns to the eighth rank, he is entitled to change it for any piece of the same colour—except a King—he may choose. This is called *Queening* a Pawn. Of course a Queen is the piece most generally chosen, but there are positions when a weaker piece is preferable. In calling for a piece, it is not necessary that one should have been lost; hence there can be two or more Queens, or three or more Rooks, etc., of the same colour on the board at one time. **Opening.**—The early moves in a game form the *opening*. These are classified under various heads, such as the K Kt's opening, the K B's opening, the King's Gambit, etc., etc. **Middle Game.**—This term is applied to that stage of the game when the pieces having been brought fairly into action, are engaged in the general *mêlée*. **End Game.**—When the game approaches its termination, and the board is cleared of many of the pieces, it is termed an *End Game*. **Drawn Game.**—A *Drawn Game* is one in which neither player wins. As we have already seen, a game may be drawn by *Stalemate* or by *Perpetual Check*. It may also be drawn by neither player having sufficient force to effect check-mate, as a King and Bishop only, or a King and two Knights, etc. Again, a game may be drawn when one player, having sufficient force to win, has not the requisite skill to effect the checkmate within the fifty moves allowed by the laws of the game. It is also drawn when both players persist in repeating the same moves, or series of moves. Games are also usually drawn when both players possess equal force in the end game, such as K and Q against K and Q, or K and R against K and R, and so forth. **Gambit.**—A *Gambit* is an opening wherein one of the players sacrifices a Pawn or piece for the purpose of rapidly developing his own forces, and limiting the development of those of his adversary. As an example of a Gambit, place the men in order, and then move as follows:—

White.	Black.
1 P to K 4	1 P to K 4
2 P to K B 4	2 P takes P

This is now the King's Gambit accepted. The Pawn, advanced by White at his second move, is termed the *Gambit Pawn*. The capture of this Pawn by Black is called the "acceptance of the Gambit;" but if Black refuse to capture it, the opening then becomes a *Gambit declined*. From their nature, the Gambits give rise to the most sparkling and brilliant games on the board. **Open Game.**—An *Open Game* is one in which both players play for their first move either P to K 4, or P to Q 4. **Close Game.**—A *Close Game* is one in which one or both players do not play P to K 4 or P to Q 4 at the first move. The resulting games are more defensive in their character than those of the open game, and the pieces generally are more hampered in their movements than when a more open development is selected. **J'adoube.**—This expression signifies, "I adjust" or "I replace," and it, or some equivalent, must be used by a player before he touches a man to rectify its position on the board. **False Move.**—A *False Move* is playing a man to a square on to which he cannot legally

go—such as giving a R the move of a B, or a Kt the move of a P, etc.

Minor Pieces.—The Bishops and Knights are termed *Minor Pieces.*

Giuoco Piano.—This term, which literally signifies "soft movement," is applied to the following opening:—

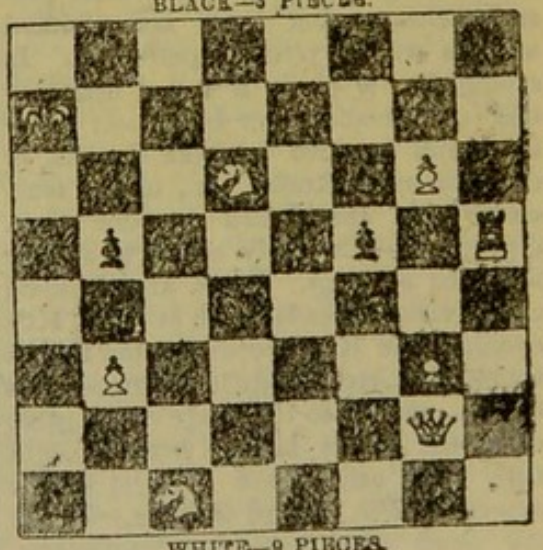
White.	Black.
1 P to K 4	1 P to K 4
2 Kt to K B 3	2 Kt to Q B 3
3 B to Q B 4	3 B to Q B 4

and White can now play 4th, P to Q B 3, or Castles, or P to Q 3, all of which moves are sound and good. The "Giuoco Piano" is one of the soundest openings on the chess board.

Fianchetto.—The name given to the opening formed by either of the players on his first move playing either P to K Kt 3, or P to Q Kt 3.

The Opposition.—This is a peculiar position of the two Kings, when they stand facing each other with one square between them, and that King which has last moved is said to have "gained the opposition." The value of the "opposition" is that the range of squares open to the other King is curtailed, which is often of the utmost importance in Pawn-end games, when it is absolutely necessary at times to be able to march the King up to the enemy's crown-head. Having once gained the "opposition," the method of maintaining it is very simple. Follow your adversary's move exactly; that is, retire, advance, or move from side to side, in exact opposition to him. Simple as such a series of moves look, it is upon a thorough knowledge of them that the winning or drawing of games often depend, and our young students cannot do better than practice the various moves over the board, noticing how the move of the one King must answer to that of the other, if the opposition is to be retained. It will be noticed that the power of keeping the opposition depends upon the equal freedom of the two Kings in movement. When one King has more freedom than the other through the presence of Pawns on the board, the opposition is often lost, and with it the game, for the one King, by making a move to which the other cannot make the correct reply, is thereby enabled to gain the opposition itself in its turn. Hence in deciding upon reducing a game to a Pawn-ending, not only must the chances of gaining the opposition be examined, but also whether it can be maintained when got. As it is important for the student to know whether he can gain the opposition or not, we give a simple rule to guide him in the matter. If the two Kings are on the same rank or file, with an even number of squares between them, he, whose turn it is to move, has the opposition or can gain it; but with an odd number of squares between them, he, who has just moved, has the opposition or can gain it. This can be put in another form by saying that when two Kings on the same rank or file stand on squares of the opposite colour, he, who has to move, has the opposition or can gain it; but when they stand on squares of the *same* colour, he, who has just moved, commands the opposition. When the two Kings stand neither on the same rank nor the same file, the same principle still holds good, and is applied in this manner. Look at the two squares, which are common to the respective rank and file, occupied by each King, and if *both* these squares

BLACK—3 PIECES.



WHITE—9 PIECES.

White to play, and mate in two moves.

are of the *same* colour as that occupied by the King which has just moved, he can gain the opposition; but if *one* or *both* are of a different colour from that of the square he occupies, he cannot gain it; but the adverse King, which has to move, can do so. **Terms used in Problems.**—As problems are now such a very prominent part of chess, we propose to finish our list of technical terms by giving those that are used in connection with problems and their solution.

Keymove.—The *Keymove* of a problem is White's first move in the solution. In the annexed problem by J. G. Cunningham (from *Design and Work* Tourney) the *Keymove* is B to K 7. **Variations.**—Every separate line of play on the second move, forced on White by altered defences on the part of Black, is a *variation*. In the problem before us there are four variations, thus:—

White.
1 B to K 7

Black.	White.
1 K to B 4 or K 6	2 Kt takes B P mate
if 1 K to B 6	2 Kt takes Kt P mate
if 1 K to K 4	2 Q to K 4 mate
and if 1 P to B 5	2 Q to Q 2 mate

It will be noticed that when Black plays K to K 6 or B 4 it is only one variation, not two, for White's mating move is always the same. **Sub-Variations.**—In problems longer than two moves, forced alterations of White's play on the third or subsequent moves are termed *sub-variations*. **Duals.**—When White, in reply to any particular defence of Black's, possesses two or more lines of play, such lines of play are termed *duals*, and are, more or less, flaws in the position. In the diagram place the W K at R 6 instead of R 7, and then play.

White.
1 B to K 7

Black.	White.	
1 K to B 4	2 Kt takes B P Kt takes Kt P	both mate

This power of moving in either of two ways on White's part is a *dual*.

Unsound Problems.—Unsoundness may arise from any of three causes, for example:—1. When mate can be given in fewer moves than those stipulated. 2. When mate can be given in the stipulated number of moves in more ways than one. 3. When mate cannot be given in the stipulated number of moves. The first and third forms of unsoundness demonstrate themselves. The second form, however, will be seen to be equally unsound, on a little reflection, for it is clear that the problem should have one solution and one *only*, therefore, if it have more than one it is unsound. In the diagram remove the Black P from K B 4, and White can play either 1 B to K 7 or B to K 3 ch, in each case mating next move. The problem would then have a double solution, and therefore be unsound. Again, remove the Black P at Kt 2, and White can play either 1 B to B 6 ch or 1 B to K 7, mating next move, and once more the problem would have two solutions and be unsound. Remove, however, a, Black P from either Q Kt 4 or Q Kt 5 and it will be found that mate cannot then be given in two moves, and the problem is then unsound, as having no solution in the stipulated number of moves. To prove a problem unsound is sometimes termed to "cook" it. The term is expressive but certainly not elegant. **Flight Squares.**—The squares open to the retreat of the attacked King. In the preceding diagram the Q B 4 and 6 and K's 4 and 6 are *flight squares*. **Clean Mate.**—When in the mating position each square round the mated King is commanded by one adverse piece only, the mate is said to be *clean*. In the diagram when K plays to B 6, and White mates by Kt takes Kt P, the mate is clean; not so, however, when he plays to K 6, and White mates by Kt takes B P, for Black's K 7 is commanded both by Kt and Q. **Sui-Mate or Self-Mate.**—This term is given to that class of problems when one side *forces* the other to give mate. **Conditional Problems.**—When any other stipulation is made than that of giving direct mate

in so many moves, the problem is said to be *conditional.*

The Game.—Our students having now acquired a knowledge of the technical terms used in connection with the game, and also having studied the moves and powers of the various men, we pass on to the actual game. Placing the men in order on the board each side has a double object in view—to checkmate his opponent and to prevent his opponent checkmating him, or, in other words, to attack and to defend. This attack and this defence commence from the first move made, and are continued throughout the game until the end. Checkmate, or the ultimate winning of the game, can only be brought about by one side acquiring a superiority of force; this superiority consisting in men, in position, or in both combined. When the latter is attained, the game may be generally forced. When the superiority is in position, only the finest play, as a rule, results. When the superiority is in men only, the game is often still critical, except that superiority be very marked. To form a good style of chess, therefore, it is essential to play for position, and that from the very commencement of the game. Strength of position arises from the mutual support of the various pieces engaged, their power of concentrated action, and the width of the field of battle their united efforts control. Weakness of position arises from want of mutual support in the pieces; from their cramping each other's range of action, and from the enemy's limitations to their combined efforts. It is evident that at the commencement of the game the positions are equal, except for the move. It will be seen that each position may be characterised as weak rather than strong, for the Pawns totally obstruct the action of the pieces, except the Knights. The great object, then, of each player is to bring about such a change in the relative position of his men that strength may take the place of weakness, and freedom of movement that of enforced inaction. That player, who the more quickly effects this desirable consummation, has already placed his feet in the path of victory. A little reflection will show that that player who attains to this freedom by moving each piece the fewest possible times is going the most direct road to attain his object. Hence the necessity, in the early development of the game, to seize the best possible square for the operations of each particular piece, and once having occupied such square, there to let it remain, whilst other pieces are, in their turn, brought into effective action. More games are lost from a forgetfulness of this plain principle than from any other single cause. Lured on by a seeming advantage, a premature attack is often set up, and this failing, as it needs must, when properly met, the whole future course of the game of the indiscreet player is surrounded with shoals and hidden dangers until shipwreck ends the disastrous voyage.

Openings.—The move most usually adopted by the first player wherewith to open the game, is P to K 4. In making this move, he has several objects in view. He intends, if possible, to set up a strong centre of Pawns, he opens a diagonal for his K B to enter the field of battle, and he also opens a path for the development of his Q. Black, in reply, has several recognised good moves—1 P to K 4 leading to the open game, which we will consider for some length—1 P to K 3, the French game, classed usually amongst the close openings, but which generally very speedily becomes quite open—1 P to Q B 4, the Sicillian defence—1 P to Q 4, the centre counter gambit. 1 P to K Kt 3, or P to Q Kt 3, the Fianchetto openings, the closest—but not therefore the best—at Black's command. We will first examine Black's reply—1 P to K 4, the ordinary form of the open game. He adopts this move from the very same considerations that influenced White. Like White, he is prepared, so far as he can, to occupy the centre of the board with his Pawns and to get his K B rapidly into play. In reply to this advance, White has many lines of play, such as 2 Kt to

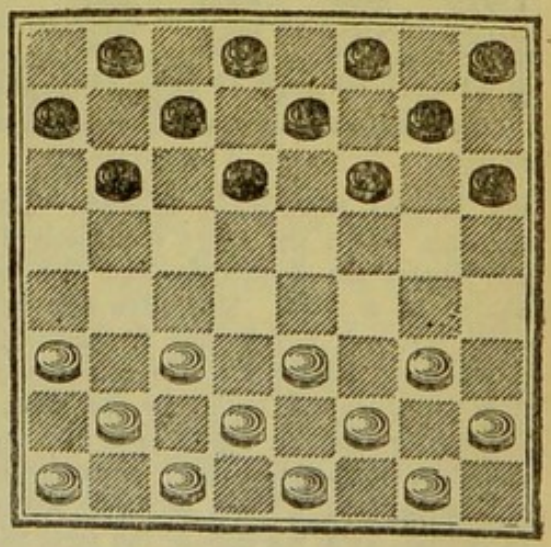
K B 3, 2 Kt to Q B 3, 2 P to Q 4, 2 B to B 4, 2 P to K B 4, etc. Of these, we will now follow 2 Kt to K B 3, or the K Kt's attack—one of the most frequently played on the board. By now advancing his K Kt, White threatens to capture Black's K's P. He also has got a piece into play on the K's side, and so made a step towards Castling, and he further has strengthened the possibilities of securing a strong centre of Pawns, for his Kt protects the Q's 4 square. The game now presents this form.

K Kt's Game.

White.	Black.
1 P to K 4	1 P to K 4
2 Kt to K B 3	

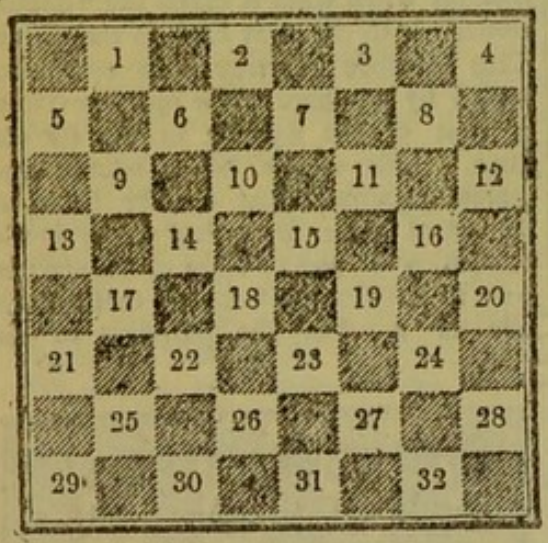
Black's defences to save the Pawn are 2 Q to K 2, 2 Q to B 3, 2 B to Q 3, 2 P to K B 3, 2 P to Q 3, and 2 Kt to Q B 3. If he prefer to set up a counter attack and leave the K's P to its fate, he has the following lines of play, 2 Kt to K B 3, 2 B to Q B 4, 2 P to K B 4, and 2 P to Q 4. The two first defences are both bad in principle, and, if ever adopted, will be found quite as bad in practice. 2 Q to K 2 may be dismissed at once, for, by playing the Q there, Black blocks up the K B, the Q does not occupy any great attacking position, and he has undoubtedly given White time. It is seldom good play to move the Q out very early in the game, as she becomes thereby the subject of attack, and time is lost by having to move her out of the range of the attacking pieces. It is true that by playing 2 Q to K 2, Black has protected his K's P, but at what an expense! He has placed the most powerful of his pieces on a square where she obstructs the action of the K B, and to some extent that of the K Kt, and he has not got any advantage from his move, except the protection of his K's P, and this could have been protected quite easily by other means, whilst his game in other respects would have been greatly benefitted. Recollect then, two points—never merely protect a piece or Pawn by the Queen if a weaker piece will do the same; never bring the Queen out early in the game except to strike a decisive blow.

Draughts.—The game of Draughts is simpler than that of chess, as it does not admit of so many variations, but there is ample room in it for the display of a large measure of foresight and skill. **The Board** used is the same as that used for chess but only half the squares are employed, the pieces being all placed on squares of one colour and being moved diagonally always passing to squares of the same colour. Either colour may be used, and the board is in correct position when what is called the "double corner" is to the right hand of the player. **The Double Corner** is the corner occupied by a square of the opposite colour to that of the squares in use for the game. This square being neutral the nearest approach that can be made to the actual corner by either player is the occupation of one or other of the squares next to it—that in front or that on the side of it. For the purposes of the



game this corner of the board is therefore a double corner and is so called. There are, of course, two double corners on the board, and their position is to the right hand of either player. **The Men**, or pieces, are round discs of wood or ivory of two colours, black and white,

or red and white, or of any two distinct colours. Of these there are twelve on each side, and the positions they occupy at the outset of the game are set forth in the preceding diagram. **Notation** is adopted to enable players to follow the game without actually having the board before them and also to enable positions to be described and moves indicated by numbers. The following diagram illustrates this, each square being numbered and being known by its number, so that a player used to the notation of the game would know at once the position of the men if the numbers of



the squares were given to him. **The Moves** which are taken alternately by the players are always diagonal and one square at a time. The *Men* can only move forward, but if they are successful in reaching the further side of the board they are crowned *Kings* by the placing of another man on top of them and they can then move diagonally in any direction one square at a time, provided always of course, as in the case of the men, that the square to which the move is sought to be made is not already occupied. **The Object of the Game** is to sweep the enemy's pieces from the field, or to so reduce the number of his warriors or so hem them in as to compel him to resign. A man may be taken when he occupies a square next to one occupied by the enemy whose turn it is to move, if the square on the further side of him is for the time being unoccupied. Suppose Black to occupy square 10 and White square 15, squares 6 and 19 being unoccupied. If it is White's turn to move he will pass his man over from square 15 to square 6, and remove Black's man from square 10 (off the board) having "taken" him. If it is Black's turn to move he will pass his man from square 10 to square 19 and remove White's man from square 15 having "taken" him. If there should be another white man on square 24 Black can pass over him to square 28 and remove White's man from square 24 also, this double movement being counted as only one move. In this way it is possible to take three pieces with one move. Suppose Black to occupy square 1 and White squares 6, 15 and 24. If it is Black's move he can hop over from 1 to 10, from 10 to 19, and from 19 to 28 and remove the three white pieces which occupied 6, 15 and 24. As the Kings can move backwards as well as forwards they are doubly formidable and under some circumstances can take a larger number of men. **The Terms used in Draughts** are not many, but they are important. When a man or King is in danger of being taken by the enemy he is said to be *en prise*. If he is left *en prise* the enemy is bound to take him. Should the enemy from oversight on intention omit to take him the enemy's piece is liable to be *huffed*, that is forfeited and taken off the board, or the enemy may be compelled to take the piece, choice between these alternatives lying with the player whose piece is *en prise*. *Standing the huff* is the term used when a player purposely makes another move instead of taking the piece *en prise*. Huffing does not count as a move, hence the term *huff* and *move* is used, and the player having *huffed* his opponent proceeds to make his own move. The rule as to huffing is important because a player will sometimes give a man to his opponent to secure a position whereby he can take two or three men. In such

a case it is in the opponent's interest to refuse the bait, but he is not at liberty to do so, and if he does, the other player can compell him to swallow it. **Rules.**—1. The board must be placed in such a position that each player will have the double corner to his right hand. (The double corners are represented by numbers 1 and 5, and 28 and 32 respectively). 2. Choice of colour may be decided by agreement or lot, but commonly colours are changed with alternate games. 3. First move may be determined by agreement or lot but should alternate in succeeding games. 4. A player touching a man, except for the purpose of adjusting it, must move it, provided a legal move can be made with it. If he moves it over the angle of a square he must leave it on that square. 6. A man placed *en prise* must be taken by the opponent. If left untaken by accident the other player has the option of huffing the defaulting man, of compelling him to do his duty, or of allowing to remain unmoved. 7. Five minutes is the limit allowed for considering a move, but when a piece is *en prise*, and there is only one way of taking, one minute is the maximum. Failure to observe this rule involves the forfeiture of the game unless otherwise agreed. 8. On making a false move the player must either replace the men and make a legal move or resign the game at the option of his opponent. 9. If a player, while playing, removes one of his own men from the board by mistake, he cannot replace it without the consent of his opponent who can refuse it or order it as he pleases. 10. A game may be declared drawn when: I. there are only two Kings on either side and neither player can force a win in twenty moves; II. when three or more Kings are opposed to two and the stronger player fails to win in forty moves. Notice must be given of the intention to count the moves, and each side must make the stiputated number. 11. In taking a piece or pieces the player must complete his move before he removes the pieces taken from the board. Should he fail to take all the pieces *en prise* he may be huffed. 12. Matches, unless otherwise agreed upon, should consist of an even number of games, that each player may have an equal number of first moves and on all points the decision of the umpire should be final.

Home Billiards.—Billiards, when played in a respectable club or private house, is a charming amusement; but the public billiard-room, connected with a tavern, with all the concomitants of drinking, petty betting, doubtful conversation, and doubly doubtful characters, is about as bad a place for a young lad to pass his evenings in as can well be imagined. It is a susceptible age at which the billiard mania is caught; the age when the jacket has but recently been transformed into the tail coat, when the cheeks are covered with a fluffy down, and the bass-voiced greenhorn thinks he knows twenty times as much of the world as his father, and whose beau-ideal of a man is too often that delightful companion and dangerous enemy of young men—the billiard-room captain; that incarnation of selfishness, whose end and aim in life is centred in betting and whiskey. The great art of keeping young men at home of an evening, is to make home agreeable. After a day's work in the City, some sort of relaxation is absolutely necessary, and of all known games billiards is the best; but then the table must be a good one, for the game, if not a game of skill is nothing. One of the chief difficulties of having a really good billiard table in a private house, is the want of a room for the purpose. This difficulty has been overcome by an invention of Messrs. Burroughes and Watts, the well-known billiard manufacturers, of Soho Square, who supply billiard tables and dining-room tables combined in one; and what is more to the point is that these billiard tables are no mere toys, but first-rate tables, fit for an expert to play upon. A dining-room table, 9 feet long by 5 feet wide, can be changed into a perfect billiard table, 8 feet by 4, in one minute, by simply removing the flaps and turning a handle. Of

course the billiard table has to be levelled when it first arrives, and if the floor be fairly firm, it will maintain this level always. The price of a table of this description, including balls, cues, rests, and everything, is thirty-six guineas, while smaller ones can be obtained cheaper. One of the best interchangeable dining and billiard tables is the 7 feet by 5 feet dining table. This makes a billiard table 6 feet by 4 feet and with accessories cost thirty guineas. The pockets, balls, cues, etc., are all full size, and a first-rate player can practise on this table the famous spot stroke, by which such big breaks are made. Of course the table lengthways is a perfect model of the end of a full-sized billiard table, as there are only pockets in the four corners. When boys grow up and go out into the world, it is best for them to have as much knowledge of games as possible. A young man does not like to say, "I am very sorry but I don't know how to play." The knowledge of billiards is far best acquired at home. The moral of this is, Have "Home Billiards."

Cards.—Card games are numerous and varied; the most popular are, Whist, Solo Whist, Cribbage, Napoleon or Nap, and Speculation. **Whist** is played by four people, who either cut for or otherwise arrange partners from among themselves. This done the partners take seats opposite to each other at a small table, each having an opponent to right and left. They then cut for deal and the player who cuts lowest for partners takes it as a right. The whole of the fifty-two cards are then dealt out to the players one at a time commencing with the player on the dealer's left and proceeding round the table until each player has thirteen cards, the fifty-second card which falls to the dealer being turned up that all the players may see it, and left on the table face upwards until after the first round, when the dealer takes it into his hand. The suit of which this card is one, is the trump suit. Many players prefer to cut another pack to determine the trump suit, in which case the last card dealt is not turned up. The players then sort their cards in suits and range them in order of value, which done the player on the left of the dealer leads a card and each player follows suit if possible, or if not either trumps the trick or throws away a card. The card of highest value, whether of the suit led, or of trumps played upon it, wins the trick, the lowest trump taking precedence of the highest card of any other suit. As a general rule the second player plays a low card, leaving it to his partner who plays last to win the trick, and the third player usually plays high in order to force the hand of the fourth player who must then play higher to win the trick. Each four cards so played form a trick. The winner of a trick also wins the lead. Six tricks have to be won before the winners begin to score. If they win seven tricks altogether they count one by tricks, if eight, two by tricks and so on. In **Long Whist** the players count "honours" according to the number of court cards of the trump suit they hold in their hands, in addition to the points they make by tricks in playing. If two partners have the four honours between them (the ace counts as an honour) they score four for them, if three, they score two, if only two, honours are said to be "divided" or "easy" and neither side scores honours. In long whist there are ten points to the game and these may be made by honour or tricks or both. When either side reaches the score of eight, either partner of the side which has scored eight, who may have two honours in his hand may, on it becoming his turn to play, appeal to his partner saying "can you one", which means in short "can you supply one honour". If the reply is in the affirmative the game is won, if in the negative it proceeds. When a side has scored nine points, honours cease to count for that side and they can only win by tricks. A Rubber is a set of three games, the winners of two out of the three being said to win the rubber. In **Short Whist** there are only five points to the game and honours do not count.

Solo Whist is a game which has proved a formidable rival to ordinary whist among card players of late years. It may be said to be a combination of Nap and Whist, and it partakes of the characteristics of both. It is played by four players and there are no set partners. The cards are dealt in threes till there are only four left which are dealt one to each player. The trumps are cut for before the start of the deal, or the last card turned up, but it will be explained further on how the trumps can be altered under certain conditions. The players, after looking at their cards, have to determine (1) how many tricks they could make with the assistance of a partner; (2) how many tricks they could make by themselves against the other three. The players then call in their turn as in nap, commencing with the player immediately on the left of the dealer. If he thinks he can make four tricks himself he says "I propose", and then anyone of the other players who think *he* can make four tricks may accept him, and the two players thus linked become partners and have to make together eight tricks. There is no change of position on the part of the players in consequence of two becoming partners, but the cards are played alternately, as in ordinary whist, and the rules of ordinary whist apply. We will presume that A and B have proposed and accepted. C by undertaking to make five tricks *himself* can by calling Solo overcall them. The game then resolves itself into Nap with thirteen cards each, only the first card does not determine the trumps which have already been selected as shown above. D, however, can overcall C and in order to do so has either to call (1) Abundance or (2) Declaration. (1) By calling abundance the player has to make *by himself*, against the other three, nine tricks, but he has also this important concession—he may make any suit he likes trumps, but he must declare the suit before the start of play. (2) Declaration is when the player undertakes to take the whole thirteen tricks by himself against the other three, he also having choice of the trump suit. It is needless to say that this latter is not very often seen. There are also two forms of Misere in solo whist, the first being played in the ordinary manner of misere at nap and the other being called Open Misere which means that, after the first trick is played, the cards of the player calling open misere are exposed on the table. The following is a list of the various emoluments attached to the successful negociation of the various undertakings and, though there are several systems of counting in vogue, will be found to be one of the best.

Proposer and acceptor each receives			2	from each opponent.
A player getting	misere	do.	3	do.
do.	open misere	do.	4	do.
do.	solo	do.	5	do.
do.	abundance	do.	9	do.
do.	declaration	do.	12	do.

Misere and Open Misere have the call in front of proposal and acceptation but below solo. If overtricks are made, for instance a player calling Solo getting seven tricks, the overtricks are counted one each.

Cribbage may be played by two, three or four players, but is usually played by two. It requires the use of a cribbage board though any other means of recording points will answer the purpose. In the ordinary or standard game five cards are dealt to each player, but some players prefer six or seven cards. Players should cut for deal in the first instance, taking the deal alternately afterwards. The player who cuts lowest is the dealer. As the deal gives a slight advantage the non-dealer in the first instance is allowed to score three points to establish a balance and start fair. The dealer having dealt five cards to his opponent and himself face downwards, both players examine

their cards and select two cards from the five which they place, still face downwards, on one side together to form the crib the alternate score of which belongs to the dealer. This having been done the non-dealer cuts the cards and the dealers turns up the top card of the lower portion of the pack, the card so turned up being called the turn-up card, or trump, and belonging for the purpose of scoring to both players. If the turn-up card is a knave the dealer immediately scores "two for his heels." If this is not scored before the dealer plays his first card it is forfeited. In counting for the purpose of scoring all court cards count as ten and the ace as one. Either player counts two for every exact fifteen made in playing and two for every exact thirty-one; he also counts two for every pair made in playing. If three similar cards are played in succession the player who plays the second and so makes a pair scores two, the player who plays the third counts six. If a fourth card of the same value is played the player scores twelve. A sequence of not less than three cards played scores one point each to the player making the sequence; thus, if a two, three and four are played the player who plays the four scores three, and if the other player adds a five, he scores four. In playing, the object of each player is to score as many as he can while playing the cards by making fifteens, thirty-ones, pairs and sequences. If the first player plays a 7 the second player will, if he has it, play an 8 and so, making 15, will score two on account of it, or if he has a 7 he will play that and score two for the pair. Of course in both cases the second player lays himself open to retaliation for if he plays an 8 to the first player's 7 while he scores two for making fifteen, he gives the first player the chance of playing a 6 or a 9 and scoring 3 for a sequence; on the other hand, if the second player makes a pair and so scores 2, he always presents an opportunity to his opponent of making triplets and so score 6. After the non-dealer has played the first card the players play alternately scoring as they make points until they reach the limit of counting which is thirty-one. If either player brings the counting to the exact number of thirty-one he scores two and his opponent leads off again, beginning to count again as for a second thirty-one. If the last player brings the total to any number short of thirty-one, and his opponent cannot play a card without exceeding that number, he must play again, if he can do so, without exceeding that limit; if he cannot he scores one for last card and the remainder of the cards are not played except in six card cribbage when his opponent leads off for another round. To put this more concisely, the last card scores two points if it carries the counting exactly to thirty-one, and one point if it falls short of that number. After all the cards have been played, the players proceed to count what they have in their hands, the non-dealer counting and scoring first. Each player is entitled to score two for every fifteen he can count by combining his cards without using the same cards twice in the same connection, using the turn-up card as one of his own. He can also score one point each for a sequence of three in his hand, or four if the turn-up card continues the sequence of his hand at either end, and he can count one point of each card in a flush of one suit whether it be three in the hand or four by aid of the turn-up card. He also scores two for each pair he may have, including the turn-up card in his calculation. The non-dealer having scored, the dealer proceeds to score in the same way and, having scored the points in his hand, takes the crib which consists of the two cards thrown out by his opponent and the two thrown out by himself and the turn-up card and counts them in the same way, except that for a flush all four cards must be of the same suit, and scores accordingly. The player who has the knave of trumps in his hand or crib scores one for his knob. In throwing out cards for the crib it is the dealer's aim to throw out cards which are likely to increase in value by asso-

ciation with the cards thrown out by his opponent, while it is of course his opponent's aim to throw out cards that will be useless to him. The game is won when either player scores sixty-one points.

Six-card Cribbage differs from the five-card game in that six cards are dealt to each player and four are retained in the hand after the two are thrown out for the crib. The non-dealer is not entitled to score three at starting, as in five-card cribbage, and on reaching the count of thirty-one, or the nearest to it that can be reached, the unplayed cards are not thrown down but continued for another round. In six-card cribbage the winning score is generally double that of five-card cribbage. **Seven-card Cribbage** is played as the six-card game, five cards being retained in the hand when the two cards are thrown out for the crib. The winning score is usually treble that of five-card cribbage but may of course be any number agreed upon by the players. **Three Handed Cribbage** is played by three players to each of whom five cards are dealt, one extra card being dealt in the centre to form the fondation of the crib. The players contribute one card each to the crib. The play and scoring is as in five-card cribbage, the player to the left of the dealer being the first to score after the play and the dealer the last.

Napoleon, or **Nap** as the game is more familiarly called, is one of the best of card games and has this advantage, from a social point of view, that it can be played by as many as ten persons, though five or six is the better number of participants. The cards after being shuffled and cut are dealt round five to each player, but must be dealt two each first round and three each second round, or vice-versa. On looking at the cards the player determines how many tricks he may reasonably expect to make, he having the option of making any suit he likes trumps. The player on the left of the dealer then says how many tricks he will undertake to make against the rest of the players, viz. 1, 2, 3, 4, or Nap (5). If the player next on the left to him cannot call higher he says "Pass". Each player has a "call" in turn and the highest caller starts the game. The first card led by him determines the trumps, and it is the object of all the other players to beat the caller. Due attention should be given by the players when calling to the number of cards out and the probability of cards still remaining in the pack. When the lead is made the other players are bound to follow suit if possible, if not they are at liberty to trump. There is also a call of *misere*, which means that the caller undertakes not to win a single trick, it being obviously the endeavour of the other players to make him win one. Misere has the precedence of a call of two but is considered lower than a call of three. The player who calls, in the event of his succeeding in his object receives the exact number of counters that he has called from each of the other players, but if he loses he has to pay to each the same amount. *Misere* has to pay or receive, as the case may be, three counters, while the loser of a "Nap" call has to pay five, in the event of his winning receives double. When a trick is taken by anyone of the players it then becomes that particular player's lead. There is no penalty for a misdeal. A card being shown during dealing, or the wrong number dealt, renders it necessary for the pack to be re-shuffled and re-dealt. A player revoking pays to the player who has called highest, five counters, and cannot win anything the same round, but a stand hand by revoking has to pay five to each of the other players. Nap is sometimes played with a pool into which everyone puts one counter each round, and the whole becomes the property of the first player who succeeds in winning a "Nap".

Speculation is a round game in which any number of players can join. It is the reverse of "Whist" which demands silence as imperative, and is often provocative of no little noise, ex-

citement and merriment. Speculation is played with counters and as many cards are used as are necessary to go round to the players engaged in the game. The dealer having been determined by choice or cutting, each player contributes an agreed number of counters to the pool, say two or three, as the case may be, the dealer contributing a double share. The dealer then proceeds to deal three cards face downwards to each of the players. These cards must not be looked at by the players but placed one on top of the other in front of them. Each player, including the dealer, having received three cards, the next card on the pack is the turn-up or trump card and now the speculation begins. The dealer may sell the trump card before he turns it up and he will often offer it to the highest bidder, no one knowing what the card may be. If he sells it the purchaser pays him the agreed number of counters, takes the card, turns it up and places it on the top of the three cards of his hand. If the turn-up card is a good one, the purchaser may be offered an advance price for it and may sell it to any other player at that, or indeed at any price he can get for it. The turn-up card having found a fixed home for the time being, the player next upon the owner's left proceeds to turn up the top card of his hand and is followed by each player in succession, except the owner of the turn-up card until a superior trump is turned up. The superior trump may then become an object of speculation, or the owner may refuse to sell and the game proceeds as before. In the end the best trump out wins the pool, and the deal passes to the next player to the left of the first dealer and so on round the table. During the progress of the game any card can be sold by any player, if he can find a customer for it. If any player turns up the ace of trumps the whole of the cards are turned up, and the players pay any fines that may have been agreed upon. These are usually one counter each for the knaves and fives that are in his hand. These fines are put into the pool as the cards are turned up and become the property of the winner of the pool.

Dancing.—Few indoor amusements are more popular—among young people, at any rate—than that of dancing; and there are many reasons why it must always remain favourite. To begin with, it is the only indoor exercise in which young people of both sexes can unite, and add to their enjoyment of that exhilaration which always follows proper exercise, the social pleasure of companionship. To us it has always seemed that it is as natural for young people to dance as it is for the birds to sing, and that, under proper regulations, it is an exercise to be encouraged and cultivated. Nor, indeed, is there any good reason why the young should monopolise the benefits of the graceful art. Encouragement to exercise, if needed in their case, is doubly so in the case of those whose age and occupation are such as to lead to sedentary habits and the innumerable ills that accrue thereto. W. E. Channing, an American writer, thus writes:—

"Dancing is an amusement which has been discouraged by many people, and not without reason. Dancing is associated in their minds with balls, and this is one of the worst forms of social pleasure. The time consumed in preparing for a ball, the waste of thought upon it, the extravagance of dress, the late hours, the exhaustion of strength, the exposure of health, and the languor of the succeeding day—these, and other evils connected with this amusement, are strong reasons for banishing it from the community. But dancing ought not therefore to be proscribed. On the contrary, balls should be discouraged for this among other reasons, that dancing, instead of being a rare pleasure, requiring elaborate preparation, may become an everyday amusement, and may mix with our common intercourse. This exercise is among the most healthful. The body as well as the mind feels its gladdening influence. No amusement seems more to have a foundation in our nature. The animation of youth overflows spontaneously in harmonious movements. The true idea

of dancing entitles it to favour. Its end is to realize perfect grace in motion; and who does not know that a sense of the graceful is one of the higher faculties of our nature? It is to be desired that dancing should become too common among us to be made the object of special preparation as in the ball; that members of the same family, when confined by unfavourable weather, should recur to it for exercise and exhilaration; that branches of the same family should enliven in this way their occasional meetings; that it should fill up an hour in all the assemblages for relaxation, in which the young form a part. It is to be desired that this accomplishment should be extended to the labouring classes of society, not only as an innocent pleasure, but as a means of improving the manners. Why should not gracefulness be spread through the whole community? From the French nation we learn that a degree of grace and refinement of manners may pervade all classes. The philanthropist and christian must desire to break down the partition walls between human beings in different conditions; and one means of doing this is to remove the conscious awkwardness which confinement to laborious occupations is apt to induce."

The Poetry of Motion.—Why is the expression, "The Poetry of Motion," accepted as a compact, and, in itself, a poetical definition of dancing? Perhaps the readiest reply to this question will be the statement that all dancing, worthy of the name, consist of graceful rhythmically regulated movements, mostly associated either actually or in imagination with appropriate musical sounds and cadences. This is so, whether the dance be performed by several persons moving in unison, by two or more persons executing a series of steps and "figures," by which they change places and postures according to a mutual harmonious intention, or by one person only who goes through a more or less intricate variety of such steps and postures as an exhibition of lithesome activity. There have been unnumbered occasions in all countries where dancing has represented "The Poetry of Motion" on higher grounds than any of these, because it has expressed strong emotions of joy, triumph or delight. In childhood, whether it be of individuals, of natives, or of communities, "jumping for joy," has a very definite significance. The child dances from exuberant appreciation of an unexpected pleasure, or in anticipation of a near reward. **The History of Dancing.**—The history of almost every nation records the dance among the more pronounced expressions of public rejoicing and the observance which emphatically signalised popular festivity. Modern dancing has not altogether lost this association. Many remarkable events of common interest, or determinations to common effort, are celebrated by a ball no less than by a banquet; while the meeting of friends, the renewal of old and dear associations, is almost as often emphasised by a dance as by a dinner. The ancient May-day festivals, however, adaptations from the still older lupercalia, or spring-tide revels of the classic nations, have fallen into disuse. Outdoor dancing, even at garden parties, is not often regarded as suitable for modern attire, and "tripping it," on the grass, requires either a very well mowed level lawn or rather different kind of shoes to those now worn in fashionable society. Except quite occasionally, at pic-nics, or among a few very old fashioned rustic communities, out-door gambols ceased when Time's relentless hand, which had not spared Troy, removed the last London Maypole in the Strand. But dancing, as a significant celebration, and properly conducted as an innocent recreation, has been handed down from the times when the daughters of Israel came out to signalise the victories of Saul and of David. The references to dancing in sacred poetry and in the classics are numerous enough to show that it has always held a prominent place among the natural amusements or demonstrations of mankind; but the fashion of dances has changed with successive ages. Among Oriental nations the dancers are hired performers, who

attend on occasions of private or public rejoicing, for the amusement of those who witness their skill; and even middle-aged Britons can remember when the pupils in our ladies' schools were instructed in solo dances, such as the cachuca, the mazurka, and the Highland-fling, and were not unfrequently called upon to perform at juvenile parties. **The Polka** first made its appearance as a dance for two persons only, and was executed by a young lady and gentleman; who, if properly prepared for it, wore boots with brass heels, which were made to click in time to the music during some of the steps; while the "figure" was a very elaborate affair, including a *dos-à-dos*, a linking of arms, and not a little ballet pantomime. In fact, some of these dances were supposed to have a meaning, and to depict timidity overcome by trustful affection; coquetry conquered by earnestness, and so on. The old **Spanish Dances**—the bolero and the fandango—and the Italian tarantella were of the same order, and it may be noted that the genuine sailor's hornpipe is quite a pantomime of nautical activity. It may also be noted that the hornpipe is so-called from the name of the instrument on which a quick lively tune of only a few shrill notes could be played; but the fiddler was at one time a very essential member of the crew of a man-o'-war, and a dance on deck was a common device for raising the spirits of the men. The potency of dancing to cheer and exhilarate the performers has over and over again been proved by its effects among the negro slaves on plantations, who, while the fiddle was going and they were capering about, seemed to forget their toils and the hardships they had to endure. Byron speaks of "the fandango's wriggle and bolero's bound," and the fact seems to be that most of the old solo dances, like some more modern ones, were distinguished either for the intricacy of their "steps" or the agility with which the performers leaped or hopped. This will account for the statement that Queen Elizabeth was first attracted by the "great and high" dancing of Sir Christopher Hatton, who bounded into her favour and has been known as "the dancing Chancellor," for many of the dances of that day were brought from Spain; and though on State occasions great lords and ladies trod or "walked a measure" with slow gravity and many dignified marks of courtesy, the dancing was of a remarkably athletic description, such as Prince Harry Tudor loved when he was the flower of chivalry, and before he came to the throne and grew too stout and heavy to take active part in the Yule-tide gambols. There was plenty of dancing of all kinds in the days of Elizabeth, so that the accomplished "grave Lord Keeper," as Gray calls the famous Chanceller, was very likely to be noticed with Royal favour. It is in his poem of "A Long Story," wherein he describes the manor house of Stoke Pogis, that Gray says—

> "Full oft within the spacious walls,
> When he had fifty winters o'er him,
> My grave Lord Keeper led the brawls,
> The seals and maces danced before him.
> His bushy beard and shoe-strings green,
> His high-crowned hat and satin doublet
> Moved the stout heart of England's queen,
> Though Pope and Spaniard could not trouble it."

Alas, for fancy! Sir Christopher Hatton neither led the brawls nor lived at the manor house at Stoke. That mansion was purchased by Sir Edward Coke, who married Lady Hatton, widow of Sir William Hatton, and a nice life she led him. She also was a great dancer and held many revels in the town house at Hatton Garden, and her name became connected with Stoke; but the great Sir Christopher, the dancing chancellor, never pranced high and greatly there, nor did Queen Elizabeth visit the place till she went there to see Sir Edward Coke in 1601, ten years after the grave Lord Keeper's death. By that time dancing among the nobility and gentry had become less robust. It was now studied and courtly, and by about the middle of the fourteenth century, the slow and graceful minuet, with its measured short steps, its advancing and retiring, its frequent bows and courtesies, its mincing refine-

ments and minute observances, was in vogue, brought hither from Poitou. **The Minuet** dance, the name of which characterises its small deliberate action, was really an elaborate but leisurely movement in $\frac{3}{4}$ or $\frac{6}{8}$ time, and it held its ground for many years. The music written for it by various famous composers has long survived, and is often exceedingly graceful and charming. Perhaps if we should ever return to a handsome and picturesque costume, the minuet may be revived; but it gave place to the associated dances, the cotillon, and more particularly to the cuadrillo or quadrille—the dance for a set of four partners, which was of Spanish origin.

The Positions.—To dance well requires not only graceful carriage of the body, but strength and elasticity of the foot, leg, and ankle. These having been acquired, the next thing is to practise the "positions" of the feet in dancing. They are only five in number. The first of them is to bring the heels together, the toes being well turned out, so that the feet form the letter V. In the second position the right foot is extended, the toe only touching the ground, the heel exactly opposite the middle or curve of the left foot which remains as it was in the first position. For the third position the right foot is moved forward, and the toe pointed immediately in front of the left; both feet, of course, having the toes pointed outward, as in the first position. The fifth position is formed by drawing the heel of the right foot up to the ball of the left, both feet being planted firmly on the ground. This completes the five positions; but they have only at present performed *in front* of the left foot: they now have to be repeated behind it. For instance after having gone back to the first position, the toe of the right foot is to be pointed at the side, but somewhat behind the heel of the left foot. Then the right foot must be drawn up *behind* the left; the middle, or curve of the right foot, being brought close up behind the heel of the left. The fourth position consists of throwing out the right foot beyond and *behind* the left, just as it was, forming pointed in front. In the fifth position, the *ball* of the right foot is immediately against the *heel* of the left. It is *essential* that throughout the positions the left foot should *remain immovable* in the direction that it occupied in the first position. The next exercise is to repeat all these five positions with the *left* foot, the right foot remaining unmoved. The reader will not fail to remark that it is essential to overcome any tendency to *right-footedness* or *left-footedness*, and that the preliminary exercises already referred to will be of great assistance in enabling the learner to go through the positions with both feet alternately. At all events, it is absolutely necessary that these positions should be thoroughly learned before any attempt is made to acquire what are called the "steps;" and, indeed, few modern dances require more than about half a dozen out of the number of "steps" that were considered necessary in times when solo dancing and elaborate saltatory performances were required even in quadrilles. With regard to the *positions*, however, no one can so much as *walk* through a set of quadrilles, with grace and ease, without having so completely mastered them as to make the change of foot in rhythm with the music.

The Steps.—Now let us practise the five principal "steps." No others will be necessary for ordinary dancing; for, having once completely acquired them, the learner will find that others are only combinations. The first is **the Jetée**, which, as its name implies, is the free *throwing out* of the foot into the second position, and then bringing it back to the third position *in front*. The foot is thrown out as the performer counts *one*, and drawn back at *two;* then the other foot is thrown out or pointed at *three*, and drawn up at *four*. It will be seen that by thus making the step with each foot in succession, the dancer advances forward. Having done this during eight bars of music, or counting four eight times, the retiring movement is adopted by repeating the step, and (as we have seen in "positions") making

the third position behind instead of in front, with each foot in succession. Thus the dancer goes backward to the next starting-point. It should be mentioned here that, in learning to dance, when practising positions or steps; it is an incalculable advantage that the learner should be accompanied by music, no matter how simple may be the instrument. The second step is **the Assemblée,** which is in effect a repetition of the *jetée*, except that while one foot is thrown out to the second position, the opposite knee is slightly bent; and while the moving foot is drawn up to the third position, the knee is straightened, so that when the position is completed the heel of the stationary foot is raised with a spring, but without moving the toe from the ground. With this step performed on each foot alternately, the learner again advances during eight bars of music and retires to the same measure. The next exercise is to advance up the room by making the *jetée* and the *assemblée* alternately, and retrograding in a similar manner. The third step is **the Battement,** which is effected by first standing in the first position; then pointing the right foot in the *fourth* position, and drawing it back (the toe still pointed) across the instep of the left foot, this must be done four times; then the toe must be pointed in the second position and drawn back in a similar way across the instep—this also four times in succession; the toe next pointed in the second position and drawn up close *behind* the other foot; finally, the toe must be pointed behind in the fourth position, four movements being made, and the step ends with the foot resting in the fifth position. The same series of movements must now be made with the left foot. This *battement* or beating step is intended to give freedom and stability to the foot and ancle, and therefore there is no advancing or retreating movement. Each of the *beats* should be practised till the learner is able to make them standing firmly on the *stationary* foot, and without touching the ground with the foot that is in motion; an exercise which seems difficult at first, but will soon be achieved, and is of the utmost value in the acquisition of the true poetry of motion. The fifth is **the Rond** or wheel step, in which the dancer stands in the *third* position, points the toe forward in the *fourth* position, and thence describes with it a circle till the heel is brought round to the curve of the stationary foot, whence, without stopping, the circle is repeated. Each time that the toe is pointed in front, the knee of the stationary leg is bent, and is slowly straightened while the circle is being completed, so that the body is always in a standing position when the heel of the moving foot touches the centre of the stationary one. This is to give freedom to the knee and hip joints, and is, of course, to be performed on each alternately. In the fifth step—**the Balancer**—the performer standing in the *third* position, draws it quickly back with a springing step, and at the same time throws the other foot into the fourth position *behind;* then, bending the knee of the forward foot, gives a slight spring on that foot and throws forward the foot that is pointed behind, bringing it to the *fourth* position in front. This is to be practised till the body acquires the motion of an evenly balanced swing or pendulum—but without either advancing or retiring. Having practised till the *positions* are thoroughly learnt, and a certain degree of proficiency is acquired in the steps, the pupil will be able to stand up with confidence: and directly the music of the quadrille commences will very naturally fall into a graceful and easy position, and move with ease and precision. **The First Set of Quadrilles** is formed by eight dancers, four ladies and four gentlemen. It consist of a couple at the top (nearest the music), the bottom couple opposite them, and a couple at each side, thus forming a square. The gentlemen place themselves on the left of their partners, to whom and to the lady opposite they bow with all the grace at their command during the first eight bars of the music. The dance then commences. **The**

First Figure (*Pantalon*) begins by the top and bottom couple, making *half right and left*, which means that you cross to the opposite side on the right hand of the person whom you meet in passing, and on the left of your own partner. Having reached the opposite side occupying the places vacated by your *vis-à-vis*, repeat the same figure back to your own place again; when you turn facing your partner, set to your partner by taking two steps to the right and two to the left, give the right hand and turn to places. Then follows Ladies' Chain, so called because the ladies cross, and in passing give each other their right hands, and the left hand to each others' partners—the gentlemen moving behind their partners and giving the left hand to the opposite lady; this is repeated so that each couple regain their places, still holding hands. They then cross over to opposite sides and make half-right and left to finish the figure, which is then repeated by the side couples. **The Second Figure** (*L'été*) is performed by top and bottom coupling and retiring, then crossing directly over, so that on changing places the gentleman will find the lady on his *left* hand; then recrossing to places, when the lady will again be on his right. Set to partners, and turn. The side couples repeat the figure. **The Third Figure** (*La Poule*). The first lady (the lady of the top couple) and the opposite gentleman cross over, raising and slightly touching the right hands as they pass, then return, giving the left hand to each other and the right hand to their partners. This brings the four dancers into a line, when they set by making a short step to the right and one to the left twice. Each couple then cross over to opposite couple's places. The lady and gentleman who commenced the figure then advance and retire twice, the second time bowing with grave and impressive courtesy. Each couple then join hands, all four advance and retire twice, and finish the figure by half right and left, which brings them back to their places. The second lady and opposite gentleman then lead off, and the figure is repeated. Then the side couples repeat it in the same way, so that it is gone through four times. **The Fourth Figure** varies. A figure called *La Pastorale* is the most frequently danced, and is as follows: The first, or top couple, advance to those opposite and retire. Then they advance again, the gentleman retiring and leaving his lady on the left of the opposite gentleman, who advances with the two ladies (one on each hand), retires, and advances again, when all four join hands in a circle, and move half round to opposite places, then half right and left to places. The figure is repeated by the bottom couple advancing, the gentleman leaving the lady, and so on. The sides also repeat the figure. If the Fourth Figure is that called *Trenise*, it is danced as follows: The first couple advance and retire, then advance again, the lady remaining on the left of the opposite gentleman. The two ladies then cross to the opposite side, the first gentleman passing between them. Then the second lady retires to her place, the first gentleman also returning to his partner. Set and turn to places. The figure is repeated by bottom couples and by sides. **The Finale** is usually as follows: All join hands in a circle, advance and retire, relinquish hands and turn partners. Top and bottom couples advance and retire, cross over, advance and retire again, return to places. Ladies' chain and then grand *ronde* again, the figure being repeated by bottom couple and sides; the figure concluding with a galopade all round. Of course the quadrille may be double; that is to say, there may be two couples instead of one, making sixteen dancers—four on each side. **The Parisian Quadrille** is danced without side couples, the figures being the same except the last, which consists of Ladies' Chain, L'été, and a final Galopade. Anyone with an ear for music and who has practised and acquired the positions, and has learnt something of the steps, will naturally adopt them when dancing the quadrille, and will find them fall in at the proper places during the figures; but it will be well carefully to note the two

or three following remarks on matters, the neglect of which often makes modern dancing a mere clumsy burlesque of the poetry of motion. First, remember that in crossing to the oppoite side or, performing ladies' chain, you take *seven* steps, beginning with the right foot, and then draw the left foot up in the "assemblée." This will exactly keep you in time with the music. Secondly, in advancing and retiring, or setting to partners, take three walking steps forward, beginning with the right foot and ending by bringing up the left, and three steps backward, beginning with the left foot and bringing up the right. Better still, take two *glissades* to the right and two to the left. That is, in going right, point the right foot and bring the left with a gliding step up behind it into the third position, then another step and bring the foot up in *front* also in the third position, then repeat it with the left foot pointed, and bringing, the right foot up, first behind and then in *front*, which will bring you back to the left and ready to turn your partner in seven steps and an assemblée.

Deportment.—We will suppose that the position and the steps, as described in our instructions in dancing, have been well-practised, and that the pupil has learnt how to stand, and to advance, retire, "set," balance, turn, and glide. Let us suppose also that complete ease and grace of carriage has followed, and that the assiduous practice of the various movements has (as it surely may have) given, a certain *ensemble* to the figure, to the walk, and to the pose of the body, arms, and hands. These graces were formerly believed to be imparted by teachers of "deportment;" and it can scarcely be denied that a great many people would be the better for a few lessons in "the art of carrying themselves." The most common defects in deportment are a roll in the walk, stiffness of the neck and arms, uncertainty how to hold the hands, and inability to turn without requiring a considerable space to move in. It is not too much to say that all these disadvantages can be readily overcome by attention to the easy gymnastic exercises, and by assiduous practise of the dancing lessons already given. The last difficulty to overcome is usually the position of the hands—for the reason that too many people are thinking about their hands, and fidgeting with their gloves all the time that they are standing still or talking to their partners at a dance or in any other assembly. The advantage of gymnastic exercises is that all the limbs are trained to move easily, harmoniously, and without conscious or studied attention to attitudes. The hands fall naturally because the arms are at once firm and flexible. The feet assume the exact position required for each movement of the body, by an intuitive and slight alteration of their relative places. Let us however, give two or three hints which will be useful to the beginner, who is amongst the modest and diffident minority, and feels some slight misgiving when entering a room to be introduced to an assembly, or when seeking, under critical inspection the honour of a partnership for the next dance. **Walking.**—A good authority on the art of deportment recommends that in entering a ball-room, or in walking during the time that dancing is going on, the front part of the foot and not the heels should be allowed to touch the ground first. This is good advice if the pupil practises a little at home before making the experiment, otherwise the foot may be rather too much raised, and the result will be that the gait will somewhat resemble that of a pigeon. But there can be no doubt that the proper way of walking in a room is to touch the ground first with the fore part of the foot, and the same authority (Mr. Coote) says what is obvious enough, that the best way of attaining an easy and graceful mode of progression is to practice the ordinary glissade in which each foot in succession glides gently forward. **Bowing.**—It is not alone walking, however, which has to be considered. Perhaps not one person in twenty can bow gracefully. Certainly one gentleman in every ten to be seen at an assembly will,

when asking a lady to dance, bend his body suddenly but stiffly at the hips; allow his arms to hang down straight, as though his hands were clock weights, or he carried dumb-bells up his sleeves. There is an old distich about reading, which says—

"Learn to read slow, all other graces
Will follow in their proper places."

And the same may be said of bowing. An easy slow inclination of the head and body together; that is to say, the neck bending at the same time as the back, may be taken as a description of a profound bow. To address a lady with a mere nod or a slight inclination of the neck, or a short bob of the head and a bend of the lower vertebræ, is as insufferable as the insulting manner of salutation by removing the hat with a jerk, just an inch or two from the head; the mode observed by *dudes* and *mashers* when they meet their lady acquaintances in the street. These are not days when all the refinements of old-fashioned obeisance are observed—there are fewer "courtesies" than were demanded in the days of our grandmothers and great-grandmothers—and the tone of society suffers from the omission. Of course, there were clumsy, ungainly people even in "the teacup days of hoop and hood," or we should scarcely find Churchill writing—

"What's a fine person or a beauteous face,
Unless deportment gives them decent grace?
Bless'd with all other requisites to please,
Some want the striking element of ease;
The curious eye their awkward movement tires,
They seem like puppets led about by wires."

Certainly our modern male costume does not lend itself so readily to deportment as the velvet coats, the silk stockings, buckled shoes, and lace ruffles of the early Georgian days; the ruffles themselves were of great importance as half concealing the hand that clasped the jewelled snuff-box, or rested daintily upon the cataract of cambric which fell from the neck into the bosom of the flowered waistcoat. This reflection brings us back to the question of **Carrying the hands.** To adopt a becoming position for the hands, keep one hand resting lightly against the side above the elbow, or even, if both hang down, avoid the stiff appearance which is caused by men who straighten their arms, and clutch their cuffs with their fingers. It is a good plan to accustom yourself to place the ball of the second or third finger against the ball of the thumb, which can only be done by keeping the hand half closed. A quaint hint is quoted by the able professor before alluded to—"Fancy your hands are bound on to your wrists, by little pieces of cotton; in fact practice freedom of action." We will suppose that the various hints about deportment, as well as the directions for learning the positions and steps, have been followed. The pupil will then have sufficient command of the poetry of motion to stand up for one of the couple dances, and we will begin with the *Schottische* remembering that the music itself marks the time, and helps us to make the steps in unison.

The Schottische.—Before commencing to dance either of the "couple" dances now in vogue—with the exception of the Highland Schottische, of which we shall have something to say presently—the gentleman should encircle the lady's waist with his right arm, but without pressing it; and place his right hand at her waist, so that he can support her easily and firmly. The lady places her right hand in his left, which he raises to the height of the shoulder; her left hand rests upon his right shoulder. In this position each will look over or beyond the other's shoulder, and the turn in the dance will be easily effected. The steps of the Schottische are as follow; for the first two bars of the music, the gentleman slides the left foot to the left; brings the right foot up behind the left foot; slides the left foot to the left again; brings the right foot up again; then springing on the toe of the left foot, slides the *right* foot to the right; brings the left foot up behind the right foot; slides the right foot to the right again,

and again brings the left foot up. For the second two bars of music spring lightly on the toe of the left foot, pass the right foot behind it; spring again on the left foot, and this will have taken you a half-turn round; then repeat the movement by springing on the toe of the right foot, bringing the left foot up, and again springing on the right foot, completing the turn and coming *quite* round. The Schottische is easily acquired with a little practice, and the instructions for dancing it may be roughly set down thus: two slides to the left, two slides to the right; then short slide and hop half-round on the left foot, and short slide and hop the other half-round on the right foot. Of course the lady begins with the *right* foot, and follows with the left; and leads with the *left*, following with the right for the second movements.

The Polka is a simpler dance than the Schottische, and the steps are similar. There are four notes (quavers) in each bar of music for the polka, but there are only *three* movements, the fourth note marking the change of foot on reversing the step. The gentleman commences by drawing up his left foot behind the right (see *positions* and *battement* in last number), slightly raising the heel. He then slides that foot to the left to the distance of about the length of the foot. For the second movement the heel of the right foot is brought to the heel of the left, and at the same movement the dancer rises lightly on the toes. In the third movement spring lightly on the toe of the left or leading foot, and pass the right foot behind, ready to commence a repetition of the steps with that foot on the other side. It will be seen that there are only three movements; the slide, the following of the foot and the spring; the fourth note in the bar of music marking the recovery of the right foot for commencing the reserve steps, by which the turn is completed. The difficulty of turning in perfect time and step is soon surmounted, and to practise the turn it is a very good plan to place a chair in the middle of a room, and perform the steps round it, counting *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, and completing the circuit as near as possible to the chair, but without touching it. This helps the pupils to understand that it is necessary not only for the couple to turn gracefully and in a small space, but to do so in such a way as to avoid collision with others. Of course the lady commences with the right foot; and at a whispered word the gentleman should also be able to change the lead, that the turn may be made the reverse way—that is to say, to his right. This rests the dancers, and prevents or cures giddiness. It is also customary for the dancers in the polka to rest by taking the steps left and right, *without turning*, and thus either following the *circle of dancers*, or proceeding from end to end of the room, the gentleman conducting the lady, who makes the steps backward, or *vice versa*. It only remains to add that these steps and their adaptation to the turn, the reverse turn, or the promenade, are easily acquired, and may be almost instinctively adopted by anyone who has mastered the positions and these steps—especially the *jetée* and the *assemblée* as described before. Until these steps are acquired it is impossible for anyone to dance well.

Dancing Manners.—There are certain obligations, the observance of which should be regarded as indispensable in society, where all the persons present participate in the same amusement, and especially when, as in a dance, each individual may be said to receive, if not to challenge, constant observation. It is distinctly a breach of good manners for the same lady and gentleman to dance together during the greater part of the evening, and to show marked preferences in selecting partners is in very bad taste. The very object of dancing should be to secure graceful and agreeable recreation—to enable several persons to join in rhythmical movements—with the pleasant, social intercourse, which accompanies an amusement, free at once from unnecessary restraint and from bold effrontery, but free, also, from affectation or

indulgence in marked personal preferences. It is no sign of a refined or cultivated taste for two persons to indulge in even the slight endearments of lovers, in public, and to give any indications of them at a dance is offensively indelicate, and an affront to those present, who are too sensitive to express their resentment in terms of ridicule. If lovers are too jealous and mistrustful to quit each other, or too ardent to forego the exhibition of their tender mutual admiration, they are likely to be either obtrusively self-conscious or ludicrously oblivious in society. If a gentleman cannot endure to see the object of his affection receive appreciative attentions from another, he is either conceited enough to imagine that he can compass the entire horizon of her social existence, or so basely suspicious that the unfortunate lady has a sad prospect before her should she be allied to a man mean enough to sacrifice her to his own low estimate of social obligations. If lovers accept invitations to join in social amusements they are bound by the rules of good taste not to draw attention to themselves or to each other by what is now vulgarly called "spooning." Should they do so, they are so unmannerly that they merit some modification of the punishment indicated in a story of a too demonstratively sweet couple who met at a dance at the house of a lady who was well acquainted with both. The drawing room in which the company assembled was of ample dimensions, the music was well performed, everybody appeared pleased, and "all went merry as a marriage bell," when the hostess, released for a few moments from the duties of receiving some of the later guests, remembered that she had left a fan in a sparely furnished morning room adjoining the drawing room, and the door of which had been closed. Dancing was going on, and, as she thought she heard somebody moving in what should have been an unoccupied room, she opened the door gently and saw the young couple languidly going through the steps of the Mazourka, which was being performed by the guests in the next apartment. Another round dance followed, and again these two kept aloof from the company whom they had been invited to meet, but in the interval the lady of the house had the dissatisfaction of seeing them seated side by side, the gentleman wafting his soft sentences on the zephyrs which he was stirring with *her* fan. During the next dance she entered the room, and the lovers being totally indifferent to her presence as they languished round and round, recovered her fan and reclosed the door. In half an hour she returned, and they were still there, so she gently turned the key. A few minutes afterwards an attendant entered the room carrying a tray spread with supper for two—chicken paté, lobster salad, champagne, and so on. Before the astonished youth and damsel could ask for explanation the attendant had quickly placed the viands on the table and retired, saying, "Misses's compliments, and as you prefer not to associate with her friends she told me to serve supper for two alone." They stared at each other in dismay; then the lady made a sudden rush for the door, but the servant had already closed it, and it was fast. Neither had much appetite for supper. Perhaps the lady partook of none of it, for when the servant reappeared she flew to the door again, but was intercepted by a note which he handed to her: "Mrs. —— presents her compliments to Miss —— and begs the favour of a few moments conversation with her in the private sitting room before calling her carriage." Another note was handed to the gentleman: "Mrs.—— presents her compliments to Mr. ——, and having shown such hospitality as he seemed inclined to accept will relieve him from the courtesies which appear to be so onerous by asking him at once to order his carriage or—should he prefer walking—to accept the services of the attendant, who will assist him to his hat and coat and await his departure." It was of no use to struggle against it. The languid

lover was by no means master of the situation. The lady had disappeared. The grim footman, with a twitching of the corners of his mouth, stood aside, but followed the abashed swain to the drawing-room, to the now merry and crowded supper-room, and finally to the hall, where he helped him on with his coat and politely opened for him the street door. He was never invited to that house again; and what was the brief conversation between the hostess and her young friend has never transpired. Half an hour after the departure of her lover she was sent home in a carriage alone, but with the confidential footman on the box with the driver. The lovers have not yet married, and it is said that the lady has broken off the engagement. Few women can pardon a man for making them to appear ridiculous, or for leading them to forget their social obligations, the neglect of which, except under very extraordinary circumstances, is sure to place them in an ambiguous position. Not only should no preference be shown at a dancing party, but a general desire to please and to enhance the happiness of others should be manifested.

The Lancers.—It may be presumed that the name was given to this graceful dance because at the time that the Lancers Quadrille was first introduced the Lancers were—as they still are—"crack" regiments, and the light cavalry officers were often great *habitués* of the ball room. At all events, these particular regiments seemed to represent the easy elegance and alacrity which belong to the set of quadrilles called after them. However, let us fix our attention on the manner of dancing *The Lancers*. The four couples take their places as the *first set* of quadrilles. **The First Figure**—The first (or top) lady and opposite gentleman advance and retire twice, or advance and set, and then, giving both hands, turn completely round, each resuming places. The top couple then change places with opposite couple, passing between them, and return to places, passing *outside*. Then all set to corners (that is, each gentleman sets to the lady on his left and each lady to the gentleman on her right) and turn to places. The figure is repeated by bottom couple and side couples. **The Second Figure.**—The first couple advance and retire. Advance again, the gentleman leaving the lady in the centre facing him. Then both advance and retire, advance again and turn to places. The side couples join the couples on their *right*, so that the dancers form two lines, four at top and four at bottom. All advance and retire, and turn partners to former places. This figure is repeated by bottom couple and by side couples. When the latter perform it, the two lines are formed at the sides, instead of at top and bottom of set. **The Third Figure.**—First lady advances alone; opposite gentleman advances towards her, and bows as she curtseys: both retire to places. Then the four ladies advance and curtsey to each other, join their right hands across, and dance round to the *left:* change by giving their left hands and dancing round to the *right*, the gentlemen dancing round by themselves the reverse way to the ladies, changing as they change: turn partners to places. Or instead of the ladies giving hands across, they may join hands and dance round, while the gentlemen join hands and dance round outside them in the opposite direction. Figure repeated by bottom and side couples. **The Fourth Figure.**—First couple advance to the couple on their *right*, bow and curtsey; then turn to opposite side-couple on their left, and repeat salutations. All four face partners, advance, retire, and turn to places with right hands, first and opposite couple half-right and left, same as in first set of quadrilles. Figure repeated by bottom couple and by sides, the latter, of course, turning to salute top and bottom couples respectively, by turning to their *right* in the first part of the figure. **The Fifth Figure.**—*Commence with the music.* Grand chain all round, giving right hand to partner, and then left and right hand alternately, till all are in places. First couple prom-

enade all round and return to places, standing at the top with their backs to bottom couple. Lady and gentleman on their *right* fall in behind them, then the couple on their left fall in behind the second couple; the bottom couple standing last. The dancers thus form two lines; the ladies then move to the left, the gentlemen to the right; changing places, then back again, ladies to the right, gentlemen to the left, still preserving the line. Ladies then turn off to the *right*, and the gentlemen to the left, so that each couple meets after reaching the bottom of the set. Each couple then leads up the centre, the ladies in one line, the gentlemen in another. Partners then face each other in two lines; all advance and retire, and turn partners to places. The grand chain then commences immediately, the bottom couple and the side couples repeating the figure, and the couples on their *right* respectively falling in line, till all four couples have coupled the dance, which concludes with the grand promenade all round. **The Double or Sixteen Lancers** is now often danced, and when well done is very elegant. It appears intricate, but is by no means difficult, since, with some little variety in the third and fifth figures, it is performed in the same way as the single or Quadrille Lancers. But it must be borne in mind, that in **the First Figure**, the two top ladies advance at the same time—or, in other words, four couples are to dance instead of two. In **the Second Figure** the right-hand top couple, and the right-hand bottom couple *lead off* at the same time, so that the two *opposite-corner* ladies are left in the centre, and both couples turn to places. Then the left-hand top couple, and the left-hand bottom couple repeat the figure, and the same order is observed at the sides, the couples at opposite corners leading off; so that there are two first couples, one at top and one at bottom alternately. When the lines are formed at the end of the second figure, there are, of course, two eights instead of two fours. In **the Third Figure** all the eight ladies advance to the centre, and dance half-round, and while the eight gentlemen join hands and dance round them, afterwards turning to places. **The Fourth Figure** in the Double Lancers usually finishes by the four top and bottom couples, instead of turning to places, joining hands and dancing in a circle to places, and then half-right and left, the side couples repeating the figure in the same way. In **the Fifth Figure** the top and bottom *right-hand* couple, and the corresponding couples at the sides, step into the centre and form an outer circle, and the rest of the couples an inner circle. This must be done while the first chord is being played. Then both circles perform the grand chain. Then two top couples fall in with their backs opposite couples, the sides on the right and on the left follow, and the bottom couples fall in. There will, of course, be eight gentlemen in line on the left, and eight ladies on the right, then the figure goes on the same as in Single Lancers, and is repeated by bottom couples and sides, the dancers to the right falling in first behind the leading couples. The dance finishes with grand chain of sixteen all round.

The Caledonian Quadrille, like the Lancers, is as true an exemplification of the poetry of motion as any that can be found in modern ball rooms; nor is it difficult to learn the figure, so that anyone, who has paid attention to our instructions for acquiring "positions" and steps, can soon dance it well. To commence, the ladies and gentlemen take their places as in the first set of Quadrilles. **The First Figure** is as follows: during eight bars of the music, the top and opposite couples take hands, across, and back again; during the next eight bars, "set," and turn partners; then for the next eight bars, ladies' chain, and finish either with promenade round, or with half promenade, and half right and left to places. The figure repeated for bottom couple and for sides. In **the Second Figure** the first or top gentleman advances and retires twice; then each lady sets to the gentleman on her right, who also sets to her, and

turns her with both hands into the place of his partner; next, all promenade round. By the time the figure has been performed by all the couples, the partners will be together again. In **the Third Figure** the *first* lady and opposite gentleman advance, and set and turn to places, then the top couple lead between the opposite couple, and return to places outside them; then all set to corners, turn with both hands to places and promenade all round. Repeat for bottom and side couples. In **the Fourth Figure**, first lady and opposite gentleman advance and stop; then their partners do the same; turn partners to places. Then the four ladies move to the *right*, each taking the place of the lady on her right; then the four gentlemen move to the *left*, each taking the place of the gentlemen on the left; then the ladies move to the *right* again and the gentlemen to the *left* again; then all join hands, lead round to places, and finish by turning partners. Repeat for bottom and side couples. In **the Fifth Figure** or Finale the first couple promenade round inside the figure; the four ladies advance to centre, touch right hands and retire to places; the four gentlemen do the same, all set and turn partners; then grand chain half round and promenade to places. Turn partners. All change sides. Turn at corners and back to places. Conclude with promenade all round. Repeat for bottom and side couples.

The Waltz.—There are few dancing parties where the Waltz is not the most frequent of the "couple dances" to be found in the programme. A few years ago few other dances were to be seen but Quadrilles and Waltzes, and the Waltz was mostly the *Deux temps*, or quickstep. Recently, however, some of the more graceful of the old dances have been restored to a well-deserved place in the list, and the consequence is that we note a greater variety of measure and rhythm in dancing. It was lately too much the fashion to alternate between carelessly, and yet clumsily, walking through the first set of quadrilles, and scuttling round the room in couples, the lady held in a grotesque manner by the gentleman, who, half-stooping and with flying coat-tails, turned her in an eccentric orbit much in the same fashion that a cooper trundles a cask when end upwards. Of course, old-fashioned folks utterly repudiated the name of waltzing as applied to such spasmodic gyrations, for the Waltz in their memory is a quiet, graceful, and apparently easy performance, yet one which requires considerable skill, some self-possession, a steady head, and firm elastic foot. It may be conceded that few dances are capable of being made more objectionable than the Waltz by people who cannot or who do not choose to perform it properly. Even on its first introduction from Germany as a fashionable dance at Almack's, and in high society, many persons expressed a dislike to it, and among them was Lord Byron, who devoted to it some savage lines of sarcasm. At any rate, though at the first introduction of the dance, and even subsequently, waltzing may often have been so ill performed as to arouse dislike and repulsion among persons of modesty of refinement, that was no essential part of it, and those who know how to waltz well may attain such perfection of rhythm, such true poetry and harmony of motion, that the partners may dance every step of the slow or German Waltz in complete time, and make the circuit of a room without even so much as touching hands. When we speak of the "German Waltz," it is as much as to say *the* Waltz, for strictly speaking there is no other, and all true Waltzes are but varieties of the old slow measure. Its origin and its name are German. It was one of the national dances in Bohemia, and was only introduced here about the beginning of the present century. The very name is German, and is suggestive enough, for it comes from *walzen* (to roll), and, unromantic as this seems, it is indicative of the swing and waving circular movement of the dance. That is not to say that the Waltz is inelegant—on the contrary, it is the most graceful and rhyth-

mical of all dances—the latter quality being abundantly proved by the fact that the greatest musicians have devoted some of their most exquisite fancies to waltz-music. Among these, Weber and Beethoven are conspicuous, and it may be observed by anyone conversant with music that many of the most delightful compositions of other great masters seem naturally to fall into the waltz measure in $\frac{3}{4}$ or $\frac{3}{8}$-time, and with eight or sixteen-bar phrases, several of these forming a set. But when our gossip about the Waltz is over, the question remains, how should it be danced? To this we can only answer that if the position and the steps as set forth in the first of these articles have been properly learned, the Waltz will soon be easily acquired; that is to say, the true Waltz in slow time, which is the most—one might almost say the *only*—graceful measure in which it can be danced. So far as actual steps of the Waltz are concerned, it must be admitted that no one can learn them from written instructions, simple as they are. Here they are as briefly as we can set them down. **First Step.**—Pass the left foot backward in the direction of the left. **Second Step.**—Pass the right foot past and behind the left foot. **Third Step.**—Bring the left foot up behind the right completing one bar of music. Then pass the left foot forward towards the right, and bring the right foot up to the right, completing the turn in both feet, and finishing with the right in front. These are the directions for a gentleman. Of course the lady begins with the right foot to the right, and brings the left foot past and behind the right etc. But the real way to learn is to ask some one who can waltz well to show you the steps and practice them with you, first up and down a room, then round it, first holding each other lightly but firmly, then more lightly, and lastly not at all. When two people can go round a room three or four times, keeping the waltz step, and keeping time, they are proficient. But you will be out of most programmes if you cannot also dance the **Valse à deux temps**, which is in $\frac{3}{4}$-time, or three crotchets in a bar. In commencing, the feet should be in the third position, the heel of the right foot in the hollow of the left. Then—**First**—Glide the right foot forward. **Second**—Bring the left foot up to third position, close behind the right foot. **Third**—Glide the right foot forward again. Complete the step with the right foot, and commence with the left. The lady, of course, begins the measure by gliding the left foot forward, bringing the right up behind it, and gliding the left foot again, commencing the second step with the right foot. The backward step, which is always begun by the gentleman in going up and down a room, commences by gliding the left foot back, and in fact making the step backward. It will readily be seen that to anyone who is *au fait* with the positions and steps as described at the commencement of this series of instructions, there will be no insuperable difficulty even in the *Deux temps*, but the old slow Waltz is, we are glad to say, somewhat in vogue again, mainly, it is believed, because of the charming music to which it may be danced, and the more refined manners which it suggests.

The Spanish Waltz is a brisk and lively dance enough, but if performed properly is also very graceful, for the dancers appear to be all in motion at the same time. This is the way of it:—The time is waltz time, and the step is the old slow waltz step. The couples stand in two parallel lines in the same manner as for a country dance (*contra-danse*), that is to say, the ladies opposite the gentlemen, but with this exception: the "top" gentleman stands on the ladies' side, and the "top" lady on the gentlemen's side; the "fourth" lady and gentleman the same; the "seventh" the same; and so on; every fourth couple standing on the opposite sides to the rest, so that the dance may commence simultaneously all along the line, because (1) the first or top gentleman and the second lady, and the first or top lady and second

gentleman of each set of four, that is to say, each gentleman and the lady on his right, set to each other with the waltz step and change places; (2) then the first gentleman and his partner set and change places, the second gentleman and his partner doing the same; (3) next, the first gentleman and second lady (who is now again on his right) set again and change places; and then (4) each set to partners and change to their original position. Then (5) all four join hands in the centre, advance and retire and change places as before, ladies passing to the left (this figure, like the previous one, to be repeated four times); (6) each gentleman of the set of four takes his partner and waltzes round, till at the end of the figure the couple who were second take their place at the top, the top couple repeating the same figures with those who were third couple, but who have not been dancing, the fourth couple having started at the same time as the top couple at the commencement of the dance, which does not conclude till those who were first at the top reach the bottom of the line, when there is usually a waltz round the room unless the dancers choose to continue.

The Waltz Cotillon.—Less lively but equally graceful, and perhaps more elegant when it is danced well, is the *Waltz Cotillon:* so called, it may be presumed, because in one or more of the figures the long sweeping skirts or trains of the ladies had to be raised or looped up over the quilted satin or damasked petticoat. In the Waltz Cotillon the couples take places as if for a Quadrille, and the dance is as simple as the Quadrille itself. The old waltz step is used, and the music usually begins with two or three chords. Then (1) the top or first couple waltz round inside the set during sixteen bars of the music; (2) first and opposite lady advance, retire, and then advance and cross over, turning, this occupies eight bars of the music—the top and opposite gentlemen advance, retire, advance and cross over during the next eight bars; (3) the ladies of the side couples advance, retire, advance and cross, and the gentlemen also in the same way; (4) all four couples waltz to places, and all set to partners with the waltz step, each gentleman taking his partner by the right hand, and passing her under his arm to the next gentleman, each gentleman retaining his place and repeating the figure with each lady as she turns to him until his own partner returns to him, the ladies having thus formed a chain round the set; (5) side couples join top and bottom couples, so that two lines are formed at top and bottom. All advance twice, cross, and repeat to places; (6) all waltz round. Each of the figures here described is performed four times, that is for top and bottom couples and for side couples, as in a Quadrille. There is no more elegant dance than the Waltz Cotillon if taken slowly and by those who have practised steps and positions so thoroughly that they move with instinctive grace.

The Redowa.—In the *Redowa*, as originally danced, the gentleman took the lady's left hand and led her round the room for the first eight bars of the music, both of them inclining to the right during the first bar, and to the left during the second bar. The couple then faced each other, the lady performing the back step, and the gentleman the forward step. Not till another eight bars was completed by this figure did the actual waltz commence. This preliminary movement was soon omitted, and the dance became a waltz, that is to say: first, the gentleman, starting from the *third* position, with the heel of the right in the hollow of the left foot, springs lightly to the side on the right foot, extending the toe of the left to the *second* position. Secondly, he slides the left foot forward, pointing the toe of the right foot behind; and, thirdly, brings the right foot *behind* the left to *third* position. He then commences the step with the *left* foot. This is for the *forward* step. It must be remembered, however, that as the gentleman should always commence with

the *backward* step, he begins by springing on the left foot, passing the right foot behind, and bringing the left foot up to the third position in front of the right. To *learn* this dance the *forward* step should be thoroughly acquired and the figure practised up and down the room before any endeavour is made to turn.

The Mazourka.—As to the *Mazourka*, if it be danced to the old waltz tune played very slow—as it should be—it may be made a graceful performance enough. First commencing with the left foot (the lady with the right), slide the foot forward and lightly spring upon it twice; then, secondly, do the same with the other foot; thirdly, spring on the left foot and bring the heels of both feet together; do the same with the right foot. This last figure is not danced now even where the Mazourka is on the programme. The learner should practice the *two first* movements till he or she can turn with them. It is quite easy, and the third movement should be the old slow waltz step for another turn.

The Highland Schottische has been among the admitted dances on many programmes for some years past; but it is seldom danced correctly in fashionable ball rooms. The couple should face each other, and for four bars dance the Strathspey step, in which the gentleman springs to the left on the left foot, bringing the right foot in front of the left, with the heel well across the instep, and the toe pointing downward. This is repeated, and then the same steps are repeated with the right foot, the left being brought to the front. The gentleman then takes the lady's waist, and the next four bars are danced with the Schottische step. In the real Highland Schottische, however, the couple link arms in the second or turning figure, and the moment the turn is made, any other lady may interfere and secure the gentleman, by linking her arm in his, while any other gentleman may do the same by the lady, and the new couples then continue the figure. This is lively enough when a number of couples are interchanging partners, and requires sharp eyes, quick steady feet, and a good ear for measure and rhythm; in fact, it demands some true appreciation of the poetry of motion.

The Barn Dance.—Perhaps no dance of late years has enjoyed greater popularity than the Barn Dance. Though it has been known at dancing assemblies in England for some ten years as the "Military Schottische", it is only since it has been re-introduced from America under its new designation, that it has made such strides in public favour. It is divided into two parts, each consisting of four bars. To commence the lady and gentleman stand side by side, the lady's left hand just resting on the gentleman's right. *First Part.* First Step. Move the left foot in front of the right but with the toe pointing to the ground. Second Step. Spring on the left and bring the right foot to where the left was and in doing so point the left in front of the right but with the toe slightly raised. Third Step. Move forward on the left foot and raise the left behind. Fourth Step. Hop on the left foot and bring the right into the position as the left in the first step, with the toe pointed downward. Repeat the movement, only commence on the right foot second time. All over again. *Second Part.* Four bars of an ordinary Waltz.

It is nowadays the custom at Terpsichorean assemblies to vary the programme of the dances enumerated above by the introduction of a set dance entitled, **The Alberts** which is made up of figures taken from The Lancers, Quadrilles and Caledonians with the addition of half of the Waltz Cotillon as follows:

First Figure, 1st figure of the Quadrilles. **Second Figure,** 2nd figure of the Caledonians. **Third Figure,** 3rd figure of the Lancers. **Fourth Figure,** half of the Waltz Cotillon. **Fifth Figure,** 5th figure of the Quadrilles. By making a judicious selection from the various figures of the three set dances, Quadrilles, Lancers and Cale-

donians, and if necessary incorporating the Waltz Cotillon as the fourth figure, several enjoyable set dances can be, and have been, extensively made and called by some appropriate name to the occasion and the following is suggested as an example.

1st Figure, 1st Lancers; **2nd Figure,** 2nd Quadrilles; **3rd Figure,** 3rd Lancers; **4th Figure,** half of Waltz Cotillon; and **5th Figure,** 5th Lancers.

Swimming.—Everyone who lives upon an island ought to learn to swim, and yet there are thousands who live upon the sea who never learn. Happily in our day most boys are taught this useful and pleasant art, and facilities abound on every hand for its exercise. In summer it is one of the most healthy and refreshing of exercises, to say nothing of the means it may be made of saving life. There are plenty of books on swimming, both elaborate and inexpensive, but we never heard of anyone who learned to swim from a book, and so we do not propose to give elaborate instructions here. Swimming is the art of propelling the body through water by means of the legs and hands, the legs being the principal means and involving the chief difficulty. For the action of the legs in swimming the Frog is perhaps the best swimming master. The legs must be struck out *sideways* as far as possible, not huddled up underneath the body and shot out straight. As a facetious swimming master once said, "try to kick both sides of the bath at once, no matter how wide it is." The action of the hands and arms is less difficult. Place the hands palm to palm in front of the face, shoot them out straight to the limit of the length of the arms, then reverse the hands and describe a semicircle with them, bringing them into position for the next stroke without drawing them behind the shoulders, as in that case the head will go under water. Most beginners find their chief difficulty in making the simultaneous movement of arms and legs, and this can only be gained by practice. The swimming bath is the best place for this, as the depth of the water is known and there are usually plenty of swimmers about who will help with hints and illustrations. The following remarks upon the swimming bath by Mr. James Lennox will be useful to those who have mastered the stroke and who are eager for more difficult accomplishments.

The Swimming Bath.—A well-appointed swimming bath measures not less than 60 or 70 feet in length, by 30 to 35 feet in breadth, with a depth of 7 feet at the diving-board, decreasing to 3 feet at the opposite end. The diving-board is made of tough wood, thin enough to make it springy, and overlaid with india-rubber, with rough surface, to prevent slipping. Other appliances, such as high-diving stands, may be added as inclination directs. **Plunging** is performed by leaping over the head into the water, with arms extended (not necessarily from the diving-board), and, without moving limb or muscle, allowing the body to float along until the impetus is completely off. A person of rather more than average weight may cover from 40 to 47 feet in this way, the distance being regulated a good deal by the length of time he can hold his breath. **Respiration.**—Before making his leap the bather should make three or four deep respirations, and, just before he touches the water, should inflate his lungs. Thus the blood is over-oxygenated—if the expression may be used—for a moment, and breathing is unnecessary for a proportionate period. The beginner should at first plunge from one of the sides of the bath, when a breadth of 35 feet may be done with a little practice, the distance being covered when the tips of the fingers touch the wall. This exercise ought to be made the first of the day's bath, as the exertions of swimming give a quicker action to the heart, and then it becomes impossible to hold the breath for more than a few moments. The instructions as to respiration hold good in regard to **Swimming under Water.** Much as the non-

swimmer may be inclined to doubt it—the difficulty is not how to keep upon the surface of the water, but how to keep under it. To effect this the swimmer will, in taking his stroke, throw the water upward, resting his chin on his breast, and only looking out occasionally for the wall of the bath. Assuming that a line has been laid along the bottom for the guidance of the swimmer under water, a mark should be placed upon it by the introduction of a streak of white upon black, or *vice versa*, three feet or so from the wall, which, affording an effectual warning to the swimmer, will save him from inconvenience, if not accident. The **Back Circle** is one of the most graceful movements of swimming. The swimmer floats on the surface on his back, with arms stretching beyond his head. Having inflated his lungs, he throws his head under water, and begins a hand-over-hand movement which takes him head first to the bottom and round until he again floats on the surface. To make a graceful circle the legs should be kept straight and close together. The swimmer need not stop with the first revolution, but may repeat it once or twice, throwing back his arms beyond his head immediately he gets into the floating position on the surface. The novice will almost certainly lose his reckoning on throwing back his head and making a few strokes with his hands, and possibly he may turn breast downward unwittingly, and then raise himself to the surface without completing a circle. Should he have difficulty in knowing whether or not he has made the revolution, he will obviate it by utilising the line on the bottom of the bath (referred to above). Placing himself on his back on the surface of the water just over this line, he will observe it as his head is borne towards the bottom by the movement of his hands, and so guide himself along until the upper part of his body begins to ascend. **Somersault Throwing** is a popular amusement of the swimmer. Here the diving-board necessarily comes into use. The forward leap is comparatively easy of accomplishment, and only requires a little fortitude to "grin and bear" the smarting which a rather flat contact with the water creates. The throw backward is less easy, and only sparely-built youths should attempt it. Projecting the heels over the diving-board until the edge of the latter is just beyond the ball of the toe, the swimmer jerks himself backward, throwing feet over head. The contact with the water cannot hurt if the throw has been anything like successful. These exercises will, of course, be indulged only in the seven-feet depth, and only by those who have made themselves by practice perfectly "at home" in the element. **Back Sculling.**—A pleasing variety in the means of locomotion in the swimming bath is furnished in *back sculling*. It affords, too, a change from the ordinary method of swimming, which might prove eminently useful for rest, should a person, from any untoward circumstance, find himself in the water with a long stretch before him to take him to shore. It is quite easy of accomplishment. Getting upon his back, the swimmer has his arms by his sides, hands open, and fingers firmly together. The object is to imitate as nearly as possible the movement taken by a boatman when propelling himself by a single oar over the stern of his boat. Place the backs of the hands against the outside of the thighs, then throw the hands towards the water by pressing against it to a distance of twelve or eighteen inches. Then turn the palms inward and draw the hands close to the thighs again, without touching. This outward and inward pressing of the hands against the water gives the body an impetus, and the swimmer glides smoothly along (backward and head first, of course) in an easy and graceful fashion. When the muscles of the arms have become hardened to the exercise, a good rate of speed can be attained; and it will be observed that the jerking movement of all other methods of propulsion is avoided. When the swimmer has mastered the style he will be surprised to find what little exertion is needed to send him

along the surface of the water, and it will seem as if he required only to rapidly twist his arms from the elbow to secure locomotion. In turning, a wide circle can be made by simply stopping or lessening the motion of one of the arms; but, to turn sharply, one of the hands is made to push the water, as it were, with short strokes, towards the side of the body, while the other continues the sculling movement. Sculling, as described, enables the swimmer in the open sea to make his way in such a shallow depth as twelve or fifteen inches of water, and he will paddle himself almost ashore before getting upon his feet to enter the bathing-box. Where the shore is rocky or otherwise uncomfortable to walk upon, the convenience of sculling is apparent. **Object-diving** is one of the most interesting exercises of the bath, and forms subject of competition on special occasions. While much more will be learned in persevering practice of this exercise than by reading, it may be observed, as a preparatory hint, that the legs are chiefly used for propulsion under water, the hands being employed in picking up and retaining the objects sought for—generally small metallic plates or saucers. The natural inclination of the body to the surface is to be guarded against by the use of the legs, and by an upward pressure of the right hand after the diver has lifted an object and passed it to the left. Even the left, occupied as it is, may be used to give direction to the body as the search proceeds. **Entering the Water.**—A word, in conclusion, as to the method of entering the water. The bather should not do so by wading slowly in until the water reaches the waist. The unpleasant sensation caused by cold water rising upon the body may be avoided by immersing the body as soon as two feet of depth is reached. In the bath especially this course should be followed, for there sufficient depth of water can at once be got. Nor should he simply flop into the water when he has depth enough to enable him to take a "header." Extending the arms beyond and above the head, the palms placed together, the bather should make his leap without fear, throwing his feet well up, and keeping his legs rigidly extended. As soon as contact with the water is over, the eyes may be opened, and if objects are to be searched for, that can be gone about quietly and leisurely.

CHRISTMAS AND ITS CUSTOMS.

If life were one continued game of "Follow my Leader," we could scarcely tread with greater fidelity in the footsteps of our fathers in the matter of seasonable pleasure and national custom, and were it *only* a game, we could scarcely follow these traditions of the past with less inquiry, or with less care as to origin and purport. The fact is, the enjoyment of a pleasure has often little or nothing to do with its cause or origin, and millions participate in pleasures without knowing and without caring to inquire whence the occasion came. In these days of national elementary education it may not be the case to the same degree, but certainly a few years ago but a small percentage of the juvenile showmen who exhibited their gaily dressed dolls on each succeeding Fifth of November knew anything of the historical incident which gave their custom rise, and certainly it would now puzzle a very large proportion of the better educated children, of both larger and smaller growth, who witness the annual spectacle of the "Lord Mayor's Show," to give any account either of its cause or its effect. Numbers of other customs might be mentioned to which this statement equally applies. Every county in England has its local customs, and every country in the world its national festivals; and this may be said of all of them—that if their enjoyment were only "according to knowledge," they would be very much less popular than they are. Christmas customs are no exception to this rule, and even as to the origin of Christmas itself a large amount of ignorance prevails.

Christmas, by its very name, would

lead us to suppose its origin connected with the Christian advent; and yet we know that centuries before the birth of Christ a winter festival was popular among the people of imperial Rome. To find the origin of Christmas customs, therefore, we must turn to the ages of antiquity, for it is there, in the celebration of the pagan saturnalia, that we discover the earliest traces of feasting and festivity occurring at this season of the year. The saturnalia were feasts held in honour of the god Saturn at that period of the ancient calendar which corresponds with the end of the Christian year. In ancient Rome, as well as in other parts of the world, it had, at a very early period, become the custom to hold periodical festivals in honour of the sun, as the giver of life and light, and as the visible representative of the supreme Deity; and whether in Scandinavia, under the names of Thor and Odin; in Rome, under the auspices of Saturn; or among the Persians and Phœnicians, under the patronage of Mithra and Baal, some hundreds of years before the birth of Christ, a practice had become prevalent of holding high festival, about the time of the winter solstice, in honour of the gods of light. Of the character of these feasts we have sufficient evidence to know that, although of pagan rudeness, and associated with much that is evil and gross, with all that excess of eating and drinking which desecrated the temples of Venus and Diana, there were practices connected with them which distinctly indicate the geniality of feeling so observable in the hospitality of modern Christmastide. On these occasions the slaves had perfect freedom in speech and action, and in some cases were even waited upon by their masters, and all classes of men mingled in the jollity of the festivals, unhampered by the distinctions of cast and fashion. Gifts and presents were distributed as marks of affection and goodwill; and good fare, for a short time at least, became the common lot of all. Bays and laurels were twined around the pillars of the temples, and the ancestry of the holly-bush decorated the halls of Rome.

In the early years of the Christian Church, however, these festivals were found greatly to interfere with the progress of Christianity, and after many ineffectual attempts to prevent these outbursts of revelry, to which the people had become accustomed, and in which they willingly took part, the leaders of the Church permitted a compromise, which instituted a Christian feast at the same season of the year. That this season is identical with the birth of Christ is extremely doubtful, but since for more than fifteen hundred years it has been held in celebration of the Christian advent, we may accept it as such. Such then was the origin of Christmas, and many Christmas customs date from this, or periods more remote. Decoration, for instance, is inseparable from festivity, and holidays always suggest holiday attire. From the days of the great "feast of tabernacles," if not long anterior to that, the twining of the laurel in festal decorations has been a constant and popular usage. We have seen that these verdant adornments were conspicuous in the Roman festivities, and the important part they play in investing the modern dwelling with the air of Christmastide secures for them unabated popularity and use.

The Mistletoe Bough, which to certain ages of life is the most popular of these evergreen adornments, comes to us laden with the traditions of two thousand years, an object of worship in antiquity, and certainly not unbeloved by the children of later days. The ancient festival of cutting down the mistletoe was one of great solemnity and importance among the Druids. As the custom was, the ancient Britons, attended by their priests, the Druids, set forth with many signs of rejoicing to gather the "mystic parasite," which was regarded with religious reverence, and believed to possess wondrous curative powers. On reaching the oak, upon which the mistletoe grew, two white bulls were, according to custom, tied thereto, and the chief Druid,

habited in white and armed with a golden knife, ascended the tree and cut the sacred plant, while another priest stood at the foot of the tree to receive the pieces in the folds of his flowing robes. Festivities of different kinds followed; the bulls, and sometimes even human beings, were sacrificed. After this the mistletoe was distributed to the people, who preserved it hung in sprigs over the entrance to their dwellings, attributing to the article and the act mysterious and superstitious properties and portentions. In the English homestead it is associated with customs of, perhaps, later date, which, if not so solemn, are calculated to maintain much more lasting favour.

The Burning of the Yule-Log on Christmas Eve, is traceable to our Scandinavian ancestors, who kindled large bonfires during the feast of Juul, at the winter solstice, in honour of their god Thor, and from that time to this, not only at Christmas time, but at other seasons of the year, bonfires and illuminations have often been associated with national festivities and popular rejoicing. In early English times the wide hearths of our old baronial halls often received the yule log with pomp and ceremony, and who can tell the good feeling that was excited by the good cheer, as rich and poor gathered round its cheerful blaze. Robert Herrick, the poet, thus celebrates in verse "The Burning of the Yule Log"—

"Come, bring with a noise,
My merry, merry boys,
The Christmas log to the firing;
While my good dame, she
Bids you all be free
And drink to your heart's desiring.

With last year's brand
Light the new block, and
For good success in his spending,
On your psaltres play
That sweet luck may
Come while the log is teending.*

Drink now the strong beer,
Put the white loaf here,
The while the meat is a shreading
For the rare mince pie,
And the plums stand by,
To fill the paste that's a kneading."

*Burning.

In the second verse we have an allusion to the old practice of keeping the half-burned log of one year to light the log of the next, a practice which prevails in some parts of the country until this day, and which is supposed by the superstitious to be a sure preservative against fire. The yule candle, which used to light the festive board during the evening, was the customary accompaniment of the burning of the yule log. Modern improvements in fuel and lighting have done much to extinguish both log and candle, though even now few things are more cheerful than a log-wood fire.

In olden, as well as in modern times, three things seem to be the main characteristics of Christmas, a decorated home, a blazing fireside, and a groaning table, and in these three characteristics Christmas is not likely much to alter.

Wassailing, in the olden time, evidenced the peasants' appreciation of good cheer, and is a custom still continued in many parts of the country, while almost everywhere, the wide world over, it is usual to place good cheer before visitors at Christmas time. "Wassail," prepared from spiced wine, ale, etc., was formerly carried from house to house in a bowl or cup, either by parties of men and youths or of women. For the origin of the term we are referred to the following story:—When Hengist and Horsa came over to England at the request of Voltigern, Prince of the Silures, a banquet was given to Hengist in honour of the event. During the entertainment, Ravenna, the fair daughter of Hengist, of whom Voltigern had become enamoured, smilingly offered to the prince a cup of spiced wine saying as she did so, "Was-heal hla, ford, Cyning," *i.e.* "Be of health, King," to which he replied, "Drinc heal," *i.e.*, "I drink your health." And that, as Robert of Gloucester has sung,

"Was in this land the first 'waes-heal.'"

The following song, "Wasselling," called a "Carol for a Wassel Bowl," is still, or was recently, sung in some parts

of England, particularly in Gloucestershire and Sussex, by the bearers of a "wassail bowl":—

"A jolly Wassel Bowl,
A Wassel of good ale,
Well fare the butler's soul,
That setteth this to sale—
Our jolly Wassel.

Good dame, here at your door
Our Wassel we begin;
We are all maidens poor,
We pray now let us in
With our Wassel.

Our Wassel we do fill
With apples and with spice,
Then grant us your good will
To taste here once or twice
Of our good Wassel.

If any maidens be
Here dwelling in this house,
They kindly will agree
To take a full carouse
Of our Wassel.

But here they let us stand,
All freezing in the cold;
Good master, give command
To enter and be bold
With our Wassel.

Much joy unto this hall
With us is entered in;
Our masters, first of all,
We hope will now begin
Of our Wassel.

And after, his good wife
Our spiced bowl will try
The Lord prolong your life.
Good fortune we espy
For our Wassel.

This is our merry night
Of choosing king and queen,
Then be it your delight
That something may be seen
In our Wassel.

It is a noble part
To bear a liberal mind.
God bless our master's heart,
For here we comfort find
With our Wassel.

Much joy betide them all,
Our prayers shall be; still
We hope and ever shall
For this your great good will
To our Wassel."

Wassailing, in some form or other, is likely to outlive many of its contemporary customs, some few of which apparently are doomed to die. Among these latter is the practice of mumming.

The Mummers, or, as they are called in Scotland, "Guisers" or "Guisards," occupied a prominent place in the Christmas revels of the olden time, and though from a variety of causes they have fallen into general disuse, they are yet maintained in various parts of the country. Like Christmas itself, this custom may be traced back to the Roman Saturnalia, in which masquerading was a popular pastime. From that time to this it has passed through many phases; in the first instance, assuming the character of the "mysteries," or "miracle plays," with which the leaders of the early Church sought to draw their followers off from the baneful influence of heathen revelries. These strange dramas continued for many centuries to form a favourite amusement of the people. In 1400 Henry IV. held his Christmas at Eltham, and we are informed by the chroniclers that he was visited by twelve aldermen and their sons as mummers, and that these august persons "had great thanks" from his majesty for their performance. Shortly after, however, a plot was organized to murder the king under the guise of mumming, the plan of which was only discovered a few hours before the time for its execution. This naturally brought mumming into disfavour at Court, and Henry VIII. issued an ordinance against mumming of any kind, imposing a punishment of three months' imprisonment upon offenders. As time passed on, however, the custom revived, and is still practised in some parts of the country. In case any of our younger readers may like to re-establish this custom for the benefit of their own friends, we insert here the plan of the performance as practised still, or until recently at Tenby, South Wales, a plan for which we are indebted to "Tales and Traditions of Tenby."

At Tenby, for three weeks at the Christmas season, the mummers are accustomed to go their rounds, mostly three in company, in a quaint guise, when every house is visited by them, and leave to enter requested. Upon being admitted they commence the per-

formance of the following drama. As each of the three represents various characters, they shall be designated Nos. 1, 2, and 3.

No. 1.—"Here come I, Old Father Christmas;
Christmas or not,
I hope old Father Christmas
Will never be forgot.
A room—make room here, gallant boys,
And give us room to rhyme;
We're come to shew activity
Upon a Christmas time.
Acting youth or acting age,
The like was never acted on this stage;
If you don't believe what I now say,
Enter St. George, and clear the way."

No. 2.—"Here come I, St. George, the valiant man,
With naked sword and spear in hand,
Who fought the dragon, and brought him to the slaughter,
And for this won the king of Egypt's daughter.
What man or mortal will dare to stand
Before me with my sword in hand;
I'll slay him, and cut him as small as flies,
And send him to Jamaica to make mince pies."

St. George's challenge is soon taken up, for, says No. 3:—

"Here come I, a Turkish knight,
In Turkish land I learned to fight,
I'll fight St. George with courage bold,
And if his blood's hot, will make it cold."

To this rejoins No. 2, who says:—

"If thou art a Turkish knight,
Draw out thy sword and let us fight."

A battle is the result; the Turk falls, and St. George, struck with remorse, exclaims:—

"Ladies and gentlemen,
You see what I've done,
I've cut this Turk down
Like the evening sun;
Is there any doctor that can be found
To cure this knight of his deadly wound?"

No. 1 re-enters, metamorphosed—

"Here come I, a doctor,
A ten-pound doctor;
I've a little bottle in my pocket,
Called hokum, shokum, alicampane;
I'll touch his eyes, nose, mouth and chin,
And say, 'Rise, dead man,' and he'll fight again."

After touching the prostrate Turk, the latter leaps up, ready again for the battle. St. George, however, thinks this to be a favourable opportunity for sounding his own praises, and rejoins:—

"Here am I, St. George, with shining armour bright,
I am a famous champion, also a worthy knight;
Seven long years in a close cave was kept,
And out of that into a prison leaped,
From out of that into a rock of stones,
There I laid down my grievous bones.
Many a giant did I subdue,
And ran a fiery dragon through.
I fought the man of Tillotree,
And still will gain the victory.
First, then, I fought in France,
Second, I fought in Spain,
Thirdly, I came to Tenby
To fight the Turk again."

A fight ensues, and St. George being again victor, repeats his request for a doctor, who succeeds, as before, in performing a miraculous cure, and at once comes forward as the Protector:—

"Here come I, Oliver Cromwell,
As you may suppose;
Many nations I have conquered
With my copper nose.
I made the French to tremble,
And the Spanish for to quake,
I fought the jolly Dutchmen,
And made their hearts to ache."

No. 2 then changes his character into that of the "gentleman in black"—

"Here come I, Beelzebub,
Under my arm I carry a club,
Under my chin I carry a pan,
Don't I look a nice young man?"

Having finished his speech, the main object of the visit is thus delicately hinted by No. 3—

"Ladies and gentlemen,
Our story is ended,
Our money-box is recommended;
Five or six shillings will not do us harm,
Silver, or copper, or gold if you can."

After this appeal has been responded to, St. George, the Turk, Doctor, Oliver Cromwell, and Beelzebub take their departure, and the "guising" is at an end. Of course mumming affords opportunity for any extent of costuming, and for the display of ready wit by the mummers. Private theatricals and acting charades, however, have superseded in most cases the practice of mumming.

The Waits can certainly lay claim to honourable antecedents and historic use. The practice of serenading the citizens of London in the silent hours of the night, at this season of the year, is one of considerable antiquity, and one that preserves no little vigour in the present day. Writers upon the subject are sorely puzzled to decide whether the term "waits," really means the "performers," the "instruments," or the "performances;" but taking the term generally as it stands, we know it to refer in our day to such bands of wind instruments as perform at night for some three weeks previous to Christmas; never too rich, and never too much in tune. In former times the waits had official recognition and public duties; waits were attached to, and were among the paid officials of, the Corporation of London. These waits, like the singers who at present "discourse sweet sounds" at civic and royal banquets, were open to engagement by noblemen and gentlemen for performances at their own houses, and in this sphere of enterprise the waits of Southwark attained to prominence and fame. We learn, too, that the waits were no mean auxiliaries to the gallantry of the times, for to quote the *Tatler*, which speaks of the waits of 150 years ago—"As the custom prevails at present, there is scarce a young man of any fashion in a Corporation who does not make love to the trow music; the waits often help him through his courtship." Licenses were at one time given for the exclusive right to provide waits for given districts, and as late as the year 1820 these "vested" rights existed. Free trade in waits, however, is now the rule, and it is greatly to be regretted that the application of this advanced principle of political economy has not tended to improve the article.

Christmas Carolling is one of the prettiest, as well as one of the oldest customs pertaining to Christmas. It is said, with every show of probability, that even the bishops of the early Church sang carols to the clergy on Christmas Day. This practice, however, can scarcely have been so interesting as is the modern development of the same custom, when, either in the church or in the open air, the bright voices of children ring out the "In excelsis gloria." Many of the ancient carols are very quaint, both as regards the music and the words, and both poets and musicians of later days have laboured hard, and in some cases successfully, to catch the spirit of these ancient Christian hymns. Carol singing is happily rather on the increase than the decrease, though the ancient simplicity of the custom is in danger of being forgotten. Among those who have successfully caught the carol style of writing, Robert Herrick is a conspicuous example, whose singularly beautiful Christmas hymn we here append:—

A flourish of music: then follows the Song.

"Tell us, thou clear and heavenly tongue
Where is the Babe that lately sprung?
Lies He the lily-banks among?

Or say, if this new Birth of ours
Sleeps, laid within some ark of flowers,
Spangled with dew-light; thou can'st clear
All doubts, and manifest the where.

Declare to us, bright star, if we should seek
Him in the morning's blushing cheek,
Or search the beds of spices through,
To find Him out?"

The Christmas Tree, in England is only a very modern custom, dating indeed no earlier than the marriage of Queen Victoria. In Germany, from whence Prince Albert brought it, it has flourished for many centuries. It is not every plant, however, which will acclimatize so well as has the Christmas tree, and once planted in England, it may be doubted whether any production of the most skilled gardener has ever become so speedily and so widely popular. In Germany the tree is arranged entirely by the senior members of the family, the children being kept entirely aloof until the tree is completed, and then they are invited to witness and enjoy it. German settlers in America have carried the custom thither, and so on both hemispheres now flourishes the Christmas tree.

Christmas Cards are essentially an English institution, and its gigantic development during the short time it has existed is unparalleled in the annals of publishing. To say that millions upon millions of these cards are circulated annually is to give but a poor idea of the vast enterprise which has grown up of late in connection with this last addition to the rôle of Christmas customs.

Hints on Christmas Decorations.—In decorations of all kinds it is necessary to keep in view a few simple rules:

First, form a plan of what you wish to accomplish and adhere to it closely. If you set to work in a hazy, haphazard fashion, the general effect will most likely be unequal. Procure all the materials you will require, and have them at hand before you commence; thus avoiding confusion and loss of time. Paper, cardboard, moss, string, wire, and strong glue, should all be provided ready.

Study appropriateness, without which there can be no beauty. However admirable ornamentation may be in itself, it can only be really beautiful when in harmony with its surroundings. The massive greenery which would be adapted to the lofty proportions of a large church, would appear heavy in the more limited space of a small chapel; a large hall demands a different style of decoration from a small parlour.

For home decorations it is advisable to aim at grace, lightness, and elegance. Beauty does not consist in quantity, and an over-profuse use of decoration is most unfortunate in effect. Avoid overcrowding, which is the bane of most amateur artistic effort. Many persons believe that, because a thing is intrinsically beautiful, the greater number of articles of the same description grouped together the better. It is a mistaken idea. Space and neutral background are absolutely essential in order to show the beauties of any object to perfection.

Greenery can always be purchased ready for use. For the festoons of arches, the wreathing of pillars in a church, this is not too cumbersome, though for ordinary home decoration it is rather heavy. It is, however, easy to take it apart and reconstruct it into lighter wreaths. Garlands and wreaths should never be made too thick, or the effect will be heavy and gloomy. Lovely garlands can be made by stitching leaves on a length of dark green tape, half-an inch or one or two inches broad, according to the size of the leaves. Lay one leaf on the braid and fasten it with a stitch, then place another leaf under the braid, the point reaching under the leaf already attached, and fasten securely. Another leaf placed above, its point as far from the base of the first as the breadth of the braid, and again another under, neatly fastened; thus you have a solid wreath sightly on both surfaces. Autumn leaves arranged in this fashion make a charming decoration. Coloured grasses and flowers mixed with the greenery are very effective. For a pier glass, or any article of furniture likely to be injured by nails, use thin laths of woods of the requisite size to support your greenery, in order to prevent contact with the gilt frame. For a mirror, a long trailing spray, short in the middle, longer at the sides, or a drooping garland of delicate, graceful greenery, is admirable, and the reflection in the glass multiplies its beauties. When the wreaths are light they may be attached by strong pins instead of nails, and the marks are less objectionable. For a chandelier use only very light materials. Fern leaves sewed upon a length of green tape, or a delicate wreath of ivy, with some of the leaves frosted, mingled with bright everlastings and dyed grasses, is very graceful. For picture frames, long wreaths of single leaves give a more elegant effect than heavy masses of greenery.

To crystalize a wreath, first make up the wreath and then dip it into a solution of alum and water. Allow one pound of alum to two quarts of boiling water. Allow the wreath to remain in it for a few moments, and then suspend it above the basin that it may drip. Large and beautiful crystals are thus

formed, which catch and reflect the light in a hundred rainbow hues. Bare branches and twigs dipped in alum are very lovely, and may be suspended from chandeliers or mixed with greenery with the very happiest results. The effect of frost and snow can be easily obtained. White wadding answers very well for the flat background, but for any object standing out, the soft wool, usually termed "jeweller's cotton," is much the best. Let the wool first be tied on with thread all over the top edges or wherever snow would be likely to lodge. In order to look as natural as possible, it should be pulled out and allowed to hang down in projecting points and masses. On branches and leaves the effect of snow may be obtained by coating them with strong colourless gum, and then sprinkling them thickly with flour. For frost, drop gum upon the wool wherever frost would naturally form, and sprinkle coarse Epsom salts upon it. Frosted glass, ready crushed, can be purchased from the chemist for the same purpose. A more inexpensive mode is to break glass bottles, and then crush them with a heavy roller; the effect is lovely, as they glitter and sparkle beautifully.

Mottoes are largely used in decoration, and if tastefully arranged produce the happiest effects. Nothing can be more artistic than the illuminated mottoes which can be painted at home or purchased in beautiful designs. For scrolls, thin deal, strong paste-board, or, best of all for illuminating purposes, zinc plates form the best foundation. For the background, Turkey red twill, Canton flannel, or glazed linen can be used, and where the motto is placed high up paper does equally well. A deep red is a good tint for the back-ground, but your selection of colour both for background and letters, must necessarily depend upon the surroundings amidst which your motto is to be placed. Against old oak panelling a light shade goes best; not white, which would present too violent a contrast, but a pale gray with a crimson edge. The letters might then be boldly relieved with black. For stonework, red is the most telling. With very dark green, pale blue is charming. When the walls and draperies are very dark, as is so much the fashion at present, the most brilliant effects in mottoes are permissible. In hanging mottoes and scrolls be careful not to hang them too high; if they are not suspended within the range of vision, and require an effort to decipher their meaning, much of the beauty of design is lost.

The letters and bordering are first cut out in strong cardboard and then ornamented in various ways. The smaller the letters the more simple should they be in design; antique or fancy characters are only desirable in a very large size, and when the motto is to be hung very low. It is important that all the letters should be exactly of a size. Cut a number of pieces of cardboard the same size; if one is used for each letter, the proportions of all will be precisely alike. The border of a motto should never be so obtrusive as to divert attention from the sentiment which it frames. A double or treble row of leaves makes a pretty border; each leaf must overlap and conceal the stalk of the preceding one. Broken walnut shells, sprinkled upon a coating of strong, colourless gum, also makes a good bordering; looking, if skilfully arranged, like an edging of carved wood. Ivy or delicate fern leaves can also be utilised as a border; indeed, it may be said of both letters and bordering that they are as numerous as individual taste can plan or individual skill can execute. It may be added that the more simple the design the more effective it usually is.

Moss sewed on in tufts, and arranged with the fingers until the surface looks uniformly covered, forms a pretty foundation for flowers, everlastings, or letters of straw or scarlet berries. Pretty letters in imitation of coral are made by coating the shapes with colourless gum and sprinkling them with rice or tapioca. They will require at least

two coatings, and the first should be allowed to dry perfectly before the second is added. Letters with very small leaves sewed over them look well, but it is a tedious task, as they must first be covered with paper or cloth. Very lovely silvery letters can be made of tinfoil. Cut out the shape of the letter in tinfoil, but considerably larger than the foundation letter, crumple it in the hand until it is well creased, then place it lightly over the card letter and fasten it at the back. Letters of white wool, canton flannel, or cotton batting are very effective upon a crimson background. Paste the card letters upon sheets of the best white wadding. The flat side of the wadding adheres to the pasted side of the letters so that you can cut the wadding out the clear shape of the paper. The effect is as if the letters were formed of snow. A narrow edge of delicate green to the white letters is sometimes considered an improvement. Letters of all kinds can be frosted in the same manner as wreaths and garlands, with flour, glass, or Epsom salts sprinkled upon gum.

A motto in the shape of a scroll, in white wadding, edged with frosted leaves, with letters of pressed ferns bent into shape, is exceedingly attractive, as is also one with a background of pale green cambric, edged with dark green leaves, the letters composed of bright green everlastings. Silver letters are charming upon pale blue, dull green, or deep red. Letters covered with crimson velvet are effective upon old gold sateen. Small banners can also be utilised in Christmas decorations. In these modern days so many persons paint tastefully that no directions are required for their construction except that they should be appropriate in character and sentiment, and there are so many designs from which to choose, that individual taste can alone direct a selection.

Hints on Tableaux.—The following are a few plain directions by which effective scenes can be arranged in any room with but little trouble or expense. **Requirements.**—Ten boxes of various sizes, two half-length picture frames, one wash-tub and board, one broom, twenty feet annealed wire, two dozen curtain-rings, twelve large lamps or twenty candles, or a gas rod twelve feet long, with fifteen five-foot burners upon it, six yards black tarlatan muslin, and five cotton sheets. If the room has no folding-doors you must have a thick curtain or bed-quilt contrived to draw on a wire across the room at one end, leaving a space about fifteen feet deep for the stage. This space must be draped with shawls or curtains by stretching wire across the sides and back of the stage near the ceiling, and hanging them by means of rings firmly sewn upon the cloth. **Framing.**—You will thus have a square room draped all around, except in front. Then procure four upright pieces of narrow board just the height of the room for posts, screw them upon the back sides of the frames near the edge, so that when you raise them up, the frames will stand upright four and a half feet from the floor. Cover all the space above and below the frames with cloth of the same colour as the back wall, so they will appear to the audience as if they were hanging upon the wall; put up these frames four feet apart, and nail four strips of board five inches wide in the shape of a large frame between them, having the top and bottom strips which form the frame six and a half feet apart, which when completed will give you a large frame between the two smaller ones. This large frame will be four feet wide and six and a half high outside. A curtain must be arranged to run in front of the frames in order to cover them when not in use. These three frames stand at the back of the stage (the supporting posts nailed to the floor) two and a half feet from the wall, so as to give room for the performers behind them. **Lighting.**—If gas is available, fasten a rod with burners upon it over the top of the curtain or folding-doors. The best way is to make for it a shelf supported upon two posts about eight feet

high. Over the burners and behind them tack sheets of common tin, bent so as to throw the light down. If you cannot get the tin conveniently, fasten behind the burners a white sheet, which will serve the purpose very well. If the curtain does not come to the ceiling you must put a shawl or thick cloth above it, so that the light cannot show much over the curtain into the darkened room where the audience sit. When gas cannot be had, fasten the candles upon the shelf. If paraffin lamps are used, holes must be made in the board to fasten them firmly in their places. In a very elaborate performance the stage should be raised to a level with the eyes of the spectators. Next make a veil of black tarlatan muslin large enough to cover the space before the folding-doors or posts which support your curtain.

Programme.—In the following programme only such costumes and appointments as can readily be obtained in any house are introduced. We will begin with a group of statuary, as this requires more time for preparation than other scenes. Here is a very simple one—*Justice, Mercy, and Peace.* Justice stands on a high pedestal made of two boot-boxes covered with a sheet; Peace on one box; and Mercy kneels on two boxes placed end to end so as to make a long pedestal. They are draped in sheets. Peace must be taken by a child dressed in a short frock of white cotton belted around the waist. Justice must be a larger lady than Mercy. Mercy kneels in attitude of supplication with clasped hands; Justice stands erect, holding a sword and scales, covered with white cloth, and having a bandage over her eyes; Peace stands on the right of Justice, holding a stalk of paper lilies in her right hand. The faces must be whitened with lily-white rubbed on dry. In all statues the hands which are shown are covered with white cotton gloves, the arms with stocking-legs sewn to the gloves, and the heads with wigs made of lamp-wicking. Remember to turn down your gas, or to draw a strip of green cambric before your kerosene lamps; and if your statues stand still, the effect is wonderful. When the audience have seen enough of the statues, lower your curtain or shut folding-doors. The assistants rapidly clear the stage; draw away the curtain which hides the picture, and in one minute the audience behold to their astonishment a set of tableaux. In one frame *Milton*, at the age of ten, by a girl with a round face, and light wavy hair falling upon her shoulders in front, flat top-cap, pointed paper collar, velvet basque; in the other the *Pride of the Market*—a dark-haired young lady, rustic hat, white waist, bodice cut out of red flannel; she holds on her left arm a basket of apples, and in her right hand the largest apple of all. In the centre or large frame we will have *Lear and Cordelia.* Lear sits proudly on a soap-box, Cordelia has her left arm over his shoulder. Throw light from the left side with a common reflector. Turn the light on at top, and the pictures look as if they were painted.

Next we must have a comic scene,—*Love's Disguises.* A pretty girl in calico is washing at a tub at the right side of the stage; a fop is looking at her through an enormous eye-glass; he is dressed showily, with white hat and cane. In the next scene the maiden is sitting on a chair in the centre, and a cunning little Cupid aims his great tin bow at the fop from the wash-tub. In the mean time the active assistant has filled the frames again, and without delay the audience behold—*Little Nell and her Grandfather and Little Bo-peep.* Bo-peep, high sugar-loaf hat made of red paper, calico dress tucked over red petticoat; holds a crooked cane. Nell, calico dress, broad hat. Grandfather leans on her shoulder, cane in right hand. By this time the audience will be ready for something to laugh at, so we will have—*Ignorance is Bliss: a French Peasant Scene.* At the left of the stage, an old lady is asleep in a high chair. She is dressed in black, or in any plain dress; wears a white apron,

and has a white shawl folded across her shoulders; also a high cap and spectacles, which have fallen upon her nose. At the right a girl sits at the spinning-wheel. She has on a bright short skirt, white waist, red or black bodice; on her head a cap of lace gathered in a rosette with very long ribbons streaming from it; on her arms she has three ribbons, one at two inches above the wrist, the next below the elbow, the third near the shoulder. A youth is kneeling at her feet holding her left hand. She looks archly at him, regardless of the unconscious grandmother. The youth has ribbons upon his arms like the girl; he has no coat on, but bright suspenders joined in front with two bars. In the second scene the lovers remain as before, except that the grandmother has wakened, and is just raising her broom with the intention of waking the young man also. In the third scene the grandmother holds the lovers apart at arms' length by grasping one ear of each. The girl is crying at the left side, and the youth at the right of grandmother looks sheepishly down, with his finger in his mouth. Next draw away the back curtain again, and show more pictures which the assistant has had time enough to prepare. In the centre frame stands a *gleaner*. In one small frame a child with a red cape over her head and a little basket in her hand personates *Red Riding-hood;* and in the other a *Marchioness*. As by this time the spectators may be tired of still scenes, we will give them some movable ones.

Jarley's Wax-Works.—Characters. *Mrs. Jarley.*—Black or figured dress, red shawl, huge bonnet. *Little Nell.*—White or calico dress, hat over arm, long stick. *Chinese Giant.*—Curtain of turkey-red, or patch, tied around the waist, long enough to reach to the ground when he stands upon a high stool; patch quilt or curtain folded over shoulder, shawl fashion; bright lamp-shade on his head, long queue of braided list. *Dwarf.*—Kneeling child with large shoes to show in front of dress, white hair of tow or wicking; dark dress, cap, bowl, and spoon. *Martha Bangs.*—Black dress, sheet thrown carelessly over, black hair flowing, left hand up to forehead, picklejar in right hand. *Mrs. Winslow.*—Dark dress, ruffled cap, white apron, bottle of Soothing Syrup in right hand, rag-baby or large doll in left hand. *Mermaid.*—White dress, green skirt, mostly concealed behind giant, long light flowing locks, hand-glass and comb in hands. *The Boy that stood on the Burning Deck.*—Fireman's shirt and trumpet; clothes on hind side before. *Captain Kidd.*—Red shirt, straw or military hat, pistol, and sword. *His Victim.*—White dress, red cape, flowing hair. *Lord Byron.*—Black cloak, broad white collar. *Bluebeard.*—Red dressing-gown, loose white pantaloons, turban, large key. *Siamese Twins.*—Two men or boys, different sizes, joined by a white roll of paper. *Mrs. Jarley sits at right of stage by a great drum, or table, and Nell is dusting and arranging the figures as the curtain rises. Mrs. Jarley describes the figures as they are pointed out by Nell.*

The Chinese Giant.—This figure is universally allowed to be the tallest figure in my collection; he originated in the two provinces of Oolong and Shang-high, one province not being long enough to produce him. On account of his extreme length it is impossible to give any adequate idea of him in one entertainment; consequently he will be continued in our next.

The celebrated Welsh Dwarf.—This wonderful child has created some interest in the medical and scientific world, from the fact that he was thirteen years old when he was born, and kept on growing older and older until he died at the somewhat advanced age of two hundred and ninety-seven, in consequence of eating too freely of pies and cakes, his favourite food.

Martha Bangs, the miserable maniac who poisoned fourteen families by giving them pickled walnuts, and then wandered

about from house to house observing the effect of the pestiferous pickles. She holds in her right hand the fatal jar, which has plunged so many happy families into the deepest despair; you will observe also the wild confusion of ideas expressed by her raving locks. It is of this classic figure that the poet Burns speaks in his comic poem of Cassabianca. To use the words of the lamented John Phœnix, "Face white as the driven snow, hair black as the driven charcoal."

The children's friend, the parent's assistant, the mother's hope, *Mrs. S. A. Winslow*, a nurse of thirty years' standing. She holds in her hand a bottle of that wonderful syrup which has soothed the sorrows of so many suffering sisters. I cannot do better justice to this remarkable fluid than by quoting a few stanzas from the celebrated comic poet Ossian, in his great melodramatic poem of Marmion,—"Soothing Syrup adds new lustre to the cheek of beauty, smooths the wrinkles from the furrowed brow of age, and is also excellent for chilblains."

The celebrated Fejee Mermaid, combining, as you well know, the principal properties of a beautiful woman, joined to those of a lovely fish.

This boy, ladies and gentlemen, had the extreme foolishness to stand upon the burning deck. Turning to look in the direction "whence" Albut "he had fled," his head became completely turned, so that he was picked up insensible from among the burning embers, and his face has been firmly fixed the wrong way ever since.

Captain Kidd, the robber of the main, supposed to have originated somewhere Down East. His whole life being spent upon the stormy deep, he amassed an immense fortune and buried it in the sand along the flower-clad banks of Cape Cod, by which course he invented the Savings-Banks, now so common along shore. Having hidden away so much property, which, like many modern investments, never can be unearthed, he was known as a great sea-cretur.

Before him kneels his lovely and innocent victim, the Lady Blousabella Infantina, who was several times taken and murdered by the bloodthirsty tyrant, which accounts for the calm look of resignation depicted upon her lovely countenance.

Bluebeard, the well-known philanthropist, the loving father and tender husband. But little is known of the early history of this celebrated personage, except that his name was Nathan Beard, and he kept a seminary for young ladies, where he endeavoured to instil into the female mind those qualities in which they are so painfully deficient,—curiosity, and love of approbation. Failing of course in this, he became so blue and low-spirited that he was known by the nickname of Bluebeard, which title he bore until his death, which occurred during the latter portion of his life. In his hand he holds the instrument which he used throughout his long and successful career; it will be at once recognised by every true scholar as the key to Colburn's Arithmetic, Part Third.

The Siamese Twins.—These remarkable brothers lived together in the greatest harmony,—indeed, were never seen apart in their lives, although there was always a bone of contention between them. One of them was born in the island of Borneo, the other on the southern extremity of Cape Ann.

To an audience of such cultivation and taste as the one before me it is superfluous to describe this figure. It is easily recognised by you all as Lord Byron, as he appeared when composing his celebrated novel of The Coarse Hair, which holds an equal rank with the following popular works: What's on the Mind, Locke on the Understanding, and the Pleasures of Imagination, by *Akin* side.

This usually concludes my exhibition, but I shall now proceed to do what I seldom do. I shall wind up my figures. These are all fitted with clock-works inside, so that when they are wound up they will go through the exact motions they would have done had they been

alive. In fact many people have supposed them to be alive, they look so very natural, but I assure you they are all made of wood and wax. Block heads every one.

[NELL winds each one up with a watchman's rattle. When wound up the Giant bows low, then wags his head three times and bows again as before; the Dwarf eats; Martha Bangs lifts her bottle and tears her hair: Mrs. Winslow trots baby and gives it Soothing Syrup; Mermaid turns her head and combs her hair, looking in hand-glass; the Boy slowly revolves; Captain Kidd lifts his sword over his Victim, who raises her hands and groans; Lord Byron rolls his eyes and writes in a book; Bluebeard raises his key and turns his head; Siamese Twins begin to fight.

All move very slowly and stiffly at first, then go faster and faster, when at a signal the clock-work runs down, and they stop.]

[*Curtain falls.*

EPITOME OF ENGLISH HISTORY.

The Anglo-Saxon period.

It is from the "Commentaries of Julius Cæsar" that we get the first authentic account of Great Britain. Julius Cæsar invaded the country in 55 B.C. and again in the following year. The people then inhabiting the island, although all of Celtic origin, and having a common religion—Druidism—were of two races: the natives, and others who had come to Britain from Gallia, and Gallia Belgica, now called France and Belgium. The former were uncivilised people living barbarian lives, whilst the latter, who occupied principally the south coast, tilled the ground, engaged in trade, built houses, wore clothes and had an orderly system of government. Julius Cæsar, after his victory in 54 B.C., left Britain never to return and it was not until 43 A.D. that the country became subject to Roman rule. The Roman occupation lasted from 43 to 410 A.D., and during that time civilisation progressed. In 410 the Emperor of Rome, finding he needed a greater guard for his own city, recalled his troops from Britain and released the Britons from all allegiance to Rome. The next conquerors of Britain were from the shores of the Baltic Sea and German Ocean. In 449 Hengist and Horsa, two chiefs from Jutland, landed at Ebbsfleet in the Island of Thanet, and Hengist founded the Kingdom of Kent, 457. After this the country was invaded by other bands of continental adventurers, mostly Saxons and Angles, before whom the Britons retired into Wales and Cornwall. Several different kingdoms were formed by these Anglo-Saxons who gave the country the name of Angleland or England. The kingdoms, generally reckoned as seven, received the name of the Heptarchy, although there were really never seven settled kingdoms in existence at one time. The names of the seven kingdoms were—Kent, founded by Hengist; South Saxony by Ella; West Saxony by Cerdic; East Saxony by Ercenwin; Northumbria by Ida; East Anglia by Uffa; and Mercia by Cridda. Between the more powerful of these kings a struggle for supremacy ensued arising from the desire of each to become Overlord of the other kings and Bretwalda, or supreme ruler of all the kingdoms. The overlordship was held by **Northumbria** from 607 to 685, **Edwin**, who became Overlord of all the country except Wessex, 626, being one of its most powerful kings. When Edwin was killed in battle the first place was taken by Mercia, **Ethelbald** and **Offa** being its two most famous rulers. In 827 **Egbert**, King of Wessex, completely subdued Mercia, and thus united the Heptarchy into one kingdom, of which he was sole monarch. He was the first Bretwalda who was succeeded on the throne by his heir. The kingdom was soon attacked by the Danes, one party of whom pillaged London, while another, landed at Teignmouth and ravaged Devonshire. Egbert defeated the Danes at Hengston Hill, 835. He was succeeded by his son **Ethelwolf**,

in whose reign the Danes wintered in the Island of Sheppey, where they built a fort. Ethelwolf and his son Alfred went on a visit to Rome, where Alfred was educated. The king died in 857 leaving four sons: Ethelbald, Ethelbert, Ethelred and Alfred, each of whom in turn succeeded to the throne. **Ethelbald's** reign was uneventful, but in the reign of **Ethelbert**, the Danes again invaded the country, landing on the Isle of Thanet; Kent was afterwards laid waste, and Winchester was plundered by the invaders. **Ethelred I.** spent nearly all his life fighting with the Danes; it is said that in the year 867 he fought nine battles with them. They captured Edmund the under-king of East Anglia, 870; he was bound to a tree and shot on his refusal to give up Christianity. The Danes invaded Wessex in 871 settling in the conquered towns. On Ethelred's death **Alfred the Great** succeeded to the throne. During the first few years of Alfred's reign he suffered defeat at the hands of the Danes; and, at one time was obliged to disguise himself and seek obscurity, but in the year 877 he gained a victory at Exeter and in 878 another at Ethandune or Edington. By the Peace of Wedmore the Danes agreed to embrace Christianity, and were permitted to live, as vassals of Alfred, in the Danelagh, a part of England east of Watling Street. A fleet was built by Alfred, who also fortified the towns most likely to be attacked by the Danes. He died in the year 901 and was succeeded by his eldest son called **Edward the Elder**, who was acknowledged as overlord by the Scots and Welsh of Strathclyde (the district lying between the Firth of Clyde and Morecambe Bay). Edward the Elder was succeeded by his son **Athelstan** in 925. The Danes, Scots and other nations formed a league against him, but he utterly defeated them at Brunanburgh in 937. Athelstan was succeeded in 940 by his brother **Edmund**, who subdued the Danes under Anlaf, and made Dunstan, Abbot of Glastonbury. Edmund was stabbed by a robber named Lleofa, and was succeeded by his brother **Edred**, 946. **Edwy**, son of Edmund began to reign 955. He quarrelled with the monks, and banished Dunstan, their leader. During the time of the dispute Edwy neglected his country, and Mercia revolted under Edgar, Edwy's brother. Edwy died in 958 and was succeeded by **Edgar**, who recalled Dunstan, and made him Archbishop of Canterbury. **Edward the Martyr**, son of Edgar, began to reign 975; he was murdered by order of his step-mother Elfrida at Corfe Castle, and was succeeded by his half-brother **Ethelred the Unready**, 978; in 994 the Danes invaded England under Sweyn; the king, being unable to cope with them, paid them money to withdraw, the money being raised from the people by a tax called Dane-gelt. The Danes broke their treaty of peace, and Ethelred planned to massacre them; St. Brice's day, Nov. 13, 1002, was fixed upon, and at a signal given by the king the West-Saxons put to death all the Danes—men, women and children. Sweyn, whose sister was one of the victims, came to England to avenge the massacre; he conquered the whole country; and Ethelred took refuge in Normandy, 1013. Sweyn died the year after this conquest. **Edmund Ironside** succeeded in 1016; he fought for the crown with Canute, son of Sweyn; after several battles the two agreed to divide the kingdom. Edmund died Nov. 1016, and left **Canute the Dane** sole monarch. The three Danish kings were **Canute, Harold Harefoot** and **Hardecanute**. The Saxon line was restored on the accession of **Edward the Confessor**, son of Ethelred II. Edward having for many years lived with William, Duke of Normandy, was foreign in his manners and habits of life; he introduced the Norman-French language into his court. He married Edith, daughter of Earl Godwin, a very powerful man with the people. Godwin, through a quarrel with the king, had to leave the country, but the people, vexed at being under foreigners, welcomed him back as their leader, 1051. Godwin died

in 1052 and his son Harold took his place. Edward the Confessor died and was succeeded by **Harold II.**, Godwin's son, Jan. 5, 1066. He was opposed by William the Norman, who landed at Pevensey in Sussex, and defeated the English troops in the battle of Senlac or Hastings, Oct. 14, when Harold was slain and William assumed the title of Conqueror.

The Norman Kings.

William I., Duke of Normandy, was born in 1027, of Scandinavian origin. He visited England in 1052 and gained from Edward the Confessor the promise that he should succeed him on the English throne. On the death of Edward in 1066 he claimed the crown but was opposed by Harold whom he met and defeated at the battle of Hastings. He was crowned on Christmas Day, 1066. To secure the support of the church he appointed his friend Lanfranc to the see of Canterbury in 1070. In 1078 William's eldest son, Robert, displeased because his father would not give him the duchies of Normandy and Maine, joined with Philip, king of France and some Norman barons against William, whom he wounded at Gerberoi in Normandy, 1078. William introduced the Feudal system whereby the use of land was granted in return for military services, and compiled the Doomsday Book in which all the land in the kingdom was described and by which the crown dues or customs were assessed. This work was completed in 1086. William made war with France in 1087; while riding through the ruins of the town of Mantes, his horse stepped on some hot cinders, and plunging violently jerked the king against the pommel of the saddle. The accident caused an internal injury of which he died at Rouen, 1087. He was buried at Caen, and was succeeded in Normandy by his eldest son Robert, and in England by his second surviving son William Rufus. William the Conqueror protected the country against invasion by fortifying the five harbours or "Cinque Ports"—Dover, Hastings, Romney, Hythe and Sandwich.

William II. was born in 1057 and crowned at Westminster, Sept. 26, 1087; he subdued the rebellious Norman barons under Odo, by the help of the English Fryd (national militia), 1088. Archbishop Lanfranc died in 1089, but the king for his own purposes, kept the see of Canterbury vacant for four years, Anselm being appointed archbishop in 1093. The Crusades or Holy Wars were begun in 1095. William was killed, it is supposed by accident, while hunting in the New Forest, Aug. 2, 1100; and was buried at Winchester. He was succeeded by his brother Henry. In this reign a wall was built round the Tower of London, and Westminster Hall and London Bridge were erected. The Goodwin Sands were formed by an overflow of the sea.

Henry I., born 1068, was crowned Aug. 5, 1100. On his accession he granted to the people a charter called a "Charter of Liberties," which promised that sees should not be kept vacant; that the King's vassals and their sub-vassals should be freed from certain exactions; and that the laws of Edward the Confessor should be respected. He married Matilda, daughter of Malcolm, King of Scotland; made peace with his brother Robert who invaded England in 1101, and in turn invaded Normandy 1106; defeated Robert, and sent him to England. He married his daughter Matilda or Maude to Henry V., Emperor of Germany, 1114; and sustained the loss of his own queen in 1118. His eldest son William was drowned with a number of the nobility in the White Ship on their way from Normandy to England in 1120. Henry married Adelais of Louvain, 1121; surfeited with eating lampreys he died Dec. 1, 1135; and was buried at Reading. He was succeeded by his nephew Stephen, son of his sister Adela, and the Earl of Blois. In this reign Bow Bridge in E. London, the first arched bridge ever seen in England, was built over the River Lee.

Stephen, born 1094; usurped the

throne, setting aside the claims of Matilda, daughter of Henry I., 1135. David, King of Scotland, Matilda's uncle, espoused the course of his niece, marched with an army to Northallerton, where a battle, called the Battle of the Standards, was fought, and David was defeated, 1138. Matilda landed in England, 1139, and a civil war began, Matilda having the help of her half-brother, Robert of Gloucester. In 1141 the battle of Lincoln was fought and Stephen was taken prisoner; he was put in irons at Bristol, but was released, when, in a subsequent battle at Winchester Matilda was defeated and the Earl of Gloucester was taken prisoner. Oxford was besieged and Matilda escaped through the snow in a white dress, and fled to Normandy, 1142. Stephen made peace with Henry, Matilda's son, 1153. He died at Rouen in 1154. We are told that in this reign the first sugar was brought into the country.

House of Plantagenet or Anjou.

Henry II., grandson of Henry I., was born 1133 and married Eleanor, heiress of Guienne and Poitou, the divorced wife of Louis VII., King of France, in 1152. He was crowned at Westminster, Dec. 19, 1154. At the beginning of his reign Pope Adrian IV. granted him permission to become Lord of Ireland. Henry made the Scottish King, Malcolm, give up the three northern counties, Northumberland, Cumberland and Durham, 1157. In 1159 he established Scutage, a system whereby money might be paid by a vassal to the king, or by a subvassal to his baron, in lieu of personal service in time of war. Thomas à Becket was made Archbishop of Canterbury in 1162. Henry and Becket quarrelled, as to the jurisdiction of the lay courts in cases of clerical crime, Becket insisting that the clergy should be tried by the bishops, 1163. At a council at Clarendon the king's lawyers drew up the "Constitutions of Clarendon," which greatly curtailed the power of the church, 1164. Becket set his seal to them, but afterwards withdrew it and fled to France. Richard Strongbow landed in Ireland to fight in the cause of Dermot, King of Leinster, who had appealed to Henry for help against the oppression of the Ardriach or over-lord of the so-called kings of Ireland, 1169. Becket returned to England in 1170. In a fit of rage against Becket on hearing that he had suspended the Archbishop of York, and excommunicated the Bishops of London and Salisbury, Henry made an angry exclamation, which caused four knights to murder Becket in Canterbury Cathedral, Dec. 29, 1170. In consequence of Strongbow's succession as King of Leinster on Dermot's death, Henry invaded Ireland, and became the overlord of all Ireland, 1171. In 1173 Henry's three eldest sons joined in a league with the Norman barons, and the Kings of France and Scotland against their father. The division of the country into six circuits, at which itinerant justices should periodically hear cases, took place in 1176. Prince Richard joined with the King of France against Henry, 1188. Henry died heartbroken at Chinon, 1189, and was buried at Fontevraud. In this reign London became the capital of England in place of Winchester, and the use of glass for the windows of private houses was first made.

Richard I. was born at Oxford, 1157, and was crowned at Westminster, 1189. In order to get money to join in the Third Crusade Richard released the king and people of Scotland from their oaths of homage for 10,000 marks. He joined Philip of France at Vezelai, 1189, and took Acre in 1191. Over this conquest he quarrelled with Leopold, Duke of Austria, and in travelling through Austria on his way home was captured and imprisoned by the Duke of Austria, who sold him to the Emperor of Germany; the English ransomed their king for 150,000 marks, 1194; Richard was shot by an arrow at Chalus in Normandy, and was buried at Fontevraud in 1199. It is said that Robin Hood, the famous outlaw

of Sherwood Forest, lived in this reign.

John, surnamed Sans-terre or Lackland, the youngest son of Henry II. and Eleanor of Aquitaine, was born at Oxford in 1167, and was crowned at Westminster in May 1199, notwithstanding that Arthur son of Henry II.'s son Geoffrey, was living and was heir to the throne. John divorced his wife Avisa and married Isabella of Angoulême. He besieged the castle of Mirabeaux and took his nephew Arthur prisoner. Arthur was sent to Rouen and, it is supposed, John murdered him in the castle of Rouen, 1203; John was deprived of Normandy and Maine by Philip II. of France in 1204. Stephen Langton was made Archbishop of Canterbury by Pope Innocent III. in 1206; John refused to allow Langton to land in England and persecuted the clergy, whereupon the Pope laid the kingdom under an Interdict in 1208, and John was excommunicated in 1209. He surrendered his crown to Pandulph, the Pope's legate, May 15, 1213. The English and French fought at Bouvines, the result being a complete victory for France in 1214. A charter was granted to London to choose its Mayor, Sheriffs, and Common-Councilmen in 1214, and John was forced by the barons to sign Magna Charta or the Great Charter at Runnymede, June 15, 1215. John then collected foreign mercenaries, and marched against Alexander of Scotland, the ally of the northern barons, upon which the barons offered the crown to Louis, son of Philip of France, in 1215; Louis landed in England in 1216, and was joined by the barons but failed to take Dover. In an attempt to cross the Wash, king John lost his baggage and treasure which were swept away by the tide; vexation at the loss, and the partaking too plentifully of peaches and cider caused a fever of which he died at Newark, Oct. 19, 1216; he was buried in Worcester Cathedral.

Henry III., called Henry of Winchester, the eldest son of John and Isabella of Angoulême, was born Oct. 1, 1207. He was crowned, when only nine years old, at Gloucester, Oct. 28, 1216. William the Marshal, Earl of Pembroke, was appointed Warden of the King and Kingdom. Louis of France still hoped to conquer England, but he was defeated by the Earl of Pembroke at Lincoln, and by Hubert de Burgh the justiciar off Dover, 1217; Louis then returned to France. The Earl of Pembroke died and Peter des Roches, Pandulph the Pope's legate, and Hubert de Burgh became the guardians of the young king, 1219. Henry declared himself of age, 1227. Stephen Langton died 1219. Through the influence of Peter des Roches, the justiciar Hubert de Burgh was disgraced, 1232. Henry married Eleanor of Provence in 1236. Use of the word "Parliament" was first made in 1246. The so-called "Mad Parliament" met at Oxford, July 1258. At the battle of Lewes fought between the King and Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, the leading baron, Henry, was taken prisoner, and De Montfort became the head of state affairs, 1264. Through the instrumentality of De Montfort the first House of Commons met on Jan. 28, 1265. In the same year Simon and the Earl of Gloucester, another powerful baron, quarrelled, and the quarrel occasioned the battle of Evesham in which Simon was slain, Aug. 4, 1265. Henry died in 1272 and was buried in Westminster Abbey. Roger Bacon, a Franciscan monk and the reputed inventor of gunpowder, and the magnifying glass, and magic lantern, lived in this reign; houses in London began to be covered with tiles or slates instead of thatch, and the people of Newcastle were licensed by the king to dig for coals.

Edward I., surnamed Longshanks, the eldest son of Henry III. and Eleanor of Provence, was born in 1239; he married Eleanor of Castile in 1254; and succeeded to the throne in 1272. He was wounded while in the Holy Land with a poisoned dagger, but recovered and landed in England in 1274. Several important statutes were passed in this

reign: The First Statute of Westminster, fixing the amounts to be paid in aids etc., on land, and making elections to parliament free; the Statute of Gloucester, relating to the business of the Country and Manor Courts, and enquiring into the titles of barons to their crown lands in 1278; the Statute of Mortmain, 1279; the Statute of Merchants regulating the recovery of debts, 1283; the Statute of Wales in 1294; the Second Statute of Westminster relating to the hereditability of landed estates in 1285; the Statute of Winchester reorganizing the national police and militia in 1285; and the Third Statute of Westminster, permitting a freeman to sell the whole or a part of his land, the buyer to hold it from the Overlord, in 1290. Edward made war upon Wales, because Llewellyn the principal native prince, Edward's vassal, refused to visit London to do him homage. Wales was conquered, Llewellyn being slain, in 1283. The Jews were expelled from the country in 1290. Edward was acknowledged Overlord of Scotland in 1291. John Balliol was made king and Scotland became a fief of England in 1292. A war with France was begun in 1293. William Wallace at the head of a body of Scotch soldiers and outlaws defeated the English at Stirling Bridge in 1297; but was defeated at Falkirk in 1298, and beheaded in 1305; Robert Bruce was crowned king of Scotland in 1306; Edward set out with the purpose of ravaging Scotland, but died at Burgh-by-Sands in 1307. In this reign the use of coal was, by royal proclamation, prohibited as a nuisance. Paper, looking-glasses, spectacles and windmills were introduced into use.

Edward II., surnamed Carnarvon from his birthplace, was the fourth son of Edward I., his elder brothers having died before their father; he was born in 1284, and was the first eldest (surviving) son of an English king who bore the title of Prince of Wales. From this time forward, however, the title was only borne by the eldest son of the sovereign. He ascended the throne in 1307; and married Isabella of France. He was obliged by the barons to invest the government of the kingdom in twenty-one persons called Lords Ordainers, 1310. Gaveston, the king's favourite, was put to death at Warwick in 1312. The war with Scotland was renewed and Edward met the Scotch at Bannockburn but was defeated, 1314. The barons, under the Earl of Hereford, the Earl of Lancaster and Roger Mortimer, arose in rebellion on account of the favour shown to the Despensers, the successors to Gaveston in the king's favour, but they were defeated at Boroughbridge; Hereford was slain, Mortimer received a sentence of life-long imprisonment and Lancaster was beheaded, 1322. The King made a truce with Scotland for thirteen years, 1323. Mortimer, who had escaped from prison, joined Isabella against her husband, they landed in Suffolk; the king fled and the Despensers were hanged, 1326. Edward was deposed, Jan. 13, and was murdered in Berkeley Castle, Sept. 21, 1327; he was buried at Gloucester. In this reign the people suffered much from bad seasons, famine and plague.

Edward III., the eldest son of Edward II. and Isabella of France was born at Windsor, Nov. 13, 1312; he succeeded to the crown in 1327, and married Philippa of Hainault, 1328. The Scotch bought their independence of the English at Northampton where the so-called "Shameful Peace" was made, 1328; Robert Bruce died 1329; Edward Balliol, son of John Balliol, made an attempt to gain the crown of Scotland; Edward III. went to help him and defeated the Scotch at Halidon Hill, 1333. The "Hundred Years' War" which was the result of Edward's claim to the throne of France began 1337; a battle was gained by Edward off Sluys in 1340, and a victory was won by Edward's eldest son the Black Prince at Crécy, 1346. Queen Philippa routed the Scotch at Neville's Cross and took David, King of Scotland, prisoner, 1346.

Calais was taken in 1347, and a truce was made with France. The Black Death raged in 1349. The statute, forbidding the Pope to give livings in the English Church to Italians, was passed in 1351. In 1355 the French War was renewed, and the Black Prince gained a victory at Poitiers, 1356. The Peace of Bretigny or the Great Peace (by which Edward had to give up his claim to the throne of France and to Normandy, Anjou and Maine, but was to rule over Aquitaine, Poitou and Calais unfettered by any feudal claims), was made in 1360, but the war was renewed in 1369. The "Good Parliament" which had for its object the reform of court and state, met in 1376; the Black Prince died on the 8th of June of the same year. In this reign lived Geoffrey Chaucer, the "Father of English Poetry" and author of the "Canterbury Tales"; Sir John Mandeville, who wrote a description of his Eastern travels in three languages, Latin, French and English; John Wicklif, the translator and reformer; and William of Wykeham, a bishop, Lord High Chancellor and a great architect, who founded Winchester School, and rebuilt Windsor Castle.

Richard II. of Bordeaux, the eldest son of Edward the Black Prince, was born in 1366, and succeeded to the throne in 1377. During his minority the kingdom was governed by a council. Wicklif completed the translation of the Bible in 1380. In 1380 a tax for war expenses was levied on every person over fifteen years of age, and in consequence an insurrection broke out in 1381, the peasants of Kent rising under Wat Tyler, whose daughter had been insulted by a collector, and those of Essex being led by Jack Straw. Wat Tyler was killed by the Lord Mayor of London and the insurrection was put down, Jack Straw, John Ball the peasants' preacher, and hundreds more suffering death. The king married Anne of Bohemia in 1381. John Wicklif's followers, the Lollards, who disapproved of the wealth of the Church, became numerous; Wicklif was summoned to appear before the Archbishop of Canterbury, to answer for what he believed and said, in 1382. Wicklif died in 1384. The Scotch invaded Northumberland, and a battle on which the old ballad of "Chevy Chase" is founded, was fought between Earls Percy and Douglas at Otterburn, August 10, 1388. The Statute of Præmunire, forbidding the introduction of any Papal Bull into England, was passed in 1393. Richard married Isabella of France in 1396, in order to make peace with France. John of Gaunt's son Henry of Hereford, or Henry Bolingbroke, who had been banished by Richard returned to England, landed at Ravenspur during the absence of the king in Ireland; and enlisted the support of many great men who were dissatisfied with Richard's bad government; the king, on his return, was deposed, and imprisoned in Pontefract Castle, where it is supposed he was murdered in 1399.

House of Lancaster.

Henry IV. of Bolingbroke, son of John of Gaunt, was born 1366, and married in 1380 Mary de Bohun. He claimed the throne on the grounds that 1. he had conquered England, 2. that he was descended from Henry III., and 3. that he had been chosen king by Parliament. Edmund Mortimer, the proper heir to the throne, was in confinement in Windsor Castle. Several plots were formed to dethrone Henry. The Earls of Huntingdon and Kent were the first conspirators, but their rising was suppressed. In 1400 the Welsh revolted under Owen Glendower. A statute against heretics was passed, 1401, and William Sautre, Rector of St. Osyth's, London, a Lollard who was the first of many to suffer under the act, was burnt alive. The Battle of Homildon Hill, a fight for the Scottish border, was won by the Percies against the Scotch, 1402. Henry married Joan of Navarre, 1403. The king quarrelled with the Percies, and the latter formed an alliance with the Earl of Douglas, Glendower, and Sir Edmund Mortimer, and these

joined a plot to give back the throne to Richard if he could be found alive. A battle was fought near Shrewsbury and a victory gained by Henry, Henry Percy (Hotspur) being slain, 1403. The elder Percy or Northumberland was left unpunished, and in 1405 he joined Archbishop Scrope, and the Earl of Nottingham against Henry, but the plot failed; Scrope and Nottingham were beheaded and Northumberland escaped to Scotland. James, son and heir of the Scotch king, was taken prisoner as he was going to France to be educated in 1406, and was kept at Windsor for nineteen years. In 1409, Owen Glendower led the Welsh in an unsuccessful revolt. Glendower himself never yielded to Henry. The king died, March 20, 1413.

Henry V. was born in 1388 and succeeded his father in 1413. The Lollards under Sir John Oldcastle (Lord Cobham), plotted against the king, 1414. Lord Cobham was condemned to be burnt for heresy, but he escaped from the Tower. Henry V. laid claim to France as Edward III. had done, and war was resumed. Henry gained the battle of Agincourt, Oct. 25, 1415. He invaded Normandy in the year 1417 and took Rouen. A treaty called the Treaty of Troyes, which gave Henry, Katharine of France as his wife and promised him the crown of France at the death of Charles VI., was made, 1420, The French helped by the Scotch gained a victory over the English under the Duke of Clarence at Beaujé, 1421. Henry took the town of Meaux, 1422. He died in the Castle of Vincennes near Paris, Aug. 31, 1422.

Henry VI. of Windsor was born in 1421; he succeeded his father when only eight months old, 1422. The country was governed by the Privy Council. The battles of Crevant, 1423, and Verneuil, 1424, were fought by the Duke of Bedford, the regent in France, and secured to the English necessary communication with Burgundy and Brittany, the Duke of Burgundy being England's chief ally. Orleans was besieged by the Earl of Suffolk in 1428, but the town was relieved by Joan of Arc, and Charles VII. was crowned at Rheims in 1429. Joan was taken prisoner at Compiègne, was tried and condemned to death at the stake, May 30, 1431. The Duke of Bedford died, 1435. Henry married Margaret of Anjou in 1445. In 1450, Jack Cade headed the men of Kent, Sussex, and Surrey in a rebellion against the government. Sir Humphrey Stafford met the malcontents at Sevenoaks, but was defeated and slain. The rising was put down and most of the rebels were pardoned but Cade was put to death. The Hundred Years' War finishes, 1453, at the end of it the English possessed only the Channel Islands, annexed at the accession of William I., and the site of Calais. In 1454 Henry became temporarily insane and the Duke of York was chosen Protector, and his rival the Duke of Somerset was imprisoned. On Henry's recovery in 1455, Somerset was released and took York's place. In this war began the Wars of the Roses, directly resulting from Henry's lack of strength of character, but really being the outcome of Henry IV.'s usurpation. Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York, led the Yorkists or White Rose party, and Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, headed the Lancastrian or Red Rose faction. The battles of this war fought in Henry's reign were at St. Albans, 1455, in which Henry was defeated by the Duke of York and Somerset was killed; Bloreheath, 1459, and Northampton, 1460, when the Yorkists were victorious; Wakefield Green, 1460, when the Duke of York was slain; the second battle of St. Albans in which the queen conquered the famous Earl of Warwick, and the battle of Mortimer's Cross resulting in a victory for the Earl of March, son of the Duke of York, over Owen Tudor. After this the Earl of March with the Earl of Warwick marched to London and the Earl of Warwick was declared king by Parliament, March 3, 1461. In this reign hand guns were introduced, gunpowder and siege cannon were used both in foreign and civil wars.

House of York.

Edward IV., son of Richard Duke of York, a descendant of Lionel Duke of Clarence, was born at Rouen in 1442; he succeeded to the throne after the battle of Mortimer's Cross, 1461. The civil war of the Roses was continued. On Palm Sunday, 1461, the Yorkists won the battle of Towton; after this defeat Henry and Margaret went to Scotland, but returned and were again defeated at Edgely Moor and Hexham, 1464, after which Henry was taken, and imprisoned in the Tower. In 1470 he was released and reinstated by Warwick who had left the Yorkist side, and Edward fled to France. He returned in 1471, and was victorious at Barnet, Warwick being slain. Queen Margaret was defeated and taken prisoner at Tewkesbury, and Henry died in the Tower, 1471. Edward invaded France, but a peace was made at Pecquigny, 1475. Printing was introduced into England by William Caxton, 1477. Edward died April 9, 1483.

Edward V. of Westminster was born 1470 and succeeded his father in April 1483, but only to reign until the month of June of the same year. It is said that Edward was killed with his young brother the Duke of York in the Tower, by order of Richard, Duke of Gloucester, who wished to get the crown.

Richard III., or Richard of Gloucester, was born in 1450 and succeeded his nephew in the year 1483; he was the son of Richard, Duke of York and brother of Edward IV. His wife was Anne Neville. He quarrelled with his chief supporter the Duke of Buckingham. Buckingham joined Richard's enemies amongst whom was Henry Tudor, Duke of Richmond, and openly rebelled, but he was taken prisoner and beheaded in 1483. In 1485 Henry Tudor landed at Milford Haven, Aug. 7, met Richard in battle at Bosworth Field, where Richard was slain. In this reign the statutes were first written in English and printed.

House of Tudor.

Henry VII.—Henry Tudor, Duke of Richmond, was the grandson of Owen Tudor who married Katharine of France, Henry V.'s widow, and son of Margaret Beaufort, John of Gaunt's great-granddaughter. He was born at Pembroke Castle in 1456, and succeeded Richard III. in 1485. He married Elizabeth of York in 1486, thus uniting the rival houses. The Star Chamber, for the trial of all state offences was introduced in 1486. In 1487 an impostor—Lambert Simnel—appeared as a claimant to the throne, under the title of the Earl of Warwick. The year 1492 is remarkable for three events: the Insurrection of Perkin Warbeck, who personated the Duke of York; an invasion of France by Henry VII., and the discovery of one of the West Indies by Christopher Columbus. Poynings' Law, declaring that all the acts passed in the English Parliament were to be respected in Ireland also, came into force in 1494. In 1497 the Cabots discovered the mainland of America, and Vasco de Gama the way to India round the Cape of Good Hope. Warbeck and the Earl of Warwick were put to death in 1499. Henry's daughter Margaret married James IV. of Scotland in 1502. Copernicus discovered the Planetary System in 1507. Henry died at the Palace of Sheen (Richmond) in 1509, leaving behind him £1,800,000.

Henry VIII., second son of Henry VII. and Elizabeth of York, was born in 1491 and succeeded his father in 1509. He married in the year of his accession Catherine of Arragon, widow of his elder brother Arthur. A French war was begun and the "Battle of the Spurs" was fought at Guinegate, where the English put the French to flight in 1513. During Henry's absence in France, James IV. of Scotland invaded England, but was miserably defeated at Flodden by the Earl of Surrey. In 1517 Martin Luther began the Reformation by publishing his 95 articles against the sale of Indulgences. In 1520 Henry

and Francis I. of France had a friendly meeting between Guines and Ardres; the rendezvous was called because of its splendour, "The Field of the Cloth of Gold." Henry wrote a book in opposition to Luther, and for this, had the title of "Defender of the Faith" conferred upon him by the Pope in 1521. Henry leagued with Charles V. of Spain and against France in 1522, but peace was made three years later, the French agreeing to pay an annual tribute to England. Henry sought to divorce his wife Catherine but Wolsey, the king's chief adviser, Archbishop of York, Lord Chancellor, Cardinal and Papal Legate, could not induce the Pope to grant the divorce, and being blamed for the delay lost favour with the king. He was tried and condemned on a charge of breaking the Statute of Præmunire, and most of his honours were taken from him in 1529; he was afterwards arrested for high treason but died at Leicester Abbey before a trial could take place in 1530. Sir Thomas More then became Lord Chancellor. All appeals to Rome were forbidden by Act of Parliament, 1532. Cranmer was made Archbishop of Canterbury. Catherine was divorced and Henry married Anne Boleyn in 1533. In 1534 a statute, which forbade the payment of first-fruits to Rome was passed and later in the same year another, renouncing the Pope's authority. Henry took upon himself the title of "Supreme Head of the English Church." Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher were executed for refusing to take the oath of supremacy, 1535. Catherine of Arragon died, Anne Boleyn was executed, and Henry married Jane Seymour, 1536. In this year also the smaller monasteries were suppressed and the Pilgrimage of Gracé, a rising of the Roman Catholics of Yorkshire and Lincolnshire, broke out. Robert Aske was the leader. Henry's only son Edward was born and Jane Seymour died in 1537. The Pope excommunicated Henry, 1538. In 1539 the remaining monasteries were destroyed and Henry passed the Act of Six Articles. Through the influence of Cromwell, now Earl of Essex, the king married Anne of Cleaves, but his disappointment on seeing her brought disgrace upon Cromwell, who was beheaded, 1540. In 1541 Anne of Cleaves was divorced and Catherine Howard became queen, but only to lose her head in 1542. In 1543 Henry married his sixth and last wife Catherine Parr who survived him. The Earl of Surrey, a very accomplished poet, was beheaded on a charge of treason, 1547, and in the same year King Henry died. This reign is particularly noted for the English Reformation, the progress of which was greatly strengthened by Henry's quarrel with the Pope. Tyndale and Coverdale the translators lived, Tyndale's New Testament was published in 1525; Coverdale's Bible in 1535, and a copy was ordered by the king to be chained to the reading desk or a pillar in every church; and Cranmer's "Great Bible" appeared in 1540. Greek was taught in the universities and the Classics began to be greatly studied.

Edward VI. was born in 1537 and succeeded his father in 1547. Henry VIII. had willed that during Edward's minority the affairs of the government should be managed by sixteen executors, but the Earl of Hertford, one of the sixteen, induced the others to give him the sole charge of the young king. Hertford received the title of Duke of Somerset and became Lord Protector. He was anxious that Edward should marry the Scotch Princess, Mary (afterwards called Mary, Queen of Scots), a marriage treaty having been made between Henry VIII. and the Scotch. In order to force the carrying out of this treaty he marched with an army into Scotland and was victorious at Pinkie in 1547, but in 1548 Mary became betrothed to the Dauphin, afterwards Francis II., of France. The young king and Somerset held with the New Opinions; Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, Latimer, Bishop of Worcester, and Ridley, Bishop of London were also promoters of the Reformation.

Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, and Bonner, Bishop of London, zealously opposed them. The Book of Common Prayer in English was adopted and the use of it made compulsory by Acts of Uniformity in 1549 and 1552. In 1549 Somerset lost favour with the people by signing the death warrant of his own brother, Lord Seymour. Dudley, Earl of Warwick, and other members of the Council opposed him. Warwick got the charge of Edward and Somerset was imprisoned for two months in the Tower; he was pardoned and again became a member of the Council, but was once more imprisoned, and was subsequently executed on Tower Hill in 1552. Warwick, under the title of Duke of Northumberland, became Protector. The young king's health failed. Northumberland's ambition led him to persuade Edward to name, as his successor, Lady Jane Grey, daughter of the Duke of Suffolk and grand-daughter of Mary Tudor, daughter of Henry VII., and then to bring about a marriage between his son, Lord Guildford Dudley, and Lady Jane Grey, 1553. The king died soon after at Greenwich and Lady Jane was proclaimed queen, but Henry VIII.'s eldest daughter, Mary, raised her standard at Framlingham and Lady Jane resigned the crown. In this reign several grammar schools, amongst which was Christ's Hospital, were founded.

Mary.—Mary Tudor, daughter of Henry VIII. and Catherine of Arragon, was born in 1516, and succeeded her brother in 1553. She was a zealous Papist. Northumberland was beheaded and Lord Guildford Dudley and Lady Jane Grey were confined in the Tower. Mary wished to marry Philip of Spain, but this was very distasteful to the English, and a rebellion headed by Sir Thomas Wyatt broke out. Another rising to place Lady Jane Grey on the throne was headed by the Duke of Suffolk, but both rebellions failed. Suffolk and Wyatt were both put to death, as were also Lady Jane and her husband. Mary married Philip in 1554. The Lords and Commons were absolved from their sins of heresy and schism by Cardinal Pole at Whitehall. All acts passed against Rome since 1528 were repealed. A rigorous persecution of the Protestants began. Rogers, a canon of St. Paul's, was burnt at Smithfield; Cranmer, Ridley and Latimer suffered in the same way at Oxford, Ridley and Latimer in 1555, and Cranmer in 1556. In all nearly 300 martyrs suffered death for conscience sake. The queen joined her husband against France; the Spaniards won at St. Quentin, but the Duke of Guise besieged and took Calais which had belonged to England for 200 years. Broken-hearted at the loss, and her husband's unkindness, Mary died, Nov. 17, 1558, without issue.

Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn, was born in 1533 and succeeded her half-sister Mary in 1558. She was a Protestant. In 1559 the Act of Supremacy was passed again, and the Act of Uniformity making refusal to use Edward VI.'s second Prayer Book (published 1552) punishable with fines and imprisonment. Cecil called afterwards Lord Burleigh was Treasurer, and Francis Walsingham Secretary of State. Francis II. of France, husband of Mary Queen of Scots, James V.'s daughter, died in 1560. Mary returned to Scotland, 1561, and afterwards married Lord Darnley, a descendant of Henry VII.'s daughter Mary. Mary's private secretary Rizzio was murdered in 1566 and Mary blamed Darnley for instigating the murder; the house in which Darnley was staying in Edinburgh was blown up, it is supposed, by the Earl of Bothwell with Mary's consent, 1567; in the same year Mary married Bothwell and the marriage cost her many Scotch friends. She was thrown into Lochleven Castle, and whilst there abdicated the throne of Scotland in favour of her son James VI. She escaped and tried to get to Dumbarton Castle, but the Earl of Murray, regent of Scotland, met her, and a battle in which Mary was defeated was fought at Langside. Mary then fled to England,

1568. A plot headed by Anthony Babington to kill Elizabeth was discovered by Walsingham, and Mary was accused of being an accessory; she was tried at Fotheringay; and Sentence of Death was afterwards passed in the Star Chamber; she was beheaded in 1587. Philip of Spain, in the hope of getting England in his power, organised his "Invincible Armada," 1588; the English were commanded by Lord Howard of Effingham, Raleigh, Drake, Hawkins and Frobisher; the Spaniards were defeated; and the vessels were shattered by storm as they were returning. Only 53 out of 129 war-ships returned to Spain. Elizabeth's great favourite, the Earl of Leicester, died in 1588 and was succeeded in favour by the Earl of Essex. The Irish revolted in 1598 and Essex was sent to Ireland to subdue the Earl of Tyrone; but he made peace with him and was reprimanded. Essex left Ireland without orders, and returned to England for which he was imprisoned, but was soon liberated. He headed the people of London in a rebellion; was defeated, imprisoned and beheaded, 1601. Elizabeth died at Richmond, March 24, 1603. The reign of Elizabeth was favourable to the progress of Literature and Commerce; and a number of brilliant men distinguished the period. Our greatest dramatic poet William Shakspeare added to the glory of the age as did Edmund Spenser, author of the "Faerie Queen"; Ben Jonson, Marlowe, and the great prose writer Hooker. Other notable men were Sir Walter Raleigh, poet, historian, traveller and statesman; Sir Philip Sidney, author of the romance "Arcadia" who lost his life in an encounter with the Spaniards at Zutphen; Francis Drake, who first circumnavigated the world in one voyage; Hawkins, Frobisher and Davis, explorers; and Lord Bacon the philosopher. Trade was opened up with Western Africa, and Turkey, and the East India Company was formed. The prevalence of Monopolies, however, was a hindrance to still greater progress in Commerce. Sir Thomas Gresham built the Royal Exchange. Tobacco, pocket watches and coaches were introduced into use.

House of Stuart.

James I.—James VI. of Scotland, son of Mary, Queen of Scots and Lord Darnley, was born in 1566; he succeeded Elizabeth, in 1603, and so united the crowns of England and Scotland. He had married, in 1589, Princess Anne of Denmark. He found in the country three distinct parties—the Roman Catholics, the Puritans, and those who held Church of England views, and to the last named he showed toleration. In the year of his accession two plots against James were formed, the Main Plot to place Arabella Stuart on the throne and the Bye or Surprise Plot, devised by the Roman Catholics, to compel the king to tolerate their religion. Sir Walter Raleigh was thought to be the chief promoter of the Main Plot and he was sent to the Tower. The year 1605 is noted for the discovery of the Gunpowder Plot. After this laws were passed against the Roman Catholics. James, believing in the "Divine right of Kings", imposed additional taxes upon the people without the consent of Parliament. In 1610 Parliament remonstrated against the impositions and, in 1614, refused to grant James a supply of money until they were removed, upon which Parliament was dissolved. Raleigh was released from prison in 1616 on undertaking to find gold in South America, but the expedition failed and Raleigh was beheaded, 1618. The "Thirty Years' War" began in this year; James, at the wish of the English, sent a few men to help Frederick V., Elector Palatine. The year 1620 is noted for the departure to America of a band of Puritans known as the Pilgrim Fathers. In 1624 Parliament granted money for a Spanish war, but though an army was raised it never went to Spain. James died March 27, 1625, leaving behind him a son, Charles, who succeeded him and a daughter,

Elizabeth, wife of Frederick, Count Palatine. At the beginning of this reign a Plague raged, 30,000 persons dying in London alone. Sir Hugh Middleton devised means to bring a proper water supply to the city. The authorized version of the Bible was published in 1611. Dr. W. Harvey declared to the world his discovery of the Circulation of the blood, 1619. It was in this reign too that the "Weekly Newes," the first periodical newspaper was published.

Charles I., the son of James I. and Anne of Denmark, was born in 1600, and succeeded his father in 1625. He married Henrietta Maria of France. He called a Parliament to ask for money for a war with Spain; the Parliament, in return, demanded reform and stipulated that Buckingham, the king's favourite, should be removed. Charles objected to these terms and Parliament was dissolved. In 1626 the Second Parliament met and impeached Buckingham, but it was dissolved before any acts were passed. Buckingham was the cause of a French war; he led the English against the French minister Richelieu and was defeated; while at Portsmouth he was stabbed by a man named Felton, 1627. The Third Parliament was asked for supplies for the French war; and Charles was requested to sign the "Petition of Right" which protested against, 1. Forced loans; 2. the imprisonment of persons without given cause; 3. the billeting of soldiers and sailors on persons whose consent had not been asked; and 4. the trial of subjects by martial law in time of peace. Charles signed the petition and received a supply of £400,000, 1628. Laud, Bishop of London, afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury, and Thomas Wentworth, who became later Earl of Strafford, were the king's advisers. In 1629 Sir John Elliot pointed out that the king had on several occasions acted against the terms of the Petition of Right; a quarrel ensued and Parliament was dissolved; Elliot and other members were imprisoned; Elliot died in the Tower three years later, but the others, submitting, were liberated. John Hampden who had refused to pay "Ship Money" was tried in 1637; the judges decided in favour of the Crown, but Hampden became a very popular man in the country. Laud persuaded the king to abolish Presbyterianism in Scotland and to establish Episcopacy, but this policy met with great opposition in Edinburgh. In 1638 the National Covenant, which bound the people to defend their religion, was signed. Charles' Fourth Parliament met in 1640, but sat only about three weeks. In the same year the Fifth or "Long Parliament" met; Charles asked for money to pay expenses of a Scotch war, but Parliament was bent on repealing the acts passed by Charles after the dissolution of the Third Parliament; both Laud and Strafford were impeached. The Triennial Act, limiting a parliamentary session to three years, and providing that a sovereign could not neglect to call a parliament longer than three years, was passed in 1641; and in the same year the Earl of Strafford was condemned by a Bill of Attainder and executed. The Star Chamber and High Commission Courts were abolished. Parliament presented the "Grand Remonstrance" against Charles' misgovernment, Nov. 1641; the king tried to arrest one peer, and five of the most prominent commoners —Lord Kimbolton, Pym, Haselrig, Hampden, Holles and Strode, 1642. On Aug. 22 of the same year Civil War began between Charles and the Parliament; the king set up his standard at Nottingham. The Parliamentarian commander was the Earl of Essex, the Earl of Lindsay and Prince Rupert heading the Royalists. The first battle which was not decisive was fought at Edgehill, Oct. 22, 1642; the next, a Royalist victory, was at Chalgrove Field and cost Hampden his life, June 1643. In Sept. of the same year Lord Falkland fell at Newbury. The Royalists were defeated at Marston Moor in July and later at Newbury, 1644. An Act called the "Self Denying Ordinance", to prevent any member of Parliament from

holding command in the army, was passed, by a section of Puritans called "Independents" whose leader was Oliver Cromwell. The Earl of Essex and Lord Manchester were thus obliged to retire, Sir Thomas Fairfax as commander-in-chief and Oliver Cromwell as general of the cavalry taking their places, 1644. Laud was executed, and the Battle of Naseby was won by the Parliamentarians in 1645. In 1646 Charles surrendered to the Scotch, who delivered him over to the Parliament for £400,000; he was first taken to Holmby House in Northamptonshire, thence to Hampton Court, from which place he escaped to Carisbrook Castle, 1647. He tried to escape from Carisbrook, but was prevented and taken to Hurst Castle. The Duke of Hamilton led a Scotch army of Royalists and Presbyterians in Charles' favour, but was defeated at Preston by Oliver Comwell, 1648. Charles was tried on a charge of Treason against the Parliament by the High Court of Justice at Whitehall, Jan. 20, and was beheaded, Jan. 30, 1649. In this reign Tasman discovered Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania) and a weekly post of letters was started between all parts of England.

The Commonwealth.—On the death of Charles I., 1649, began what is known as the Commonwealth, which lasted till 1660. The cause of Charles Stuart, son of Charles I., was warmly espoused by the Irish; Cromwell marched to Ireland and utterly defeated the Royalists. He stormed Drogheda, 1649, and took numbers of prisoners. Charles went by invitation to Scotland and signed the Covenant; Cromwell crossed over to Scotland and defeated the Royalists at Dunbar, Sept. 3, 1650. Charles was crowned at Scone, Jan. 1651, but was again defeated by Cromwell at Worcester, Sept. 3, 1651. In this year the Navigation Act was passed, an act which prohibited the importation of goods in other than English ships. This act brought on the Dutch War of 1652, in which the English under Robert Blake defeated the Dutch Admirals Van Tromp, De Ruyter and De Witt. In April 1653 the Long Parliament was dissolved, and in December of the same year Oliver Cromwell was made Lord Protector. Cromwell's First Parliament was called in 1654, but was quickly dissolved; the Second, which met in 1656, offered him the title of king which he refused, 1657. The next year the Third Parliament was called, but incurred the anger of the Protector by refusing to acknowledge his newly created peers, and was dismissed. Cromwell died on Sept. 3, 1658. Richard, his son, succeeded him, but soon retired to private life. In 1660 the Monarchy was restored. During the Protectorate Blake cleared the Mediterranean of pirates who had greatly hindered commerce and took Jamaica from Spain. John Milton lived in this period and was for some time private secretary to Oliver Cromwell.

Charles II., son of Charles I. and Henrietta Maria of France, was born in 1630 and succeeded to the throne in 1660, greatly through the instrumentality of General Monck. Lord Clarendon was his chief adviser. Charles married Catherine of Braganza, 1662. For the purpose of restoring Episcopacy and putting down the Puritans who had been favoured by Cromwell, four acts often named the Clarendon Code were passed; they were: The Corporation Act, 1661; the Act of Uniformity, causing numbers of Puritan ministers to leave their livings; the Conventicle Act, 1664; and the Five Mile Act, 1665. In June 1665 the Great Plague of London broke out, more than 100,000 dying in six months. A Dutch war began, supplies for which Charles kept for his own use, soldiers and sailors being left unpaid. The Fire of London, which burnt down thirteen streets and nearly all the public buildings, occurred, 1666. De Ruyter fought with Prince Rupert in the Battle of the Downs, and in 1667 De Winter brought the Dutch fleet as far as Gravesend; the English blamed the Chancellor Clarendon for their defeat and he was dismissed from office. The "Cabal" Ministry was then formed. The Triple Alliance between England,

Holland and Sweden was formed against the French, 1668, but in 1670 Charles made a secret treaty with France called the Treaty of Dover, by which he bound himself to restore Roman Catholicism in England. In 1672 he issued a Declaration of Indulgence, which freed both Catholics and Puritans alike from penal sentences for religious offences. In opposition Lord Shaftesbury passed the next year the Test Act, excluding from office all who held the doctrine of Transubstantiation, and the Lord High Admiral, the Duke of York, was obliged to retire. The Cabal Ministry came to an end in 1673. In 1678 the people became alarmed at the rumour of a Popish Plot, false details of which were given by Titus Oates, causing many innocent Romanists to be put to death. The Habeas Corpus Act was passed in 1679, and in the same year occurred a rising of the Scotch Covenanters, who gained a victory over John Graham of Claverhouse at Drumclog, but were defeated by the Duke of Monmouth, an illegitimate son of Charles, at Bothwell Bridge. Monmouth was succeeded in Scotland by Charles' brother, the Duke of York, a bigoted Romanist, who, with great cruelty, tried to break the spirit of the Covenanters. The names Whig and Tory were first used in 1679. In 1680 the Exclusion Bill, by which James, Duke of York, was shut out from the succession, passed the Commons but was thrown out by the Lords. Parliament met at Oxford, 1681 and so strong was party feeling that members went to the house with armed followers. The Rye House Plot in favour of the Duke of Monmouth was formed in 1683; Lord Russell and Algernon Sidney were accused of taking part, were tried and executed. Charles died Feb. 1685. In this reign, Milton, Samuel Butler, poet, Jeremy Taylor who, in his writing, defended liberty of conscience and Dr. Isaac Barrow, the mathematician, died. Dryden, the poet, lived and wrote, Sir Christopher Wren rebuilt St. Paul's Cathedral and several men of science lived. The streets of London began to be systematically lighted; stage coaches travelled between important towns and weekly News Letters were sent to the country from London.

James II.—James, Duke of York, second son of Charles I., was born 1633, and succeeded his brother in 1685. The Duke of Argyll headed a rebellion and landed in Scotland, but was defeated and executed in Edinburgh. Monmouth led another rebellion and landed at Lyme in Dorsetshire where he was joyfully received. He was proclaimed king at Taunton, but was defeated at Sedgemoor and afterwards executed on Tower Hill. James issued a Declaration of Indulgence, 1687, and in the next year published another Declaration, ordering it to be read for two Sundays in succession in every church and chapel in the country; Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury and six bishops refused to comply; they were tried in Westminster Hall and were acquitted. William of Orange having been invited to England landed at Torbay, Nov. 5. James abdicated and fled to France. A Convention Parliament was summoned, Jan. 22, 1689, and the throne being declared vacant, was offered to William of Orange and his wife Mary; the Declaration of Rights defining the power of the sovereign and the rights of the people was signed. James II. married twice, first Anne Hyde, daughter of the Earl of Clarendon; (Anne had two daughters, Mary, who became the wife of the Prince of Orange, and Anne who became the wife of Prince George of Denmark) next he married Mary of Modena whose son was born June 10, 1688. John Bunyan, author of "The Pilgrim's Progress," died in this reign.

House of Orange.

William III., son of William, Prince of Orange and Mary daughter of Charles I., and his wife Mary II., daughter of James II., were proclaimed joint sovereigns of England, 1689. The Toleration Bill, permitting Nonconformists to worship in their own way

was passed. The Convention, which drew up the Declaration of Right, became a Parliament and passed the Bill of Rights which was the Declaration of Right in the form of a statute. James, whose followers were called Jacobites, with the help of Louis XIV. of France, tried to get back the throne; he went to Ireland and his cause was warmly espoused by the Roman Catholics under Tyrconnel, the Lord Deputy of Ireland. The Protestants went into Enniskillen and Londonderry. Londonderry was besieged but, inspired by the preaching of a minister named Walker, the people bravely held out until, after three months, relief arrived. In 1690 William went to Ireland and defeated the Irish and French in the battle of the Boyne. James again fled to France, and in 1691 Ireland was subdued; the battle of Aghrim was fought, and Limerick a Jacobite stronghold surrendered. In 1692 occurred the memorable massacre of Glencoe. In the same year the English and Dutch defeated the French at La Hogue, but William lost the day at Steinkirk and again at Landen. Queen Mary died in 1694, and William reigned alone. In 1695 he took the fortress of Namur; and in 1697 peace was concluded by the Treaty of Ryswick, which acknowledged William the king of England. The Act of Settlement, providing for a Protestant succession, was passed in 1701. In this year James died at Gravesend. William died March 1, 1702, leaving no children. In this year Chelsea-Hospital was finished. The Czar of Russia, Peter the Great, visited England; the Bank of England was founded and the National Debt began. Daniel Defoe, the novelist; Matthew Henry and Baxter, divines, the philosopher John Locke and the first Astronomer Royal, Flamstead lived.

Stuart Line restored.

Queen Anne, daughter of James II. and Anne Hyde, was born 1665; she succeeded William III. in 1702, by the Act of Settlement. She had married Prince George of Denmark. The Duke and Duchess of Marlborough were in great favour with the queen. Louis XIV. of France claimed the throne of Spain for his grandson Philip of Anjou, but his claim was opposed by the Archduke Charles of Austria; England, being desirous that France, which took the side of the Jacobites should not have too much power, went to war with the French. The Duke of Marlborough commanded the English troops successfully at Blenheim and Sir George Rooke took Gibraltar, 1704; Marlborough was further victorious at Ramilies, 1706; at Oudenarde, 1708, and at Malplaquet, 1709. Marlborough, under a charge of taking bribes was dismissed from office in 1710, and the war ended with the Treaty of Utrecht, by which France had to recognize the Protestant Succession. The English and Scotch Parliaments were united in 1707. In this reign very strong party feeling was shown. The Tories took the side of the Church, and upheld the peace policy with France; the Whigs supported the Protestant Succession, were desirous that the power of France should be limited, and advocated equal legislation for all. Dr. Sacheverell, for preaching against the Revolution and Dissenters, was tried for sedition, and suspended from preaching for three years, 1710. Queen Anne died in July 1714, leaving no children. It was in this reign that the first daily newspaper—called "The Daily Courant"—was published, and a general Post Office was first established.

House of Hanover or Brunswick.

George I.—On the death of Queen Anne, who died without issue, the right of succession passed to George, eldest son of the Elector of Hanover and Sophia, grand-daughter of James I. He began to reign in 1714. His wife was Sophia Dorothea of Zell. In 1715 James, son of James II., known as the "Chevalier de St. George" or the "Old Pretender", made an attempt to secure

his father's throne; the revolt is known as "The Fifteen." The Earl of Mar took up his cause in Scotland, but was defeated at Sheriffmuir; the Pretender's troops were also beaten at Preston. In 1716 the Septennial Act was passed, extending the duration of a parliamentary session to seven years. In 1720 the failure of the South Sea Company, known as the South Sea Bubble resulted in the ruin of thousands. The directors were imprisoned and their estates were divided among the suffering investors; Sir Robert Walpole's exertions helped the country through this difficulty. Walpole became Prime Minister in 1721. Another Jacobite Conspiracy started in England by Bishop Atterbury in 1722 was quelled by Walpole; Atterbury was banished and the Habeas Corpus Act was suspended for a year. George I. died in 1727 at Osnabrück, leaving a son—George—who succeeded him, and a daughter—Sophia—whose husband was Frederick William of Prussia. Two great prose writers lived in this reign —Jonathan Swift, and Joseph Addison, the latter being made Secretary of State in 1717. Sir Isaac Newton, Dr. Isaac Watts, and Thornhill the painter also belong to this period.

George II., son of George I., was born in 1683, and succeeded his father in 1727; his wife was Caroline of Anspach. In 1736 occurred the Porteous Riots, so named because Sir John Porteous, Commander of the City Guard, was hanged by a mob, who took the part of two smugglers, Wilson and Robertson. Queen Caroline died in 1737. War was declared with Spain in 1739; Portobello on the Isthmus of Panama was captured by Vernon, 1740, and Paita in Chili was plundered, 1741, but the war on the whole was not a success. England, the Emperor Charles VI. of Austria and the Dutch entered into an alliance against Spain and France in 1740. When Charles VI. died, France and Spain disputed the claim of his daughter Maria Theresa to the succession, and they declared war. George, the last English king who fought in battle, defeated the French at Dettingen, 1743, but the English were beaten at Fontenoy, 1745; the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle ended the war, 1745. In 1745 the rebellion of Charles Edward the "Young Pretender," grandson of James II., occurred. It was known as "The Forty-Five;" the Pretender gained a victory at Preston-pans, 1745, and at Falkirk, 1746, but suffered defeat at Culloden in the same year, and, after being hunted from place to place, escaped to France. Frederick, the king's eldest son, died in 1751. In 1756 Surajah Dowlah, Nabob of Bengal, shut up 146 prisoners in a small room ("The Black Hole of Calcutta") and only twenty-three survived this cruelty. Robert Clive, the founder of our Indian Empire, resisted the encroachments of Dupleix, who wanted to gain India for France. Clive won at Plassey, 1757, and so gained possession of Bengal. In 1759 General Wolfe took Quebec from the French, but lost his life; in the next year Canada became a British possession. At the beginning of this reign John and Charles Wesley and George Whitfield founded Wesleyan Methodism. During the reign six parliaments sat and there were many changes in the premiership. Walpole, Lord Wilmington, Henry Pelham, the Dukes of Newcastle and Devonshire were Prime Ministers, although William Pitt, "The Great Commoner," afterwards Earl of Chatham, was practically at the head of affairs whilst the Dukes of Newcastle and Devonshire held office. The "New Style" of reckoning time was introduced; by this the year began on Jan. 1 instead of March 24. The British Museum was founded. Amongst the famous men of the reign were Thomson, Young, Gray, Akenside, Pope, and Shenstone, poets; Fielding, Sterne, Savage, and Lady Montague, literateurs; Butler, Dr. Paley, Dr. Doddridge, and Sherlock, divines; Smeaton and Mylne, engineers; Hogarth, the artist, and Dr. Halley, the astronomer.

George III., son of Prince Frederick was born in 1738; he succeeded his grand,

father in 1760, and married in 1761 Charlotte Sophia of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz. Peace was made with France by the Treaty of Paris, 1763. John Wilkes, editor of the "North Briton" was expelled from Parliament for his attack on the government with reference to the Peace; he was arrested and imprisoned but, in the end, gained his liberty. In 1765 an attempt to tax our American Colonists, began with the Stamp Act; to this the Colonists objected, and the act was repealed, 1766; a duty was levied on tea, but some people of Boston unloaded the tea ships in the harbour and threw the tea into the water. Consequent on this attempt at taxation the American War of Independence began, 1775; General Gage was commander of the British soldiers, but, being unsuccessful, he had to give place to General Burgoyne; George Washington commanded the American army and Ezekiel Hopkins the navy. The battle of Bunker's Hill was fought in 1775; the Americans declared their independence, July 4, 1776, and a republic was formed which was acknowledged by France. General Burgoyne capitulated at Saratoga, and in 1781 an army composed of American and French soldiers forced Lord Cornwallis to surrender at Yorktown. The Independence of the States was secured, 1783. The "No Popery" or Gordon Riots, consequent on the passing of an act abolishing the penal laws against Roman Catholics occurred in 1780. Lord George Gordon the leader was thrown into the Tower, was tried, and acquitted; many of the rioters were put to death. In 1786 began the trial of Warren Hastings, first Governor-General of India, who was accused of oppressing the natives; the trial lasted seven years but ended in favour of Hastings. The French Revolution, an outcome of the oppression of the poor by the higher classes, began in 1789; the Bastile was captured in the same year; hereditary titles were abolished, 1793; and Louis XVI., and Marie Antoinette were beheaded. A war between England and France broke out in 1793. Lord Howe was victorious off Ushant, 1794; Sir John Jervis defeated the allied fleets of France and Spain off Cape St. Vincent, and the Dutch were defeated by Admiral Duncan at Camperdown, 1797. Nelson was victorious over the French in the Battle of the Nile, 1798, and Napoleon was made First Consul for ten years, 1799. The French were driven out of Egypt by Sir Ralph Abercromby, who fought the Battle of Alexandria; and Copenhagen was bombarded by Nelson, 1801. The following year peace was made with France at Amiens. Arthur Wellesley distinguished himself in India in his victory over the Mahrattas at the Battle of Assaye, 1803. Napoleon became Emperor of the French, 1804; Nelson commanded the English fleet against the allied French and Spanish fleets at Trafalgar on Oct. 21, 1805, when he gained a complete victory but lost his life. In 1808 began the Peninsular War in which England joined to prevent Napoleon's adding Spain and Portugal to his other conquests. Wellesley opposed him and won the Battle of Vimiero in Portugal, and Sir John Moore, although he lost his life, gained a victory at Corunna. Soult, the leader of the French, was driven from Oporto by Wellesley, who was also victorious at Talavera, 1809, and was afterwards created Viscount Wellington. In 1811 the Prince of Wales became Regent. America declared war against England, with the hope of gaining Canada, 1813, but the Peace of Ghent ended the war, 1815. Wellington was further victorious over the French at Salamanca, 1812; at Vittoria, 1813, and at Toulouse, 1814, after which battle he was made Duke of Wellington. The Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia made a triumphal entry into Paris, 1814; Napoleon, who had suffered defeat by the Allies at Leipsic, and had been obliged to retreat from Russia, was forced to abdicate and the Bourbons were restored. Napoleon retired to the Island of Elba; he, however, escaped in 1815 and landed in France; Louis

XVIII. fled to Ghent; Napoleon at the head of a very large army, marched against the Prussians and English; the English and French fought at Quatre Bras and on June 18, 1815, the memorable Battle of Waterloo was won by Wellington. After this defeat Napoleon was banished to St. Helena, where he died, 1821. George III. died at Windsor Castle, Jan. 29, 1820. The different Prime Ministers of George III. were the Duke of Newcastle, Lord Bute, George Grenville, the Marquis of Rockingham, the Duke of Grafton, Lord North, Lord Selburne, William Pitt, the younger, Mr. Addington, the Duke of Portland, Mr. Spencer Percival (who was assassinated) and Lord Liverpool. Manufactures and Commerce made great strides during this reign; the foundation of the Cotton Trade in Lancashire was laid by the inventions of the Spinning-jenny by Hargreaves, the Spinning-frame by Arkwright and the Mule-jenny by Crompton; through the discoveries of Watt, steam became a great power; Sir Humphrey Davy's safety lamp was invented. The Slave Trade was abolished.

George IV. was born in 1762; he succeeded his father in 1820; he had married in 1795 Caroline of Brunswick, but the marriage proved an unhappy one. A bill of accusation against the queen was brought into Parliament, but was defeated; the abolition of Capital Punishment for minor crimes was brought about by this same Parliament, which also passed the first Free Trade Bill, known as the Reciprocity of Duties Bill. George IV. was crowned in 1821, but the queen was refused admittance to the ceremony; heart-broken at this indignity, she died, 1821. Shortly after the king's accession a plot, known as the "Cato Street Conspiracy," was formed to murder all the Cabinet ministers. Upon discovery, Thistlewood, the leader, and four others suffered death, the rest of the conspirators being transported for life. George Canning succeeded Lord Liverpool as Prime Minister but died a few months after. A fleet of English, French and Russian ships went to the assistance of the Greeks against the Turks and the Battle of Navarino was gained by Admiral Codrington, 1827. The Duke of Wellington was made Prime Minister after Canning's death. The Corporation and Test Acts, which had forbidden Catholics and Nonconformists to hold office or become members of Parliament were repealed. In 1829 the Catholic Emancipation Bill was passed, also an act for the establishment of a Police Force in London. George IV. died June 26, 1830, leaving no children, his daughter Charlotte having died in 1817. The poets Crabbe, Wordsworth, Coleridge, Southey, Scott, Landor, Moore, Byron, Shelley, and Keats flourished during the reign of George IV and general literature was adorned by Charles Lamb and Leigh-Hunt; Dr. Jenner, who discovered vaccination and Dr. Calcott, the musician, also belong to this period.

William IV., the third son of George III., was born in 1765, and succeeded his brother in 1830. In the year of his accession a revolution in France occurred, mainly caused by bad trade and agricultural depression. Charles X., being dethroned, took refuge in Holyrood Palace, Edinburgh; and Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, was proclaimed King of France. The English began to agitate for reform in the House of Commons; the Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel resigned and Earl Gray became Prime Minister. The Reform Bill was passed in 1832. The reformed Parliament met early in 1833; it passed Lord Ashley's Factory Act, forbidding the employment of children less than nine years old, an Irish Church Reform Bill, a Poor Law Amendment Bill; and—mainly through the influence of William Wilberforce—slavery in the British Colonies was abolished. Sir Robert Peel became Prime Minister in 1834, and on his resignation was succeeded by Lord Melbourne. William IV. died at Windsor Castle, June 20, 1837, leaving no children. This reign saw the opening of the Manchester and Liver-

pool railway, 1830, and of the Overland Route to India, 1834.

Victoria.—As William IV. left no children, the right of succession passed to Alexandria Victoria, the only child of the Duke of Kent, George III.'s fourth son. She was born May 24, 1819, succeeded her uncle June 20, 1837, and was married to Prince Albert of Saxe Coburg on the 10th of Feb. 1840. At the beginning of the reign the labouring classes were discontented because the price of corn was so high, and riots broke out in several large towns. An agitation for Free Trade began, and the Corn Law League headed by Richard Cobden and John Bright was formed in 1838. The failure of the Irish potato crop caused famine, and fever followed. Government granted £10,000,000 for the relief of Ireland and Sir Robert Peel introduced a bill to abolish duties on imports of corn, cattle and other produce; this act, though carried in 1846, did not practically become law until 1849. The people of Lower Canada revolted, but the rising was suppressed, 1839. In this same year Rowland Hill's Penny Postage was established, and the First Afghan War began, caused by the refusal of the Emir of Afghanistan to dismiss a Russian envoy from Cabul as requested by England. The English troops took Candahar, Ghazni and Cabul; but at Cabul the English were besieged by an army of Afghans and the British envoy was killed by their leader. The English retreated from Cabul towards Jellalabad, but on the journey were waylaid by hordes of their enemies and treacherously murdered, only one man escaping to tell the story. Three. thousand were killed by mountaineers in the Khyber Pass alone, 1842. The Island of Hong-Kong (China) was ceded to Britain in 1841. In 1843 a war with Scinde resulted, in the annexation of the country, through the good generalship of Sir Charles Napier in the Battles of Meeanee and Hyderabad. Then occurred a war with the Sikhs who inhabited the Punjaub, but the country was subdued, victories being gained at Ferozeshah, Moodkee and Sabraon. The Sikhs were finally defeated at Goojerat by Sir Hugh Gough and the Punjaub was annexed. Lord John Russell became Prime Minister in 1847 during the Fourth Parliament which further helped on Free Trade by repealing the Navigation Acts. The year 1848 was made famous by the Chartist Demonstrations; the Chartists agitated for greater reforms than those secured by the bill passed in 1832; they purposed compelling the Commons to agree to their petition, but through disunion amongst themselves no leader was forthcoming and their agitation ended in failure. Wellington died in 1852, and in the same year the Earl of Derby became Prime Minister. The Russian or Crimean War broke out in 1854 and lasted till 1856. For the mismanagement of this war a vote of censure was passed by Parliament and Lord Aberdeen resigned in 1855, Lord Palmerston becoming Prime Minister. The war was caused by a quarrel between Turkey and Russia; England and France allied themselves with Turkey, and the Russians were defeated at Alma, Balaklava, and Inkermann, 1854; Sebastopol was taken and the Peace of Paris ended the war, 1856. In 1856 the Chinese city Canton was bombarded by Sir M. Seymour, in consequence of an insult offered to the British flag and in 1860 a Treaty of Commerce was exchanged with Pekin where resident ambassadors were left. The Indian Mutiny was caused through fear on the part of the Sepoys or native soldiers, that the English wanted to make them Christians and cause them to lose their caste. On their refusal to accept cartridges greased with cow's fat and lard many of the men were imprisoned by the authorities but were liberated by their comrades. The native King of Delhi was proclaimed their sovereign, 1857. Lucknow also mutinied and Nana Sahib, a Mahratta chief, caused a cruel massacre of women and children at Cawnpore. Sir Henry Havelock and Sir James Outram marched to Lucknow to relieve the British garrison, the commander of

which—Sir Henry Lawrence—had been fatally wounded; they fought their way into the Residency, but being hampered with sick and wounded soldiers, women and children, could not leave Lucknow until Sir Colin Campbell arrived and rescued them. Delhi was also taken, and the Government of India was vested in Queen Victoria in 1858; Her Majesty was proclaimed Empress of India, 1876. Prince Albert died in 1861. Through the American Civil War, 1861—4, our communication with the cotton-growing states was stopped; a Cotton Famine ensued, and about half a million persons became dependent on charity. In 1868 Mr. Disraeli became Prime Minister, and in 1869 Mr. Gladstone succeeded him, and the Irish Church was disestablished.—The Irish Land Act, giving liberty to tenants to sell their right to land and to claim compensation for improvements, followed; also the Elementary Education Act, a Bill abolishing the system of promotion by Purchase in the Army, and the Ballot Act, all in 1870. The Franco-Prussian War began in 1870, and in September of that year Louis Napoleon sought refuge in England. The Ashanti War began in 1873, caused by a quarrel between some of our allies and the King of Ashanti. Sir Garnet Wolseley took and burnt the town of Coomassi. Another war in Afghanistan followed in 1878. Russia had sent an envoy to Cabul; the English sent one too in the person of Sir Louis Cavagnari, but he and all his suite were put to death by the people of Cabul; the city was taken by Sir Frederick Roberts, who afterwards defeated Ayoob Khan in an attempt to get Candahar, and the Ameer of the country gave his consent to the residence of an envoy in Cabul. The two most memorable incidents connected with the Zulu War of 1879 are the battles of Isandula and Rorke's Drift. The Zulu King Cetewayo was captured, and visited England in 1882. He was restored to his kingdom in 1883 and died in 1884. Next followed a war with the Transvaal, 1881, and in 1882 a war in Egypt, then under the protection of France and England, against Arabi, a rebellious Egyptian who attacked Alexandria. Lord Wolseley, commander of the army, defeated Arabi at Tel-el-Kebir. In 1884 General Gordon went to the Soudan to help the Egyptians against the Mahdi and his Mahommedan followers, who in a religious war were getting the better of the Egyptians; they threatened to lay siege to Khartoum, which town Gordon did his utmost to save, but he was dealt with treacherously, and murdered before the relief expedition reached him, and the Soudan was abandoned until 1896. In April 1898 the Anglo-Egyptian Army under General Kitchener fought the battle of Atbara, and in September of the same year the Khalifa was defeated at Omdurman, and Khartoum was occupied. In 1885 Lord Salisbury became Prime Minister; he was also Premier in 1886 and 1895. Lord Rosebery was Prime Minister in 1894. Queen Victoria celebrated the Jubilee of her reign in 1887, when signs of great rejoicing were shown throughout the Empire, and in 1897 she completed a record reign of 60 years. In 1899 the Transvaal Executive sent an ultimatum, which her Majesty's Government refused to discuss, and on October 11th the Boer War started. It was not until May 1902 that peace was signed. The total cost of the war exceeded £206,000,000. On January 22nd, 1900, at 6.30 in the evening, Queen Victoria died after a reign of 64 years, amid universal signs of sorrow and mourning. The King ascended the throne under the title of Edward VII., took the oath on the 23rd, and was proclaimed on the 24th. The body of the dead sovereign was on February 1st carried from Osborne to Cowes and placed on board the "Alberta," which crossed the Solent to Portsmouth along a line of British and foreign warships. Early the following day the body was taken by train to London. At Victoria Station the coffin was placed on a gun-carriage, covered with a Union Jack and the late Queen's regalia, and proceeded to Paddington through vast sorrowing crowds. From thence the body was taken to Windsor, where it remained in the Albert Memorial Chapel until the 4th, when it was taken to its last resting-place at Frogmore. In March of this year the Duke and Duchess of York started in the "Ophir" on their Imperial tour of the Colonies, arriving at Melbourne in time to open the first Parliament of the Australian Commonwealth. A short time after their return to England in November the King created his son Prince of Wales. On June 24th, 1902, two days before the date fixed for the Coronation, the greatest consternation was caused by the announcement that the King was seriously ill, suffering from perityphlitis, and an operation was immediately performed. The King happily made good progress towards recovery, and on July 5th it was announced that his Majesty was out of danger. Lord Salisbury resigned the Premiership in July and the Right Hon. A. J. Balfour became Prime Minister. On August 9th, King Edward and Queen Alexandra were crowned at Westminster Abbey amid great rejoicing throughout the Empire. The King opened Parliament in February 1903, and in the spring his Majesty visited Lisbon, Gibraltar, Malta, Rome and Paris, being everywhere received with great enthusiam. On August 24th one of England's greatest statesmen, Lord Salisbury, died in the 73rd year of his age. The Rt. Hon. Joseph Chamberlain resigned the Colonial Secretaryship in September, and started his campaign on the Fiscal Policy.

STEPPING STONES OF ENGLISH HISTORY.

B.C. The remote history of the British Isles is involved in obscurity, the extreme limit of our knowledge concerning them falling short of 2500 years. As we look at the map of Europe it is not difficult to imagine that the Islands which lie upon its western shores, were at one time part of the main land. When history began, however, they were already Islands and any attempt to place historical stepping stones across the English Channel can only fail. Beginning with written records it has been assumed with good reason that Heroditus B.C. 450 referred to the British Isles under the name **Casiderides**, or tin Islands, a view that is supported by the fact that the Romans traded with the Scilly Islands if not with Cornwall in tin and other metals. 350 **B.C.** we find England and Ireland referred to as **Albion** and **Ierne** by Aristotle. Later on it is certain that Britain was peopled by various tribes: the **Silures**, the **Ordoirces** and the **Dimetæ** occupying Wales; the **Damnonii** occupying the West of Britain as far south as

the Bristol Channel; the **Trinobantes** who founded the city of London, occupying the northern bank of the Thames; the **Atrĕbātes**; the **Dobuni** and the **Cassii** occupying the ground between the Silures and the Trinobantes; the **Iceni** occupying the land north-east of that of the Trinobantes as far as the Wash; the **Cor Iceni** that between the Wash and the Humber; the **Cornaveans** that west of the Iceni; the **Brigantes**, the most powerful of the tribes of Britain, occupied the land from the Humber to the Tyne; the **Parīsii** that between the land of the Cor Iceni and that of the Brigantes; five tribes or nations known as the **Maætæ** occupied the land north of the Tyne as far as the Lowlands of Scotland, and the Highlands were occupied by the **Caledonians.** Later we find Britain governed in part by Patriarchs and in part by Monarchs, generally the north being patriarchal, and the south monarchical; the people dominated by the **Druids** who were the Judges of the Law, and the Instructors of the people; the **Eubates** who were the inferior clergy of the time and the **Bards** who were the historians of the national life. **57 B.C.** Divitiacus, King of the Suessones in Gaul, is supposed to have had dominion in Britain. In **55 B.C.** Julius Cæsar having conquered Gaul invaded Britain, but was speedily compelled to return to Gaul. In the following year he invaded Britain a second time; defeating Cassivelaunus, Prince of the Trinobantes, and capturing his capital (now St. Albans) levying tribute, and retiring once more to Gaul. **54 B.C.** Cymbeline (Cunobelin) was King of Britain.

A.D. Roman Occupation. 54 B.C.—

43 Anlus Plautius sent by the Emperor Claudius to subdue Britain.
47 Anlus Plautius and Vespasian subdue South Britain.
50 Ostorius Scapula having subdued the Iceni and the Brigantes attacks the Silures under Caractacus their King, probably at Caer Caradoc in Shropshire and defeats them.
51 Caractacus carried in chains to Rome.
59 Suetonius Paulinus appointed to the Government of Britain.
61 Suetonius Paulinus subdues the Island of Mona (Anglesea).
" Boadicea Queen of the Iceni attacks the Roman Colony at Camalodunum, and puts the garrison to the sword (70,000 slain), afterwards defeating Petillius Cérĕatis at the head of the ninth legion destroying his infantry and driving his cavalry back to camp.
" Boadicea defeated by Suetonius with great loss (80,000 slain). Boadicea takes poison to avoid dishonour.
78 Agricola made Governor of Britain.
78—84 Agricola conducts seven campaigns over Britain and establishes reformed government.
80 Agricola builds a line of forts from the Clyde to the Forth.
84 Agricola defeats Galgacus on the Grampian Hills, and makes peace with Caledonians.
120 The Emperor Hadrian visits Britain and (121) builds a wall from the Tyne to the Solway.
140 The Wall of Antonius built, an entrenchment from the Firth of Clyde to the Firth of Forth connecting the line of forts built by Agricola.
181 Lucius King of the Britains sends an embassy to Pope Eleutherius.
197 Severus Emperor of Rome defeats the Britains (allies of the Albinos) at Lyons.
204 The Romans divide Southern Britain into two provinces.
208 Severus establishes his court at York then called Eboracum.
210 Severus completes a wall 78 miles long, twelve feet high and eight feet broad parallel with Hadrian's wall.
211 Severus dies at York.
286 Carausius a native of Gaul usurps the throne of Britain.
294 Carausius is killed by Allectus, another usurper.
296 Constantius Emperor of Rome recovers Britain from Allectus.
304 Martyrdom of St. Albans and 17,000 other Christians.
306 Death of Constantius at York.
314 The British Bishops attend the Council at Arles (capital of Gaul).
360 Britain invaded by Picts and Scots.
367 Theodosius appointed to command in Britain.
368 Picts and Scots routed by Theodosius.
388—457 Many Britains emigrate to Armorica now called Brittany.
402—436 The Romans gradually withdraw from Britain.
425 Vortigern becomes King of Britain.
429 The Angles and Saxons and the Britains fight against the Picts and Scots.

Anglo-Saxon Dominion. 449—827.

449 The Jutes from Jutland under Henghist and Horsa land at Ebbsfleet (Isle of Thanet).
449—55 The Britains are driven into Wales and Cornwall by the Anglo-Saxons.
457 The Jutes found the Kingdom of Kent.
477 A band of Saxons under Ella invade South Britain.
491 Ella founds the Kingdom of Sussex (the South Saxons) Surrey and Sussex.
495 A band of Saxons under Cerdic land in Hampshire.
500—32 The Great King Arthur said to have reigned (ancestor of Queen Victoria).
519 Cerdic founds the Kingdom of Wessex (West Saxony).
527—30 Erchenwin or Erchwine founds the Kingdom of Essex (East Saxony).
575 Uffa (a German) makes a settlement in Norfolk (North Folk) and Suffolk (South Folk).
547 The Angles under Ida land in Scotland and found the Kingdom of **Bernicia**, a Kingdom afterwards united with **Deria** founded by Ella as Northumbria.
560 Adda, son of Ida, King of Bernicia.
" Ella King of Deria, afterwards King of Northumbria.
582 The Saxon Heptarchy established comprising the Kingdoms of Kent, South Saxons,

West Saxons, East Saxons, Bernicia (from the Tweed to the Tyne), Deria (from the Tyne to the Humber) and East Angles.
586 The Kingdom of Mercia (between the Trent and Wales) established by the Angles under Cridda.
597 St. Augustine introduces Christianity to Kent.
626 Eadwine King of Northumbria becomes over lord of Britain.
627 Eadwine embraces Christianity.
633 Eadwine slain at Hatfield.
635 Wessex converted to Christianity.
644 Council of Whitby on Church Authority.
668 Theodore made Archbsp of Canterbury.
681 Conversion of South Saxons by Wilfrid.
735 Death of the Venerable Bede.
753 Death of Boniface English Missionary.
787 The Danes first land in England.
794 The Destruction of Lindisfarne church by the Northmen.

The Saxon Kings of England. 827—1016.

827—8 **Egbert began to reign. Died 839.**
828 Egbert invades Wales.
835 The Battle of Hengston Hill;—Egbert defeats the Danes.
839 **Ethelwolf King. Died 857.**
849 **Alfred the Great born. Died 901.**
851 The Danes defeated Aclea.
855 Ethelwolf goes to Rome.
857 **Ethelbald King. Died 860.**
860 **Ethelbert King. Died 866.**
866 **Ethelred King. Died 871.**
867 The Danes conquer Northumbria.
870 The Danes settle in East Anglia.
871 The Danes invade Wessex.
" Ethelred defeats the Danes at Assendon.
" **Alfred the Great King. Died 901.**
874 The Danes conquer Mercia.
876 The Danes settle in Northumbria.
877 Alfred defeats the Danes at Exeter.
878 Alfred defeats the Danes at Ethandune or Edington.
The Treaty of Peace at Wedmore.
883 Alfred sends envoys to Rome and India.
886 Alfred founds University of Oxford.
" Alfred fortifies London.
896 Alfred drives the Danes from Essex.
897 Alfred forms a Fleet.
901 **Edward the Elder King. Died 925.**
921 Edward subdues Essex and East Anglia.
925 **Athelstan King. Died 940.**
926 Athelstan defeats the Welsh (Exeter).
934 Athelstan invades Scotland.
940 **Edmund the Magnificent Kg. Died 946.**
943 Dunstan Abbot of Glastonbury.
945 Cumberland given to Malcolm Kg. Scots.
946 **Edred began to reign. Died 955.**
954 Northumbria made an Earldom.
955 **Edwy began to reign. Died 959.**
956 Dunstan banished.
957 Edgar raises a Revolt in Mercia.
958 **Edgar begins to reign. Died 975.**
959 Dunstan made Archbishop of Canterbury.
975 **Edward the Martyr King. Died 978.**
978 **Ethelred the Unready Kg. Died 1016.**
994 Swein invades England.
1002 Massacre of the Danes on St. Brice's day.
1013 England submits to Swein.
1013 Ethelred takes refuge in Normandy.
1016 **Edmund Ironside King. Died 1016**

The Danish Kings. 1016—1040.

1016 **Canute King. Died 1035.**
1020 Godwin made Earl of Wessex.
1027 Canute goes to Rome.
1037 **Harold Harefoot King. Died 1040.**
1040 **Hardicanute King. Died 1042.**

Saxon Line restored. 1042—1066.

1042 **Edward Confessor King. Died 1066.**
1052 William of Normandy visits England.
" Death of Godwin Earl of Wessex.
1055 Harold campaigns in Wales.
1063 Harold conquers Wales.
1066 **Harold King. Died 1066.**
" Battle of Hastings fought (October 13).

The Norman Kings. 1066—1154.

1066 **William I King. Died 1087.**
1066—71 The Norman Conquest of England.
1070 Lanfranc Archbishop of Canterbury.
1081 William the Conqueror invades Wales.
1086 The Doomsday Book completed.
1087 **William Rufus King. Died 1100.**
1093 Anslem made Archbishop of Canterbury.
1098 War with France.
1100 **Henry I (Beauclerc) King. Died 1135.**
1101 Robert of Normandy invades England.
1106 Normandy conquered by Henry I.
1110 War with France and with Anjou.
1114 Matilda marries Henry V. of Germany.
1120 Prince William drowned in the White ship.
1123 Revolt of the Norman Barons.
1134 Revolt of the Welsh.
1135 **Stephen of Blois King. Died 1154.**
1138 Battle of Standards;—Defeat of the Scots.
1139 Matilda claims the Crown of England.
1141 Battle of Lincoln;—Defeat of Stephen.
" Matilda crowned at Winchester;—Defeat of Matilda at Winchester.
1142 Matilda retires to Normandy.
1153 Matilda concludes a Treaty with Stephen securing the Succession of the English Crown to her son Henry.

The House of Plantagenet. 1154—1199.

1154 **Henry II began to reign. Died 1189.**
1159 The Great Scutage enabling the inferior tenantry to commute military service.
1162 Thomas à Becket Abp. of Canterbury.
1164 The Council of Clarendon.
1166 The Assize of Clarendon;—The Foundation of Judicial Legislation;—Trial by Jury etc.
1169—72 Ireland invaded by Strongbow Earl of Pembroke.
1170 Murder of Thomas à Becket.
1171 The Conquest of Ireland by Henry II.
1173—4 Rebellion of the sons of Henry II.
1176 The Assize of Northampton divides the Kingdom into six districts each having three itinerant justices.
1181 The Assize of Arms restoring the Militia as it was before the conquest.
1188 Revolt of Richard afterwards Richard I.
1189 **Richard I Cœur de Lion King. Died 1199.**

1190—94 Richard goes on a Crusade.
1194—96 Richard at War with Philip Augustus.
1197 Richard builds the Chateau Gaillard.
1199 **John began to reign. Died 1216.**
1203 Murder of Prince Arthur.
1204 The French conquer Normandy.
1205 Barons refuse to fight for Normandy.
1206 Langton Archbishop of Canterbury.
1208 England interdicted by Innocent III.
1211 The Welsh submit to John.
1213 John becomes Vassal of the Pope.
1214 Battle of Bouvines;—Defeat of England.
1215 Magna Charta signed at Runnymede (June 15).
1216 **Henry III began to reign. Died 1272.**
„ The Charter confirmed by Henry III.
1217 The Charter confirmed a second time.
1219 Hubert de Burgh made Justiciar.
1223 The Charter confirmed a third time.
1225 The Charter confirmed a fourth time.
1232 Hubert de Burgh disgraced.
1237 The Charter confirmed a fifth time.
1242 Henry defeated at Taillebourg.
1258 Provisions of the Oxford Parliament.
1264 Battle of Lewes;—Barons Victorious;—Simon de Montfort defeats Henry III.
1265 The Commons summoned to Parliament.
„ The Battle of Evesham;—Defeat and Death of Simon de Montfort.
1267 Llewelyn of Gruffydd Prince of Wales.
1272 **Edward I (Longshanks) King. Died 1307.**
1283 The Conquest of Wales by Edward I.
„ The Statute of Merchants passed, regulating the recovery of debts.
1285 The Statute of Winchester passed, reorganizing the national Police and Militia.
1291 Parliament held at Norham to determine the Scotch Succession, John Balliol Lord of Galloway chosen. Edward I acknowledged Suzerain.
1294 Philip of France seizes Guienne.
1295 Dover attacked by the French Fleet.
1296 Edward I conquers Scotland.
1297 The Battle of Stirling;—Defeat of the English by Wallace.
„ The Barons refuse to fight in Guienne.
1298 The Battle of Falkirk:—Defeat of Wallace by Edward I.
„ Truce with France.
1300 Gunpowder used in war by Venetians.
1304 Scotland submits to Edward I.
1305 Execution of Wallace at Smithfield.
1306 Robert Bruce crowned King of Scotland.
1307 **Edward II began to reign. Died 1327.**
1314 The Battle of Bannockburn;—Defeat of Edward II by Bruce.
1323 Peace with Scotland.
1327 Deposition of Edward II.
„ **Edward III began to reign. Died 1377.**
1328 Independence of Scotland acknowledged.
1329 Death of Robert Bruce.
1332 Scotland invaded by Edward Balliol.
1333 The Battle of Halidon Hill;—Defeat of the Scots by Edward III.
1337 Edward III claims the Crown of France.
1339 Balliol expelled from Scotland.
1340 The Battle of Sluys;—Edward III destroys the French Fleet.
1346 The Battle of Crecy;—Edward III defeats the French.
1346 The Battle of Neville's Cross;—Defeat of the Scots.
1347 The Capture of Calais;—Truce with France.
1355 War renewed with France.
1356 Battle of Poitiers;—Defeat of French by Edward the Black Prince.
1360 The Treaty of Bretigny.
1370 Limoges stormed by Edward Black Prince.
1376 Meeting of the Good Parliament.
1377 **Richard II began to reign. Died 1399.**
1380 Wicliffe completes Translation of the Bible.
„ The Poll-tax instituted.
1381 Wat Tyler's Rebellion.
1382 **Wicliffe condemned at Blackfriars. Died 1384.**
1388 Battle of Chevy Chace at Otterburn.
1393 Statute of Præmunire.
1396 Richard marries Isabella of France.
1399 The Deposition of Richard II.

The House of Lancaster. 1399—1461.

1399 **Henry IV began to reign. Died 1413.**
1400 Welsh revolt under Owen Glendower.
1402 Battle of Homildon Hill.
„ Defeat of the Scots by Earl Percy.
1403 Battle of Shrewsbury.
„ Defeat of the Scots by Henry IV.
1406 James I of Scotland imprisoned.
1409 Defeat of the Welsh under Owen Glendower.
1413 **Henry V began to reign. Died 1422.**
1414 Conspiracy of the Lollards.
1415 Battle of Agincourt;—Defeat of the French by Henry V.
1417 Normandy invaded by Henry V.
1420 Henry V marries Catherine of France.
„ The Treaty of Troyes signed.
1422 **Henry VI began to reign. Died 1471.**
1423 Release of James I of Scotland imprisoned 1405.
1424 Battle of Verneuil;—Defeat of the French by Duke of Bedford.
1428 The Siege of Orleans.
1429 Orleans saved by Joan of Arc.
„ Charles VII of France crowned at Rheims.
1431 Joan of Arc burnt at Rouen (May 30).
1445 Henry VI marries Margaret of Anjou.
1450 Jack Cade's Rebellion.
1453 The English driven from France.
1454 The Duke of York made Protector.
1455 Beginning of the Wars of the Roses;—Battle of St. Albans;—Defeat of Henry VI by Duke of York.
1456 Duke of York's Protectorate ends.
1460 Battle of Wakefield;—Defeat and Death of Duke of York.
1461 Second Battle of St. Albans;—Defeat of the Yorkists. Battle of Mortimer's Cross;—Defeat of the Royalists;—Deposition of Henry VI.

House of York. 1461—1485.

1461 **Edward IV began to reign. Died 1583.**
1470 Reinstatement of Henry VI by Warwick.
1471 Battle of Barnet;—Defeat of Warwick the King-maker.
„ Death of Henry VI in the Tower.
1475 Invasion of France by Edward IV.
1477 Caxton sets up his press in England.

1483 **Edward V reigned three months.**
" Murder of Edward and Dk. of York in Tower.
" **Richard III began to reign. Died 1485.**
" Insurrection of Duke of Buckingham. Execution of Duke of Buckingham.
1485 Battle of Bosworth Field;—Defeat and Death of Richard III.

The House of Tudor. 1485—1603.

1485 **Henry VII began to reign. Died 1509.**
1486 Court of Star Chamber instituted.
" Henry VII of Lancaster marries Elizabeth of York.
1492 Henry VII invades France.
" Perkin Warbeck personates Dk. of York.
1497 Vasco de Gama discovers Cape route to India.
1499 Perkin Warbeck hanged at Tyburn.
1502 Margaret Tudor marries James IV of Scotland.
1509 **Henry VIII began to reign. Died 1547.**
" Henry VIII marries Catharine of Aragon.
1512 War with France.
1513 The Battle of Spurs;—Defeat of the French at Guinegate;—Battle of Flodden Field;—Defeat of James IV of Scotland.
" Wolsey made Chief Minister.
1516 Birth of Mary afterwards Queen.
1517 Luther publishes his 95 Propositions.
1520 The Field of the Cloth of Gold;—Meeting of Henry VIII and Francis I.
" The Pope's Bull burnt by Luther.
1521 Henry VIII made Defender of the Faith.
1522 Renewal of the French War.
1523 Wolsey quarrels with the Commons.
1525 The New Testament translated by Tyndale.
" Peace restored.
1529—30 The Fall and Death of Wolsey.
1530 Sir Thomas More made Lord Chancelor.
1533 Cranmer made Archbishop of Canterbury.
" Henry VIII divorces Catherine of Aragon.
Henry VIII marries Anne Boleyn.
" Birth of Elizabeth afterwards Queen.
1535 Cromwell made Vicar General.
" Publication of Coverdale's Bible.
" Ex. of Bp. Fisher and Sir Thomas More.
1536 Wales represented in Parliament.
" Death of Catherine of Aragon.
" Execution of Anne Boleyn.
" Henry VIII marries Jane Seymour.
1537 Birth of Edward afterwards Edward VI.
" Death of Jane Seymour.
1539 Act of Six Articles, called the Bloody Statute, passed.
1540 Henry VIII marries Anne of Cleaves.
" Disgrace and Execution of Cromwell.
1541 Henry VIII divorces Anne of Cleaves.
" Henry VIII marries Catherine Howard.
1542 Execution of Catherine Howard.
" Birth of Mary Queen of Scots.
" Death of James V of Scotland.
1543 Henry VIII marries Catherine Parr.
1544 The Litany first read in English.
War with France;—Surrender of Boulogne.
1546 Martyrdom of Anne Askew at Smithfield.
" George Wishart burnt at St. Andrews.
" Assassination of Cardinal Beaton.
1547 Execution of the Earl of Surrey.
" **Edward VI began to reign. Died 1553.**
1547 Earl of Hertford made Dk. of Somerset;—The Duke of Somerset Lord Protector.
" The Battle of Pinkie;—Defeat of the Scots.
1548 Mary of Scots affianced to Dauphin of France.
" Catherine Parr marries Lord Seymour.
" The English Book of Common Prayer adopted.
1549 End of the Protectorate of Somerset.
1552 Execution of Duke of Somerset.
1553 Guildford Dudley marries Lady Jane Grey.
" Death of Edward VI.
" Proclamation of Lady Jane Grey.
" Mary raises her standard at Framlingham.
" Lady Jane Grey resigns the Crown.
" **Mary begins to reign. Died 1558.**
" Ex. of Warwick Dk. of Northumberland.
" Cranmer, Latimer and Ridley sent to Tower.
1554 Ex. of Wyatt, Dudley and Lady Jane Grey.
" Mary marries Philip of Spain.
" Absolution of England by Cardinal Pole.
1555 Persecution of Protestants commenced.
" John Rogers burnt at Smithfield.
" Ridley and Latimer burnt at Oxford.
1556 Cranmer burnt at Oxford.
1558 Calais captured by the Duke of Guise.
" Mary (Queen of Scots) marries Dauphim of France.
" **Elizabeth began to reign. Died 1603.**
1559 Elizabeth restores the Royal Supremacy.
" Elizabeth restores the Book of Common Prayer.
1561 Mary (Queen of Scots) lands in Scotland.
1562 Irish Rebellion under Shane O'Neill.
1563 Imposition of the Thirty-nine Articles.
1565 Mary Stuart marries Lord Darnley.
1566 The Murder of Rizzio.
" Birth of James VI of Scotland.
1567 The Murder of Darnley.
" Suppression of the Irish Rebellion.
" Mary Queen of Scots marries Bothwell.
" Imprisonment of Mary at Lochleven.
" James VI of Scotland crowned.
" Murray appointed Regent.
1570 Assassination of Murray.
" The Pope proclaims Deposition of Elizabeth.
1572 Massacre of St. Bartholomew (August 24).
1584 The Gathering of the Armada in the Tagus.
1585 Despatch of the Army to the Netherlands.
1886 Death of Sir Philip Sidney at Zutphen.
1587 Execution of Mary Queen of Scots.
" Destruction of the Spanish Fleet at Cadiz.
" William Shakespere in London.
1588 The Defeat of the Spanish Armada.

1598 Irish Revolt under Hugh O'Neill.
1599 Campaign of Essex in Ireland.
1600 Charter granted to East India Company
1601 Execution of the Earl of Essex.
1603 Conquest of Ireland by Mountjoy.
" Death of Elizabeth;—End of the Tudors

The House of Stuart. 1603—1714.

1603 **James VI of Scotland King. Died 1625.**
" Kingdoms of England and Scotland united.
1604 The Authority of Parliament asserted.

1605 The Gunpowder Plot discovered (Nov. 5).
1611 Bible Authorised Version published.
1614 Disagreement between King and Parliament.
1617 Bacon made Lord Keeper.
„ Declaration of the Book of Sports.
1618 Execution of Sir Walter Raleigh.
„ Commencement of the Thirty Years' War.
1620 Emigration of the Pilgrim Fathers.
1624 War with Spain.
1625 **Charles I began to reign. Died 1649.**
„ The First Parliament dissolved.
1626 The Second Parliament dissolved.
1628 The Petition of Right.
„ Laud made Bishop of London.
1629 The Third Parliament dissolved.
1630 Emigration of Puritans to New England.
1633 Laud made Abp. of Canterbury.
1636 Prayer Book issued for Scotland.
„ Refusal of Hampden to pay Ship Money.
1637 Edinburgh in Revolt.
„ The Trial of John Hampden.
1638 National Covenant signed in Scotland.
1640 Election of the Long Parliament.
1641 Charles I visits Scotland.
1642 Impeachment of the Five Members.
„ Royalists withdraw from Parliament.
„ Charles I takes the field;—Royal Standard raised at Nothingham (August 22).
„ Battle of Edgehill of doubtful Victory (Oct. 23).
1643 Death of Hampden (June).
„ Death of Falkland (September).
1644 The Battle of Marston Moor;—Defeat of the Royalists.
1645 The Battle of Naseby;—Defeat of the Royalists.
1646 Surrender of Charles I to the Scots.
1647 Charles I surrendered by the Scots (Jan. 30).
„ London occupied by the Army.
„ Flight of Charles I.
„ Charles makes secret Treaty with Scots.
1648 Formation of the Royal Society.
1649 Execution of Charles I at Whitehall.
„ Charles Stuart proclaimed King by Scots.
„ The Commonwealth proclaimed in Engl.
„ Drogheda stormed by Cromwell (Sept. 11).
1650 Charles Stuart defeated at Dunbar.
1651 Charles Stuart crowned at Scone.
„ Charles II defeated at Worcester.
1653 **Oliver Cromwell declared Lord Protector.**
„ John Milton Private Secretary to Cromwell.
1654 First Protectorate Parliament.
1656 Second Protectorate Parliament.
1657 Cromwell refuses the title of King.
1658 Third Protectorate Parliament.
„ Cromwell dies (Sept. 3).
„ **Richard Cromwell Lord Protector. Died 1712.**
1660 Restoration of the Monarchy.
„ **Charles II began to reign. Died 1685.**
1662 Reënactment of Act of Uniformity.
„ The Puritan Clergy driven out.
1664 Conventicle Act passed.
1665 The Great Plague.
„ War with Holland.
1666 The Great Fire of London.
1667 The Dutch Fleet reaches Gravesend.
1673 The Test Act passed.
1677 Princess Mary marries Prince of Orange.
1679 The Habeas Corpus Act passed.
1681 Parliament at Oxford.
1682 Pennsylvania founded by Penn.
1683 The Rye House Plot.
„ Ex. of Lord Russell and Algernon Sidney.
1685 **James II began to reign. Died 1701.**
„ Execution of Dk. of Argyle.
„ Proclamation of Monmouth (Taunton).
„ Battle of Sedgemoor (July 6);—Defeat of Monmouth.
„ Ex. of Monmouth at the Tower.
1688 William of Orange invited to England.
„ Trial and Acquittal of the Seven Bishops.
„ The Prince of Orange lands at Torbay.
„ The Flight of James II.
1689 The Convention Parliament meets.
„ The Declaration of Rights.
„ William and Mary proclaimed (Feb. 13).
„ The Siege of Londonderry.
„ The Toleration Bill passed.
„ The Bill of Rights passed.
1690 James II lands in Ireland.
„ The Battle of the Boyne;—Defeat of James II.
1692 The Massacre of Glencoe.
1694 The Bank of England instituted.
„ The Triennial Act passed.
„ Death of Mary.
„ Greenwich Hospital founded.
1696 The Currency restored.
1701 The Act of Settlement passed.
„ Death of James II at St. Germains (Sept. 16).
1702 **Anne began to reign. Died 1714.**
1704 The Battle of Blenheim;—Defeat of the French by Marlborough.
„ Gibraltar taken by Sir George Rooke.
1706 The Battle of Ramilies;—Defeat of the French by Marlborough.
1707 Union of English and Scots Parliaments.
1708 Battle of Oudenarde;—Defeat of the French by Marlborough.
„ Chevalier de St. George declared Traitor.
1709 Battle of Malplaquet;—Defeat of the French by Marlborough.
1710 The Trial of Dr. Sacheverell.
1712 The Dismissal of Marlborough.
1713 The Treaty of Utrecht.

The House of Hanover or Brunswick. 1714–

1714 **George I began to reign. Died 1727.**
1715 Arrival of the Pretender in Scotland.
„ Revolt of Jacobites under Earl of Mar.
„ Defeat of Earl of Mar at Sheriffmuir.
„ Defeat of the Pretender at Preston.
1716 The Septennial Act passed.
1720 The South Sea Bubble.
1721 Sir Robert Walpole Prime Minister.
1727 **George II began to reign. Died 1760.**
1737 Death of Queen Caroline.
1743 Defeat of the French at Dettingen by George II.
1745 Defeat of the English at Fontenoy.
„ Landing of young Pretender in Scotland.
„ Victory of Charles at Preston Pans.
1746 Victory of Charles at Falkirk.
„ The Battle of Culloden;—Defeat of Charles Stuart.

1752 New Style of Reckoning Time.
1757 The Ministry of William Pitt.
„ The Battle of Plassy won by Clive.
1759 The Conquest of Canada;—Death of Genl. Wolfe.
1760 **George III began to reign. Died 1820.**
1761 George III marries Princess Charlotte.
1763 Peace between England and France.
1764 John Wilkes expelled from the Commons.
1765 The Stamp Act passed.
„ Steam Engine invented by James Watt.
1766 The Repeal of the Stamp Act.
1768 Spinning machine invented by Arkwright.
1769 British troops occupy Boston (America).
1773 The Tea Riots at Boston.
1774 The Congress at Philadelphia.
1775 The American War began.
„ Boston besieged by Washington.
„ The Battle of Bunker's Hill.
1776 Defeat of Americans on Long Island.
„ American Independence declared (July 4).
1777 The Battle of Brandywine;—Defeat of the Americans.
1778 Death of the Earl of Chatham.
1780 The Gordon Riots and the Burning of Newgate.
„ Capture of Charlestown.
1781 Cornwallis surrenders at York Town.
1783 American Independence acknowledged.
1786 Trial of Warren Hastings.
1787 Commercial Treaty with France.
1789—95 The French Revolution.
1789 The Capture of the Bastile.
1790 Abolition of Hereditary Titles in France.
1793 Execution of Louis XVI of France.
„ Execution of Marie Antoinette.
„ Declaration of War against England by France.
1795 Acquittal of Warren Hastings.
1797 Victories of St. Vincent and Camperdown.
1798 Revolt in Ireland crushed at Vinegar Hill.
„ Victory of Nelson at the Battle of the Nile.
1799 Napoleon made First Consul.
1800 Malta surrenders to the English Fleet.
„ Act of Union of Gt. Britain and Ireland.
1801 Defeat of the French in Egypt.
„ Copenhagen bombarded by Nelson.
1802 The Peace of Amiens.
1803 War declared against Buonaparte.
1804 Napoleon crowned Emperor by Pius VIII.
1805 The Battle of Trafalgar;—Victory and Death of Nelson.
1807 The Abolition of the Slave Trade.
1808 Commencement of Peninsular War.
„ Battle of Vimiera;—Victory of Wellington.
1809 Defeat of the French at Corunna.
„ Death of Sir John Moore.
„ Soult driven from Oporto by Wellington.
„ Battle of Talavera;—Defeat of the French by Wellington.
1811 The Prince of Wales becomes Regent.
1812 Assassination of Percival Prime Minister.
„ The Earl of Liverpool Prime Minister (14 years).
„ America declares War against England.
„ Battle of Salamanca;—Defeat of the French by Wellington.
1813 Battle of Vittoria;—Defeat of the French by Wellington.
„ Canada attacked by the Americans.
1814 The Allied Armies enter Paris.
1814 Abdication of Napoleon.
„ Restoration of the Bourbons.
„ Retirement of Napoleon to Elba.
„ Capture of Washington by the English.
„ George Stephenson invents the locomotive.
1815 Treaty of Peace, England and America.
„ Escape of Napoleon from Elba (Feb. 25).
„ Flight of Louis XVIII.
„ Arrival of Napoleon in Paris (March 20).
„ Battle of Waterloo (June 18);—Defeat of Napoleon by Wellington.
„ Napoleon a Prisoner at St. Helena (Oct. 15).
1818 Conquest of the Mahratta Empire.
1820 **George IV began to reign. Died 1830.**
„ The Trial of Queen Caroline.
„ The Cato Street Conspiracy.
1821 Death of Napoleon at St. Helena (May 5)
„ Death of Queen Caroline (August 7).
1827 George Canning Prime Minister.
„ Battle of Navarino;—Destruction of the Turkish Fleet.
1828 Repeal of the Test Act.
„ Duke of Wellington Prime Minister.
1829 Catholic Emancipation Bill passed.
1830 **William IV began to reign. Died 1837.**
„ French Revolution, Accession of Louis Philippe.
„ Liverpool—Manchester Railway opened.
„ Earl Grey Prime Minister.
1832 The Reform Bill passed.
1833 Slavery abolished in British Colonies.
1834 Sir Robert Peel Prime Minister. Also in 1841.
1835 Viscount Melbourne Prime Minister.
1836 Civil Marriage Act passed.
1837 **Victoria began to reign. Died 1901.**
1838 The Coronation of Queen Victoria (June 28).
„ Formation of the Anti-Cornlaw League.
1839 Establishment of the Penny Postage.
„ The Institution of the Committee of the Privy Council for Education.
„ Canadian Revolt suppressed.
1839—42 First Afghan War.
„ English Occupation of Cabul.
1840 Queen Victoria marries Prince Albert.
„ Acre bombarded.
1841 Hong-kong given up to England.
1842 English Army in Affghanistan massacred.
1843 The Annexation of Scinde.
1845 Defeat of Sikhs at Moodkee and at Ferozeshah.
1846 Defeat of the Sikhs at Sobraon.
„ Repeal of the Corn Laws.
1847 Lord John Russell, Prime Minister. Also in 1865.
„ Abdication of Louis Philippe.
1848 Chartist Demonstrations in England.
„ Louis Napoleon President of French Republic.
1849 Final Defeat of the Sikhs at Goojerat.
„ The Annexation of the Punjaub.
1850 Public Libraries Act passed.
1851 The Great Exhibition in Hyde Park.
1852 The Death of the Duke of Wellington.
„ Louis Napoleon Emperor of the French.
„ Earl of Derby Prime Minister. Also in 1858 and 1866.
1854 Outbreak of the Russian War.
„ Alliance with France.
„ Alma, Balaklava and Inkermann.

1855 Lord Palmerston Prime Minister. Also in 1859.
1856 Peace signed at Paris.
1856—7 Second Chinese War.
1857 The Indian Mutiny.
1858 The Sovereignty of India added to the English Crown.
1860 Third Chinese War.
1861 Death of Albert, Prince Consort(Dec. 14).
1866 The Atlantic Cable laid.
1867—8 Abyssinian Campaign.
,, Magdala stormed (April 10).
1868 Disraeli Prime Minister. Also in 1874.
,, Gladstone Prime Minister. Also in 1880, 1886 and 1892.
1870 Irish Land Act passed.
,, France declared War against Prussia.
,, The Battle of Sedan.
,, Fall of Louis Napoleon (Sept. 1).
1872 The Ballot Act passed.
1873 The Ashanti War.
1876 Victoria proclaimed Empress of India.
1877 War between Russia and Turkey.
1878 War with Afghanistan.
1879 The Zulu War.
,, Battles of Isandlwana and Rorke's Drift.
1881 War with the Transvaal.
1882 Egyptian War.
,, Bombardment of Alexandria (July 11).
,, Decisive Victory at Tel-el-Kebir (Sept. 13).
,, Murder of Lord Cavendish Th. Burke.
1883 **Restoration of Cetewayo. Died 1884.**
1885 Salisbury Prime Minister. Also in 1886, 1896-1902.
,, Gordon killed at Khartoum (Jan. 26).
1887 Jubilee of Queen Victoria celebrated.
1894 Lord Rosebery Prime Minister.
1897 Queen's reign of sixty years celebrated.
1898 W. E. Gladstone died May 19 (b. Dec. 29, 1809).
,, Battle of Omdurman (Sept. 2).
1899 Boer War began (Oct. 11).
1900 Relief of Kimberley (Feb. 15).
,, Relief of Ladysmith (Feb 28).
,, Occupation of Bloemfontein (March 13).
,, Relief of Mafeking (May 17).
,, Lord Roberts entered Pretoria (June 5).
,, Relief of Kumasi (July 15).
,, Pekin relieved by the Allies (Aug. 15).
1901 Australian Commonwealth inaugurated (Jan. 1).
,, Queen Victoria died (Jan. 22).
,, **King Edward VII. began to reign.**
1902 A. J. Balfour Prime Minister
,, Cecil Rhodes died March 26 (b. July 5, 1853).
,, End of the Boer War, Peace signed May 31.
,, King's illness and operation (June 24).
,, Coronation of King Edward and Queen Alexandra (Aug. 9).
1903 Lord Salisbury died Aug. 24 (b. Feb. 3, 1830).
,, Joseph Chamberlain resigned Colonial Secretaryship (Sept. 1).

OUR ENGLISH TONGUE.

In comparatively early times Western Europe was peopled by two tribes, the Celtic and the Cimbri, who spoke different dialects of the same tongue, descendants of whom are still to be found in the western districts of Spain, France, Great Britain and Ireland. It is from the language of these tribes that we get the modern Gaelic, Welsh, and Breton.

Words of Celtic Origin.—The Gaelic words in use in modern English are not numerous, and of these some are revivals, and some come to us through other languages. We have evidences of the Celt in some names of places: *tre* (a town) survives in Coven*try* (town of the convent); Oswes*try* (town of St. Oswald); and in other names of places having the same terminal; *dun* (a hill, or fort on a hill) in *Dun*barton and Hunting*don*; *lin* (a deep pool) in *Lin*lithgow and King's *Lynn; Llan* (a church) in *Llan*daff, and other similar names. *Ben* or *Pen* (a mountain) survives in the names of *Ben* Lomond, *Pen*maenmawr, and other lofty hills; besides which *brae*, *glen*, *cairn*, and *craig* are Celtic.

There are some thirty or forty nouns in common use which are of Celtic origin: *basket* (from basgawd); *button* (from botwn); *clout* (from clwt); *darn* (darn); *gruel* (from grual); *gown* (from gwn); *mop* (mop); *rail* (from rhail); *tackle* (from tack). Celtic or Gaelic words of later introduction are *flannel*, *tartan*, *plaid*, *kilt*, *clan* and *reel*, while those which come to us through other tongues may be represented by the words *bard* and *Druid*.

Words of Roman Origin.—The conquest of the Britons by the Romans at the beginning of the Christian era introduced another language to British soil. Most of the words surviving the period of Roman occupation have reference to military affairs, works, and stations. From the Romans we have *castra*, a camp, which survives in the words, Lan*caster* (a camp on the Lune); and Don*caster* (a camp on the Don); as well as in *Chester*, Man*chester*, Col*chester*, etc, etc. *Strata*, a paved

road, survives in several forms: *strat*, as in *Strat*ford; *streat*, as in *Streat*-ham; *stret*, as in *Stret*on; and *street*, as the common name of the public highway, of which *Watling Street* is an old example. *Colonia*, a settlement, survives in Lin*coln* and *Colony*; *portus*, a harbour, in *port*, *Port*sea, Stock*port*, and Devon*port*. The Romans left Britain in A.D. 410, and the land became a prey to bands of invaders from the shores of the Baltic and North Seas.

Anglo-Saxon Words.—In 449 A.D. Hengist and Horsa, with a band of Jutes from Jutland, landed in Thanet, and, shortly afterwards founded the Kingdom of Kent. Other bands of Saxons and Angles followed and established themselves in Sussex, Hampshire, and Essex, and, in the course of time, conquered the greater part of the country, driving the Britons north and west into Wales and Cornwall, making the land their own. By the time of Egbert who died in 836 A.D., Angles and Saxons had become one people and their different dialects one tongue. The Gaelic, which was the language of the Celt, and which had survived the period of Roman occupation, was thus driven out of Britain, but its hardihood is proved by the fact that, in one or other of its dialects, it is still spoken in Scotland, Ireland, Wales, and the Isle of Man. The language of the conquerors then became the language of the country, and the most important contribution to the modern English tongue. From the Anglo-Saxon we have the name by which our country is known throughout the world—*England*, from Angle-land, the Anglo-Saxon designation. The proportion of Anglo-Saxon words in use in modern English, is variously estimated. An examination of a modern English dictionary shows twenty-five fortieths (or five-eighths) of the words to be Anglo-Saxon. A similar examination of the writings of our best authors shows thirty-two fortieths (four-fifths) to be the proportion, that is to say, out of forty words taken from the dictionary, twenty-five are Saxon words, and out of forty taken from classic writers, thirty-two are of Anglo-Saxon origin. In thirteen chapters of the New Testament, examined for the purpose, thirty-seven out of every forty words were said to be Anglo-Saxon; in three acts from the plays of Shakspere submitted to a similar test, thirty-six words out of every forty were Anglo-Saxon. Milton's "*L'Allegro*" and Tennyson's "*In Memoriam*" show the same proportion. Most of the words of one syllable in common use are Anglo-Saxon. Dr. Angus, in his "*Handbook of the English Tongue*," says: "We get the names of most objects of sense from the Anglo-Saxon: *sun*, *moon*, *stars*, *earth*, (not air), *fire* and *water*; the divisions of time: *day*, *night*, *morning*, *evening*, *noon*, *twilight*, *sunrise*, *sunset*, *light*, *heat*, *cold*, *frost*, *snow*, *hail*, *rain*, *sleet*, *thunder*, *lightning*; the names of most objects of natural scenery: *hill*, *dale*, *wood*, *stream*, *land* and *sea*; the names of common objects of the Animal and Vegetable Kingdoms, the postures and motions of animal life. Our *horses*, *dogs*, *cows*, *calves*, and *pigs*, are all Saxon. We *sit*, *stand*, *lie*, *walk*, *run*, *leap*, *stride slide*, *glide*, *yawn*, *gape*, *wink*, *fly*, *swim*, *creep* and *crawl*, and describe our *arms*, *hands*, *legs*, *eyes*, *mouth*, *ears*, *nose*, and nearly every part of the body from head to foot in Anglo-Saxon." Many of the most cherished words in the language are Anglo-Saxon, *father*, *mother*, *husband*, *wife*, *brother*, *sister*, *house*, *kindred*, *friends*, *hearth*, *roof*, *fireside*, *smile* and *tear*. It is impossible within present limits to give a complete set of rules whereby the origin of words from the Anglo-Saxon may be determined, but the following are a few: words that in any of their forms undergo vowel changes, as *strong*, *strength*; *broad*, *breadth*; *foot*, *feet*; *tooth*, *teeth*; *mouse*, *mice*; *man*, *men*; are nearly all Anglo-Saxon. Words (all nouns), which make their plural form with *en*, as child*ren*, brethr*en*, ox*en*, are Anglo-Saxon, as also are most verbs ending in *en* as white*n*, quick*en*, strength-*en*. Most words having Anglo-Saxon terminals are from Anglo-Saxon sources,

i.e. words ending in *hood*, *head*, *ship*, *dom*, etc., etc., as man*hood*, god*head*, friend*ship*, free*dom*; words ending in *th*, as, tru*th*, and weal*th*; nouns ending in *ling*, *kin*, *ock*, and *ie*, as gos*ling*, lamb*kin*, hill*ock*, and lass*ie*. Most adjectives ending in *ish*, *ful*, *ly*, *en*, *ern*, as child*ish*, fear*ful*, king*ly*, wood*en* and north*ern*, are Anglo-Saxon: all words that begin with *wh*, *sh*, and most that begin with *ca*, *ye*, *gl*, and *th*, although a few of these latter are from the Greek.

Words of Norse Origin.—In A.D. 787 the Danes first landed in England, and in the course of a few years the Norse invaders, including Norwegians, Swedes, and Danes, completely subjugated the country north of the Humber from the German Ocean to the Irish Sea. This part of the country they continued to hold until late in the tenth century and naturally some additions, though not many, were made to the language during this period. The addition of the word *son* to the surname of the father, as Swain*son*, the son of Sweyn, of which many illustrations might be given, is Norse. *By* is the Norse name for town, as it is also the Saxon, but in some cases the Norsemen substituted their own names for Saxon names, as in the case of Whit*by* and Der*by*, both of which are Norse names.

Norman-French Words.—With the Norman conquest, in 1066, came a large and important addition to the speech of the country. The ruling classes spoke French, and the language of the Church was Latin, while the masses of the people still spoke the English language, which from the time of the Conquest until the death of King John was not so much Anglo-Saxon as semi-Saxon. It was not until the middle of the reign of Edward III. (1350) that the Anglo-Saxon and Norman-French combined to form the basis of modern English. Many French and Latin words came into use at this time. Some of these related to war, as *armour*, *battle*, *mail*, *joint*, *lance*, *captain*, others to feudalism, as *homage* and *fealty*; some to the hunt, as *chase*, *course*, *couple*, *covert*, *forest*, and *venison*; to the law, as *assize*, *attorney*, *judge*, *plaintiff*, *sue*, *court*, and *justice*; to the Church, as *ceremony*, *relic*, *friar* and *penance*; to the feast, as *boil*, *pantry*, *beef*, *pork*, *mutton*, *veal*, and *poultry*.

Words of Latin Origin.—Words of Latin origin have come into the language at four distinct periods of English history. (1) When the Romans conquered the ancient Britons; (2) When Augustine and his successors introduced Christianity to England; (3) After the Norman conquest and *before* the revival of letters; and (4) from the revival of letters to the present time. Words from the Latin in ordinary use are estimated to number two-eighths of the whole language, making, with the Anglo-Saxon five-eighths, seven-eighths in all.

The words which survive the first period (the Roman occupation), and which are chiefly military, are referred to under "Words of Roman Origin." Those introduced by Augustine and the early Christian missionaries are naturally chiefly ecclesiastical; such words as *chalice*, *candle*, *cloister*, *minister*, *pall* and *provost*, dating from their time. The Latin words introduced during the third period were due to the Norman monks and lawyers, and became current in universities and courts of law. Those introduced since the revival of letters include many which have passed into our language without modification or change of any kind, and of these not a few belong to the nomenclature of science. Many words are partly Latin and others entirely so. The words *science*, *scientific*, *conscience*, and *omniscience* are of Latin origin in all their syllables, being derived from *scio* (I know) as the root word. In other words, such as *dislike*, the Latin prefix *dis* is added to the English word *like*, and in the word *laughable* the English word *laugh* is lengthened by the Latin affix or suffix *able*. Many Latin words may be recognized by their tails—*tion*, *sion*, *able*, *um*, *ure* and *ity*; and some by their heads, as *pre*, *dis*, *omni*, etc., etc. Each language, as it has come into contact with the English

stock, has supplied it with just those words which it was unprovided with before. Hence the Anglo-Saxon, being deficient in abstract or general terms, such terms have been added from Latin sources. Thus, as Dr. Angus illustrates it, "*Motion* is Latin, but *creeping*, *walking*, *riding*, and *running* are Anglo-Saxon. *Colour* is Latin, but *black*, *blue*, *red*, *green*, *yellow*, and *brown* are Anglo-Saxon. *Sound* is Latin but *humming*, *buzzing*, *speaking*, *hissing*, *singing*, *grunting*, *squeaking*, and *whistling* are Anglo-Saxon. *Animal* is Latin but *man* and *sheep* are Anglo-Saxon. *Number* is French, and remotely Latin, but all our cardinal numbers, *one*, *two*, *three*, etc., up to a million, are Anglo-Saxon, as are all our ordinal numbers except *second*, which is Latin."

Words of Greek Origin.—Words from the Greek have come into the English language at various times, but mostly since the revival of letters, in the 15th century. Some of these have become completely incorporated in our language; others retain their Greek individuality, and are made plural in Greek form. We are indebted to the Greek language for such words as *astronomy*, from *aster*, a star; *autocrat*, and *autograph* from *auto*, self; *chronicle*, *chronology*, and *chronometer*, from *chronos*, time. Greek words may be recognized by the prefixes *phil*, as in *philo*sopher, and similar words; *arche*, as in *archi*tect, etc., etc.; *para*, as in *para*llel and *para*graph; *syn*, as in *syn*thetic, *syn*opsis, etc., etc.; *peri*, as in *peri*patetic, etc., etc. and in terminals such as *graphy*, *ology*, etc., etc., etc.

The Growth of Language.—The closer union of nations which has come of the cultivation of art, science, literature and commerce, has resulted in the acclimatization with us of many words from foreign sources. The words representing characteristics of foreign life, manners, and merchandise, came into the language from the necessity of referring to them, and the want of English equivalents for the purpose. As Dr. Angus points out, we are indebted to the Arabic for such words as *sherbet*, *syrup*, *coffee*, *sugar*, *lemon*, *sofa*, *mattress*, *mummy*, *sultan*, *pasha*, and *assassin*; to the Persian for *caravan*, *Dervish*, *paradise*, *scarlet*, *azure*, and *lilac*. To the Turkish for *scimitar*, *divan*, *janissary*, *dragoman*, and *chouse*; the last-named not being a vulgar word, as many would naturally suppose, but being taken from the name of a Turkish official who cheated the merchants of London to a large extent in the reign of James I. From the Chinese we get *Bohea*, *Hyson*, *Congou*, *Nankin*, *gong*, and other words; from the Malay, *bantam*, *sago*, and *gamboge*; from Polynesia *taboo*, and *tattoo*; from the West-Indies *tobacco*; *potato*, *maize*, and *hurricanes*; from the North American, *squaw* and *wigwam*; from the South American, *hammock* and "*jerked*" *beef*; from Italy, *banditti*, *charlatans*, and *pantaloons*; from the Spanish *mosquitoes*, *negroes*, *punctilios*, *alligators* and *galas*; from the Portuguese, *palaver*, *coco*, *fetish*, *caste*, and *marmalade*; from the Dutch, *yachts*, *sloops* and *schooners*; from the Hebrew, *seraph-im*, *cherub-im* *ephod*, *amen*. *Ammonia* is Egyptian, *cider*, Syrian; and *meander*, Lydian. Other naturalised words, says Dr. Angus, may be traced to their origin thus: *tantalise*, from *Tantalus* and Virgil; *herculean*, from *Hercules*; *philippics* from the orations of Demosthenes against *Philip* of Macedon; *lazaretto* from *Lazarus*, who sat at the rich man's gate; *simony* from the *Simon*, who thought that the Holy Ghost was to be bought with money: *dunce* we owe to *Duns* Scotus; *pasquinade* to a Roman cobbler, *negus* to a colonel of that name in Queen Anne's time, skilled in mixing strong drink; *orrery* we owe to the name of the patron, an earl of Orrery and Cork; *spencers*, *broughams*, *dahlias*, *mackintoshes*, *d'oyleys*, *daguerreotypes* are called after the names of people associated with their invention or culture. *Quixotic* we have from Don Quixote, *rhodomontade* we owe to a blusterer in Boiardo; while *reynard* (literally right-royal) and *chanticleer* and *bruin*

have become common names for the fox, the cock, and the bear, ever since the publication of the "*Reineche Fuchs*," long one of the most popular tales of central Europe.

Periods of Language and Literature.—The periods of the development of the English language since the Norman Conquest are four: *Semi-Saxon*, *Old English*, *Middle English* and *Modern English*. The **Semi-Saxon** period was that from the conquest in 1066 to the death of King John in 1216. In this language we have *The History of King Lear and his daughters*," which was afterwards turned to such good account by Shakspere; the poem of Layamon, the "*Ormulum*," and the latter part of the *Saxon Chronicle*. The **Old English** period was that from the death of King John to the death of Edward II. (1327). In the language of this period we have "*The Romance of Havelok the Dane*," "*William and the Werwolf*," "*Robert of Gloucester's Chronicle*," the "*Poems of Robert Mannyng*," and the "*Vision of Piers Plowman*." **Middle English** marks the period from the death of Edward II. to the death of Queen Mary (1558). In this period we have the works of Wycliffe (1324—1384) which, however, belong rather to the earlier period; those of Mandeville (1300—1372); Chaucer (1328—1400), Lydgate (1380—1410); Caxton (1470); and, although born later, from his adoption of earlier forms we may add Edmund Spenser. The literature of the period includes *Wycliffe's Translation of the Bible*; *Chaucer's Canterbury Tales*, and, if we include Spenser, the "*Faërie Queene*." **Modern English** is the term applied to the language and literature of the period from the reign of Queen Elizabeth until the present time, a period which includes the writings of Shakspere, Milton, Wordsworth, and Scott. For further information on this subject the reader is referred to the various text-books of English literature and the English Tongue, of which those of Dr. Angus are very clear and trustworthy.

Grammar is the science of verbal expression in speech and writing. It treats of the formation and relationship of words, the construction of sentences and the mode of expressing thoughts. These subjects are dealt with in four main divisions which are called respectively *Orthography*, *Etymology*, *Syntax*, and *Prosody*. **Orthography** is the science of *letters* and treats of their proper sound and the way in which they are combined in the formation of words. **Etymology** treats of the different kinds of *words*. It traces their origin, explains the modifications they undergo in association, and classifies them. **Syntax** deals with the correct arrangement of words in *sentences* and **Prosody** treats of the laws of *verse*.

Orthography is the science of **Letters.**—There are twenty-six letters in the English alphabet. These letters represent the sounds used in the formation of words. Letter sounds are of two kinds, simple and compound. The simple sounds are those which are complete in themselves, and can be made without the aid of other sounds. Compound sounds are those which cannot be made without the help of other sounds. The letters that represent simple sounds are called *Vowels*, and the letters that represent compound sounds are called *Consonants*. The **Vowels** are *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, all of which represent simple and complete sounds. *W* and *y* are in particular cases used as pure vowels, and in all other instances as semi-vowels; *e.g.* the *w* in *blow* is a pure vowel, but in *well* it is a semi-vowel, because it is nearly equivalent to *oo*. In the word *by* the *y* is a pure vowel, but in *yet* it is a semi-vowel, because the word according to sound might be spelt *ēet*. The **Consonants** are *b*, *c*, *d*, *f*, *g*, *h*, *j*, *k*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *p*, *q*, *r*, *s*, *t*, *v*, *w*, *x*, *y*, *z*. Four of these consonants, *viz.*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, combine very easily with most of the other letters, and have by some grammarians, been termed *Liquids*. The letter *h* has no full articulate sound but is a breathing letter. This we call the *Aspirate*. The re-

maining consonants, *viz.*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *f*, *g*, *j*, *k*, *p*, *q*, *s*, *t*, *v*, *w*, *x*, *y*, *z*, may be termed *mutes*. *C*, *q*, *x*, *w*, and *y* are said to be redundant or superfluous letters because their *work* could be done by other letters of the alphabet. *C* might be represented by *k* or *s*; the work of *q* (used only before *u*) might be done by *k* (koo). *X* is equivalent to *ks* or *gs*; *w* is equal to *oo* and *y* might always be represented by *i*. Consonants may again be classified according to the organs which help in the pronunciation of them. Thus some consonants are formed in the throat and are called *Gutturals:* these are *g*, *k*, and *h*. Others are formed by the pressure of the tongue against the roof or palate of the mouth: these are *Palatals*, *j c (ch)* and *r*. Some are formed by the help of the teeth and are called *Dentals;* these are *d*, *n*, *l*, *s*, *t*, *z*. Others are formed by the lips and are called *Labials;* these are *b*, *m*, *v*, *f*, *p*. **Diphthongs.**—When two vowels come together so that they have to be sounded in the same syllable, they form what is called a Diphthong, as *ai* in *aisle*, *ay* in *day*, *ea* in *meat*, *ei* in *height*, and *eo* in people. The Diphthongs, in most cases represent simple vowel sound. Examples:—The broad sound of A. as in tall is represented by *aw* (awl), *ou* (sought), *au* (taught); and the long sound of a, as in *fame* is represented by *ay* (say) *ey* (they), *ei* (their) *ea* (pear), and *ai* (lair). The open sound of O as in *mote* is represented by *oe* (toe), *oa* (coat), *ow* (meadow); the broad O as in *move* is represented by *oo* (groove). To do duty for the long sound of E, as in *mete*, we sometimes see the diphthongs *ea* (hear), *ei* (deceive), *ie* (believe) and *eo* (people), while in the word *jeopardy* the *eo* represents the short E as in *red*. Diphthongs do not, however, always stand for simple vowel sounds. We have four diphthongal sounds, that of *eu* as in *feud*, the sound of *i* as in *fine*, *ou*, as in *house* and *oi*, as in *voice*. These four are also represented by other vowels, *e.g. ew* by *u* (mule) *ue* (argue), *ew* (new). The diphthongal sound of I by *ai* (aisle); *ou* by *ow* (now), and *oi* by *oy* (boy). When double letters represent double sounds they are called Proper Diphthongs Æ and Œ are also Diphthongs, but they only occur in Latin or Greek words, which we have adopted, as Cæsar, Phœbus. **Capital Letters.**—These should be used at the beginning (1) of a sentence, (2) of all names of God, (3) of all proper names as *Europe*, *European*, (4) of every direct quotation as the Bible says: "*To obey is better than sacrifice*", (5) of days of the week, months, special seasons as *Sunday*, *Monday*, *January*, *December*, *Christmas*, *Whitweek*. Capitals are used for the pronoun I and the exclamation O.

Spelling.—The irregularities of English spelling are confusing not only to foreigners, but to natives also. These irregularities are due to several causes, one of these being our defective alphabet, the letters of which represent only twenty-three sounds, whilst there are forty-three sounds in our spoken alphabet. To supply the deficiency we resort to double *letters* and the result is unsatisfactory. Again, we get our words, as has been explained under "Our English Tongue," from various sources, and in spelling we have to respect the roots from which the words sprang, instead of trusting merely to sound; *e.g.* the word *civil* might be spelt *sivil* but its Latin root begins with *c*, and therefore our English word appears with the same initial. As far as sound is concerned we might use *f* instead of *ph* in *philosophy*, but the *ph* indicates the Greek origin of the word. Dr. Angus says: "It is often desirable to mark by the spelling the different meaning of the words we use, even when no special atttention is directed to their history, owing either to the fact that they come from the same root, or that the root, is of no moment. From the same root, for example, we have *canon* and *cannon*, *cord* and *chord*, *corps* and *corpse*. From entirely different roots, bay and baize, sun and son, moat and mote. The meaning in each pair is different, and

it is more important to mark the difference by the spelling than to simplify the spelling at the expense of the sense." Then again many words, which have a common origin in Latin or Greek come to us through different channels. Independ*ent* comes directly from the Latin, whilst depend*ant* comes through the French. Through the French we get authorise and civilisation whilst authorize and civilization are Greek forms of Latin words; both these forms of spelling are right; we have to decide for ourselves which we will use.

Rules for Spelling.—Rule 1. When an affix beginning with a consonant is added to a word ending in *e*, the *e* is not omitted, as use, *useless;* loose, *loosely;* move, *movement.* **Exceptions**—*awful, woful, abridgment, acknowledgment, argument, judgment, lodgment, duly, truly, wholly.* **Rule 2.**—When an affix beginning with a vowel is added to a word ending in *e* we omit the *e*, as in cure, *curable;* sense, *sensible;* love, *loving;* arrive, *arrival;* bone, *bony.* **Exceptions**—1. When the *e* is preceded by *c* or *g* soft it must be kept before the terminations *able* and *ous*, in order to preserve the pronunciation, as in *changeable, courageous, peaceable.* 2. The *e* is retained in the words dyeing (staining); eyeing, hoeing, shoeing, singeing, swingeing, springeing, tingeing. (These eight words are the only ones in which the *e* is retained before *ing*). 3. In words ending in *ie* the *e* is omitted before *ing*, and the *i* is changed into *y* as die, *dying;* lie, *lying;* tie, *tying;* vie, *vying.* **Rule 3.**—In words of more than one syllable formerly ending in *ck*, the *k* is now left out. *Public* used to be written public*k* and *music*, music*k*. **Exceptions**—1. We restore the *k* for sound, in such words as mimic*k*ed, from *mimic*, traffic*k*ing, from *traffic.* 2. The following words, keep the final *k*.—Arrack, attack, barrack, bullock, cassock, haddock, hammock, hassock, hemlock, hillock, hummock, mattock, paddock, pinchbeck, ransack, shamrock. **Rule 4.**—When a letter or syllable is added to a word ending in *y*, the *y* is changed to *i*, as dry, dried; holy, holiest; accompany, accompaniment; busy, business. **Exceptions**—1. In Greek words *y* does not represent *i* as it does in English, and it may be found in any part of a word as *s*ynopsis, *s*yringe, symphony. 2. When the *y* is preceded by a vowel, the *y* is not changed to *i* before an addition to the word, so we write *betrayal, buyer, days* although the words *lay, pay, say* follow the rule before the addition of *d* or *ed.* 3. We do not change the *y* into *i* before *ish* and *ing*, as baby*ish*, try*ing*, or before *'s* as in lady*'s*. 4. The *y* is kept in words implying office or title as secretary*ship*, lady*ship.* 5. It is usually retained in the words dryness, dryly; shyness, shyly; slyness, slyly. **Rule 5.**—In words of one syllable, ending in *f, l* and *s*, preceded by a short vowel, the final letter is doubled, as in *mill, pass, press, stiff.* **Exceptions,**—*as, clef, gas, has, his, if, this, thus, us, was, yes.* **Rule 6.**—When a monosyllable ends in any other letter than *f, l*, or *s*, the ending consonant remains single, as *ton, sip.* Exception *add, butt, buzz, ebb, egg, err, inn, odd.* **Rule 7.**—When a word ends with a double letter both letters are retained before an additional syllable, when it does not begin with the same letter, as pressure, seeing, successful. **Exceptions**—Words ending in *ll* generally lose one *l* before consonants as a*lmost*, chi*ldlain*, dwe*lt*, ski*lful*, and in some words ending in *ss* one *s* is dropped, as bles*t*. **Rule 8.**—When words end with a double letter, the double letter is preserved in all derivatives formed by prefixes, as be*fall*, tres*pass*, fore*stall*, un*well*, yet we write ful*fil*, re*but* and we sometimes see enroll, befell, spelt with a single *l.* **Rule 9.**—Words of one syllable and those accented on the last syllable, when preceded by a short vowel, double the final consonant, when a syllable beginning with a vowel is added, as bar, barred; hot, hottest; wool, woollen; begin, beginning; prefer, prefe*rring.* **Rule 10.**—If the accent does not fall on the final syllable the final consonant is not doubled before an additional

syllable beginning with a vowel, as offer, offer*ed;* benefit, benefi*ting*. **Exceptions**—Apparel*led*, cancel*ling*, cavil*ler*, crystal*line*, drivel*ling*, duel*list*, gravel*led*, grovel*led*, jewel*ler*, level*led*, marvel*lous*, model*ling*, revel*ling*, rival*led*, travel*ler*. When an addition to a word throws the accent back from the final syllable, the final consonant is not generally doubled, as prefer, prefer*ence;* refer, refer*ence;* transfer, transfer*ence*. **Exceptions**—We write excel, excel*lence*, inflame, inflam*mation*, because these words, being classic, take the classic form instead of following our English rules. The consonant remains single after a long vowel as boi*ling*. The letter X, being in itself a double letter equivalent to *ks* in never doubled.

Rules for the division of Words.—1. A Monosyllable may never be divided, it must be begun and finished on the same line. 2. When words are made up of more than one syllable they should be divided according to pronunciation as *sci-en-tif-ic*, *hope-ful-ness*, *en-joy-able*. 3. Compound words should be divided into the parts of which they are made up, as *even-song*, *black-bird*. 4. Words with prefixes or suffixes should, when possible, be divided where the prefixes or suffixes join the root-words, as *pre-vent*, *mis-chance*, *con-struct*. 5. When two consonants come together, these are usually divided as *hat-ter*, *bet-ter*, *car-ry*. In some cases, however, both the consonants belong to the root, and we are obliged to divide at the suffix, as *drill-ing*, *call-ing*. 6. When two vowels, which do not form a diphthong, that is, which do not stand in the same syllable—come together they may be divided as *be-atific*, *de-ity*, *re-ality*.

Etymology, is the science of words and deals with their origin, their changes of form and their classification. **The Origin of Words** is dealt with as far as practicable within present limits in the historical sketch of the growth of the English language under the heading "Our English Tongue." **The Forms of Words.**—Some words are of one syllable only, that is *they* can be pronounced by one effort of the voice. Others contain two, three or more syllables. Words of one syllable, as *hard*, *hand*, are called *Monosyllables;* words of two syllables, as *hardy*, *handsome*, are called *Dissyllables;* words of three syllables, as *hardihood*, *handsomely*, are called *Trisyllables*, and words that contain four or more syllables as *triumphantly*, *subordination transubstantiation*, are called *Polysyllables*. **Roots, Prefixes and Affixes.**—A syllable or word put before a word is called a *Prefix*, as *a*live, *un*fold *fore*tell. A syllable or word put at the end of a word is called an *Affix*, a *Suffix*, or *Termination*, as judg*ment*, song*ster*, friend*ship*. When we speak of the *Root* of a word we mean the parent word from which it is derived. Prefixes and affixes are added to roots to indicate variations of meaning: thus *live* being the root word the prefix *a* makes it alive, the affix *ly* makes it live*ly*. **A Derivative** is formed by adding a suffix to a root as we make *dar* (dear) into *darling* by adding the suffix *ling*. *Dar* is the root, *darling* is the derivative. **A Compound Word** is formed of two distinct words, which are put together to make one, as *bakehouse*, *battlefield*, *sea-green*. **Synonyms, Antonyms, and Homonyms.**—A word which is the same in meaning as some other word is called a *Synonym*. The words *abandon*, *leave*, *quit*, *forsake*, *desert*, *relinquish*, *renounce*, are synonymous words, or words which have a common meaning. The words *affix*, *suffix*, and *termination* used above are synonyms. Words of opposite meaning are called *Antonyms*. *Cherish* is opposite in meaning to *forsake* and is, therefore, its antonym. *Homonyms* are words which are similar in sound, but which differ in spelling and in meaning; *e.g.*, *burrow*, and *borough*, although different in spelling, are pronounced alike.

The Classification of Words.—Etymology divides the words of the English language into eight groups called

respectively *Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions and Interjections.* **Nouns.**—A noun is a name. There are two kinds of nouns which are called respectively *Proper* and *Common nouns.* **Proper Nouns** are the names of persons or places as *John* and *Mary, Smith* and *Brown, Brompton, London, England.* **Common Nouns** are the names of things, as *chair, table, house, church,* and also of persons and places when one of a class is referred to and not a special person or place as *man, soldier, river, town.* Common nouns may be subdivided, as I, *Class names;* II, *Collective nouns;* and III *Abstract nouns.* **Class Names** include the ordinary names of things, as *boy, coat, house, loaf* but also of materials as *wood, cloth, bricks, flour.* **Collective Nouns** are the names of collections of persons and things which we think about as forming one company or collection, as *army, parliament, museum, menagerie.* **Abstract Nouns** are the names of qualities, states or actions, as *goodness, speed.* Abstract nouns are taken from (a) Adjectives, as *truth* from *true; wickedness,* from *wicked;* and (b) from verbs, as *speech,* from *speak;* and *grief,* from *grieve.* The Names of the arts and sciences are also abstract nouns. Nouns are subject to *Inflexion.* **Inflexions** are changes made in the forms of words to express changes in their relation to other words. Nouns are inflected to express *gender, number* and *case.*

Gender is the distinction of sex by the help of words, prefixes or suffixes. In English we have the *Masculine, Feminine, Neuter* and *Common* Genders. The Masculine stands for all names of animals of the *male* kind; the Feminine for all animals of the female kind; the Neuter Genter denotes all nouns without life, and the Common Gender stands for animals the sex of which is not specified as *bird, child, cousin, parent.* Gender is marked in three ways: by prefixes, by suffixes, and by different words used for the male and female. In the words *vixen* (the femine of fox) and *spinster* (feminine of spinner) we have the only two remaining suffixes of purely English origin—*en* and *ster,* and they are used in these two words only. The suffix *ess* comes to us through the French. We use it in Empr*ess,* Duch*ess,* Count*ess,* Baron*ess,* Host*ess,* Mistr*ess,* Actr*ess,* Murder*ess.* The suffix *ine* is of Greek origin, and is found in hero*ine* and other words. The purely Latin suffix "trix" is only used to inflect words coming to us directly from the Latin, as testator, testa*trix*: executor, execu*trix.* The chief feminines formed from the masculine by prefixes are Bull-calf, *Cow*-calf; Cock-sparrow, *hen*-sparrow; he-goat, *she*-goat; man, *woman* (meaning *wife-man*); wether-lamb; *ewe*-lamb; he-ass, *she*-ass. Some of the most important words, showing the use of different forms for masculine and feminine are: King, Queen; Duke, Duchess; Lord, lady; gentleman, lady; Sir, madam; man, woman; bachelor, spinster; husband, wife; father, mother; uncle, aunt; son, daughter; nephew, niece; brother, sister; boy, girl; bull, cow; cock, hen; drake, duck; gander, goose; horse, mare; hart, roe; ram, ewe; stag, hind.

Number.—By Number we distinguish one from more. We have two numbers—the *Singular,* meaning *one,* and the *Plural* meaning *more than one.* The plural of nouns is formed (1) by the addition of *es* or *s* to the singular noun: as ass, ass*es;* box, box*es;* gas, gas*es;* hero, hero*es;* pen, pen*s.* Nouns ending in *y,* preceded by a consonant, change the *y* into *ie* before *s,* as baby, bab*ies;* city, cit*ies;* fancy, fanc*ies;* ruby, rub*ies;* but when the *y* is preceded by a vowel, it is not changed as in chimney*s,* day*s,* key*s,* monkey*s,* valley*s.* Words ending in *f* usually change the *f* into *v* before *es,* as in beef, bee*ves;* calf, cal*ves;* knife, kni*ves;* loaf, loa*ves;* shelf, shel*ves;* wharf, whar*ves;* but several words ending in *f* or *ff* follow the general rule, *e.g.* belie*fs,* chie*fs,* cli*ffs,* dwar*fs,* grie*fs,* handkerchie*fs,* hoo*fs,* roo*fs,* scar*fs,* stu*ffs,* tur*fs.* We form our plurals (2) by the addition of *en* to the singular as in

brethr*en*, childr*en*, ox*en*, kin*e* (the double plural of *cow*); and (3) by an alteration in the vowel sound, as in foot, *feet*; goose, *geese*; man, *men*; mouse, *mice*; tooth, *teeth*. The words *deer*, *sheep*, *cod*, *trout*, *salmon*, *mackerel*, and some others have the same form in the plural as in the singular. We have also words which look like plurals but which are really singular, such as alms and eaves, and there are plural forms which are looked upon and treated as singulars, as amends, gallows, news, pains, shambless, smallpox, tidings. Some nouns cannot be used in the singular, as, *bellows*, *pincers*, *scissors*, *snuffers*, *spectacles*, *tongs*, *trousers*, *annals*, *ashes*, *hustings*, *measles*, *molasses*, *mumps*, *stocks*, *victuals*. Several nouns in our language have two plural forms, which, however, differ in meaning, as brother, *brothers*, *brethren*; cloth, *cloths*, *clothes*; die, *dies*, *dice*; fish, *fishes*, *fish*; genius, *geniuses*, *genii*; index, *indexes*, *indices*; penny, *pennies*, *pence*; shot, *shots*, *shot*. Some phrases, indicating number, weights, measures, etc., are not made plural; we say four hundredweight, eight stone, ten score, two gross, five brace, twenty fathom; and we also say thirty sail of the line, a troop of horse, a company of foot, a three-foot rule. To form the plural of compound words we add *s* to the noun which describes the person or thing, as *goings*-on, *hangers*-on, *lookers*-on, *daughters*-in-law, maid-*servants*. When the compound word is regarded as one word the *s* is placed at the end as, attorney-*generals*, court-*martials*, major-*generals*, spoon*fuls*, hand*fuls*, pail*fuls*. Some compound words, however, are made plural in both their parts. Examples: knights-templar*s*, lords-justice*s*, men-servant*s*.

Case shows the relation of a noun to other words standing in the same sentence with it. We now use five cases—the *Nominative*, *Possessive*, *Dative*, *Objective* and *Vocative*. **The Nominative Case.**—The nominative is the subject in the sentence as "*Boys play*." The noun *boys* is in the nominative case, being subject to the word *play*. **The Possessive Case** shows possession. We indicate the possessive case of nouns by adding *'s* to the singular, as the girl's book; *'s* to the plural when the plural terminates in *n* as men's boots; children's toys: and *'* only when the plural ends in *s* as girls' books. **The Dative Case** answers to the question *to whom?* or *for whom?* In the sentence "Bring Mother a chair," *Mother* is in the dative case, the word *to* being understood. Again in the sentence "The joiner made the gentleman a chair," the word gentleman is in the dative case, the word *for* being understood. **The Objective Case** answers to the question *Whom?* or *What?* It is the case of the direct object in a sentence, that is, it is the object governed by the transitive verb. In the sentence given above, "The joiner made the gentleman a chair," the word *chair* shows *what* the joiner made. It is therefore the *direct object*, or is *in the objective case*. **The Vocative Case**, sometimes called the *Nominative of Address*, is the case of the person addressed, or spoken to *e.g.*, "Come here, Mary." *Mary* is the person spoken to and is therefore in the Vocative Case.

Pronouns.—A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun. There are four kinds of pronouns—*Personal*, *Interrogative*, *Relative*, and *Indefinite*. *Personal* Pronouns have three persons—the First Person, or the person speaking; the Second Person or the person spoken to, and the Third Person or the person spoken of. **Personal Pronouns** of the 1st person are Singular Nominative *I*, Plural *us*; Singular Possessive *mine* or *my*; Plural *our* or *ours*; Singular Dative *me*, Plural *us*; Singular Objective *me*, Plural *us*. Personal Pronouns of the 2nd person are Singular Nominative *thou*, Plural *you* or *ye*; Singular Possessive *thine* or *thy*, Plural *your* or *yours*; Singular Dative *thee*, Plural *you*; Singular Objective *thee*, Plural *you*; Singular Vocative *thou*, Plural *you*, or *ye*. Personal Pronouns of the 3rd person are Singular Nominative *he*, *she*, *it*, Plural *they*; Singular Possessive *his*, *her* or *hers*, *its*,

Plural *their* or *theirs;* Singular Dative *him, her, it,* Plural *them;* Singular Objective *him, her, it,* Plural *them.* **Interrogative Pronouns** are used in asking questions. There are four of them, viz. *who? which? what?* and *whether?* **Relative Pronouns.**—A Relative Pronoun relates to a noun or another pronoun going before it, and called its antecedent. They are *who, which, what* and *that.* In the sentence "This is the house that Jack built," the word *that* relates to the noun *house, that* is therefore a relative pronoun, and *house* is the antecedent. The relative pronoun sometimes stands as a joining word, or *conjunction* between two sentences, *e.g.* the sentence given above—"This is the house that Jack built" is really composed of two sentences "This is the house" and "Jack built," with *that* as a connecting word, so the word *that* stands as a relative pronoun referring to the house, and as a conjunction joining the two sentences. *What* is called a *Compound Relative,* because it stands for *that which.* An **Indefinite Pronoun** is used without any distinct reference to any particular person or thing. The principal Indefinite Pronouns are *one, none, any, other,* and *some.* To pronouns belong Number, Gender, and Case.

Adjectives.—An Adjective describes or points out a noun. It must be followed by a noun expressed or understood. There are four kinds of Adjectives—1. Adjectives of Quality, as *sweet, sad, blue, small;* 2. Adjectives of Quantity, as *all, any, both, few, much, several;* 3. Adjectives of Number, as *one, ten, fifteen, twenty;* and 4. Demonstrative Adjectives. Some grammarians include in the last named the Distinguishing Adjectives (formerly called Articles) *a, an* and *the;* the Demonstrative Adjective Pronouns *this, that, these, those, yon* and *yonder;* the Interrogative Adjective Pronouns *which? what? whether?* (of the two); the Distributive Adjective Pronouns *each, every, either, neither;* the Possessive Adjective Pronouns *my, thy, his, her,* etc., and the Ordinal Numerals *first, second, third* and so on. Adjectives are inflected for comparison. There are **Three Degrees of Comparison.**—The *Positive,* the *Comparative,* and the *Superlative.* The Positive degree is the adjective in its simplest form. The Comparative shows an increase in the quality for which the adjective stands. The Superlative shows that the quality for which the adjective stands has reached its highest degree. We form the Comparative by adding *er* to the positive or by putting the word *more* before it, and we form the superlative by adding *est* to the positive, or by putting the word *most* before it, thus—Positive *sweet,* Comparative *sweeter,* Superlative *sweetest;* Positive *magnificent,* Comparative *more* magnificent, superlative *most* magnificent. Many adjectives have irregular comparisons such as *good, bad, late, little* and others. We say Positive *good,* Comparative *better,* Superlative *best;* Positive *bad,* Comparative *worse,* Superlative *worst;* Positive *late,* Comparative *latter,* Superlative *last;* Positive *little,* Comparative *less,* Superlative *least.* Several do not admit of Comparison, as *wooden, earthen, square, quarterly, almighty, perpetual.*

Verbs.—A verb is a word which tells what a person or thing does, as, *The man works;* what is done to a person or thing as, *The table is broken;* and in what condition it exists as, *The child breathes.* A Verb has aptly been called "*A Telling Word.*" There are two kinds of verbs—*Transitive* and *Intransitive.* **A Transitive Verb** is not complete without an object, because it expresses an action which passes over to or affects an object. Examples: "The horse *ate* the corn." "I *love* you." **An Intransitive Verb** does not affect an object, the action does not pass over from the doer of it to any other person or thing. Examples: "Flowers *grow,*" "Sheep *bleat.*" To Verbs belong *Voice, Mood, Tense, Number* and Person. **Voice** shows whether the subject is the doer of the action or the object of the action. Transitive Verbs have two voices—the Active and the Passive.

When a verb is in the active voice the doer of the action is the subject; when a verb is in the passive voice the order is reversed and the object of the action becomes the subject. Thus: active "A tramp *stole* the chickens." Passive "The *chickens* were stolen by a tramp." **Mood** means manner, therefore by mood we mean the manner in which the action expressed by the Verb is presented to our understanding. We have four moods—the *Indicative*, the *Imperative*, the *Subjunctive* or Conditional, and the *Infinitive*. The Indicative simply affirms a fact, or asks a question, as "*I sing*;" "*He has sung*;" "*Does he sing?*" The Imperative commands, requests or entreats, as "*Run* away!" "*Take* me with you please." "*Do* not *speak*." The Subjunctive is used in a sentence joined to a principal sentence, and is not the expression of a direct fact; generally it implies both doubt and futurity. Thus we say, "I shall be sorry *if you go*." "O that you *might be happy!*" The Infinitive is the pure verb. By this mood we simply name the verb as though it were a noun. We speak of the verb *to run*, *to speak*, *to love*, *to be*, etc. etc. A Participle is a part of the verb which really partakes of the nature of both verb and adjective. Verbs have two participles, the Present Participle always ending in *ing*, and the Past Participle ending in *d*, *ed*, *t*, or having some irregular termination. The participles of the verb to love are Present lov*ing*, Past lov*ed*; of to catch, Present catch*ing*, Past *caught*; of to forsake, Present forsak*ing*, Past forsak*en*; of to get Present gett*ing* Past *got*. **Tense** tells the time of the performance of an action—whether it is being performed now, whether its performance belongs to the past or to future time. Hence the three tenses are *Present*, *Past*, *Future*. Examples: Present *I speak*, Past *I spoke*, Future I *shall speak*. Verbs are modified for Number and Person and are always of the same number and person as their nominatives.

Adverbs.—An Adverb modifies the meaning of a verb, an adjective or another adverb. Examples:—"She walks slowly." *Slowly* modifies the verb *walks*. "She walks with very slow steps." *Very* modifies the adjective *slow*. "She speaks too quickly." *Quickly* modifies the verb *speaks* and *too* modifies the adverb *quickly*. There are several kinds of adverbs: 1. of Time, as *often*, *once*, *twice*, *seldom* (indicating repetition of time, how often) *soon*, *presently*, *now*, *then*, *to-day*; 2. of Place, as *here*, *there*, *at*, *yonder*, *by*, *inwards*, *aloft*, *down*, *hither*, *hence*; 3. of Degree, as *very*, *little*, *much*, *too*, *almost*, *quite*, *exactly*, *hardly*; 4. of Manner, as *well*, *ill*, *badly*, *quickly*, *thus*, *anyhow*; 5. of Assertion, as *yes*, *no*, *yea*, *nay*; and 6. of Reasoning (sometimes classified as Adverbs of manner) *therefore*, *wherefore*, *thus*, *consequently*. Adverbs can be compared like adjectives. Thus we say Positive *well*, Comparative *better*, Superlative *best*; Positive *nigh* or *near*, Comparative *nearer*, Superlative *next*. Some adverbs have two functions—they modify and also stand as connective words between sentences; *e.g.*, "I will speak to you *when* you come back." The word *when* modifies the verb *speak* and also joins the two sentences *I will speak to you* and *I come back*.

Prepositions.—A Preposition shows the relation of a noun or pronoun to another word in the sentence, and that other word may be a *verb*, an *adjective*, or another *noun* or *pronoun*. Examples:—"He sat *on* the chair." On shows the relation between or joins the verb *sat* and the noun *chair*. "She is afraid *of* spiders." Of joins an adjective *afraid* and a noun *spiders*. The girl is *in* the house. In joins two nouns, *girl* and *house*.—We use many words both as adverbs and prepositions. We tell which they are by the work they do in the sentence.

Conjunctions.—These are connecting words. They join nouns and sentences. There are two kinds of Conjunctions—*Co-ordinate* and *Subordinate*. Co-ordinate conjunctions join co-ordinate sentences and clauses; as "I have the book *and* I shall keep it." *And* joins the two

sentences "I have the book"; "I shall keep it," neither of these sentences is dependent on the other. Subordinate conjunctions join a subordinate sentence to a principal sentence, thus: "I shall go *when* I am ready." The word *when* joins the subordinate sentence *I am ready* to the principal sentence *I shall go*. Again "He cannot play *because* he is ill." The word *because* joins the subordinate sentence *he is ill* to the principal sentence *he cannot play*.

Interjections.—An Interjection expresses an emotion of the mind. It does not affect any other word in a sentence and is not really a part of speech at all. We exclaim Oh! Alas! Ah! Hush! Hurrah! None of these affect the sense of the sentences we use.

Syntax deals with the correct arrangement of words in sentences.

Sentences.—A sentence is an arrangement of words forming a statement about something. A sentence in its barest and most elementary form consists of two *words* only, as *He moves*. These two words represent the doer of the action and the action itself—the *Nominative* or *Subject* and the *Verb* or *action*, called the *Predicate*. What we speak about is the *nominative* or *subject* and what we say about the subject is the *predicate*. Some verbs require completion, and these must be followed by a word which we call the *object*. *E.g.*, in the sentence, "He broke the glass," the verb *broke* would be incomplete without a word following it, *the glass* is therefore the object. However complicated a sentence may be it can be divided into its two parts, the Subject and the Predicate. There are in Grammar three kinds of sentences—the *Simple Sentence*, the *Complex*, and the *Compound Sentence*. A Simple sentence consists of one subject and one predicate, as "Flowers grow." A Complex sentence contains one principal sentence and one or more subordinate sentences, as: "We left behind the painted buoy that tosses at the harbour mouth." This sentence really contains two sentences, "We left behind the painted buoy" and "That tosses at the harbour mouth." The former is the principal sentence and the latter the subordinate sentence, for although it contains a subject and a predicate, it is dependent on the principal sentence. A *Compound Sentence* consists of two or more simple sentences co-ordinate with each other, that is they are of equal rank, as "*You must go or you will be too late.*" Here are two sentences, *You must go* and *you will be too late*," neither of which is dependent upon the other. In speaking as in writing, our sentences should be *grammatically correct*, and the words of which they are composed should be *skilfully arranged*. They should be *clear*. Therefore it is important that words expressing things connected in thought, should be placed as near to each other as possible, unless another arrangement is necessary for the sake of emphasis; and words or clauses should be so arranged that a double reference may not be apparent. Dr. Angus says, in speaking of clearness, "Apart from all rules, the grand requisite of a clear style is *clear thinking*. If an object is not distinctly seen, it cannot be distinctly described: nor can any mechanical combination of words give an adequate conception of what the speaker himself has not adequately conceived." A sentence should be *concise*, therefore needless words and clauses, and the narration of unnecessary circumstances should be avoided.

Punctuation of Sentences.—We use points to mark off the different parts of a sentence, and to show what relation each part bears to the whole. The marking off of words according to the sense by means of these points is called *Punctuation*. We all know how disastrous to the sense of a written statement the lack of punctuation sometimes is. The following unpunctuated passage calls up to our imagination, the hero standing in a very ludicrous position: "He stood motionless on the table and all around were evidences that the apartment had been but lately occupied." In reality the situation was almost tragic: "He stood motionless. On the

table and all around were evidences that the apartment had been but lately occupied."

The points now in use are the *Period* or *Full-stop*, *Colon* *Semi-colon*, *Comma*, *Dash*, *Note of Interrogation*, and, *Point of Exclamation* or *Admiration*. We use the period or full-stop (.) at the end of a sentence. The colon (:) introduces a quotation, it is put before a list of things, and also before a fresh statement added as an after-thought. The semi-colon (;) is used in a compound sentence, when two or more simple sentences are put into one. The comma (,) is used to mark a pause. The dash (—) is used before an explanation. The two dashes (— —), which have to a great extent superseded the old parenthesis ( ) enclose an explanatory clause, which does not affect the grammar or the sense of the sentence. The note of interrogation (?) is put after a question. The note of exclamation (!) or point of admiration comes after an expression of surprise or wonder, in fact after all exclamations.

Rules of Syntax. Rule 1.—The subject of a verb is in the Nominative Case. The verb must agree with its subject in number and person. Thus, "I am happy," "Mary sings," "You were vexed," "The boys play." In these sentences the subjects *I*, *Mary*, *you*, *the boys*, all stand in the nominative case, and the verbs *am*, *sings*, *were*, *play*, agree with their subjects in number and person. **Rule 2.**—Sometimes two nouns, or a noun and its equivalent, are used in a sentence, the one to explain or describe the other. These are said to be in apposition. They must always *be* in the same case. Ex., "Goliath the giant was killed by David." *Goliath* and *the giant* are in apposition. They are both in the nominative case. **Rule 3.**—The verb *to be* takes the same case after it as that which stands before it. Ex.: "That man is a good writer." The words *man* and *writer* are both in the nominative case. They stand for the same *person*. The verb *is* merely connects them. **Rule 4.**—The verbs to *become*, to *be called*, to *be named*, to *live*, to *prove*, to *seem*, to *remain* and some others, like the verb to *be*, take the nominative case after, as well as before them, when they stand as merely Copulative verbs; that is when they are connective verbs and are not complete without the addition of another word. *E.g.*, if we say, "I have proved it," the verb *prove* is here a complete verb governing *it* in the objective case; but if we say, "He proved a traitor," the word *proved* in this case is not complete without the words *a traitor*. It is therefore a Copulative verb. **Rule 5.**—Sometimes we find a noun in the nominative case followed by an adjective, a participle or a phrase, but standing in no syntactic relation to any other part of the sentence. This is called the *Nominative Absolute*. Examples "*Her heart sore*, she sat and wept." "*The cheerfu' supper done* wi' serious face, They round the ingle form a circle wide." **Rule 6.**—When two nouns come together, the one being an attribute to the other, the former is put into the Possessive Case, as "the *man's* horse." We can also form the possessive by using the objective case with of, as The queen *of* England, instead of England's queen. **Rule 7.**—When two or more possessives are in apposition or when a compound noun is used, we treat the whole as a compound phrase and affix the sign of the possessive to the last only as, my friend Mary's house; the Duke of Devonshire's estate. We can also form the possessive case with *of*, thus—A friend *of my* mother's, but this can only be done when the person mentioned is supposed to possess several of the things referred to. Sometimes for the sake of euphony the 's is omitted altogether. We say "For conscience sake." To form the possessive of a Christian name ending in *s* we add the apostrophe only, as "Moses' father-in-law," but in surnames ending in *s* it is usual to add 's as "Mr. Jones's maid. **Rule 8.**—It is permissible for an adjective to be used as an adverb in

poetry, thus: "Loud laughs the tempest;" „Bleak blows the blast." **Rule 9.**—When we compare two things we use the Comparative Degree of the adjective; when three or more are compared we use the Superlative, as: He is the *younger of the two;* She is the *eldest of the three.* **Rule 10.**—The Distributive Adjectives *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, are put with singular nouns, and the verb which follows must be singular, as "*Each* child carried *a slate;*" "*Every* woman wore *a* coronet;" "*Either* of the men *is* eligible for the post;" "*Neither* of the girls *speaks* plainly. **Rule 11.**—*The other* is used when we speak of the second of two; *another* when we speak of more than one of two. *Each other* should never be used when we are speaking of more than two, and *one another* should not be used for two. **Rule 12.**—The Relative Pronouns *who*, *whom*, and *whose* stand for rational beings, and *which* for irrational beings; *that* may be used for all kinds of nouns. Examples, *The man, who came here just now is blind;* "*The prisoner whom you saw, and whose* sentence was so light, *came from America a year ago*"; "*The chair which is broken must be mended*"; "*This is the house that Jack built*"; "*The one that speaks first shall be punished.*" **Rule 13.**—We should use the word *as*, and not *who*, after the words *such*, *same*, *so much*, *so great*, etc., as "She is not *such* a companion *as* I should like you to have"; "This is the *same* pen *as* I used. **Rule 14.**—Two or more singular nominatives (subjects), connected by *or* or *nor*, require a verb in the singular, as "William *or* John *is* making a noise"; "Neither he *nor* she was there." **Rule 15.**—Two or more singular subjects connected by *and* take a plural verb after them, as "The eagle *and* vulture are birds of prey. *Note:* We say "The queen, *with* the princess, *was* driving through the park"; and "The father, *as-well as* the son, *was* punished," as neither the preposition *with*, nor the compound conjunction *as-well-as* connects singular subjects to form a plural. **Rule 16.**—Two or more subjects of *different persons*, connected by *and*, require a plural verb. If one of the subjects is in the 1st person, then the verb must be in the first person; if there is no *first* but a second person is present, the verb will be in the 2nd person; if both subjects are in the 3rd person, the verb will be in the 3rd person. Examples: you and *I* (we) *were*; *you* and he (you) *were*; *he* and *she* (*they*) *were.* **Rule 17.**—When one subject is affirmative and the other negative, the verb must agree with the affirmative as, "*You* and not he *are* to blame"; "*He* and not you *was* there." If we use *neither—nor*, *either—or*, the verb generally agrees with the nearest pronoun, as "Neither you nor *he is* to blame"; "Either you or *I am* making a mistake." **Rule 18.**—Transitive Verbs, as well as Prepositions govern nouns or pronouns in the Objective Case, as "Who stole the tarts?" Stole is a transitive verb and governs *tarts* in the objective case. **Rule 19.**—An Adverb may generally be placed in any part of the clause it qualifies, as "*Then* he went home"; "He went home *then*"; "*Fortunately* help was at hand"; "Help was *fortunately* at hand." But when there are in the same clause several words, each of which the adverb may modify, it ought to be placed as near as possible to the word to which it belongs. *E.g.*, if instead of writing "They at length found him lying on the path," we were to put "They found him lying *on the path at length*," the sense would be confused. **Rule 20.**—Prepositions govern nouns and pronouns in the objective case as, I walked *into* the room. *Room* is in the objective case governed by the preposition *into.* **Rule 21.**—Some words require special prepositions after them. Thus, we have an abhorrence *for* a thing; one thing is said to accord *with* another, while we must say this one differs *from* that; this one is different *from* that. We agree *with* a person, but agree *to* a proposal. We say confide *in* (trust in), confide *to* (intrust to); conform *to*, but *in conformity with;* convenient *to* (a person), convenient *for* (a purpose); dependent *on*, but independent *of.* We

part *from* a person, but part *with* a thing. **Rule 22.**—Some Adjectives and Conjunctions require special conjunctions after them. Thus *such....as; both....and; so....as; as.....as; though....yet; whether....or not; nor....nor; or....or.*

Analysis.—A Sentence is a group of words making complete sense. When we analyse a sentence we take it to pieces, and name the different parts of which it is made up. A sentence must consist of at least two parts—the Subject, or what we speak about, and the Predicate or what we say about the subject. When the predicate is a transitive verb it requires an object to complete the sense. The **Subject** must be a noun, or a word or set of words equal to a noun in the nominative case. Examples:—The *man* works (noun); *He* sent me (pronoun); *Fretting* is injurious (Verbal noun); *To err* is human (an Infinitive); *Welcome home* was shouted on all sides (a quotation); *That you may be happy* is my wish (a sentence). The **Predicate** must be a finite verb, that is a complete verb, having number and person. It must not be a Participle or an Infinitive. Examples:—It *rains;* You *can go.* The **Object** must be a noun, or a word or set of words equal to a noun in the objective case, as: He caught the *fish* (noun); I can see *you* (pronoun); They love *to work* (infinitive); I do not like *quarrelling* (verbal noun); They shouted *Welcome home, Master!* (phrase); She said *she could not go* (a sentence). There are two kinds of Objects—the *Direct* and the *Indirect.* The **Direct Object** is that which is governed immediately by a Transitive Verb, as, I took *it.* Sometimes in a sentence there is a second object governed by a Preposition expressed or understood. This is the **Indirect Object.** Example: I gave *him* a shilling. The Direct Object is the noun *shilling* governed by the transitive verb, the Indirect object is the pronoun *him*, governed by the preposition *to* (understood); I took him *for a tramp*; They made him *king.* Any word or phrase which qualifies the subject is called an **Enlargement** of the subject. Examples: The poor old man cannot walk. The words *poor* and *old* qualify the noun *man* and are therefore Enlargements of the subject. In the sentence—The man having done his work went home, we have the phrase *having done his work* as an enlargement. Similarly any word or phrase, which qualifies the object, is an enlargement of the object. An Adverb or set of words equal to an adverb modifying a predicate is said to be the **Extension** of the Predicate. There are several kinds of Extensions. Examples: *Merrily* rang the bells (manner); I will send the children *by and by* (time); I met my friend *in St. Paul's Churchyard* (place); "The King is come *to marshall us*" (purpose); They laboured *under great opposition* (manner); The servant was dismissed for *dishonesty* (cause). There are three kinds of sentences—**Simple, Complex,** and **Compound.** A simple **Sentence** has only one subject and one predicate. Example: "Young Henry met the foe with pride." Henry, subject; *young*, Enlargement of the subject; *met*, Predicate; *the foe*, Direct Object; *with pride*, Extension of the Predicate. **A Complex Sentence** is composed of a Principal Sentence, and one or more sentences dependent on it. These dependent Sentences are called **Subordinate Sentences.** Example of a Complex Sentence, "The dreadful event, we shudder to think about, would not have happened, if all had done their duty." Here we have three sentences, the Principal, *The dreadful event would not have happened;* and two subordinate sentences: *we shudder to think about;* and *if all had done their duty.* There are three kinds of Subordinate Sentences—the Noun Sentence, the Adjectival Sentence, and the Adverbial Sentence. A **Noun Sentence** stands for the subject or the Object in the sentence, as: *That you care nothing for her* is evident (Subject); "No man cried *God save him*" (Object). **An Adjectival Sentence** is one that stands for an adjective. It may, there-

fore, belong to the subject, or any noun or pronoun. "They love not poison *that do poison need*" (qualifies the Subject *They*); "We gave her the bag *I bought in London*" (refers to or qualifies the object *bag*); "You must go to the place *I mentioned*" (belongs to the noun *place* in the *adverbial* phrase). **An Adverbial Sentence** goes with a verb. It performs the function of an Adverb and is, therefore, called an *Adverbial Sentence*. It may be joined to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Examples: "There I crouch, *when owls do cry.*" "I told your as plainly *as I could*" (tell you). "He was punished *because he was disobedient.*" "He was so ill *that he could not speak.*" In analysing a Complex sentence care should be taken to pick out first the Principal Sentence. **A Compound Sentence** is composed of two or more simple sentences neither of which is subordinate to the other, as "*The horses neighed* and *The oxen lowed.*" Each of these sentences is independent of the other. They are merely put together and joined by the conjunction *and*, for convenience.

Parsing.—When we parse a sentence we take each word separately and explain it. There are different methods of parsing, a simple method and more detailed modes. Example of parsing. **Hush!** Interjection—**go**—Verb Intransitive, Imperative Mood—**quietly**—Adverb of Manner modifying the verb *go*—**and**—Conjunction connecting the words *quietly* and *quickly*—**quickly**—Adverb of Manner modifying *go*—**to**—Preposition governing "house" in the objective case—**the**—distinguishing Adjective, pounting out *house*—**old**—Qualifying Adjective referring to "house"—**house**—Common Noun, 3rd person, singular number; neuter gender; objective case governed by the preposition *to*—**which**—Relative Pronoun, 3rd person; singular number; neuter gender; agreeing with its antecedent *house*; objective case governed by the transitive verb *showed*. Also a conjunction joining the sentence "Go.... house" and "he showed us"—**he**—Personal Pronoun; 3rd person; singular number; masculine gender, nominative case to the verb *showed*—**showed**—Verb Transitive; indicative mood; past tense; 3rd person; singular number; agreeing with its nominative *he*—**us**—Personal Pronoun; 1st person; plural number; common gender; dative case governed by the preposition *to* (understood).

THE LAND WE LIVE ON.

The Land We Live On.—Land is the most valuable of all human possessions. From it, in one form or another, we draw the food we eat, the clothes we wear, the houses we inhabit, and the materials which, manipulated and combined in countless forms of manufacture, contribute to our comfort and convenience. Land is the prime necessity of human existence, and its preservation under free conditions is the first duty of the State.

The Growth of Land Law.—Under the earlier conditions of human society, when land was plenty and men were few, occupation and use became the first title to locality. A family occupying an area equal to its necessities would establish thereby a right, which would, at least, be superior to that of others not occupying it. But occupation and use would still be the only title to it, for if for any reason the first occupiers were to evacuate their settlement to occupy another elsewhere, their title to the old area would lapse as naturally as it grew. In the course of time families developed into tribes, tribes became less nomadic, and settlements became larger and more permanent. Under these circumstances there is reason to believe that in England in earlier times, as in Scotland to a much later date, ownership of land was vested in the chief of the tribe or clan for the benefit of the whole community. The gradual increase in the size of the tribes, and the consequent increase in their necessities, without any corresponding expansion of the area available for occupation and use,

in time brought the tribes into nearer neighbourhood, and ultimately competition and rivalry engendered jealousy and avarice, and the right of might and conquest superseded the simpler right of occupation and use. By the right of conquest Julius Cæsar took possession of England B.C. 55, and William the Conqueror A.D. 1066. Modern English law is the survival, with modifications and additions, of Anglo-Saxon, Roman, and Norman law.

Anglo-Saxon Law.—Under Anglo-Saxon Law absolute property in land existed. Land acquired in the first instance from Nature, and not from any intermediary, was held by the holder in his own right without fee or service to any other. This is the highest and widest title to land that can exist, and is represented by the term *allodium*, a word of doubtful etymology, said to be derived from *all* and *odh*—all property.

Feudal Law.—With the Norman Conquest came the introduction of the feudal system, and all private right in land passed away. At Salisbury, in 1068, William the Conqueror declared himself lord paramount of all the soil of the country, after which he proceeded to divide the land into about 700 fiefs and 60,000 knights' fees or holdings. Henceforward the land of Britain was held either mediately or immediately from the king upon conditions of service, and the land so held was said to be held in *fee*.

Property in Land.—In theory there is now no such thing as private property in land in Great Britain, but in practice the State has allowed so much private encroachment and enclosure, and has permitted the land to be covered with such a network of private rights and interests, that the greater part of it has long ceased to be public except in the evil consequences of its terms of tenure. Still the State exercises rights over the land by passing Acts of Parliament to compel holders to give up possession on compensation for the purposes of railways and other public works, and by compelling them to permit the use of lands for allotments, etc., etc. The difference between the rights of absolute ownership and the rights of the holders of land in fee may not be very great, but the recognition of the principle of State ownership is of great importance to the community, as it clears the way for the ultimate nationalisation of the land. Property in land is either allodial, freehold, or copyhold.

Allodial Land.—The term allodium is used to distinguish absolute ownership in land from mere estate in land granted by a superior lord upon conditions of service. Much of the land of America and the British Colonies is Allodial land, but there is now no Allodial land in Great Britain.

Freehold Land.—Freehold is a general term applied to land held in fee which is primarily land lent for a return of service; legally described as an estate in land of indefinite duration granted by and held for a superior lord on condition of performing some service in return. The superior lord being either the sovereign or some intermediary holding the land from the sovereign and sub-letting it to others. The services required in return for the fee varied according to circumstances, in some cases being onerous, and in others nominal, in some continuing for a lengthened period, and in others sooner or later becoming obsolete. Land held in fee is either (1) fee simple absolute, (2) qualified or base fee, (3) fee tail, formerly fee conditional.

Fee Simple.—Fee simple is the fullest and most complete interest a person can have in land in Great Britain. The *fee simple* makes the estate the freehold property of the holder, his heirs, and assigns for ever, and includes the ownership of the natural products in the earth and upon its surface; minerals, springs, running and standing water, woods, forests, etc., etc. To create it words of inheritance are necessary, that is the conveyance must be to the grantee and *his heirs*' unless in case of wills, where equivalent expressions are used. It includes an uncontrollable power of management and of alienation, whether

by gift, sale, or will. It descends to the heir of an intestate owner, and is subjected to *escheat* if there be no heir. **Escheat** is the process whereby the owner, or the superior lord of the land, enters into repossession of the estate upon the failure of the tenant to leave an heir.

Base Fee.—Base fee is an estate qualified by a limit more or less remote beyond which it cannot endure. These qualifications are various, of which the following are examples:—(1) Until a minor shall become of age; (2) Until the marriage of a certain person; (3) Until certain debts are paid; or (4) Until default be made in payment of a given debt at a certain time, etc., etc. Should the minor never attain his majority, the marriage never take place, the debt never be paid, or the default never occur, the estate will continue as if no qualification affected its title.

Fee Tail.—A fee tail is an estate of inheritance limited to certain heirs as distinct from a fee simple, which is an estate descendable to heirs general. Tail male is an estate which descends from the holder to the heirs of his body in the male line, the females not inheriting. Tail female is an estate that descends in the same way to the female line, the males not inheriting. The holder of an estate tail is called a tenant entail, and the holder of the fee simple, who grants lands to another and his heirs in a particular line, and thus creates an estate tail, is said to entail his lands.

Copyhold.—Copyhold tenure is that for which the tenant has nothing to show but the copy of the roll made by the steward of the lord's court on his being admitted to his tenement. Copyholders were anciently no more than villeins, who, by successive encroachments on their lords, at length established a customary right to their estates, which before were held absolutely at the lord's will. The rights of copyholders are limited to the surface of the land, the lord as freeholder retaining his property in the minerals within the earth and the timber upon it. Estate in copyhold land may be for life, fee simple or fee tail, but different conditions obtain on different manors. Copyholders are liable for the debts of the holder and in bankruptcy to the same extent as freehold. Under comparatively recent acts copyholds may be voluntarily or compulsorily enfranchised on payment of a sum of money to the lord in commutation of his rights, privileges, and perquisites. Such enfranchisement having the effect of converting copyhold into freehold. No copyhold land can be made at this day, for the requisites of a copyhold estate are, that it has been derived time out of mind by copy of court rule, and that the tenant is parcel of or within the manor. Copyholds descend according to the rule of common law, unless in particular manors.

Other Forms of Tenure.—There are several other old forms of tenure which are to be met with in different parts of England. Tenure in **Burgage** is where the king or other person is lord of an ancient borough in which the tenements are held by a rent certain. Tenure in **Gravel-kind** descends to all the sons alike and not to the eldest son only. Tenure in **Borough English,** which obtained in some ancient boroughs, in feudal times involved rights of concubinage. and under its provisions the lands descend to the youngest and not to the eldest son.

Right of Common.—Right of common is a privilege by which a person claims to *use* what another man's lands, woods, or waters produce without having an absolute property therein. Common is chiefly of four sorts: common of *pasture*, of *piscary*, of *turbary*, and of *estovers*. **Common of Pasture** (1) is the right of feeding one's cattle on another's land. Commonable beasts are horses, oxen, kine, and sheep. **Common of Piscary** is a liberty of fishing in another man's waters; as **Common of Turbary** is a liberty of digging turf for fuel from another man's ground. **Common of Estovers** is a right of taking necessary wood from another's estate for household use, and the making of imple-

ments of husbandry. There is also common for digging coal, stone, minerals, and the like, but the most general common right is that of pasture. **Common of Pasture** (2). The property of the soil of the common is entirely in the lord, and the *use* of it jointly in him and the commoners; and the respective rights of the lord and the commoners are ascertained by statute and usage. In land subject to common right, the right of the lord of the soil ought to be so exercised as not to injure the right of the commoner to the use of the surface. A commoner has only a special and limited interest in the soil, but his remedies are commensurate to his right.

Common of pasture may be *appendant* or *appurtenant*. Appendant is the privilege belonging to the occupiers of arable land, holden of a manor, to put upon its wastes its commonable beasts, *i.e.*, horses, kine, and sheep. Appurtenant is a right arising from a grant, or prescription, which supposes a forgotten grant, and may apply to common lands in other lordships, and to use for other beasts, such as swine, goats, and geese, not generally commonable. Other common rights of pasture have arisen from *vicinage* or neighbourhood, the tenants of adjoining manors allowing their cattle to range indiscriminately over both wastes. A fourth variety of common of pasture is that vested in a *person* by deed or prescription, as the parson of a church or a corporation sole.

The inclosure of commons is regulated by successive enclosure Acts, which contain provisions for the protection of common rights and the regulation of such enclosures, the Commons Act of 1876 expressly preventing enclosure as distinct from regulation unless it can be shown "that the enclosure will be of benefit to the neighbourhood as well as to private interests and to those who are legally interested in commons."

Real and Personal Property.—Property naturally divides into two classes. There is an obvious difference between land and houses, which cannot be moved, and money and goods, which can be carried from place to place, and in early times the simple distinction between things movable and things immovable was convenient and sufficient. Gradually these two classes of property have come to be disignated real and personal property respectively, from the fact that local and immovable property is recoverable by legal process, whereas movable property may be lost, stolen, or destroyed, and become utterly irrecoverable, and action must lie against the *person* of the individual who caused the loss. *Real property* is so called because of its reality and tangibility as an object of action for recovery, and *personal* property because action must lie against the person of the defaulter. Real property is freehold land and tenements, and such other forms of property as Parliament has so designated from time to time. Personal property is money and goods, with such additions as Parliament has occasionally determined.

The Classification of Property.—In the process of time new forms of property have come into existence, and these have been severally classified as *real* and *personal* property. Thus, the simple distinction between immovable tenements and movable chattels has been lost in the many exceptions to which time and circumstance have given rise. For instance, shares in canals and railways, which are immovable enough, are generally *personal* property, though shares in the New River Company are an exception to the rule. Funded property is personal, whilst a dignity or title of honour, which seems personal enough, is not a chattel but a tenement. Canal and funded property are made personal by the different Acts of Parliament under the authority of which they originated, and titles of honour are real property because formerly such titles were connected with real estate. The most remarkable exception to the original rule, says Williams, "Real property," occurs in the case of a lease of lands or houses for a term of years. The interest which the lease, or person who has taken the

lease, possesses, is not his real but his personal property; it is but a chattel, though the rent may be nominal and the term a thousand years.

Acquiring Real Property.—The methods of acquiring real property are limited by the laws of England to two, *descent* and *purchase*. **Descent,** or hereditary succession, is the title whereby lands or tenements devolve upon a man from his ancestors by act of law as heir. The *heir-at-law* is he to whom the law assigns the estate immediately on the death of the ancestor, and an estate so descending to the heir is called an inheritance. Descent at common law is either *lineal* or *collateral*. **Lineal Descent** is from the father to the son, from the son to the grandson, and so on from generation to generation. **Collateral Descent** is a side branch from the same stem, as from an uncle to a nephew. Until the death of the ancestor the person next in line of succession is called either the *heir apparent* or the *heir presumptive*. The **Heir Apparent** is one whose right of inheritance is indefeasible provided he outlives the ancestor, as the eldest son or his issue. The **Heir Presumptive** is one, who, if the ancestor were to die immediately, would in the present state of things be his heir, but whose right of inheritance may be defeated by some nearer heir being born: thus, the presumptive successor of a brother or nephew may be destroyed by the birth of a child, or that of a daughter be lost by the birth of a son. **Purchase,** the other mode of acquiring real property, is a term of wide signification in law, and is used in contradistinction to descent. If an estate came to a man from his ancestor without writing, that is descent, but when a person takes anything from an ancestor by will, deed, or gift, in which the expressed agreement of the party is essential, and not as heir-at-law, that is purchase. In an Act passed in 1883 the word "purchaser" is declared to mean the person who last acquired the land otherwise than by descent, partition, escheat, or enclosure, by effect of which the land becomes descendable in the same manner as if acquired by descent; and "descent" is declared to mean the title to inherit land by reason of consanguinity. The word "land" in the Acts extends to manors, advowsons, and messuages, and chattels, and other personal property transmissible to heirs and inheritable.

Buying Land.—Land may be bought of anyone holding the fee simple, and the seller, having full powers of alienation, is at liberty to dispose of all he possesses. But no man can dispose of more than he possesses, and so all lands pass with whatever obligations of ownership, real or remedial, may be attached to them. Thus the purchaser of land in fee takes the place of the vendor in relation to the superior lord of the lordship of manor of which the land is part, and is subject to whatever may remain of his feudal right.

Mortgage.—Mortgage is a pledge of land, tenement, or anything immovable, bound for money borrowed, to be the lender's for ever if the money be not repaid at the time stipulated: the borrower is called the mortgager, and the lender the mortgagee. Although by law a mortgage is forfeited on nonpayment of the sum borrowed at the time agreed upon, yet a Court of Equity will interfere to prevent the sale, and if the value of the mortgage is greater than the sum advanced, it will allow the mortgager, within reasonable time, to redeem his estate, paying to the mortgagee his principal, interest, and expenses: without this an estate worth £500 might be forfeited for the nonpayment of £50. The advantage thus allowed to the mortgager is called the **Equity of Redemption,** and it is available for the relief of the mortgager for twenty years after the last recognition of the mortgage security by the mortgagee.

THE ENGLISH CONSTITUTION.

The English Constitution.—The supreme power in England is divided into two branches—the legisla-

tive and the executive. The former consists of the Sovereign, lords, and commons in Parliament assembled; the latter consists of the Sovereign alone. Parliaments, or General Councils, are doubtless coeval with the establishment of the kingdom, but the constitution of Parliament on present lines may be said to have been more clearly defined by Magna Charta, in 1215, when King John promised to summon the clergy, nobility, and commons to meet at a certain place, with forty days' notice to assess aids and scutages when necessary. This Constitution has clearly subsisted from the year 1265, there being still extant writs of that date to summon knights, citizens, and burgesses to Parliament.

The Sovereign.—The supreme executive power is vested in a single person—the king or queen, and the person entitled to it, whether male or female, is invested with all the ensigns and prerogatives of sovereignty. The right of succession is by custom hereditary, but this right has been and may be limited by the Parliament, though the Crown still continues hereditary; that is descendable to the next heir, male or female. Hence the Sovereign is said never to die, sovereignty surviving death in the person of the successor, "The king is dead, long live the king." By the oath administered at the coronation the Sovereign solemnly promises to govern according to the statutes, the laws and customs of the realm; to cause law and justice, (and in mercy), to be executed in all his judgment; to maintain the laws of God, the profession of the Gospel, and the Protestant reformed religion as by law established. This solemn engagement, which is considered a fundamental and express contract between the king and the people, involves the Sovereign in the acceptance of the laws and customs of the country as they stand at the date of his coronation, while his own signature binds him to the observance of the laws passed during his reign. An Act passed on the accession of Queen Victoria provided that in the event of Her Majesty's death, the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord Chancellor, the Lord High Treasurer, Lord Presidency of the Council, Lord Privy Seal, Lord High Admiral, and the Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench are appointed Lords Justices to exercise the royal powers until the arrival in the kingdom of the next successor to the Crown, provided such successor is absent at the time of Her Majesty's decease. Lords Justices are, however, not empowered to create peers or to dissolve Parliament.

Royal Prerogatives.—By royal prerogatives are meant certain privileges enjoyed by the Sovereign by virtue of his regal office. The Sovereign is the sole magistrate of the nation, all others acting by commission from and in due subordination to him. He has the exclusive right of sending ambassadors, of creating peers, of making war and peace, of summoning, proroguing, and dissolving Parliament; he may reject any Parliamentary Bill he pleases, and may pardon any offences, subject only to the limitations of laws passed by his predecessors or by himself. The Sovereign is the head of the *army and navy*, and has the control of all forts and garrisons within the realm. He has the power of establishing ports and havens, and may prohibit the importation of arms and ammunition. He is the head of the National Church, and has power to convene, prorogue, and dissolve the houses of convocation. In virtue of this prerogative, he has the right to nominate to vacant bishoprics and other ecclesiastical preferments. He has the prerogative of establishing markets and fairs with tolls, of regulating weights and measures, of giving authenticity to coin, and making it current as the universal medium of exchange. He is the representative of the public, and all criminal proceedings for offences are conducted in his name. He has the power of erecting Courts of Judicature, but cannot administer justice personally, as he has delegated that power to his judges. The Sovereign is also the fountain of office, honour, and privilege. All degrees of

title are by his immediate grant. He has the right of granting precedence to any of his subjects, except the nobility, whose precedence is fixed by statute.

The Revenue of the Crown.—The revenue of the Crown is either *hereditary* or *Parliamentary*. The hereditary revenue is that which has subsisted to the Crown from time immemorial, or else has been granted by Parliament in exchange for such Crown revenues as were found inconvenient to the public. The Parliamentary or public revenues are the various taxes levied by Parliament. Many of the old hereditary revenues have fallen into desuetude, or been placed at the disposal of the legislature, so that they add little to the income of the Crown. In lieu of these, therefore, a fixed sum, under the denomination of the civil list, has been appropriated by Parliament for the maintenance of the royal household. This sum is payable out of the Parliamentary revenue, or that great mass of public income arising from the various taxes imposed by Parliament, and a great portion of which is applied to the payment of the interest of the National Debt, the maintenance of the army and navy, the administration of justice, and other matters connected with the national government.

The Privy Council.—Peers of the realm are by birth hereditary counsellors of the Crown, and may be summoned by the Sovereign to impart their advice in all matters of importance to the kingdom; or they may individually demand an audience of the Sovereign and respectfully lay before him such matters as they judge important to the public welfare. The judges are the royal counsellors in matters of law, and are required by statute to assist the Crown in all affairs of legal difficulty. The principal council of the Crown is, however, the Privy Council. The number of members is indefinite, and at the pleasure of the Crown. Privy Councillors are nominated by the Sovereign, and are subject to reversal at the royal discretion. They sit during the life of the sovereign, and on his demise continue for six months, unless sooner determined by his successor. They are bound by oath to advise the Crown without partiality, affection, or dread; to keep the Council secret, to avoid corruption, and to assist in the execution of what is there resolved. The portion of the Privy Council usually denominated **the Cabinet** does not properly form a recognised part of the Constitution of England. In practice, however, it is the most important branch of the Government, comprising the great public officers and ministers of State, who constitute the really efficient and responsible servants and advisers of the Crown. The number and selection of the Cabinet Council depend solely on the pleasure of the Crown, and each member receives a summons or message for each attendance, and no member attends unless individually summoned for the particular occasion on which his assistance in Council is required. A Privy Councillor must be a natural born British subject, and when appointed is entitled to be addressed as "Right Honourable." Any Privy Councillor can act as a Justice of the Peace. The meetings of the Privy Council are presided over by the **Lord President of the Council**, who conducts the debates in Council, proposes matters on behalf of the Sovereign, and reports the results of discussions to the Crown. As a rule the meetings of the Privy Council are small, only those members being summoned whose advice is specially needed, but on the demise of the Sovereign, and other great occasions the whole of the body assembles. One of the duties of the Privy Council is that of proclaiming the new Sovereign on the death of the old. **Royal Proclamations** are issued by the advice of the Privy Council, whether for the summoning, proroguing, dissolving Parliament, or for other purposes. The Privy Council establishes *quarantine* when necessary, grants *charters* of *incorporation* to public and private bodies, and issues *orders in Council*, bringing into operation such

provisions of Acts of Parliament as are left to be put in force at the discretion of the Council. **The Privy Council of Ireland** acts with the Lord Lieutenant in similar relationship to that of Great Britain to the Crown. The Board of Trade, the Education Department, the Universities' Committee, and the Judicial Committee for appellate business, and other public bodies have grown out of the Privy Council, and discharge duties which are devolved upon the Council.

Parliament.—Parliament, which comprises the Sovereign, lords, and commons, is summoned by royal writ or letter, a certain number of days prior to the date of meeting. The power of summoning, proroguing, and dissolving Parliament rests solely with the Sovereign. When it is resolved that Parliament shall meet and sit on the day to which it stands prorogued, notice is given by proclamation, in which the words, "then and there to meet for the despatch of business," indicate the fact that the Parliamentary session will actually begin on that date. Parliament meets yearly, from the necessity of passing a number of Bills which require to be passed annually, and also for the voting of supply. Parliament is not only summoned by the Sovereign, but it must be opened by the Sovereign or by Royal Commission. The power and jurisdiction of the Parliament are so great that they have been designated omnipotent. It has sovereign and uncontrollable authority in the making of laws, and in the past has regulated the Royal succession, as in the case of William III., has changed the national religion as under Henry VIII. and his children, has altered the constitutions of the Empire as by the Acts of Union with Scotland and Ireland, and reversed its own by statutes as to the periodical elections of the House of Commons and the reform of the representatives of the people.

The House of Lords.—The House of Lords forms the second or hereditary branch of the Constitution. It is comprised of lords temporal, who may be divided into hereditary and representative peers' and lords spiritual. The hereditary peers include all the peers of England; the representative peers include sixteen peers of Scotland elected by the Scotch peers for each Parliament; and twenty-eight peers of Ireland elected by the Irish peers for life. The lords spiritual include the Archbishops of Canterbury and York and twenty-four bishops. As an unlimited power of creating peers is vested in the Crown, and peerages from time to time become extinct, the numerical strength of the House of Lords varies from time to time. At the end of 1895 the voting strength was 563. The numbers were made up as follows:—6 peers of the blood royal, 2 archbishops, 22 dukes, 22 marquises, 121 earls, 29 viscounts, 24 bishops, 310 barons, 16 Scotch representative peers, and 28 Irish representative peers. Fifteen of these, however, were minors, and two ranked as peers of the United Kingdom and as Irish representative peers as well, making allowance for which the number for voting purposes was as stated above. The House of Lords is both a legislative and a judicial body. It is the highest court of appeal in the country, and tries cases of impeachment by the House of Commons, and decides claims to the peerage. Peers wear their robes when they are introduced for the first time to the House, and when Parliament is opened by the Crown in person, but they wear ordinary clothes when they meet for business. Peers of all ranks mingle indescriminately in the assemblies of the House, though the bishops sit in one place, locality being determined by party rather than by precedence.

The Peerage.—Peers are created either by *writ* or *patent*. The creation by writ, or the Sovereign's letter, is a summons to attend the House of Peers by the style and title of the baronetcy which the Sovereign is pleased to confer; that by patent is a royal grant to the subject of any dignity of degree or peerage, as baron or viscount. When a peer is

newly created he is introduced into the House of Peers by two lords of the same degree, in their robes, Garter King of Arms going before. The new lord presents his writ or summons to the Lord Chancellor, and it is read by the Clerk, after which the lord takes the oath, subscribes to the roll, and is conducted to his palace. Lords by descent are introduced with the same ceremony, the presenting of the writ excepted. There are five orders of the peers temporal: dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts and barons, who rank in the order given. Prior to the union of England, Scotland, and Ireland in one kingdom, these five degrees of peerage obtained in each country, and in all three they bore the same order and took precedence in each degree as determined by priority of creation. On the union of Scotland with England in 1707 it was arranged that the Scotch peers existing at the time of the Union should rank in the order of their creation after the English peers of the same degree, as—(1) English dukes, (2) Scotch dukes, etc., etc. Peers created subsequently to the union with Scotland and prior to the union with Ireland, are either peers of Great Britain or Ireland. On the union of Great Britain and Ireland it was provided that the peers of Ireland should rank next to the peers of Great Britain. Peers created since the union of Great Britain and Ireland are peers of the United Kingdom, and rank after the peers of Ireland created before the Union. The peers may thus be divided into five classes:—(1) English peers, (2) Scotch peers, (3) peers of Great Britain, (4) peers of Ireland, and (5) peers of the United Kingdom. Of these only the English peers and the peers of the United Kingdom have hereditary seats in the House of Lords, Scotland being represented by 16 peers elected by the Scotch peers from their own number, and Ireland by 28 peers similarly elected.

The House of Commons.—The House of Commons is the third estate of the realm. It is a popular body, and by far the most important legislative assembly in the United Kingdom. In the House of Commons the people are represented by 670 of their own number, whom they elect by ballot at intervals not exceeding seven years. There is now no property qualification for membership, and with the exception of members of the House of Lords, clergymen of the Established Church, Roman Catholic priests, H.M. Judges (excepting only the Master of the Rolls in England), various officers of the Crown, such as sheriffs and returning officers within the area of their own offices (though they are eligible for election outside the same), Government contractors, with certain exceptions, aliens, imbeciles, and persons convicted of certain crimes, all males of twenty-one years of age, are eligible for election to the House. The instrument or authority by which an election is held is a writ made out by the Clerk of the Crown in Chancery, which is returnable after the election to the Crown office. After Parliament is elected, and during its continuance, the House of Commons alone has the right of issuing writs to fill up vacancies. The writs are issued to the returning officers of each county, district, or borough entitled to elect members to Parliament, and the returning officer is required, under the provisions of the Ballot Act, in the case of a borough, on the day of the reception of the writ, or the day following, and in the case of a county, within two days of the reception of the writ, to give public notice of the election. In counties, or district boroughs, the day of nomination must be fixed within nine days of the receipt of the writ, and three days' interval must be allowed to elapse between the issue of the notice and the day of nomination. In boroughs the notice must be issued within four days of the receipt of the writ, and ten clear days must intervene between the notice and nomination. Candidates must be nominated in writing, and the nomination must be signed by a proposer and seconder and eight others, all of whom must be registered electors of the con-

stituency for which the candidate is nominated. If within an hour after the time fixed for the election, the candidates proposed do not exceed in number the seats vacant for the constituency, it is the returning officer's duty to declare the candidates who have been nominated duly elected. If, however, the number of nominations, at the expiration of an hour from the time fixed for the election, exceeds the number of vacancies in the representation of the constituency, it is his duty to adjourn the election and take a poll. The returning officer then makes an estimate of the probable cost of the election and the candidates are required to furnish him with the necessary amount in cash or their nomination is cancelled. The day of the poll for a county or district borough election is fixed by the returning officer according to statute, not less than two or more than six clear days after the day fixed for the nomination. In the case of a borough other than a district borough, the election must be held not earlier than the day following nomination, but within three clear days after the same. In these conditions, Sundays, Christmas days, and Good Fridays are treated as though they had no existence, the "clear days" in each case meaning ordinary working days. The returning officer, though a registered elector, is disqualified from voting unless the candidates poll an equal number of votes, and then, provided he is a registered elector, he may give a casting vote. Should he not be a registered elector, or being one, decline to give a casting vote, he endorses the writ with the names of both candidates and makes a double return. In the case of a double return, neither candidate is entitled to sit in the House until rival claims are settled. The seat may then be claimed by either candidate on petition and on various grounds. In cases of equality of votes a recount or scrutiny usually settles the question, as some votes are found to have been counted twice and others to be irregular in form. Election petitions are tried by two judges, who report the results of their inquiry to the Speaker of the House; in cases of bribery and corruption, reporting whether illegalities have been practised, whether to any great extent, and whether with the knowledge and consent of the candidate. Such reports are usually referred to a Royal Commission, upon whose report a constituency may be virtually disfranchised for a time by the suspension of the writ. A person may be elected to represent one or more constituencies, in which case he has to make choice betwixt the two within a week of the acceptance of the election unchallenged.

The Assembling of Parliament.—On the consummation of a general election the newly-elected members assemble in their own House and await the summons to attend the opening of Parliament, by the Sovereign in person or Royal Commission in the House of Lords, where it is intimated to them that it is the Royal pleasure that they should proceed to the election of a speaker. On returning to their own chamber, they elect a Speaker, the Clerk of the House conducting the proceedings. On the day following the Commons are again summoned to attend in the House of Lords, where the newly-elected Speaker is presented, and the Royal approval of his election is declared. On behalf of the House he represents the Speaker, then claims, all their ancient and undoubted rights and privileges of the Commons, on the confirmation of which he withdraws with the Commons and retires to the Lower House. The oath is then administered to the Speaker by the Clerk of the House, and he subscribes to the roll, other members being afterwards sworn in in the same way, as they present themselves at the table for the purpose. New members are introduced by two known members on taking the oath. The following is the form of the oath:—"I, ——, do swear that I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to His Majesty King Edward VII, his heirs and successors, according to law. So help me God." Persons objecting to take

the oath are permitted to affirm. On the formation of a Government, the members appointed by the Sovereign to the various offices of enrolment under the Crown have to submit themselves to their constituencies for re-election, and thus a popular ratification is made of the Sovereign's choice. The initiation and enactment of all new laws is the right of Parliament alone, as well as the repeal of any existing laws. Parliament, too, is responsible for the raising, repealing and expending of Taxes. It also has the control of Ministers, whose duty it is to enforce the due execution of all existing statutes.

Parliamentary Procedure.—There are points of difference as well as points of similarity between the methods of procedure of the two Houses of Parliament. The Lord Chancellor has very limited powers as compared with those of the Speaker of the House of Commons. He is not addressed in debate or appealed to on matters of order, speakers addressing the whole House as "My Lords," and referring to it as "Your Lordships' House"; and the House as a whole determining matters of order. The Lord Chancellor may, however, take part in the debates, and it is his duty to put questions to the vote, but he has no casting vote in the case of equality of voting, the "not contents" by custom prevailing on such occasions. In the House of Commons, on the other hand, the Speaker has large powers of control over the debates in which he cannot take part, and is the authority on all matters of order and procedure. In Committees of the whole House, the Speaker is at liberty to discuss the matters before him, and at all times he has a casting vote in the event of an even division of parties. He represents the House on such occasions as the House needs representation, and is spokesman *of* and *for* rather than spokesman *in* the House. Both Houses have exclusive rights in the matter of legislation, the House of Lords dealing exclusively with questions of restitution in blood and restitution in honour, while the House of Commons has the exclusive right of dealing with taxation and finance. In both Houses a majority binds the whole, and this majority is given publicly and openly. Bills are of two kinds, *public* and *private*, and procedure differs according to kind.

Public Bills.—No bill can be introduced without leave, and the first stage in the matter of a public Bill is to ask leave to introduce it. Leave granted, the Bill is introduced and read a first time after which it is ordered to be printed, and is said to have passed its first reading. The second reading is taken at some time convenient to the House, when the principle or principles involved in it are discussed. This is the crucial stage of the procedure, as if a Bill passes its second reading, its principles are accepted subject only to the modification of its provisions in committee. The next stage is the consideration of the Bill clause by clause, either by a committee of the whole House, a committee selected from the House, or one of the grand Committees. After consideration in Committee, the Bill is reported to the House, with the amendments made in committee, is considered in its amended form, and read a third time. Having finished its course in the Commons, it is then carried to the House of Lords, where it passes through similar stages. If amendments are made by the Lords, the Bill is returned to the Commons, with the Lords' amendments: if the Commons agree to the Lords amendments the Bill passes, and if the two Houses cannot agree as to the amendments the Bill drops.

Private Bills, which are many and various, and which include Bills relating to railways, tramways, canals, docks, gas and water supply, and other public works promoted by private companies, are initiated by petition to the House, the same having been deposited in the Private Bill Office. For the consideration of these Bills, small committees are appointed, who are empowered to hear counsel and examine witnesses, and who act in lieu of a committee of the whole

House. Private Parliamentary business is usually conducted by Parliamentary agents, and much of the formal business is transacted during the recess. Public measures, which are incomplete at the time of prorogation or dissolution, fall to the ground, but by arrangement the consideration of private Bills can be taken up by a new Parliament at the stage reached by the old one.

The Franchise.—The franchise is regulated by numerous Acts of Parliament, which set forth various qualifications for its exercise. The appeal of the voter is to the register in force at the time and place of the election in which he desires to take part. If his name is on the register he is entitled to vote, if it is not he cannot exercise the franchise. The register is a list of the **Owners** and **Occupiers** whose ownership and occupancy is of the value stipulated by the various statutes. The list of owners consists of the names of those who, as owners of land or houses, are entitled to votes in respect thereof, and is subject to modification as ownership changes. The list of occupiers comprises the names of those who, as householders, or as occupiers of land or buildings of an annual rental value of £10, and of lodgers who have occupied rooms of the annual rental value (unfurnished) of £20 in the same house for twelve months. The overseers of each parish are charged with the responsibility of making the list of the occupiers entitled to vote. Any person deeming himself wrongfully omitted from such list, and wishing to be admitted thereto, must send a claim in writing to the overseers. Persons whose names appear on the list may also object to the name of any other person whom they may deem wrongfully included, by sending such objection in writing to the overseers, and notice of the same to the person objected to. In due time the overseers print a list of all the claims made and objections raised, and these lists are sent to the Clerk of the Peace of the County, or the Town Clerk of the borough, as the case may be, who prepares an abstract of the same and submits it to the revising barrister. The revising barrister, who receives his appointment in London and Middlesex from the Lord Chief Justice, and in other parts from the senior judges of assizes, holds courts in various parts of the constituency, of which due notice is given, when he goes through the lists of claims and objections, and allows or disallows them on the evidence offered. Persons dissatisfied with his ruling may appeal to the Queen's Bench division of the High Court. The list, as revised by the revising barrister, is handed to the Clerk of the Peace, or the Town Clerk, as the case may be, who is bound to have it printed, and to hand it, in the one case to the sheriff of the county and in the other to the returning officer of the borough, in whose hands it becomes the roll of appeal for those claiming to be entitled to vote. Copies of the register are kept by the clerks, on sale at a fixed price. If the claimant has any difficulty in prosecuting his claim, or the person objected to has any in defending his, the simplest way is to communicate with the local registration agent of the political party he may be wishing to support. It is necessary for everyone who wishes to exercise the franchise to ascertain from time to time that his name is on the register, as from various causes names do slip out at times, and much annoyance is caused, which a little care would prevent. Especially is it necessary for electors claiming under the lodger qualification, to look after their claims, as, in the nature of things, lodgers do not come under official cognisance, and unless they claim, or the claim is made for them by the local registration agent, their names are not likely to be included in the register.

Popular Rights.—The chief Acts by which the rights of the people are recognised are Magna Charta, the Coronation Oath, the Petition of Right, the Habeas Corpus Act, the Bill of Rights, and the Act of Settlement. The Bill of

Rights, comprising as it does a distinct affirmation of all those points on which the people and their rulers had been formerly divided, may be considered the great constitutional Act by which the national rights and immunities are acknowledged and guaranteed.

The Bill of Rights, or declaration delivered by the Lords and Commons to the Prince and Princess of Orange on the 13th of February, 1689, and afterwards enacted in Parliament, and incorporated in the statute law of the realm, declares: (1) That the pretended power of suspending laws, or the execution of laws, by regal authority, without the consent of Parliament, is illegal. (2) That levying money for the use of the Crown by pretence of prerogative, without grant of Parliament for longer time, or in other manner than the same is or shall be granted, is illegal. (3) That it is the right of the subject to petition the king, and all commitments and prosecutions for such petitioning are illegal. (4) That the raising or keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, without the consent of Parliament is against law. (5) That subjects who are Protestants may have arms for their defence suitable to their condition, and as allowed by law. (6) That election of members of Parliamant ought to be free. (7) That the freedom of speech and debates and proceedings in Parliament ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of Parliament. (8) That excessive bail ought not to be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted. (9) That jurors ought to be duly empannelled and returned, and jurors who pass upon men in high treason ought to be freeholders. (10) That all grants and promises of fines and forfeitures of particular persons before conviction are illegal and void. (11) And for the redress of grievances and amendments of the laws, Parliaments ought to be held frequently. The various claims set forth in these declarations are affirmed to be the indisputable rights and liberties of the people.

The Parliamentary Franchise.—In the days of Henry VIII an Act of Parliament was passed to regulate the qualifications of electors for knights of the shire, when the right to the Franchise was made to depend on the holding of a freehold, within the county, to the value for forty shillings, clear of all deductions except parochial and Parliamentary taxes. The Reform Act of 1832 gave votes not only to freeholders, copyholders, and leaseholders, but also, within certain limits, to occupiers of property in the county. The Act of 1867, supplementing that of 1832, enfranchised all occupiers who are rated and whose rates have been paid, and also lodgers who live in rooms of a clear annual value, unfurnished, of ten pounds. The voters include—(1) the 40/- county freeholder; (2) £5 freeholders or copyholders for life or longer estate; (3) leaseholders of 20 years at £50 per annum or 60 years at £5; (4) occupiers of £10 yearly values and all inhabitant occupiers. (There can, however, be no vote for a county in respect of occupation in a Parliamentary borough); (5) Lodgers whose lodgings are if £10 yearly value unfurnished, *i.e.*, about 4/- per week; (6) Occupants by virtue of service or employment, as if occupiers.

Local Government Acts.—By the Local Government Acts of 1888 and 1894 the whole system of Local Government was changed. The new authorities called into being by these acts were, the County Council, the District Council (Urban or Rural), and the Parish Council or Parish Meeting.

The County Council.—All persons on the County Register are entitled to vote, *i.e.*, all persons who have been for the twelve months ending July 15th previous to the election, in the occupation of any house, shop or building and have resided in the county or within seven miles of it, and have been rated to all poor rates. Councillors are elected for three years by Ballot, and may include Peers, Ministers of Religion, Parliamentary Voters, and County electors unless women, who are ineligible. Every can-

didate must be an elector for the administrative county he seeks to represent. The Council may elect a certain number of Aldermen from their own body or from outside it, to serve for six years, half the number retiring at each election of the Council. The County Council has control over County Finance, Assessment and Rating, Reformatories and Industrial Schools, Diseases of Animals, Allotments and Small Holdings, Technical Instruction, Weights and Measures, Fire, etc. etc.

County Boroughs.—In certain large boroughs called County Boroughs (roughly those with over 50,000 inhabitants) the Municipal Councils have the power of County Councils, as well as the wider ones conferred by the Municipal Corporations' Act of 1835. For judicial purposes most of them are under the jurisdiction of the County Sheriffs; and in cases where they have not a grant of a separate Court of Quarter Sessions, they have to contribute to the cost of the County Quarter Sessions.

District Councils.—In all Urban districts other than County Boroughs there is a council, called in Boroughs the Borough Council and in other cases the Urban District Council. All the parochial electors of the various parishes of the district or persons who have resided in the district for more than twelve months are eligible for election. This includes women in the case of Urban District Councils but not in that of Borough Councils. Elections are by Ballot and all parochial electors (parliamentary and county voters) have the right to vote. Members are elected for three years, a third of the number retiring each year. The District Councillors are the Guardians of the Poor. By the Act of 1894, the Chairman of a District Council is ex-officio a Justice of the Peace.

The Borough Councils and Urban District Councils have considerable powers. They adminster Public Health and Highway Acts, and in some cases Burial Acts, as well as those of Baths and Washhouses, Public Libraries, Gymnasiums, Housing of the Working Classes, Open Spaces, Allotments, Technical Education, etc. The Local Government Board has power by Order, to confer on Urban District Councils the powers of a Parish Council and of Vestries. A very large number of Orders, have already been made in this direction.

Rural District Councils.—The duties of Rural District Councils are generally the same as those of Urban District Councils except those relating to Open Spaces and certain Public Health powers. These, however, can be conferred on Rural District Councils by the Local Government Board. Rural District Councils have also the power to promote the extension of Postal facilities by a guarantee to the General Post Office.

Parish Councils.—These Councils only exist in Rural parishes. All parochial electors or persons who have resided for twelve months in the parish or within three miles of it, including women, are eligible for election. Members are elected for one year by show of hands at the annual Parish Meeting, unless a Poll is demanded, in which case they are elected by Ballot. All persons, including women, on the County or Parliamentary Register of Voters for the Parish are entitled to vote. The duties of the Parish Council include the Appointment of Overseers, the Management of Water Supply, Recreation Grounds, Allotments, Parochial Charities, etc., etc. In Urban Parishes the Vestries nominate the Overseers.

The Parish Meeting.—All Parochial Electors are members of the Parish Meeting, which elects the Parish Council, if one is decided upon. If not, it elects Overseers, it may adopt the Adoptive Acts, and it exercises most of the powers of the Parish Council.

Elections of Poor Law Guardians.—By the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1834, adjacent parishes were grouped in Unions. In the areas so formed the administration of Poor-law relief was entrusted to Boards of Guardians elected by the Ratepayers. By the Local Government Act, 1894, the constitution and

election of Boards of Guardians has been materially changed. Parochial Electors or Residents (including women) for the twelve months preceding the election in some parish of the Union, or in boroughs, those qualified to serve as Councillors of the borough are now eligible for election. All Parochial electors have the right to vote. The Guardians are elected for three years and in ordinary cases one-third retire every year. The whole may, however, retire together at the end of the three years on application to, and by Order of, the Local Government Board. To the Guardians is remitted the relief of the Poor either by indoor relief in the Workhouse, or by outdoor relief to persons living in their own houses. Guardians may elect a Chairman, Vice-Chairman, and two other members from outside their own number, provided the persons so elected are otherwise qualified to act as Guardians. The Chairman of the Board, is ex-officio a Justice of the Peace.

Vestries.—The *vestiarium*, or vestry, is the room attached to the church where the clergy robe. There the *ecclesiastical vestry* meets in Easter-week to elect churchwardens and to discuss ecclesiastical finances. A *general vestry* is composed of all the ratepayers of a given parish, A *select vestry* is formed of a certain number of elected members who regulate the financial business, etc., of the parish. Members of these Select Vestries, which now exist only in the Metropolis, are elected for three years. One-third of the members retire annually. Parochial electors or residents (including women) for the twelve months preceding the election are eligible to become Vestrymen. Voting is by ballot and all Parochial Electors are entitled to Vote. The London Vestries are of two classes—(a) Administrative Vestries, and (b) Vestries which elect a certain number of members to a Board of Works, which is the administrative body for the several parishes represented thereon. The Administrative Vestries and the Boards of Works in London possess extensive powers of local government, including most of the duties not undertaken by the County Council. The Chairman of either an Administrative Vestry or a Board of Works, is ex-officio a Justice of the Peace.

School Boards.—These were called into being by the Education Act of 1870 to provide for Primary Education, wherever the supply was deficient. The Education Department may order the formation of a School Board upon the request of a Local Authority. In 1896, School Boards in England and Wales provided 10,034 separate school departments, with accommodation for 2,455,289 children and nearly 2,000,000 in average attendance. The London School Board alone, has half a million scholars and 11,000 teachers under its control.

School Boards are elected for three years and any British subject, male or female, is eligible for election. Every ratepayer, whose name has been upon the rate-book for at least one month is entitled to vote. The Rate-book is in fact, the Register for School Board elections. Voting is by ballot, each voter having as many votes as there are candidates to be elected. All the votes may be given to any one candidate, or divided among the candidates according to the voter's wish.

Service on Juries.—In an ordinary trial, in an assize court, held elsewhere than in London and Middlesex, the court sends out a process called a *venire facias*, "Therefore let a jury come," etc., whenever issue is desired between two or more parties, and a case has to be heard. This is really a precept addressed by the judges of assize to the sheriff, or if he be a party to the suit, or related to either of the parties, the precept is directed to the coroners, who in this, as in many other instances, are the substitutes of the sheriff, when he is unable, from any cause, to serve. When the cause is called in court the record is handed to the judge, who reads over the pleadings while the jury is being sworn, if he has not done so previously. The sheriff returns his execution of the precept issued to him to summon jurors, with the panel of

jurors annexed, to the judges' officer in court. These jurors are either Common Jurors *or* Special Jurors.

A Common Jury is formed of persons beween the ages of twenty-one and sixty. A man of over sixty may serve if he pleases, but there is no compulsion put upon him; the idea being that he has rendered as much service to the State, in this capacity, as can be reasonably expected from him. No man can be compelled to serve on either a common or a coroners' jury more than once in one year unless the entire jury list has been exhausted and it has come round to his turn again; nor can he be called upon to serve in two or more courts on one day. Jurors cannot be fined for non-attendance unless the summons is duly served by post or otherwise at least six days before he is required to attend. Being on the special jury list does not exempt from service on common juries. Aliens after ten years residence in England and Wales are, if otherwise qualified, liable to serve. Jurors are sworn but may claim to affirm on conscientious grounds. To qualify a man to serve on a common jury he must have £10 a year in lands and tenements, of freehold, copyhold, or customary tenure, or held in ancient demesne, or in rents issuing out of such tenements in fee simple, fee tail, or for life; or he must have £20 a year in leaseholds, held for twenty-one years, or any longer term, or any term determinable on a life or lives; or he must be a householder rated to the poor rate, or in Middlesex to the house duty, in a value of not less than £30; or he must be the occupier of a house containing not less than fifteen windows.

A Special Jury was originally introduced in trials at bar, when the causes were of such importance as to make it desirable to have a specially qualified and intelligent jury. It was also summoned if the sheriff were suspected of a little "jury packing," although the case against him was not sufficiently clear to enable a formal charge to be made. In process of time, however, either party to a suit could give notice to the sheriff to summon a jury, he, the party giving notice paying the extra expenses incurred. In law a special juror is only entitled to such payment as the judge may deem reasonable, but as a rule they receive the sum of 21/- each per case from the parties to the actions. To qualify for serving as a special juror a man must occupy a good social position. The theory is that any persons of the degree of esquire or upwards, and also persons described as bankers or merchants, and those occupying a private dwelling house rated at £100 in towns of 20,000 inhabitants and £50 elsewhere, or premises of £100 value other than farms or a farm rated at £300 are placed on the special jury list.

Coroner's Grand and Petit Juries.—Coroners' juries consist of ratepayers. In criminal cases two juries are summoned, the *grand* and the *petit* jury. The latter is simply a common jury. The grand jury consists of not less than twelve, and not more than twenty-three, good and lawful men of a country, returned by the sheriff to every session of the peace, and every commission of oyer and terminer, and of general gaol delivery, who are to "inquire, present, do, and execute all those things, which on the part of our Lord the King, shall then and there be commanded them." It is commonly supposed that they must be freeholders, but this is not so. They are often men of wealth, who like to sit at a long table, and hear a witness or two for the prosecution in the cases to be heard at the assizes; but the sheriff could, if he thought proper, summon leaseholders, or even ordinary ratepayers. The business of the grand jury is to examine the evidence and determine whether there is enough to justify a trial. They come between the magistrate and the judge and practically sit in judgment on the magistrate's judgment, finding a true bill when they agree with him and throwing out the bill when they do not. By doing thus grand juries often save a great deal of public time. (See p. 470).

The British Empire. Its Area and Population.

From the Financial Reform Almanack.

This list does not include Aden (5 square miles), and Perim (7 square miles) in Asia; and the Island of Rotumah (14 square miles), and Norfolk Island (237 square miles), in Australasia.

Possessions.	Area. Sq. Miles.	Population. Census of 1891.
ASIA, &c.—		
India (British).....	964,993	221,172,952
Do. (Feudatory Native States).....	595,167	66,050,479
Straits Settlements	1,472	512,905
Ceylon	25,365	3,007,789
Mauritius	705	370,588
Labuan	30	5,853
Hong Kong.....	30½	221,441
AUSTRALASIA—		
New South Wales...	311,098	1,165,300
Victoria	87,884	1,140,405
South Australia.....	903,690	320,431
Western Australia..	1,060,000	49,782
Queensland	668,497	393,718
Tasmania.....	26,215	146,667
New Zealand (*a*) ...	104,471	634,058
NewGuinea(part of)	90,000	350,000
Fiji	7,740	125,402
AFRICA, &c.—		
Falkland Isles.....	6,500	1,789
Natal	18,750	548,913
Cape of Good Hope and territories (annexed thereto (*b*)..	221,311	1,527,224
St. Helena	47	4,116
Lagos	1,069	85,607
Gold Coast (total area under British jurisdiction)....	39,060	1,500,000
Sierra Leone (total area under British jurisdiction)....	3,000	74,835
Gambia	69	14,032
Ascension.....	34	61,850
British Bechuanaland	43,000	.....
River Zambesi.....	360,000	.....
Transvaal	117,170	820,000
Orange RiverColony	48,363	207,250

Possessions.	Area. Sq. Miles.	Population. Census of 1891.
NORTH AMERICA (Dominion of Canada)—		
Ontario	222,000	2,114,321
Quebec	228,900	1,488,535
New Brunswick ...	28,200	321,263
Nova Scotia	20,600	450,396
Manitoba	73,956	152,506
Prince Edwd. Island	2,000	109,078
British Columbia... / Vancouver's Island	383,300	98,967
North-West Territory, etc.....	2,497,427	98,967
Newfoundland.....	42,000	197,934
Bermuda	19	15,013
Honduras	6,400	31,471
WEST INDIA ISLANDS—		
Bahamas	4,466	47,565
Turk's Island	166	4,744
Jamaica.....	4,193	639,491
Windward Islands;		
St. Lucia	238	42,220
St. Vincent	133	41,054
Barbadoes.....	166	182,867
Grenada	133	53,209
Tobago	114	18,353
Leeward Islands		
Virgin Islands.....	57	4,639
St. Christopher .... / Including Anguilla	65	30,876
Nevis.....	50	13,087
Antigua.....	170	36,699
Montserrat	32	11,762
Dominica	291	26,841
Trinidad	1,754	200,028
SOUTH AMERICA—		
British Guiana.....	109,000	278,328
EUROPE—		
Gibraltar	1⅞	(*c*) 19,100
Malta and Gozo ...	119	(*c*) 165,037
Cyprus	3,700	(*c*) 200,000

a Exclusive of Maoris, 41,993, in 1891.

b The figures are those of 1865 and 1875 censuses, including only Cape Colony and British Caffraria.

c Exclusive of military.

Note.—To Africa should be added the following estimated area of territory:—The sphere of operations of British South Africa Company and Nyassaland, 500,000 square miles; Lomati Protectorate, Socotra, Zanzibar, Pemba and sphere of British Imperial East Africa Company, 441,700.

Exempted Persons are very numerous. We have already seen that men of sixty need not serve unless they please. In addition to these the Act of 1870, which regulates the composition of juries, exempts from service, peers, members of Parliament, judges, clergymen, Roman Catholic priests, ministers of any congregation of Protestant Dissenters, and of Jews, whose place of meeting is duly registered, provided they follow no secular occupation, save that of schoolmasters or barristers-at-law, certificated conveyancers, and special pleaders, if actually practising; doctors of law and advocates, if actually practising; attorneys, solicitors and proctors, if actually practising, and having taken out their annual certificates; and their managing clerks; medical practitioners and pharmaceutical chemists, officers on full pay, licensed pilots, officers of the P.O. Inland Rv. and Customs, etc.; policemen; notaries public in practice; officers of the courts and other exceptionally situated persons. The fine for non-attendance depends very much upon the urgency of the need of jurors, and the temper the judge happens to be in at the time.

The Protection of Juries.—Threatening or assaulting a juryman in connection with any case he may be called upon to try is contempt of court and punishable by fine and imprisonment. Bribing, or attempting to bribe, a juror in connection with a case he may have to try is also a high misdemeanour, and embracery, which is an attempt to bias a jury by corrupt promises, entreaties, money, entertainments, etc., etc., also renders both tempter and tempted liable to punishment with fine and imprisonment.

MEASUREMENT OF TIME.

The Measurement of Time.—Time is measured *naturally* by days, months and years, and *artificially* by seconds, minutes, hours, weeks, quarters decades and centuries. The time required by the earth to complete a revolution on its own axis is called a *day:* the time required by the moon to complete a revolution round the earth is called a *month*; the time required by the earth to complete a revolution round the sun is called a *year*. These are natural divisions of time, that is divisions of time based upon natural phenomena. *Seconds*, *minutes*, and *hours* are artificial divisions of the day, as *weeks* and *quarters* are of the year; seconds, minutes, and hours owing their origin to the mechanical necessities of clocks, watches and other instruments invented for the more minute measurement of time; *weeks* probably to the institution of the Jewish sabbath, and *quarters* to the convenience of dividing the year into sections. The term *century* representing a hundred years groups the years in round numbers and is convenient when dealing with historic periods, while the term *decade* representing a period of ten years is a useful subdivision of the century.

The Year.—The time occupied by the earth in its annual journey round the sun is 365 days 5 hours 48 minutes and 46 seconds. In earlier times the difficulty of registering these fractions of days as they occurred, led to their being ignored until their accumulation became inconvenient. Various expedients were adopted to equalise the difference between actual solar time and that of the calendar. The number of the months and the number of the days of which they consisted were altered, and periodical deductions and additions were made from time to time. The old Alban or Latin calendar comprised ten months of irregular lengths, of which March was the first, and to these additions were made to make them square roughly with the solar year. Numa Pompilius introduced two new months to the original ten, Januarius, which he placed first in the calendar, and Februarius, which he placed last. This arrangement continued until B.C. 452 when Februarius was transferred to the place it now occupies as the second month of the year. At this time the months comprised 29 and

30 days alternately, making together a year of 354 days, corresponding with the synodic revolution of the moon. To this number a day was added from the belief (still current) that there is luck in odd numbers. This lunar year of 355 days, however, differed from the solar year by ten days and a quarter, and an attempt was made to rectify this discrepancy by adding a new month called Mercedinus or Mercedonius of alternately 22 and 23 days at the end of February every second year. This arrangement, however, made the year too long, and periodical deductions had to be made to bring the register nearer to the true record of solar time. These additions and deductions were made at the discretion of the Roman Pontiffs who soon turned their power to political account, with the natural result that confusion ensued. At the time of Julius Cæsar the civil equinox differed from the astronomical equinox by three months, and the position of the calendar with regard to the seasons was entirely altered. To put matters straight for a fresh start Cæsar, who was assisted by Sosigenes, arranged a current year of 445 days, and decreed that thenceforward the year should consist of 365 ¼ days with the addition of a day every fourth year to absorb the ¼ days previously uncounted. Under this scheme the months were called Januarius, Februarius, Martius, Aprilis, Maius, Junius, Quintilis, Sextilis, September, October, November and December. Januarius had 31 days, Februarius 30 days, and the remaining months alternately 31 and 30 days to the end of the year, making a total of 366 days. This was, however, one day too many for ordinary years, and it was arranged to drop one day from Februarius in three out of every four years, leaving the fourth year only bissextile or leap year with the full complement of 366 days. After the death of Julius Cæsar, Mark Antony altered the name of the seventh month in his honour, calling it Julius, and later Augustus Cæsar gave his own name to the eighth month in honour of himself. Not caring to give his name to a month having one day less than that bearing the name of his predecessor, Augustus took another day from February and added it to August, thus reducing February to 28 days in ordinary years and 29 days in bissextile or leap years; and as this arrangement placed three months of 31 days each in order of succession, he relieved September and November of one day each and added them respectively to October and December. In this way is the irregularity of the calendar now in use accounted for. The squaring of the calendar with the solar year was, however, not yet accomplished. The addition of a whole day every four years exceeded by 11 minutes and 14 seconds odd the absorption of the time it was introduced to equalise, with the result that the register of time gradually moved in advance of time itself. To rectify this, Pope Gregory XIII who discovered that in the process of the centuries a discrepancy of ten days had arisen, decreed in 1582 that the 5th of October of that year should be reckoned as the 15th, omitting the ten days from the 5 to 14 inclusive, and in order to secure greater accuracy in the future and dispose of the surplus reckoning arising every century, decreed that thenceforward such centurial years as could not be divided by four into equal hundreds, (1800, 1900, etc.) should not be leap years, as they would be in the ordinary course of things, by which arrangement the extra day given to February every fourth year was dropped three times in every four hundred years. This reckoning, however, still exceeds the length of the solar year by 26 seconds per annum, and in the course of 3323 years this difference would amount to one day. To rectify this it is proposed to correct the Gregorian rule by making the year 4000 and all its multiples, ordinary years, by which means it is calculated that the beginning of the year would not vary from its present position more than one day in 20,000 years. Most people will be content to leave that day to be dealt

with by those who may have the opportunity of enjoying it.

Gregory's system found ready adoption in countries under papal influence, but it was not until 1752 that it was adopted in England when it was determined by Act of Parliament that the 3rd day following the 2nd of September of that year should be reckoned as the 14th; eleven days at that date marking the difference between the Julian and the Gregorian reckoning. In Russia the old style still obtains, and Russian dates are now twelve days behind those of England and most other countries, the 1st of January in Russia being equivalent to the 13th of January in England. The difficulties of the ancients arose from attempting to adjust the twelve revolutions of the moon round the earth to the one revolution of the earth round the sun, and it was the rejection of the lunar basis of calculation by Julius Cæsar and the adoption of the solar basis that gave us the calendar which, with but slight modifications, we now use.

The Month.—Months are of two kinds: Lunar and Calendar. **The Lunar Month** is determined by the time taken by the moon to complete a revolution round the earth, which is 29 days 17 hours 44 minutes and 3 seconds. Twelve lunar months make up a year of a little more than eleven days short of the solar or calendar year. **The Calendar Month** is an arbitrary division of the year of 365¼ days into twelve irregular lengths, as determined by Julius Cæsar and modified by Augustus. The Egyptians divided 360 days into twelve months of 30 days each and added 5 days at the end of the year to make up the deficiency. The Greeks seem to have maintained the number of thirty days to the month which they divided into three decades of ten days each, an arrangement revived for a short time by the leaders of the French revolution. The Romans, in earlier times, followed the old Alban or Latin calendar which made up a year of ten months of irregular lengths, to which additions had to be made from time to time. To this calendar Numa Pompilius added January and February, making the number of months twelve. Julius Cæsar gave the months 31 and 30 days alternately, beginning with January, omitting one day from February in all years except leap year. Augustus Cæsar took one day from February to add to the eighth month when he conferred upon it his own name, and further transferred a day from September to October and from November to December.

The Names of the Months.—The names of the months are of Roman origin and are derived from various sources sacred and profane. **January** is derived from *Janus*, said to have been the most ancient king who reigned in Italy, and who after death was made an object of worship among the Romans, who built many Temples to his honour. Janus was usually represented as having two faces, looking backwards and forwards, from his supposed knowledge of the past and the future. He was regarded moreover as the god of doors and avenues, and was deemed therefore a suitable deity to preside over the opening months of the year. Some of his Temples were built with four equal sides and a door and three windows on each side. The four doors were the emblems of the four seasons of the year, and the three windows upon each side of the three months of each season, and altogether of the twelve months of the year. **February** is derived from Februa, the sacrifices performed by the Romans in honour of the dead at that period of the year. **March** according to an earlier calender was the first month of the Roman year, and is said to have been so called after Mars the god of War, if so probably because the Romans, a warlike people, wished to honour the deity who was supposed to favour the Roman arms. **April**, like March, was at one time the first month of the year. In the old Alban or Latin calendar it was one of the ten months of irregular length that made up the year, and is said to have stood first.

Originally numbering 36 days it was reduced to 30 in the calendar of Romulus, and placed second in order. It was further reduced to 29 by Numa Pompilius, who added January and February to the ten months of the calendar of his time. Julius Cæsar added another day, which it has retained to the present time. April is probably derived from Aphrilis, from the Greek name of the goddess Venus, Aphrodite. **May** was the second month in the old Alban calendar, the third in that of Romulus, and the fifth in the one instituted by Numa Pompilius. It consisted of 22 days in the Alban calendar and of 31 days in that of Romulus. Numa deprived it of the odd day which Julius Cæsar restored. May is so called in honour of Majories or Maiores, the Roman senate. **June** is derived from Juniores or Junicoribus, the name of the lesser and younger branch of the original legislature of Rome. Romulus gave June 30 days, though in the Alban calendar it contained but 26. Numa deprived it of one day, which was restored by Julius Cæsar. **July** was called Quintilis from the fact that it was the 5th month of the old Roman year of ten months. It comprised 36 days in the Alban calendar, was reduced to 31 by Romulus and to 30 by Numa, but was made 31 again by Julius Cæsar whose natal month it was. After the death of Cæsar, Mark Antony altered the name of the month to Julius in his honour. **August** was called Sextilis, as the sixth month of the old Roman year until it was renamed by Augustus in honour of himself. Originally 29 days long Julius Cæsar made it 30, and Augustus, from motives, of vanity or jealousy, 31. **September** is so called because it was the seventh month of the old calendar of ten months. Julius Cæsar transferred the odd day to October. **October** was so called from its numerical position in the old Roman calendar. It had 30 days under Julius Cæsar and 31 under Augustus. **November,** the ninth month of the old calendar, and so called in consequence, had 31 days in the Julian calendar and 30 in that of Augustus. **December,** the tenth month of the old calendar, from which fact it takes its name, comprised 30 days under Julius Cæsar and 31 under Augustus. The order of the months and the respective lengths of each as decreed by Augustus Cæsar have been retained unaltered to the present day.

The Length of the Months.—The irregularity of the numbers of the days in the successive months leads to many mistakes in calculation, and the ancient formula quoted in "The Return from Parnasus" (1606) has probably been as often quoted as an aid to memory as any six lines that were ever written.

"Thirty days hath September,
April, June, and November;
All the rest have thirty-one
But February twenty-eight alone,
Except in leap year once in four,
When February has one day more."

The Week.—The week is an arbitrary division of time, having little or no relation to natural phenomena. It is, however, a division of great antiquity and importance. The Jewish scriptures claim divine authority for the arrangement of the week of seven days, and subject only to the alteration of the day of the Sabbath, changed by the early church in honour of the resurrection of Jesus Christ, it is acknowledged as an authoritative arrangement by Christians generally. **The Names of the Days.**—While we owe the names of the months to the Romans, we get those of the days from our Saxon ancestors. The resemblance between the presiding deities of the Saxon and Roman days seems to indicate that the Saxons founded their arrangement on that of the Romans, retaining the sun and the moon to preside over the first two days, but changing the Roman patrons of the other days for equivalent deities of their own mythology. **Sunday** or Sun-day was known as Sunnandaeg by the Saxons, and as Dies Solis by the Romans: **Monday** or Moon-Day as Monandaeg by the Saxons, and as Dies Lunae by the Romans.—**Tuesday** as Tuesdaeg or

Tuesco's day, was so named among the Saxons in honour of Tuesco a mythical warrior, as the same day was named Dies Martis, the day of Mars by the Romans in honour of their god of War. **Wednesday** among the Saxons was Woden's daeg or the day of Woden, a mythical Norse warrior, while with the Romans it was called Dies Mercurii in honour of Mercury. **Thursday** was Thorsdaeg with the Saxons and Dies Jovis with the Romans; Thor and Jove being parallel deities of the two mythologies. **Friday** was Frigedaeg with the Saxons from a deity corresponding with Venus after whom the Romans named the day Dies Veneris. **Saturday** was Seaterdaeg with the Saxons from a deity said to resemble Saturn after whom the Romans named it Dies Saturni. The change from the Roman to the Saxon nomenclature is celebrated by an old poet in lines which we quote from Chamber's Book of Days;

"The sun still rules the week's initial day;
The moon o'er Monday yet retains her sway;
But Tuesday which to Mars whilom was given,
Is Tuesco's subject in the northern heaven;
And Woden hath the charge of Wednesday,
Which did belong of old to Mercury;
And Jove himself surrenders his own day
To Thor, a barbarous god of Saxon clay.
Friday, who under Venus once did wield
Love's balmy spells must now to Frea yield;
Whilst Saturn still holds fast his day, but loses
The Sabbath which the central sun abuses."

A UNIVERSAL TIME-TABLE.

12 o'clock noon at London is at:

Abo	1.28	p.m.
Adelaide	9.14	„
Aden	3.3	„
Alexandria	2.0	„
Algiers	12.11	„
Algoa Bay	1.43	„
Amoy	7.50	„
Amsterdam	12.19	„
Arendal	12.38	„
Athens	1.35	„
Atkah	12.23	a.m.
Auckland	11.39	p.m.
Bahia	9.25	a.m.
Bangkok	6.43	p.m.
Banjoewangie	7.38	„
Barbadoes	7.59	a.m.
Batavia	7.7	p.m.
Belgrade	1.23	„
Berlin	12.53	„
Bermuda	7.40	a.m.
Berne	12.24	p.m.
Blagovetschensk	8.27	„
Bombay	4.55	„
Bona	12.29	„
Bordeaux	11.58	a.m.
Boston	7.13	„
Brest	11.41	„
Brindisi	1.11	p.m.
Brisbane	10.13	„
Brussels	12.16	„
Bucharest	1.45	„
Buda Peste	1.16	„
Buenos Ayres	8.3	a.m.
Bushire	3.23	p.m.
Bussorah	3.13	„
Cabul	4.36	„
Cairo	2.5	„
Calcutta	5.53	„
Calloa	6.49	a.m.
Candahar	4.23	p.m.
Canton	7.29	„
Cape Breton	7.49	a.m.
Cape Horn	7.32	„
Cape Town	1.13	p.m.
Cayenne	8.27	a.m.
Charkow	2.24	p.m.
Charlestown	6.37	a.m.
Chicago	6.8	„
Christchurch	11.32	p.m.
Christiania	12.43	„
Christiansund	12.29	„
Colombo	5.19	„
Constantinople	1.56	„
Copenhagen	12.49	„
Coquimbo	7.8	a.m.
Delagoa Bay	2.10	p.m.
Dublin	11.35	a.m.
Edinburgh	11.48	„
Foochow	7.41	p.m.
Galle	5.20	„
Geneva	12.23	„
George Town	8.6	a.m.
Gibraltar	11.38	„
Glasgow	11.41	„
Gothenburg	12.47	p.m.
Graham Town	10.14	a.m.
Guatemala	5.58	„
Guayaquil	6.38	„

Halifax (N.S.)	7.44	a.m.
Hamburg	12.37	p.m.
Havannah	6.31	a.m.
Helsingfors	1.40	p.m.
Hobart Town	9.48	„
Hongkong	7.34	„
Honolulu	1.28	a.m.
Irkutsk	6.53	p.m.
Jerusalem	2.23	„
Juan Fernandez	6.43	a.m.
Key West	6.33	„
Kingston (Jamaica)	6.53	„
Kurrachee	4.31	p.m.
Lahore	4.59	„
Leipzig	12.50	„
Lima	6.51	a.m.
Lisbon	12.24	p.m.
Liverpool	11.48	a.m.
Madeira	10.53	„
Madras	5.22	p.m.
Madrid	11.46	a.m.
Malacca	6.48	p.m.
Malta (Valetta)	12.58	„
Manila	8.3	„
Manchester	11.50	a.m.
Marseilles	12.20	p.m.
Mauritius	3.53	„
Mecca	2.43	„
Melbourne	9.39	„
Monte Video	8.14	a.m.
Montreal	7.5	„
Moscow	2.30	p.m.
Moulamein	6.30	„
Mozambique	2.44	„
Nagasaki	8.37	„
Nankin	7.54	„
Naples	12.57	„
Natal	2.4	„
Newcastle	11.54	a.m.
Newfoundland	8.28	„
New Orleans	6.0	a.m.
Newport News	5.56	„
New York	7.4	„
Nishni Novgorod	2.58	p.m.
Odessa	2.5	„
Omsk	4.56	„
Panama	6.40	a.m.
Para	8.44	„
Paris	12.10	p.m.
Pekin	7.46	„
Penang	6.40	„
Perm	3.47	„
Pernambuco	9.39	a.m.
Pernau	1.38	p.m.
Philadelphia	6.58	a.m.
Pondicherry	5.20	p.m.
Poonah	4.57	„
Port Darwin	8.42	„
Porto Rico	7.34	a.m.
Quebec	7.12	„
Rangoon	6.24	p.m.
Riga	1.36	„
Rio Grande-do-sul	8.24	a.m.
Rio Janeiro	9.4	„
Rome	12.50	p.m.
Saigon	7.7	„
Samarang	7.20	„
San Francisco	3.52	a.m.
San Juan	7.32	„
Santa Cathrina	8.44	„
Santiago de Chili	7.16	„
Santos	8.52	„
Savannah	6.35	„
Shanghai	8.3	p.m,
Singapore	6.55	„
Smyrna	1.49	„
Soerabaya	7.27	„
St. Louis	6.0	a.m.
St. Petersburg	2.3	p.m.
St. Thomas	7.38	a.m.
St. Vincent	10.19	„
Stockholm	1.12	p.m.
Suez	2.10	„
Sydney	10.4	„
Tahiti	2.3	a.m.
Teheran	3.29	p.m.
Tiflis	3.2	„
Tobolsk	4.34	„
Tomsk	5.41	„
Toronto	6.40	a.m.
Trieste	12.54	p.m.
Trinidad	7.53	a.m.
Tunis	12.41	p.m.
Utah	4.29	a.m.
Valentia	11.18	„
Valparaiso	7.12	„
Vancouver's Island	3.47	„
Vera Cruz	5.37	„
Vienna	1.5	p.m.
Warsaw	1.24	p.m.
Washington	6.51	a.m.
Wellington	11.38	p.m.
Yeddo	9.18	„
Yokohama	9.18	„
Zanzibar	2.39	„

Table to find Easter-Day and the first day of each month for every year between 1898 and 1950.

YEAR.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.
1898	Sat.	T.	T.	F.	S.	W.
1899	S.	W.	W.	Sat.	M.	Th.
1900	M.	Th.	Th.	S.	T.	F.
1901	T.	F.	F.	M.	W.	Sat.
1902	W.	Sat.	Sat.	T.	Th.	S.
1903	Th.	S.	S.	W.	F.	M.
*1904	F.	M.	T.	F.	S.	W.
1905	S.	W.	W.	Sat.	M.	Th.
1906	M.	Th.	Th.	S.	T.	F.
1907	T.	F.	F.	M.	W.	Sat.
*1908	W.	Sat.	S.	W.	F.	M.
1909	F.	M.	M.	Th.	Sat.	T.
1910	Sat.	T.	T.	F.	S.	W.
1911	S.	W.	W.	Sat.	M.	Th.
*1912	M.	Th.	F.	M.	W.	Sat.
1913	W.	Sat.	Sat.	T.	Th.	S.
1914	Th.	S.	S.	W.	F.	M.
1915	F.	M.	M.	Th.	Sat.	T.
*1916	Sat.	T.	W.	Sat.	M.	Th.
1917	M.	Th.	Th.	S.	T.	F.
1918	T.	F.	F.	M.	W.	Sat.
1919	W.	Sat.	Sat.	T.	Th.	S.
*1920	Th.	S.	M.	Th.	Sat.	T.
1921	Sat.	T.	T.	F.	S.	W.
1922	S.	W.	W.	Sat.	M.	Th.
1923	M.	Th.	Th.	S.	T.	F.
*1924	T.	F.	Sat.	T.	Th.	S.
1925	Th.	S.	S.	W.	F.	M.
1926	F.	M.	M.	Th.	Sat.	T.
1927	Sat.	T.	T.	F.	S.	W.
*1928	S.	W.	Th.	S.	T.	F.
1929	T.	F.	F.	M.	W.	Sat.
1930	W.	Sat.	Sat.	T.	Th.	S.
1931	Th.	S.	S.	W.	F.	M.
*1932	F.	M.	T.	F.	S.	W.
1933	S.	W.	W.	Sat.	M.	Th.
1934	M.	Th.	Th.	S.	T.	F.
1935	T.	F.	F.	M.	W.	Sat.
*1936	W.	Sat.	S.	W.	F.	M.
1937	F.	M.	M.	Th.	Sat.	T.
1938	Sat.	T.	T.	F.	S.	W.
1939	S.	W.	W.	Sat.	M.	Th.
*1940	M.	Th.	F.	M.	W.	Sat.
1941	W.	Sat.	Sat.	T.	Th.	S.
1942	Th.	S.	S.	W.	F.	M.
1943	F.	M.	M.	Th.	Sat.	T.
*1944	Sat.	T.	W.	Sat.	M.	Th.
1945	M.	Th.	Th.	S.	T.	F.
1946	T.	F.	F.	M.	W.	Sat.
1947	W.	Sat.	Sat.	T.	Th.	S.
*1948	Th.	S.	M.	Th.	Sat.	T.
1949	Sat.	T.	T.	F.	S.	W.
1950	S.	W.	W.	Sat.	M.	Th.

* Leap year.

Table to find Easter-Day and the first day of each month for every year between 1898 and 1950.

YEAR.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Easter-Day.
1898	F.	M.	Th.	Sat.	T.	Th.	Apr. 10.
1899	Sat.	T.	F.	S.	W.	F.	Apr. 2.
1900	S.	W.	Sat.	M.	Th.	Sat.	Apr. 15.
1901	M.	Th.	S.	T.	F.	S.	Apr. 7.
1902	T.	F.	M.	W.	Sat.	M.	Mar. 30.
1903	W.	Sat.	T.	Th.	S.	T.	Apr. 12.
*1904	F.	M.	Th.	Sat.	T.	Th.	Apr. 3.
1905	Sat.	T.	F.	S.	W.	F.	Apr. 23.
1906	S.	W.	Sat.	M.	Th.	Sat.	Apr. 15.
1907	M.	Th.	S.	T.	F.	S.	Mar. 31.
*1908	W.	Sat.	T.	Th.	S.	T.	Apr. 19.
1909	Th.	S.	W.	F.	M.	W.	Apr. 11.
1910	F.	M.	Th.	Sat.	T.	Th.	Mar. 27.
1911	Sat.	T.	F.	S.	W.	F.	Apr. 16.
*1912	M.	Th.	S.	T.	F.	S.	Apr. 7.
1913	T.	F.	M.	W.	Sat.	M.	Mar. 23.
1914	W.	Sat.	T.	Th.	S.	T.	Apr. 12.
1915	Th.	S.	W.	F.	M.	W.	Apr. 4.
*1916	Sat.	T.	F.	S.	W.	F.	Apr. 23.
1917	S.	W.	Sat.	M.	Th.	Sat.	Apr. 8.
1918	M.	Th.	S.	T.	F.	S.	Mar. 31
1919	T.	F.	M.	W.	Sat.	M.	Apr. 20.
*1920	Th.	S.	W.	F.	M.	W.	Apr. 4.
1921	F.	M.	Th.	Sat.	T.	Th.	Mar. 27.
1922	Sat.	T.	F.	S.	W.	F.	Apr. 16.
1923	S.	W.	Sat.	M.	Th.	Sat.	Apr. 1.
*1924	T.	F.	M.	W.	Sat.	M.	Apr. 20.
1925	W.	Sat.	T.	Th.	S.	T.	Apr. 12.
1926	Th.	S.	W.	F.	M.	W.	Apr. 4.
1927	F.	M.	Th.	Sat.	T.	Th.	Apr. 17.
*1928	S.	W.	Sat.	M.	Th.	Sat.	Apr. 8.
1929	M.	Th.	S.	T.	F.	S.	Mar. 31.
1930	T.	F.	M.	W.	Sat.	M.	Apr. 20.
1931	W.	Sat.	T.	Th.	S.	T.	Apr. 5.
*1932	F.	M.	Th.	Sat.	T.	Th.	Mar. 27.
1933	Sat.	T.	F.	S.	W.	F.	Apr. 16.
1934	S.	W.	Sat.	M.	Th.	Sat.	Apr. 1.
1935	M.	Th.	S.	T.	F.	S.	Apr. 21.
*1936	W.	Sat.	T.	Th.	S.	T.	Apr. 12.
1937	Th.	S.	W.	F.	M.	W.	Mar. 28.
1938	F.	M.	Th.	Sat.	T.	Th.	Apr. 17.
1939	Sat.	T.	F.	S.	W.	F.	Apr. 9.
*1940	M.	Th.	S.	T.	F.	S.	Mar. 24.
1941	T.	F.	M.	W.	Sat.	M.	Apr. 13.
1942	W.	Sat.	T.	Th.	S.	T.	Apr. 5.
1943	Th.	S.	W.	F.	M.	W.	Apr. 25.
*1944	Sat.	T.	F.	S.	W.	F.	Apr. 9.
1945	S.	W.	Sat.	M.	Th.	Sat.	Apr. 1.
1946	M.	Th.	S.	T.	F.	S.	Apr. 21.
1947	T.	F.	M.	W.	Sat.	M.	Apr. 6.
*1948	Th.	S.	W.	F.	M.	W.	Mar. 28.
1949	F.	M.	Th.	Sat.	T.	Th.	Apr. 17.
1950	Sat.	T.	F.	S.	W.	F.	Apr. 9.

* Leap year.

The Seasons.—**Spring** begins on the 21st of March when the sun enters Aries; **Summer** on the 21st of June which is the longest day and the day upon which the sun enters Cancer; **Autumn** begins on the 23rd of September when the sun enters Libra, and **Winter** on the 21st of December which is the shortest day and the day upon which the sun enters Capricorn. **The Quarterly Terms** in England and Ireland are Lady Day, March 25, Midsummer, June 24, Michaelmas, Sept. 29, Christmas, December 25. **Scotland** Candlemas Day, Feb. 2, Whitsunday, May 15, Lammas Day, August 1, Martinmas, November 11.

THE HISTORY OF THE HUMAN FAMILY.

Biblical Chronology places the creation of man B.C. 4004. This date is arrived at by reckoning, backward from the Flood, the generations of long-livers. In view of the legendary character of the early portion of the Bible, it cannot be regarded as authoritative. There is evidence to show that man-like forms existed on the earth at a much earlier date; but possibly B.C. 4004 indicates the period in the evolution of man when intelligence gave birth to responsibility, and man became a self-conscious moral being. The balance of evidence at present at command favours the idea, that the entire human family has descended from a single pair. Our chief sources of information concerning the chronology of this period are Josephus; the Samaritan text; the Septuagint; Archbishop Ussher; and Dr. Hales. The following estimates of the period between the Creation and Christ have been given. By Julius Africanus 5,500 years; Eusebius and Bede 5,199; Scaliger and Calvisius 3,950; Kepler and Petavius 3,984; Ussher 4,004. From this it will be evident that the date of the creation of man can only be a matter of speculation.

The Prehistoric Period. 1. **Adam to Noah.**—Of this age there is no record in the legendary history of any nation. All our information is derived from the Bible. The human race parted into two sections. The descendants of Cain wandered forth, in a spirit of independence; and, in the endeavour to supply their own wants, developed the manufactures and the arts. The descendants of Seth tarried in the neighbourhood of Eden, and kept to the primitive occupations of tilling the ground and rearing cattle. The intermarriage of these races is represented as deteriorating the Sethite stock, which was recovered to its purity in the family of Noah. 2. **Noah to Abraham.**—The Deluge would be an inportant event for chronologers, if even its approximate date could be fixed. The usual date given is B.C. 2348, but this does not harmonise with the dates of events as given in other histories. The Assyrian legends give B.C. 2218 for the building of Nineveh, and 2059 as the founding of the Assyrian monarchy. The building of Babylon is given as 2245, Egyptian records give 2717 (or 2412), as the beginning of the dynasty of Menes. Memphis was built 2188, Thebes 2111. The Hyksos, or Shepherd Kings, began to reign 2080. Chinese traditions claim 2700 for the origin of the nation. The Religion of Brahm is said to have been introduced 2000. On the assumption of the truth of these dates, an earlier period must be assigned to the Flood. From Noah descended three races, which are named after his sons, Shem, Ham, and Japheth. These races settled in the countries bordering on the Red Sea, at the eastern end of the Mediterranean, and round the Caspian Sea and the Persian Gulf. Ham west of the Red Sea; Shem on the east of it; and Japheth in what was afterwards known as Asia Minor. In this period there are indications of the existence of both Chaldæa, and Egypt, as nations. But probably all so-called nations were little more than tribes. The age of great monarchies had not dawned. The nations said to have inhabited Canaan at the time of Abram's migration, were

but settled tribes, with covenants of mutual offence and defence.

The Semi-Historic Period. Abraham to Moses.—It was formerly assumed that history began with Abraham, but it is now known that a legendary element still mingled with the records, Abram belonged to the family of Shem, and migrated to Canaan from Aram, the country lying north-east of Canaan. Assyria lay to the east, and of it Babylonia was the southern portion. Possibly, the term Chaldæa included all these countries. Abram's migration is dated B.C. 1921, and the birth of Isaac B.C. 1896. Egypt, when he visited it, was an organised and civilised nation, probably then under the rule of the Shepherd Kings. Isaac spent all his life in Canaan, Jacob spent many years of his early life in Aram, and in the closing period of his life went down into Egypt, and there died. The date given for his migration is B.C. 1706, but recent discoveries tend to push it down into a somewhat later period. The date now fixed with confidence for the Exodus of the Israelites is B.C. 1335. Reckoning 250 years of slavery for the Hebrews back from this date, we get B.C. 1585 as the time of the expulsion of the Hyksos by the Pharaoh of the oppression. (The usual dates given are Rameses III, B.C. 1618. The Exodus, B.C. 1491). It is claimed by the Greeks that the first Olympic games were held in B.C. 1453; but their so-called revival, in B.C. 884, may well be their origin.

The Historical Ages.—History proper dates from the period of the Hebrew association with civilized Egypt, or it may be said, with the Egyptian education of Moses. Taking 1335 as the date of the Exodus, and Moses' age as 80, his birth is fixed at about 1415. The usual date given is 1571.

1. **The Age of Nations and Kings.** (*a*) **Moses to Saul.**—It may be well to take a survey of the world of nations at the time when the Hebrews entered into possession of Canaan. Usual date 1451. Modern date about 1288. Immediately surrounding southern Canaan were nations still bearing largely a tribal character. Philistines, Moabites, Edomites, Amalekites, etc., but little or nothing related to these comes into the general history of the race. Northward and eastward of Canaan the chief interest lay; and on the southern shore of the Mediterranean. Northward Phœnicia was not yet organised. Northeastward Aram was peopled with tribes, and the Syrian nation was not yet evolved. Eastward and to the southeast, Assyria, Media, Babylonia, Elam, and Persia, were rival Kingdoms, which had not yet blended to become a world-conquering power. It was an age of the formation of Kingdoms, and establishing of Kings; and what is narrated concerning Israel and Saul, is but typical of what was going on in all the sections of the human race. During this period there are indications of the beginning of commerce with the countries of Europe and Africa that bordered on the Mediterranean; and there are doubtful allusions to the countries of India and China. Greek history gives B.C. 1193 as the commencement of the Trojan war. (*b*) **Saul to Solomon.**—The first King of Israel was anointed B.C. 1096. David became King of Judah, B.C. 1056, and King of all Israel, 1049. Solomon's Temple was dedicated B.C. 1004. (Ussher). At this time the country of Phœnicia had developed, through its commerce, into a wealthy and strong nation; but as yet it had not excited the cupidity of the great Kingdoms lying to the east and the south. The alliance between Hiram of Tyre, and David of Jerusalem, is dated B.C. 1045. About this time the religion of Buddhism is asserted to have been introduced into India.

2. **The Age of Great Conquerors, Rehoboam to the Captivity of the Jews.**—The marked characteristic of this period is the rise of great monarchies, and the struggle of their leaders to secure world-wide dominion. The great rivals were Egypt, the land

of the Nile, and Assyria, the land of the Euphrates and the Tigris. Both aimed at conquering wealthy Phœnicia, and both required to conquer, or bring into alliance, the country of Canaan, in order to secure their possession of Phœnicia. Rehoboam succeeded his father B.C. 976. Shishak of Egypt invaded Palestine B.C. 971. Omri founded the dynasty which cultivated alliance with Phœnicia, B.C. 930. Benhadad reigned B.C. 898. Jonah's mission to Nineveh is dated B.C. 840. Pul of Assyria invaded Israel 770. Tiglath-Pileser took Damascus 744—740. Shalmaneser took Samaria 721. Sennacherib invaded Judæa 710. Esar-Haddon invaded Judæa, 680. The captivity of the 10 tribes took place in 721; and the captivity of the two tribes in 606. The Temple at Jerusalem was first destroyed in 588. Lycurgus the Lawgiver lived in this period B.C. 846, and Thales, the father of Greek philosophy, was born B.C. 636. The genuine history of China begins B.C. 651. The founding of Rome is given as B.C. 753, and Romulus became sole King of the Romans and Sabines B.C. 742. The Second Empire of Babylon commenced about B.C. 747. Nebuchadnezzar invaded Syria 606, and Nineveh was rased to the ground, and the Assyrian Kingdom destroyed, in 605. Homer's poems, the Iliad and Odyssey are said to have been written between B.C. 962 and 915.

3. **From the Captivity of the Jews to the Christian Era.** (*a*) **The Time of the Captivity.**—It is uncertain whether the 70 years of Captivity are to be dated from the conquest of Judæa, 606, or the destruction of the Temple, 588. The date of the return under Zerubbabel is usually given as B.C. 536 The Second Temple was dedicated 516, and 397 represents the close of prophecy. During this period Cyrus conquered Babylon, B.C. 538, and Syria, B.C. 537. In 487 Egypt was subdued by Xerxes; and 480 he invaded Greece. B.C. 550 is given as the date of Confucius. In the year 381 Rome was burnt by the Gauls. The great Greek philosophers belong to this period. Socrates was born 469, Euclid between 450 and 440. Plato 430, and Aristotle 384. The Seven Sages of Greece (Solon, Periander, Pittacus, Chilo, Thales, Cleobulus, and Bias) flourished from about 590. (*b*) **The Greek Supremacy.**—Philip of Macedon reigned B.C. 353, and was succeeded by his son, Alexander the Great, in 335. This world-conqueror subdued Syria in B.C. 333, Assyria 332, and Babylon 331. He also conquered Egypt in 332. In 327 he invaded India. Contemporary events of history are, the building of the wall of China B.C. 298 (or 211). The city of Antioch in Syria founded B.C. 299. Antiochus the Great of Syria attacked Palestine B.C. 217; in the year 203 he obtained possession of it; and in 170 B.C. the profanation of the Temple roused the spirit of the Maccabees, who were able to secure for a time the independence of the Jewish nation. The date for Judas Maccabeus is B.C. 165. The first Punic war began B.C. 264. Greece was conquered, and made a Roman province, B.C. 147. (*c*) **The Roman Supremacy.**—In the year 65 B.C. Pompey reduced Syria to a Roman province. The first Triumvirate was formed in the year 60. The date for the famous, or infamous, Cleopatra is 51. Octavius made Egypt a Roman province, B.C. 30. The religion of Laou Tsze was introduced in China B.C. 15. The Temple of Janus was shut B.C. 5. In that year John the Baptist was born, and Jesus Christ in the year following.

The Christian Era. I. THE AGE OF THE APOSTLES, B.C. 4 to A.D. 100. As the Romans were the masters of the then known world, the interest centres in the kingdoms that were included in the Roman Empire. It was confined to the countries of Europe and Africa whose seaboard was the Mediterranean, with an extension to the islands forming Great Britain, and the countries which had been included in the old world

situated around the Black Sea, the Red Sea and the Caspian. The Romans do not appear to have entered the countries lying north of the Rhine, the Danube, the Black Sea, and the Caucasian Mountains. From these districts descended the future destroyers of the Roman Empire. Caractacus was brought as a prisoner to Rome A.D. 50. The Apostle Paul journeyed to Rome A.D. 62. Nero burnt Rome A.D. 64. Buddhism was introduced into China A.D. 68—81. Jerusalem was destroyed by Titus, A.D. 70. The Persecutions of the Christians began under Nero. The Pagan writers of prominence were Livy, Ovid, Strabo, Phœdrus, Seneca, Epictetus, the two Plinys, Juvenal, Martial, Tacitus. The religious writers were the Apostles Philo and Josephus. The first bishop of Rome was Linus; and the earliest heretics were Simon, Magus and Cerinthus.

II. **THE AGE OF THE FATHERS**, A.D. 101—324. The three apostolic Fathers were Clement, Barnabas and Hermas. This period includes from the Emperor Trajan to Licinius. In the second century Barcochba arose as a Messiah, and led an insurrection of the Jews. The Gauls were converted to Christianity, and probably also the British. The profane authors of the period are Arian, Plutarch, Ptolemy, Suetonius, Justin Martyr, Marcus Antoninus and Plotinus. The Christian writers of note were Ignatius, Polycarp, Clemens Alexandrinus and Irenœus. Theophilus of Antioch was the first to employ the term "Trinity". The unknown author of the Sibylline Oracles lived at this time. The Gnostic sects appeared, also the Docetœ, Ophites, Alogi, Montanists and Patripassians. In the **third Century** the Jewish Talmud and Targums were composed, and the Jews were allowed to return to Jerusalem. The monastic form of life was originated by Paul the Theban, and Antony the Hermit. The great writers were Oppian the Poet, Porphyry and Dion Cassius. The chief Christian writers were Origen Cyprian, Novatian, Gregory Thaumaturgus, and Paul of Samosata. The story of the "Seven Sleepers" was invented. The principal heretics were Manes and Sabellius. Rome was invaded by the Goths A.D. 250, and at the close of this period Constantine began to favour Christianity, eventually making it the state religion.

III. **THE AGE OF GREAT COUNCILS**, A.D. 325—680. The six great Councils were, (1) Nice, A.D. 325; condemned the opinions of Arius, (2) Constantinople, A.D. 381; condemned the opinions of Macedonius, (3) Ephesus, A.D. 431; deposed Nestorius, (4) Chabcedon, A.D. 451; condemned Eutyches, (5) Constantinople, A.D. 553; condemned the Origenists, (6) Constantinople, A.D. 680, against the Monothelites. In the year 330 the seat of the Roman Empire was transferred to Byzantium, and in 364, the Empire was divided into the East and the West. Visigoths settled in Gaul and Spain at the end of this century. Julian, the Roman Emperor, made a vain attempt to rebuild the Temple at Jerusalem. The chief Christian writers were Eusebius, Athanasius, Gregory of Nazianzen, Gregory of Nyssa, Appolinarius, Ambrose, Jerome, Augustine, and Chrysostom. The heretics of the period were principally Manichœans or Arians. In the **fifth Century** Odoacer put an end to the Western Roman Empire, which had been taken by Alaric in 410. Venice was founded 452. Gothic kings ruled in Spain. The French Monarchy was founded. Pharamond being the first king; then Clovis I. The Vandals settled in Africa, 420. The Kingdom of Kent was founded by Hengist, 457, and that of Sussex by Ella, 419. The Irish are said to have been converted to Christianity by St. Patrick. The principal Christian writers were Pelagius, Theodore of Mopsuestia, Cyril, Sozomenes, Leo the Great, Basil, Nestorius, and Armenius. In the **sixth Century**, the Lombards entered Italy, 568. Mahomet was born 569; acknowledged a sovereign 620; died 622. Augustin, the first archbishop of Canterbury, was born 597. In this century the canon of the Mass was

established by Gregory the Great. Simeon Stylites belongs to this time; the Justinian code, Pandects, Institutions, and Novellæ were collected, and formed into a body; and the Christian era was arranged by Dionysius the Little, who first began to count from the birth of Christ. In the **seventh Century** the English Heptarchy was established. The Mohammedan Hegira dates from A.D. 622. In 616 Egypt was conquered by Chosroes II of Persia, and in 638 it was invaded by the Saracens. The Persian monarchy was destroyed; and the great schism between the Greek and Latin Churches commenced. The Roman Pantheon was given to the Pope, Boniface IV, and by him converted into a Christian Church; and this led to the blending of pagan with Christian ceremonies. The heretics of the time were Paulicians or Monothelites.

IV. **THE SO-CALLED DARK AGES**, A.D. 681—1299. In the **eighth Century**, the Turks, a tribe of Tartars, took possession of Armenia, 760. In 728 Rome became independent under the rule of the popes. In the year 800 Charlemagne became Emperor of the West. The Saracens made great progress both in Asia and Africa. The controversy between the Greek and Latin Churches concerning the procession of the Holy Ghost led to the final separation of these churches. The ceremony of kissing the pope's toe was introduced; and the worship of images was authorised by the second council of Nice, 787. Bede and Alcium belong to this age. Kenneth, King of Scotland, ruled 854, Alfred the Great, 890, Biorne, first King of Sweden 824. The forged Decretals, to extend the authority of the popes, were prepared in the **ninth Century**. Legends or lives of the Saints began to be issued. Paschasius Radbert formulated the doctrine of Transubstantiation. And the Apostle's Creed began to be sung in the Churches. The universities of Oxford and Paris were founded, and the Arabian mathematicians flourished. The **tenth Century** saw the irruption of the Huns into Germany, the Normans into France, the Danes into England, and the Moors into Spain. The Christian religion gained a footing in Muscovy, Denmark, Norway, and Poland. The plan of the Crusade was formed by Pope Sylvester II. Feudal tenure began in France. Italy was united by Otto to the German Empire. And arithmetical figures were brought from Arabia into Europe by the Saracens. In the **eleventh Century THE CRUSADES BEGAN**.—Godfrey was chosen King of Jerusalem 1099. Investitures were introduced. The Cistercian, Carthusian, and Whipping orders were founded. The dignity of Cardinal was instituted. The Domesday book was compiled, Anselm was Archbishop of Canterbury, Gui Aretine invented musical notes; and Ferdusi, the Persian poet lived at this time. In 1024 the Mohammedans made an irruption into India. To the **twelfth Century** belong the Second and Third Crusades. Three famous military orders were founded: the Knights of St. John, the Knight. Templars, the Knights of St. Mary. Traffic in indulgences was begun by the bishops, scholastic theology commenced. The Canon Law was formed into a body by Gratian. The Waldenses and Albigenses begin to sow the seeds of the Reformation. Henry II of England took possession of Ireland. The writers of note are Abelard, Thomas à Becket, and Alhasen, an Arabian writer on Optics. The **thirteenth Century** saw the triumph of Mohammedanism in China and North Asia. There were more Crusades. The Inquisition was established in Gaul. Magna Charta was signed by King John, and there is an uninterrupted succession of English parliaments from 1293. The writers of note were Francis d'Assisi, Roger Bacon, Robert Grosteste; and the philosophy of Aristotle gained a triumph over all other systems. The Franciscan order of monks was founded 1209; and the Dominican in 1215. The brethren of the Free Spirit, or Beghards belong to this period.

V. THE AGE OF REFORMA-

TIONS, A.D. 1300—1600. In the **fourteenth Century,** vain attempts were made to renew the Crusades. The Pope removed to Avignon, 1309, and was restored to Rome, 1377. After the death of Gregory XI., 1378, there were two popes. The modern Ottoman Empire dates from Othman, 1327. The rise of the Roman Empire is dated 1303. Tamerline conquered the East. The government of the Swiss Cantons began. It was a time of revival for learning, philosophy, and Greek literature. Universities were founded in many parts of the continent. Gunpowder was invented by Schwartz, a monk; and the mariner's compass, either by John Gold, or by Flavis. The Bible was translated into French. The Quietists and the Lollards flourished. To this time belong Dante, Petrarch, Boccacio, Chaucer, Raymond Lully, Duus Icotus, Wickliffe, John Tauler, Eckard, and John Ruysbroek. The Order of the Garter was instituted by Edward III., of England. The interest of the **fifteenth Century** gathers round the discovery of America by Columbus about 1492. He was born 1445, died 1509. About the same time the passage to India was discovered by Vasco de Gama. St. Salvador, in the West Indies, was discovered by Columbus, 1492; and the Cape of good Hope by Diaz, 1487. Constantinople was taken by Mahomet II., 1453, and this finally destroyed the Eastern Roman Empire. Basilowitz, the first Russian Czar dates from this century. The Moors and Jews were driven out of Spain. The pragmatic sanction was established in France; and the Portuguese first sailed to the East Indies. To this period belongs the exploits of the Maid of Orleans. The art of printing with moveable wooden types, then with metal types, was invented .The Vulgate was printed, 1450. Many more universities were founded in this period. The great names of this century are Huss, Jerome of Prague (these were condemned by the Council of Constance 1414). John Gerson, Thomas à Kempis, Reuchlin, Savonarola, Abarbanel, and Colet. The **sixteenth Century** saw the great reformation, under Luther in Germany, Calvin in France, Zwinglins in Switzerland, Henry the Eighth in England, and John Knox in Scotland. The name "Protestants" was given to the Reformed at the diet of Spires, 1529. The order of Jesuits was founded, 1540. To this period also belong the Council of Trent; the institution of the Inquisition at Rome; the wars of the peasants, St. Bartholomew's Day massacre at Paris. By the edict of Nantes liberty was granted to the Protestants of France by Henry IV. The first settlement of Europeans in Cochin China is dated 1502; in Canton 1512. The conquest of Mexico by Cortes belongs to 1519—1521: and Raleigh established the first settlement of English in America, at Roanoke in Virginia. The great names are Luther, Calvin, Melanchton, Zwingle, T. More, Leland, Sir Philip Sidney, Erasmus, Beza, F. Xavier, and Ignatius Loyola.

VI. **THE AGE OF COLONISATION,** A.D. 1600 to 1700. The public events of the **seventeenth Century,** are the Thirty Years' War; the entrance of Gustavus Adolphus into Germany; the Synod of Dort, 1618; the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes; the discovery of Australia, by the Portuguese in 1601, by the Dutch in 1606; China conquered by the Manchow Tartars, and the present dynasty established, 1616-44; New Plymouth in America, built by English Nonconformists, 1620; the Cathedral of St. Peter dedicated at Rome, 1626; Tea brought into England, 1660; Bombay ceded to the English, 1662; Pennsylvania founded by W. Penn in 1682; Dampier explored the North and North West coasts of Australia, 1684. In England there was a great literary revival in the reign of Elizabeth, 1558, the age of Spencer, Shakespeare, Milton and Bacon. James I. began to reign, 1603. Charles I. was beheaded, 1649. Cromwell died, 1658. Monarchy was re-established, 1660. The great plague and fire in London occurred in

Charles the Second reign, 1665, 1666. James II. abdicated, 1688; and William and Mary were proclaimed, 1689. The National debt was begun in 1692, and the Bank of England was incorporated, 1695. In this century arose the Quakers and the Independents. The Act of Uniformity was passed, 1662. The Gunpowder Plot occurred, 1605. The authorised Version of the Bible was completed in 1611. The Book of Sports was published in 1618. The Habeas Corpus Act was passed in 1679. Monmouth headed his rebellion, 1685. The Royal Society was founded in 1662.

VIII. **THE MISSIONARY AND COMMERCIAL AGE**, A.D. 1701 to present time. French Missionaries and Jesuits were sent to the coasts of Malabar, China, Siam, Tonkin and Cochin China. Protestant Missionaries were sent to India by the English, the Dutch, and the Danes. At the close of the eighteenth Century, the great Missionary Societies—Baptist, London, Church, etc.—were founded. Public events in the **eighteenth Century** were, the conquest of Canada by the English, 1759-60. The suppression of the order of the Jesuits, 1764. The outbreak of the American War of Independence, 1776. The recognition of independence in England, 1783. The Crimea ceded to Russia, 1784. Buonaparte occupied Venice, 1797. In 1770 Capt. Cook discovered Botany Bay, and circumnavigated New Zealand, 1769-70. The city of Sydney was founded in 1788. In this period philosophy gained renewal and revival, through Leibnitz and Wolf. In England the Hanoverian accession dates 1714. The South Sea Bubble 1720. Conquest of India under Clive began 1757. The Isle of Man was annexed to Great Britain, 1765. The trial of Warren Hastings began 1788. Nelson died at Trafalgar, 1805. In the **nineteenth Century** only a few leading events can be given. War against France under Buonaparte was declared in 1803. The Slave Trade was abolished in 1807. Battle of Waterloo, 1815. Queen Victoria born 1819, came to the throne 20th June, 1837. The trial of Queen Caroline, 1820. William IV. opened New London Bridge, 1831. The Tractarian or Puseyite controversy began 1844; the Anticorn law agitation in 1845. Cholera reappeared in England in 1848 and 1849. The city of Melbourne was founded in 1837, and gold was discovered in Australia in 1851. The first Great Exhibition was opened in 1851. Wellington died, 1852. The war against Russia, known as the Crimean war, was declared in 1854; and the great Indian Mutiny broke out in 1857. John Brown attempted insurrection at Harper's Ferry, America, 1859. Abraham Lincoln became president, 1860. Jefferson Davis was elected president of the Southern Confederacy, 1861. War continued up to April 1865. The Atlantic telegraph was laid in 1866. An expedition was sent to Abyssinia in 1867. The right of Great Britain to New Zealand was recognised in 1814, and gold was discovered in that country in 1861. The reign of Napoleon III in France began in 1852. The French war with Austria began in 1859. The France-Prussian War began in 1870. Napoleon III. died at Chislehurst, Kent, 1873. The German empire was re-established in 1871, and the German Parliament opened in 1873. The Russian army commenced war with Turkey, 1853. The Treaty of Paris concluding the war signed, 1856.

THE GREAT NATIONS OF THE WORLD.

Asia—Ancient. Chaldæa is used as a general term to include the kingdoms whose territories bordered on the two great rivers, Euphrates and Tigris. *Assyria*, the country between Mesopotamia and Media, was the seat of the earliest recorded monarchy. Nimrod, or Belus, is traditionally said to have reigned B.C. 2245. Ninus, son of Belus, founded the Assyrian monarchy, B.C. 2059. Belochus, the last king of the race of Ninus, reigned B.C. 1446. Nineveh was taken and its king, Sardanapalus,

burnt himself and his court, B.C. 820. Shalmaneser took Samaria, and deported its people, B.C. 721. Sennacherib invaded Judea, B.C. 710. Nineveh was razed to the ground, and Assyria became a Median province, B.C. 605. Alexander subdued it, B.C. 332. It was conquered by the Turks, A.D. 1637. *Babylonia*, the district lying west of the Euphrates, was conquered by Ninus, and made part of the Assyrian kingdom. The second empire of Babylon began about B.C. 747. Merodach Baladan was king B.C. 712. Nebuchadnezzar about B.C. 606. Babylon was taken by the Medes and Persians, under Cyrus, B.C. 538; and by Alexander the Great, B.C. 323. Seleucus Nicator (died B.C. 280) transferred the seat of government to Seleucia, and Babylon was deserted. *Media*, the district lying east of the Tigris, was a province of the Assyrian empire, but revolted in B.C. 711. Its king, Astyages, was deposed by Cyrus, the Persian, B.C. 560. *Persia*, the district lying south of Media, and the two rivers, and bordering on the Persian Gulf. It is also known as Iran, and as Elam. It was included in the first Assyrian monarchy. Cyrus may be regarded as the founder of it as an independent kingdom, B.C. 559. Its chief kings are, Darius Hystaspes, who conquered Babylon, B.C. 517. Darius, who invaded the Peloponnesus, B.C. 490. Xerxes, who attempted the invasion of Greece, B.C. 485. Xerxes Longimanus, who married Esther, B.C. 458. Alexander the Great conquered Persia, B.C. 331. The country passed through various vicissitudes, but was eventually subjugated by the Parthians, B.C. 250. *Modern Persia*, Artaxerxes I. founded the Sassanides dynasty, and restored the kingdom to Persia, A.D. 226. There were long contests with the Romans, especially in the time of Justinian. Belisarius was a famous Persian general. Persia was invaded by the Arabs, A.D. 651, and became the seat of the Shiite or Fatimite Mahometans, A.D. 661. It was conquered by the Turcomans, but they were expelled by the Shiites, A.D. 1501, and these established the Sophi dynasty under Ismail I. The Shah of Persia visited Europe in the year 1873, and again in the year 1889.

Arabia, the country between the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf, was in ancient times peopled by large wandering tribes. The Arabians claim descent from Ishmael, the eldest son of Abraham. In A.D. 622, the Arabians, under the name of Saracens, commenced their course of conquest. Arabia was conquered by the Ottomans, 1518—39. The Turks are called Ottomans from Othman, who founded the Ottoman Empire, A.D. 1299.

Syria, the country lying north, and west of the land of the two rivers. Syria was conquered by David, B.C. 1040, but recovered its liberty under Rezin, B.C. 980. Subjugated by Tiglath-Pileser, of Assyria, B.C. 740; by Cyrus, B.C. 537; by Alexander, B.C. 333. The capital was at first Damascus, but after the battle of Ipsus (B.C. 301), Seleucus founded Antioch, and made it the capital. Antiochus the Great conquered Palestine; the first time, B.C. 217, the second time, B.C. 198. Antiochus IV. took, and pillaged Jerusalem, B.C. 168. Syria was made a Roman province, B.C. 63. Syria was invaded by the Parthians, A.D. 162; by the Persians, A.D. 256, and again in 607; by the Saracens, 497, 502, 529, and successfully in 638. The crusades began A.D. 1095. Syria was overrun by the Tartars, and by Tamerlane, and was finally conquered by the Turks, A.D. 1516—17. Bonaparte overran the country, and took Jaffa and Gaza; but in A.D. 1831 Mehemet Ali recovered the entire country.

Phœnicia, the country on the sea board of Syria, north of Canaan, was famous for its great cities, Tyre and Sidon, and for its commercial enterprise. From the 19th to the 13th centuries before Christ, the Phœnicians established colonies on the shores or isles of the Mediterranean. Phœnicia was conquered

by Cyrus, B.C. 537; by Alexander, B.C. 332; by the Romans, B.C. 47; and after partaking of the fortunes of Palestine, was added to the Ottoman empire, A.D. 1516.

Armenia.—After forming part of the Assyrian, Median, and Persian empires, this country became subject to the Greek Kings of Syria. The Romans established the kingdoms of Armenia, Major and Minor. "Through all their political troubles, the Armenians have maintained their profession of Christianity, and their church is governed by patriarchs, and is not subject to Rome". Antiochus Epiphanes invaded Armenia, B.C. 165. It became subject to Parthia, A.D. 15, but was reconquered by the Romans, A.D. 18. Tiridates was made king by the Romans, A.D. 58. Armenia was added to the Persian empire, A.D. 232. Overrun by the Monguls, A.D. 1235. Shah Abbas, of Persia, surrendered Armenia to the Turks, but transported 22,000 families into his own states. Armenia was overrun by the Russians, A.D. 1828. It was subsequently restored to the Turks, whose treatment of the people has roused the indignation of the civilised world.

China (including Tartary and Thibet).—The Celestial Empire is said to have been founded by Fohi, B.C. 2240. Twenty-two dynasties have reigned. The first actual dates affixed to history begin B.C. 651. The wall of China completed 298 or 211. Buddhism was introduced about A.D. 68-81. Seat of government was transferred from Nankin to Pekin, A.D. 1260. The Yuen or Mongul dynasty was established about 1275; the Ming dynasty, 1368. Country conquered by the eastern or Mantchou Tartars, who established the present reigning Tsin dynasty, 1616-44. The East India Company began commerce, 1680; its exclusive rights ceased, 1834. War with England, 1839-42. Great Rebellion, 1850, known as Taeping Rebellion, lasted till 1870.

Tartary.—The Tatars, or Tartars, Monguls, or Moguls, were known in antiquity as Scythians. The first acknowledged sovereign was the famous Genghis Khan (1206). Thibet is said to have been conquered by Genghis Khan, and gradually subdued by and annexed to China, 1255-1720. Buddhism became the dominant religion about 905.

India.—This country was partially conquered by Darius Hystaspes, who formed an India satrapy, B.C. 512; and by Alexander, B.C. 327. The irruption of the Mahometans, under Mahmud Ghuzni, is dated A.D. 1024. The Patam or Afghan empire was founded, A.D. 1205. The Mogul Tartars, under Timour or Tamerlane, conquered Hindoostan, A.D. 1398-1400. The conquest was made complete under the sultan Baber, A.D. 1519-26. Akbar, the greatest sovereign of Hindostan, reigned 1556-1605. The Dutch first visited India, 1601, a united East India Company established, 1602. The French East India Company established, 1664. The Mogul Empire declined, and became merely nominal, by 1748. The first charter to the London Company of Merchants is dated 1600. Bombay was ceded to England, 1562; Calcutta was purchased, 1698. There was war between the French and English in India, from 1746 to 1749. Gradually under Clive and Hastings, British sovereignty in India was secured. The great mutiny of the native army began in 1857. The government of the East India Company ceased 1 Sept. 1858. Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India in 1876.

Japan, comprising the mainland, and about 3850 isles. It was visited by Marco Polo, in the 13th century, and by Mendez Pinto, a Portuguese, about 1535 or 1542. This country has, in a remarkable way, assimilated the Western civilisation, and become one of the nations which must be reckoned with in Eastern politics. A recent war with China indicated naval, military, and political genius, which drew the attention of the world. In 1868 there was an insurrection, based on a rivalry between the rulers, the mikado and the tycoon. It ended in confirming the

position of the mikado, who is still the ruler. The Japanese ambassadors were received by Queen Victoria, 5 Dec. 1872.

Africa.—In ancient times, only Egypt, the land of the Nile, and the country bordering on the Mediterranean Sea, were known. *Egypt.* The earliest seat of political civilization. 1st epoch, the dynasty of its Pharaohs, extends from Mizraim the second son of Ham, B.C. 2188, to the conquest by Cambyses, 525 B.C. The 2nd epoch extends to the death of Alexander the Great; and the establishment of the Ptolemies, B.C. 323. The 3rd epoch extends to the death of Cleopatra, and the subjugation by the Romans, B.C. 30. Egypt was conquered by Chosroes of Persia, A.D. 616, and by the Saracens, A.D. 638. Later on, it was conquered by the Turks, 1163-96. The government of the Mamelukes was established, A.D. 1250. Partly conquered from the Turks by Buonaparte, 1798-9, but the Turks were restored by the help of the British. The Suez Canal was begun in 1858. From Egypt, in late years, several military expeditions have been sent to subdue the Soudan, in order to secure for Egypt the sources of the Nile, the river on which her prosperity entirely depends. Egypt has a native government, but is under British direction and control. Westward from Egypt, along the coast of the Mediterranean, are, in succession, the countries of Tripoli, Tunis, Algeria, and Morocco. Behind these is the great desert of the Sahara. Then comes the Houssa Country, the Soudan, the territory of the Great Lakes, and the great rivers, the Niger, Zambesi, and Congo. On the west is the Guinea country. On the East Nubia, Abyssinia, Somali-land, Mozambique, etc. South Africa has been much colonized by Europeans. Natal, Orange River Colony, the Transvaal, and Cape Colony are the chief of these. Rhodesia is the new Colony in process of settlement. In the days of the Roman Empire one city on the coast of the Mediterranean was of absorbing interest. Carthage, near Tunis, is said to have been founded by Dido, about B.C. 878. This city disputed the empire of the world with Rome, and this occasioned the great Punic wars. Hannibal, born 247 B.C., is the great Carthaginian hero. The first Punic war began B.C. 264, and lasted 23 years. The second Punic war began B.C. 218 and lasted 17 years. The third Punic war began B.C. 149, and Carthage was taken by the Romans, and burnt, July 146. Finally destroyed by Hassan, the Saracenic Governor of Egypt, A.D. 698.

Europe. Ancient Greek Empire.—Greece was also called Hellas. Greece from an ancient king Grœcus, and Hellas from another king, Hellen, the son of Deucalion. Greece originally consisted of the peninsula of the Peloponnesus, Thessaly, and the islands. The principal states of Greece were Athens, Sparta, Corinth, Thebes, Arcadia, and afterwards Macedon. Athens began to tyrannise over Greece, B.C. 459. Philip of Macedon ended the sacred wars, B.C. 348. His son, Alexander the Great, subdued the Athenians, and founded the Greek Empire, B.C. 335. Greece was conquered by Rome, and made a Roman province, B.C. 147. The **Seven wise men of Greece** were: 1. Thales, 2. Solon, 3. Periander, 4. Pittacus, 5. Cleobulus, 6. Chilo, 7. Bias. **Thales** was born at Miletus. He was the first who calculated with accuracy a solar eclipse, having been taught geometry, astronomy and philosophy under the priests of Memphis. He discovered the solstices and equinoxes; he divided the heavens into five zones, and recommended the division of the year into 365 days. He died B.C. 548. **Solon** was a lawgver of Athens. He might have become king, but he refused the honour. For more than 400 years his laws flourished in full vigour, and Cicero who was himself a witness of their good influence, passes the highest encomiums upon the legislator whose superior wisdom framed such a code of regulations. Solon died B.C. 558. Peri-

ander, of Corinth, was a cruel tyrant, not only to his subjects, but to his own family. It was only by the meanness of his flatterers, that he was reckoned one of the "Seven wise men of Greece". He died B.C. 585. **Pittacus** was Governor of Mitylene. He attained great influence over his countrymen, by his strict justice, disinterestedness, and patriotism. Many of his maxims were inscribed on the walls of Apollo's temple at Delphi, to show the world how high an opinion the Mityleneans entertained of his greatness as a philosopher, a moralist and a man. He died B.C. 570. **Cleobolus** was the son of Evagoras, of Lindos, a city on the south east part of Rhodes. He wrote some few verses and was celebrated for his beautiful form. A handsome man, but history does not record why he was numbered among the "seven wise men". He died 564. B.C. **Chilo** was a Spartan philosopher. One of his maxims was "Know thyself". He died B.C. 597. **Bias** belonged to Priene, one of the twelve independent cities of Ionia, which he long saved from ruin. He died B.C. 566.

Ancient Roman Empire.—The foundation of the city of Rome is given as B.C. 753. Romulus became sole king of Romans and Sabines, B.C. 742. The first census of the Roman State was taken B.C. 566. Royalty was abolished, and an aristocratic commonwealth established, B.C. 509. Rome was burnt to the ground by the Gauls, B.C. 387. The first plebeian consul appointed, B.C. 366. All Italy subdued by Rome, B.C. 266. First Punic war, B.C. 264. Macedonian wars with Philip began B.C. 213. Corinth and Carthage destroyed by the Romans, B.C. 146. First Triumvirate, Cæsar, Pompey and Crassus, B.C. 60. Cæsar's campaigns in Britain, B.C. 55. Second Triumvirate, B.C. 43. Octavius emperor, as Augustus Cæsar, B.C. 27. Peace with all the world. Temple of Janus shut. In the time of Julius Cæsar the empire included nearly the whole of the then known world. It was bounded by the Euphrates, Taurus, and Armenia on the East; by Œthiopia on the south; by the Danube on the North; and by the Atlantic on the West. Out of the gradual breaking up of the Roman Empire all the modern European nations have been formed. The principal agents in the breaking up of the Roman Empire were: 1. *The Goths*, a warlike nation inhabiting the country between the Caspian, Pontus, Euxine, and Baltic seas. The *Ostrogoths* became masters of the greater part of Italy, up to the time of Justinian, A.D. 533; and the *Visigoths* founded a kingdom in Spain, which continued until that country was subdued by the Saracens. 2. *The Huns*, a race of warlike Asiatics. They marched westward, under Attila, A.D. 451. 3. *The Vandals*, a Germanic race, which attacked the Roman Empire in the third century. They began to ravage Germany and Gaul, A.D. 406-414; founded a kingdom in Spain, 411; conquered the African territories belonging to Rome, A.D. 429. 4. *The Moors*, formerly the natives of Mauritania, afterwards the name given to Numidians and others, now applied to the natives of Morocco, and its neighbourhood. They frequently rebelled against the Roman Emperors; their arms were long victorious in Spain. They were expelled from Spain, A.D. 1609. (The Arab Mahometans and the Moors, in Spain, should not be confounded.)

Modern European Nations.—In treating these it will be best to begin with the nations on the Mediterranean coast, starting with Greece, (which is the first country after leaving Asia), proceeding along the shore, and then turning northward, giving a survey of the kingdoms lying both to the east and to the west.

Greece.—All this country became subject to the Turks in the year A.D. 1540. The war of independence began 1821. The independence of Greece was proclaimed, Jan. 27, 1822. The provisional government of Greece was set up, Oct. 12, 1824. The treaty of London,

on behalf of Greece, between Great Britain, Russia, and France, was signed, July 6, 1827. Prince William of Schleswig-Holstein was proclaimed king, as George I, March 30, 1863. Greek military help offered to insurgents against Turkish tyranny in Crete, led to a war against the Turks in Epirus and Thessaly, which ended disastrously for the Greeks, A.D. 1897.

Italy.—Odoacer, leader of the Heruli, established the Kingdom of Italy, A.D. 476. The Lombards overran Italy, A.D. 596. Charlemagne was crowned emperor of the west, at Rome, by Pope Leo III., after conquering the Lombards, A.D. 800. Saracens invaded Italy, A.D. 842. They were expelled by the Normans, A.D. 1016. For many years there were disputes and wars, mainly owing to the claims of universal sovereignty made by the popes. Italy was overrun by the French, in 1796, and Napoleon Buonaparte was crowned King of Italy, A.D. 1805, but the kingdom ceased on the overthrow of Napoleon, A.D. 1814. Mazzini founded the young Italy party in A.D. 1831. Garibaldi roused the Italians to arms July, 1859. Garibaldi entered Naples, August 1860. Victor Emmanuel entered Naples as King, Nov. 7, 1860, and Garibaldi gave up his dictatorship, and retired to Caprera. The first Italian parliament, 1861. It declared Victor-Emmanuel to be King of Italy. His claim has never been recognised by the Roman Pontiffs. The present King Victor Emmanuel III began to reign, 1900.

Venice, founded by families from Aquileia and Padua, who fled before Atilla, the Hun, A.D. (about) 432. The first doge was appointed, A.D. 697. The Rialto was made the seat of government, A.D. 811. Venice became independent of the eastern empire, and extended its territory, A.D. 997. Its most flourishing period was under Antonis Vernieri, A.D. 1404. Occupied by Buonaparte, 1797. Annexed to the Kingdom of Italy by the treaty of Pressburg, 1805. Transferred to the empire of Austria, 1814. Declared a free port, 1830. Transferred to Italy, and its iron crown given to the King of Italy, at Turin, Nov. 4, 1866.

Spain.—Both the Phœnicians and Carthaginians are said to have planted colonies on the coast of Spain. The Romans conquered the whole country, B.C. 206. The Vandals, etc., wrested Spain from the Romans, A.D. 409. The Arabs were invited into Spain against King Roderic, A.D. 709. Saracens established at Cordova, 711. Saracens defeated by Charles Martel, 732. The Saracens called in the aid of the Moors, from Africa, and they seized the kingdom, 1091. Nearly the whole Christian dominions of Spain united under one monarchy, 1479, reigning sovereigns Ferdinand and Isabella. Inquisition established, 1480. Columbus sent out, April, 1492. House of Austria succeeded to throne of Spain, 1516. Portugal was united to Spain by conquest, 1580. The Spanish Armada was destroyed, 1588. Philip IV lost Portugal 1640. Gibraltar was taken by the English, 1704. War with England began 1762. The battle of Trafalgar was fought, Oct. 21, 1805. The French tried to conquer Spain, 1808. Campaign of Wellington in Spain, 1810—1813. Ferdinand VII was restored, 1814. He died 1833, and his queen assumed the title of governing queen, until Isabella II, her daughter, attained her majority. Much trouble has been caused by the claim of Don Carlos to be the legitimate successor of the King. Isabella II abdicated in favour of her son, Alphonso, 1870. But the crown was offered to, and accepted by Amadeo I. Duke of Aosta, and son of Victor Emmanuel, 1870, against the protest of Isabella. He abdicated Feb. 11, 1873; and a Republic was then founded. The constitution on which the present government is formed is dated June 30, 1876. Spain is divided into 40 provinces. In 1898, through war with the United States, Spain lost Cuba, all her West Indian possessions and the Phillippine Islands. The present King Alphonso

XIII was born after his father's death in 1886 and came of age in 1902. During his minority his mother Queen Maria Christina reigned as Queen Regent.

Portugal.—Ancient name Lusitania. Conquered by the Moors, A.D. 713. They in turn were conquered by Alphonso VI, of Castile, A.D. 1095. Lisbon was made the capital about 1433. The Spaniards and French invaded Portugal in 1762, but it was saved by the English; the succession to the throne has been much disputed, and the cause of constant civil disturbance. Don Carlos is the present king, and he succeeded to the throne in 1889. The colonial dependencies are Madeira, Cape Verd Islands, settlements on the West, or Guinea coast of Africa, Mozambique, Sofala, and Delagoa Bay; Goa, Daman and Din in India, part of the island Timor in the East Indian Archipelago, and Macao in China.

France.—Called Gaul by the Romans, Conquered in the fifth century by the Franks, a people of Germany, inhabiting Franconia. Charlemagne became king, A.D. 768. Invaded by the English, 1346, Battle of Cressy 1346, Poictiers, 1356, Agincourt, 1415. Joan of Arc, 1431. England lost all her possessions, except Calais, 1434 and 1450, Calais was lost in 1558, Religious wars, with Huguenots, etc., began in 1562, Massacre of Bartholomew, 1572. Edict of Nantes, 1598, Administration of Richelieu, 1624, of Mazarin, 1643, Canada ceded to England, 1763. French king secretly assisted America to throw off its dependence on England, 1778. French revolution began, with the destruction of the Bastille, July 14, 1789. Louis XVI beheaded, Jan. 21, 1793. This year began the Reign of Terror, and saw war declared with England and Holland. Buonaparte was made consul for life, Aug. 2, 1802, declaration of war against England, 1803. Napoleon proclaimed Emperor, May 18, 1804, and crowned king of Italy, 1805. Disastrous retreat from Moscow, Oct. 1812. Surrender of Paris to the allies, March 31, 1814. Bourbon dynasty restored under Louis XVIII. Napoleon started another enterprise from Elba, March 1, 1815. Defeat of Napoleon at Waterloo, June 18, 1815. Burial of Buonaparte at Paris, March 31, 1861. Louis Napoleon escaped from Ham, May 25, 1846. Louis Philippe, the reigning sovereign, offered to abdicate; the offer was not accepted; the royal family escaped, and a republic was proclaimed from the steps of the Hotel de Ville, Feb. 26, 1848. Louis Napoleon was elected president of the French Republic, Dec. 11, 1848. The *Coup d'état*, which brought Louis Napoleon sovereign power, occurred, Dec. 2, 1851. The prince-president was declared Emperor, under title Napoleon III, Dec. 2, 1852. War declared against Germany, July 15, 1870. Macmahon defeated at Wœrth and state of siege declared in Paris, Aug. 7, 1870. Final defeat of Macmahon at Sedan, Sep. 4, 1870. The Empress secretly retired to Belgium. The Emperor Napoleon arrived at Wilhelmshöhe, near Cassel, Sep. 5, 1870. War terminated, Febr. 16, 1871. Then followed the insurrection of the Communists. Napoleon III, died at Chiselhurst, England, Jan. 9, 1873. Buried there, but his tomb afterwards removed to Farningham in Surrey. His only son was killed in the Zulu war. The first president of the restored French Republic, was Louis Adolphe Thiers. He was appointed by the National assembly, Aug. 31, 1871. The present president of the republic is Felix Faure, born 1841, elected 1895. The National Debt is enormous, the heaviest ever yet incurred by any nation, nominally £1,241,410,101, involving an annual interest of £35,292,255. The chief dependencies of France are Algeria, Tunis, various parts of eastern, central, and western Africa; the recently acquired Island of Madagascar, the island of Reunion, etc. In Asia, Cochin China, and Tongking. In America, St. Pierre, Martinique, and Guadaloupe, St. Bartholomew, and Cayenne, or French Guiana. In the Pacific Ocean, New Caledonia, Loyalty Islands,

Tahiti, the Marquesas, the Austral, and the Kerguelen Islands. France has, with England, right of control in the New Hebrides.

The Netherlands include, Belgium, Flanders, and Holland. *Flanders* became part of the Kingdom of France, A.D. 843. It has been subject successively to Burgundy, 1384, Austria, 1477, Spain, 1555. In 1580 it declared its independence; then returned to its allegiance to Austria, and in 1713 was included in the empire of Germany. Parts of it now belong by treaty to France. *Holland.* From the 10th to the 15th century, this country, which is largely composed of land rescued from the sea, was governed by counts under the German emperors. Annexed to Austria, 1477. Revolt under William, Prince of Orange, 1572. Seven northern provinces declared their independence, Sep. 29, 1580. Independence was recognised, 1609. Holland had wars with England in 1652 and 1665, William III was made stadtholder, 1672, and he married Princess Mary of England. William became king of England, 1689. Holland and Belgium were united to the French Republic in 1795. It is now an independent Kingdom, the Queen, Wilhelmina Helena Paulina Maria, was born in 1880, her mother acted as Queen Regent until she came of age in 1898. The Queen married Duke Henry of Mecklenburg-Schwerin in Feb. 1901. The Dutch have considerable dependencies in the East Indies; also Surinam, or Dutch Guiana in South America, and some islands in the West Indies.

Belgium.—The Southern portion of the Netherlands. Its government is a liberal constitutional monarchy, founded in 1830. The first King of the Belgians was Leopold, born 1790, inaugurated at Brussels, 1831. Married Louise, eldest daughter of Louis Philippe of France. The present King is Leopold II, born 1835. It is one of the most densely populated countries in the world. It is divided into nine provinces. Its chief towns are Brussels, Antwerp, Ghent, and Liege. The constitution of 1831 jointly vests the legislative power in the King, the Senate, and the Chamber of Representatives. Belgium has no colonies, but her King is at the same time "Sovereign" of the Congo Free State in Africa.

Switzerland.—Ancient name Helvetia, conquered by the Romans, B.C. 15, and subsequently subject to the Burgundians, Germans, and French. The canton of Schweitz gives the name to the country. It is governed by a national council, which is elected every third year, at the rate of one member for 2000 persons. The independence of Switzerland was recognised by the treaty of Westphalia, 1648. The Helvetic confederation was dissolved, and the country made subject to France, and a Helvetian republic formed, 1798. The federal government was restored, 1802. Number of cantons increased to 22, and the independence of Switzerland finally secured by the treaty of Vienna, 1815. The Roman Catholic cantons endeavoured to form a separate league, Sonderbund, in 1846. These cantons were defeated, and the Sonderbund suppressed, 1847, and a new federal constitution was arranged in 1848. A new constitution was adopted at Zurich, April 18, 1869. The first confederation comprised Uri, Schweitz, and Underwalden. To these were added, Zurich, Berne, Lucerne, Schaffhausen, Appenzell, St. Gall, Glaris, Zug, Friburg, Solothurn, Basle, Grisons, Aargau, Thurgau, Tessins, Pay de Vaud, Valais, Neufchatel, and Geneva. The most mountainous country in Europe. Two ranges, the Alps and the Jura. Berne is the capital, and the principal cities are Lucerne, Zurich, Basel (or Basle), and Geneva.

Germany (including **Prussia**).—Ancient name Alemania. Divided until recently into independent states. The Romans never wholly conquered it. The Huns and other tribes prevailed over the greater part, in the 5th century. In the latter part of the 8th century, Charlemagne subdued the Saxon and other tribes, and was crowned emperor at Rome, Dec. 25, 800. At the extinction of his

family, the empire became elective, 911. The confederation of the Rhine was formed, 1806; the Germanic confederation, 1815; the North German confederation, 1866. "The re-established empire of Germany (Jan. 1, 1871), was founded upon treaties concluded between the North German confederation, and the grand duchies of Baden and Hesse, the Kingdom of Bavaria and the Kingdom of Wurtemburg, William I, king of Prussia, was proclaimed emperor at Versailles, Jan. 18, 1871. The first chancellor of the emperor was Prince Otho Von Bismarck." William I began the dynasty of the Hohenzollerns. His son, Frederick William, born Oct. 18, 1831, married Victoria, princess royal of England, Jan. 25, 1858. According to the constitution of April 16, 1871, the Empire is confederate, under the presidentship of the king of Prussia, who bears the hereditary title of German Emperor. But his edicts must be countersigned by the chancellor, who is made responsible for them by his signature. Since the close of the great European war, there has been a large emigration of Germans to every part of the world. There are German colonies in all the South American states, Jamaica, Australia, and South Africa. The present Emperor is William II, son of the Emperor Frederick William, and of the Empress Victoria.

Austria.—The name means Eastern Kingdom. Taken from the Huns by Charlemagne, A.D. 791—796. Rudolph, count of Hapsburg, was elected emperor of Germany in 1273, and acquired Austria in 1278. From 1493 to 1804 his descendants were emperors of Germany. Aug. 11, 1804, Francis II renounced the title of emperor of Germany, and became hereditary emperor of Austria. Self-government was granted to Hungary, Feb. 17, 1867. The present ruler, Francis-Joseph, came to the throne, 1848, and married Elizabeth of Bavaria. Their son Rudolf, committed suicide under very distressing circumstances. Francis-Joseph was crowned king of Hungary, June 8 1867. Bosnia and Herzegovina are virtually included in the Austrian dominions. The population is mixed, Slavs, Germans, Magyars, and Roumanians; there are also many Jews. The capitals are Vienna for Austria, and Buda Pesth for Hungary.

Denmark.—Reign of Skiold, the first king, B.C. 60. Canute the Great, 1016—28. By the union of Calmar, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden made one country under Margaret, 1397. Christian I, from whom the late royal family sprang, began to reign, 1448. The integrity of Denmark was guaranteed by England, France, Russia, and Sweden, 1850. Christian VIII declared the right of the crown to Schleswig-Holstein, etc. This led to a long struggle with Prussia. By the treaty of Vienna the king resigned the duchies to the disposal of the allies, and agreed to a rectification of his frontier, Oct. 30, 1864. The present king is Christian IX, born 1818, succeeded to the throne, 1863. Copenhagen, the capital, was declared a free port, Nov. 9, 1894.

Sweden.—Ancient name Scandinavia, including Norway, and part of Denmark. From this country proceeded the Northmen, or Normans, who conquered Normandy, A.D. 900 and England, 1066. Gustavus Vasa recovered the kingdom from the Danish yoke, 1521, became King, 1523, and his descendants ruled till 1809. Government is a limited Monarchy. By the treaty of Kiel, 1814, **Norway** fell under the sovereignty of Sweden. Charles XIII, of Sweden, was proclaimed King by the national diet, and accepted the constitution which declares Norway a free, independent, inalienable, and indivisible state, united to Sweden. Norway, with Sweden, is now governed by a Council of State which meets at Christiania; a delegation of this council meets at Stockholm.

The Balkan States.—The Balkans are a range of mountains extending from the Adriatic to the Euxine. The Balkan provinces lie north of this range, they formed until recent times the main portion of the territory of Turkey in Europe. Montenegro and Herzegovina are almost

on the border of the Adriatic. Bosnia lies to the East, then Servia, then Bulgaria, with a coast line on the Black Sea. North of Bulgaria lies Walachia and Moldavia. These states are also known as the Danubian principalities.

Montenegro.—Conquered by Solyman II, the Turk, in 1526. Its claim to independence was recognized by the Treaty of Berlin. The present ruler, prince Nicholas (or Nikita), was born 1841, began his rule in 1860. **Herzegovina.**—Ceded to Turkey 1699. Is now nominally Turkish territory, but is really ruled by Austria. As is also Bosnia, which was incorporated with Turkey in 1463. **Servia.**—Subdued by Turks, 1459. Now governed by an hereditary sovereign. By the Berlin Treaty, 1878, Servia received a large accession of territory. The present King Peter I succeeded Alexander I, who, with Queen Draga, was murdered by officers of his army in 1903. Belgrade is the capital. **Bulgaria.**—Conquered for the Ottoman Empire, 1396. With Bulgaria is now united Eastern Roumelia. It is under the suzerainty of Turkey. The principality was created by the Treaty of Berlin, and was to have been governed by a prince elected by the National Assembly, or Sobranje. In July, 1887, Prince Ferdinand was nominated, and is now *de facto* ruler. The capitals are Sofia, Philippopolis, and Tirnova. **Roumania.**—This country consists of the Moldo-Walachian provinces, lying north of Bulgaria, which formerly belonged to Turkey, but by the Treaty of Berlin were recognized as an independent State, and the territory of the Dobrudja was added to them. On March 26, 1881, Roumania was raised to a kingdom. King Charles was elected hereditary prince, 1866, and proclaimed king and crowned, 1881. Bucharest is the capital of Roumania.

Russia or **Muscovy.**—A government first established in A.D. 862, by Rurick; his descendants ruled till 1598. Peter the Great became sole sovereign, 1689; founded St. Petersburg, as the new capital, 1703. Dismemberment of Poland completed by Catherine, 1795. War with France, and battle of the Borodino, 1812. The Russo-Turkish war, 1853. Termination of serfdom decreed in 1863. The treaty of Paris was signed in 1856. The Russian Empire comprises one sixth of the territorial surface of the globe. It includes territory in Europe, Asia, and America. The present Emperor is Nicholas II, who succeeded to the throne in 1894. The capital is St. Petersburg.

Great-Britain, including England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland. As the history of England is given in another part of this work, it will suffice to give here a general summary of the British possessions, at the present time. Channel Islands, Gibraltar, Malta and Gozo, Sierra Leone, Gambia, etc., the Gold Coast, Lagos, Niger Protectorate, St. Helena and Ascension, South Africa, including the Cape, Natal, Rhodesia, etc., Zanzibar and Pemba, Aden, Mauritius. India, including Bombay, Madras, Bengal, and Burmah. The Straits Settlements, Ceylon, Hongkong, Australasia, including West Australia, South Australia, Victoria, New South Wales, Queensland, Tasmania, New Zealand, Fiji Islands, Dominion of Canada, Newfoundland, etc. Bermudas, British West India Isles, British Guiana, British Honduras, Falkland Isles. Scotland had a separate parliament until 1707. Scotland was united with England, under James VI of Scotland, in the year 1603. The legislative union of Great Britain and Ireland is dated Jan. 1801. The Fenians began their mischievous enterprise in 1864. The Irish Church was disestablished in 1869. Henry II subdued South Wales in 1157. Edward I entirely reduced the country, 1282. His son, who was born in Wales, 1284, was called Prince of Wales, which is now the title of the heir to the British throne. Wales was incorporated with England by act of parliament, 1536.

America.—This continent was discovered by Columbus, Oct. 11, 1492 It is named from Americus Vespucius a Florentine merchant, who visited the Eastern coast in 1498, and described the country in letters sent to his friends

in Italy. In South America the chief countries are Patagonia, Chili, La Plata, Paraguay, Peru, Brazil, Colombia and Guiana. North-America includes Mexico, which was conquered by Spain, 1518. The United States comprises the whole territory from Florida to the line of the St. Lawrence River. The British Possession includes all the country lying north of the St. Lawrence, except the Russian possessions in the extreme North West. The first English settlement was established at Roanoke, Virginia, by Sir Walter Raleigh, 1585. New Plymouth was built by the Nonconformist exiles, 1620. Pennsylvania was settled by William Penn, the celebrated Quaker, 1682. Canada was ceded to Great Britain, 1763. The American War of Independence, 1776. Independence recognized by Great Britain, 1783. Beginning of the great war between north and south, April 13, 1861. Freedom of slaves proclaimed, 1863. President Lincoln shot, April 14, 1865. President McKinley assassinated, 1901.

Australia with New Zealand and Tasmania.—The first accurate knowledge of these southern lands is due to the Dutch, in 1606. The continent of Australia, or New Holland, includes five provinces,—New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, West Australia, and Queensland. The first British settlement was formed at Port Jackson (Sydney) in 1788. **New Zealand** was discovered by Tasman, in 1642, and circumnavigated by Captain Cook, 1769—70. The right of Great Britain to New Zealand was recognized at the peace made by treaty in 1814. New Zealand is an independent colony, separated from New South Wales in 1841. Wellington, in the North Island, is the capital. Tasmania, an island off the southern extremity of Australia, was first discovered by Tasman, 1642, and named by him Van Diemen's Land. It was severed from New South Wales, and formed into a distinct colony in 1825. The transportation of criminals was abolished in 1853, and the name of the island officially changed to Tasmania. Hobart is the capital.

THE RELIGIONS OF THE WORLD.

I. Outside Christianity.—Man is found, in all ages, and everywhere, to have a sense of the existence of an unseen Supreme Being, on whom he is dependent; whose will he ought to obey, and whose favour he desires to obtain. Before man's intellectual powers were developed, and language was made the medium for conveying thought, man could only form his ideas of the Supreme Being by the help of his imaginative and poetical faculties. In things seen he found symbols of the unseen. The first religions were *Nature Religions*, and are classed under the name **Sabaism.**—The Chaldœans, or peoples dwelling around the two rivers, Tigris and Euphrates, and between the Persian Gulf, and Caspian Sea, saw symbols of the Unseen One in the heavenly bodies. The Egyptians, who saw animal life burst into being from the flooding of the Nile, found in living creatures symbols of the attributes of the Supreme. Persian religion fixed on *fire*, as the earthly representative of the sun. It developed, however, into a dual system, which found separate origins for good and evil—Ormuzd and Ahriman. The Pagan Religions present *man*, in the perfection of physical form and mental endowment, as the only satisfactory image of the Unseen One. **Paganism** has two types: The Greek, which worships the ideal being, man. The Roman, which personifies the governmental wisdom of man, and deifies order and law. Greek paganism is essentially *artistic*. Roman paganism is essentially *institutional*. Both find the divine through the human. **Fetichism** is a low form of Nature religion. It represents the religion of savages in North Africa, America, Australia, etc. Some material thing—a feather, or piece of bone—is regarded as imprisoning a portion of the unseen spirit, who, from the fetich, acts for evil or good on the man's life. The fetich is not a deity, or even symbol of deity, but simply a vehicle by means of which a supernatural power exerts an influence on a man's destiny.

Intellectual Religions, as distinguished from religions based on *feeling* or *imagination*. (1) **Judaism.**—The foundation of this religion was laid in the Divine communications with Abraham in human language. The primal truth revealed was that of the Divine Unity. The system was developed and organized by Moses, under immediate divine directions. The system bore such relation to every detail of the common, as well as the sacred, life of the people, that it witnessed continually for three essential truths; (α) the *unity* of God; (β) the *spirituality* of God; (γ) His requirement of a service of *righteousness*. Judaism was an exclusive national religion, because it had these three sacred truths in trust. The Jews were not allowed to mingle with surrounding idolatrous nations, because their idolatry would imperil the first of these truths; their materialism the second; and their impurity the third. Judaism, as a system, passed away with the Roman destruction of the Holy City and Temple. As a sort of sect, it lingers in the world still, but its mission to the race, and its primal truths, have passed into the charge of Christianity. (2) **Brahmism, or Hinduism.**—The religion of the people of India, an imaginative, speculative, poetical race, which brought all its powers to deal with the question of the being of God, and the relations of the Divine and the human. In the East the imaginative and poetical faculties are not held in restraint by logical and critical faculties, and so Eastern people use figures which seem to Western minds opposed, incongruous, and extravagant. This religion finds its authority in a series of books known as the *Vedas* (knowledge). The series is arranged in three sections. 1. *Mantra* (prayer and praise) These are divided into four collections, and named, the Rigveda; the Samaveda, the Yajurveda, and the Atharva-veda. 2. *Brahmana*, or ritualistic precepts and directions. 3. *Upanishad*. Containing mystical or secret doctrine, of a pantheistic type. Worship, as enjoined in the Vedas, rests upon the two ideas of the efficacy of prayer, and of sacrifice. Hinduism has one supreme god, *Brahm*. He is an absolutely isolated and independent being. He only comes into relation with a created world by becoming incarnate, though all the while remaining what he is. There is never any knowing when, or how, or in what, he becomes incarnate. Three supreme incarnations are recognized, and these form a Triad, or Trinity, *Brahma*, the Creator; *Vishnu*, the Preserver; *Siva*, the Destroyer. These make fresh incarnations of themselves. Vishnu, has been incarnate seven times, and yet another incarnation is prophesied for him. The religion of the common Hindu is a daily *puja*, or round of ritual observances and prayers. Efforts to reform Brahmism by recalling men to the teachings of the earlier Vedas, have been made in recent years. *The Brahmo Somas* (worshipping assembly) was originated by Rajah Ram Mohun Roy, who was born in Bombay, 1772. Later leaders of the movement have been, Debendra Nath Tagore, 1842, and Keshub Chundra Sen, 1858. It has never been much more than a literary club. Its tone is unitarian, and it has no inspiration from spiritual motives. (3) **Buddhism.**—The religion of at least 500,000,000 of the human race, and a missionary religion. It is based on the teaching of one Gotama Buddha, who was born, B.C. 624, at Napilavastu, on the borders of Nepaul. He is also known as Sakya-Muni, the Buddha (*i.e.* the enlightened one). No written statement of Gotama's views was made earlier than B.C. 100. The basis of the system is four great truths: 1. Pain is a fact. 2. Desire (lust) is the origin of pain. 3. Prevention is possible. 4. The way of prevention is an eight-fold path. Right belief, Right feeling, speech, action, means of livelihood, endeavour, memory, and meditation. It is an ethical rather than a religious system. The sacred books are known as Tri-pitaka, or Three Baskets. **Shintoism** is the cult of the primitive Japanese. It is, in

essence, ancestor-worship. Buddhism has become the religion of Japan, and it has absorbed the older religion, though Japanese Buddhism has been modified and influenced by the older religion. **Lamaism**, of Thibet, is a peculiar development of Buddhism, half religious, half political. Buddhism was introduced into Thibet in the sixth century, A.D. Buddha was conceived as a mysterious phantasm. A priesthood arose; the head declared himself to be the last incarnation of Buddha, and gained supreme power in church and state. He was the Great Lama. All priests were Lamas, and were educated in Lamaseries. From Thibet Lamaism has spread into India and China. (4) **Confucianism**.—The religion, or moral system, of China. *Koung-fu-tsze* was born B.C. 551. He was a teacher of social ethics, not of religion. Of God, spirit, immortality, he declared he had nothing to say. His mission was to man in social relations. He regarded the universe as a great self-sustaining mechanism, and devoted himself to teaching the conditions under which the whole machine could be made to work smoothly. Government is a paternal despotism. The Emperor is father of the nation. All persons in office are fathers. All who serve are children. Obedience is the supreme virtue. Much of the teaching of Koung-fu-tsze concerns etiquette, or appropriate manners for the various occasions of life. The Chinese are a self-satisfied people. They have no sense of sin, and consequently feel no need of a redeemer. Good behaviour is supreme virtue. (5) **Taouism**.—A Chinese system which has in it more of a religious element than Confucianism. It was founded by Lao-tsze, a contemporary of Koung-fu-tsze, who was born B.C. 604. His name means 'Old man child', and he was so called because he was born with white hair. The word Tao, means a 'way' or 'principle.' Lao-tsze's system is based on a personifying of the seminal principle of universal Nature. His great work is the *Táo-Teh King*, an ethical treatise, in which the duties of the individual and the State are set forth. Taouism has degenerated into a ritual religion, with gross superstitions, alchemy, geomancy, and spiritualism. (6) **Mohammedanism**.—Mohammed was the only child, of a poor widow, born about A.D. 570, at Mecca. In his fortieth year, A.D. 610, he received a call from the angel Gabriel. His claim to be a prophet provoked persecution, and he fled for his life to Medina, with his followers, July 15, 622. This flight is called the Hégira, from it dates the Mohammedan era. The religion is called Islâm (resignation to Allah), which is its chief duty and virtue. It is an eclectic system, composed of Jewish, Heathen, and Christian elements. Its mission in its day was to recall the world to the primal doctrine of the unity of God, which had been lost in the *tri-theistic* notions which prevailed. Mohammed gives six articles of faith. God, predestination, the angels, the books, the prophets, the resurrection, and judgment, with eternal rewards. Mohammed's book, the Koran, was dictated at various times, and sometimes taken down on shoulder blades of mutton. It consists of 114 suras, or chapters, and 6,225 verses, composed in imperfect metre and rhyme. At least 200 millions of the human race acknowledge the claims of Mohammed.

II. **Within Christianity**.—Christianity, or the system founded on the life and teaching of Jesus Christ, began to be formulated into a system in the age of his apostles. The first preachers made no attempt to deal with the existing religions, Judaism or Paganism. They began by simply telling what they knew of the life, and words, and works. and will of Jesus. When men believed their message, and accepted the teaching of Christ, they were naturally drawn into a common fellowship, and it became necessary to organize that fellowship. In this way the Christian Church was naturally developed. The Roman Empire then embraced people of two distinct types; the Greek speculative type, and the Roman formal, or legal, type. The

development of Christianity consequently took two directions, and in these it has continued to move to the present day. One school of Christianity is philosophical and mystical, and sees redemption as a regenerative force. The other is institutional and legal, sees in God a Moral Governor, and in redemption a legally satisfactory transaction.

The Early Churches.—When the Empire was divided into East and West, religious antagonism grew up, along with national jealousy. The great schism which divided the Greek from the Roman Church created heresy, with all its power to breed bitterness and contention. The **Greek Church** accepts the decrees of the seven first Œcumenical councils, and the creed of Niccæa, without the additional words, in relation to the Spirit, *filioque*, and from the Son. The Greek Church has never acknowledged either the Apostles' or the Athanasian creeds. Its ritual is even more elaborately developed than that of the Roman Church, and its adherents are more superstitious. It is the religion of Greece, Macedonia, Asia Minor, Russia, etc. The **Roman Church** is a reproduction and christening of the old religion, whose head, or emperor, is replaced by the pope. Roman Christianity is an organized state, governed by officials who claim Divine authority, and who settle the faith that is to be believed, and the Sacraments and ceremonies that are to be observed. In every age, men have risen up within the Roman Church, who have resisted these claims of authority over faith, and pleaded for the legislative and executive rights of the one living Head of the Church, Jesus Christ. Such men have attempted reforms within the Church, but never with more than temporary and partial success. The movements within the Church of Rome may be represented by the Dominican and Franciscan orders of Monks; the various mystical sects, following some original thought leader, such as John Tauler, the Jesuits, founded by Ignatius Loyala, in the 16th century, as an opposition to the Protestant Reformation; the Old Catholics, who vigorously resisted the recently proclaimed dogma, of the infallibility of the pope, *ex cathedra*. The famous, or infamous, Inquisition for the suppression of heresy, was established in the thirteenth century.

Protestant Churches. (1) **European Division. Lutherans.**—Martin Luther, the founder of the Protestant Reformation, was born at Eisleben, in Saxony, Nov. 10, 1483. In the year 1501 he went to study at the University at Erfurt. Visited Rome in 1510. Began his conflict about the Pope's indulgences, as sold by Tetzel, Oct. 31, 1417, by affixing, as a challenge to discussion, ninety-five theses on the door of the church at Wittenberg. Luther attended the Diet of Worms, April 16, 1521. Then he remained secluded for nine months in the castle of Wartburg. During this time he was engaged in translating the New Testament into the tongue of the common people. Died Febr. 18, 1546. After his death controversies divided the Protestants, and created sects. Within the Reformed Churches, there have always been two tendencies, one rigid and exclusive, the other liberal and conciliatory. The two tendencies have made differing schools, in every section into which the Protestant church has divided. In Germany we find Lutherans, Calvinists, and Rationalists. **Calvinists** follow the teaching of John Calvin, who was born July 10, 1509, and reached Geneva in the autumn of 1536. July 20, 1539, the citizens of Geneva publicly abjured the Romanist faith. Calvin's central idea is, that a certain portion of mankind is elected by God for salvation, and for that portion adequate redemptive provision has been made. There are three classes of Calvinists. (1) Hyper-Calvinists, or Autinomians, who exaggerate the views of Calvin. (2) Strict Calvinists, who worthily represent Calvin's teaching. (3) Moderate Calvinists, who treat more liberally the doctrine of reprobation, and find a wider efficacy in the death of Christ. **Arminians** are the followers of Arminius,

a Dutch divine, who denied the main points of the Calvinistic theological system. The **Rationalists** made reason and conscience the sole arbiters of the truth to be believed, and the duties to be done. They applied philosophy to religion; and refused to take into account the claims of the supernatural.

Protestant Churches. (2) **Divisions in Great-Britain and America.**—The developments of religion are very similar throughout the Anglo Saxon races. 1. **The Established** or **Episcopal Church.**—As a separate organization from the Roman Church, this dates from the quarrel of Henry VIII with the pope, and his claim as head of the state to be head also of the Church. The old Roman creed, and orders of official government and worship were continued, but were subsequently greatly modified; the Prayer Book being revised in the Protestant interest. The Bishops of the Established Church claim to be in the Apostolical succession, and so to have authority in matters of faith and worship. Within the English Church there are three schools, commonly known as the High, the Low, and the Broad. The High section finds its model of doctrine and ritual in the Church before the great schism which separated East from West. The Low Church represents the liberalising influence of the Reformation, and the religious enthusiasm created by the Evangelical Revival, in the time of Whitefield the Calvinist, and Wesley the Arminian. The Broad Church represents the influence on religion of the advanced science, and Biblical Criticism, of the 19th Century. The drift of the High Church is towards Rome; of the Low Church towards Dissent; and of the Broad Church towards Rationalism. The so-called Tractarian Movement began at Oxford, early in the 19th Century, by the publication of a number of papers, entitled "Tracts for the Times." It is an attempt to revive the Anglo-Catholic sentiments of Archbishop Laud. The great names connected with the movement are Hurrell, Froud, John Henry Newman, John Keble, and Dr. Pusey

Presbyterian Churches.—The peculiarity of these lies in their view of church government. Authority is vested in a Presbytery, or Council of Elders. Though chosen by the people, these are conceived as drawing their authority from Christ. There are separate congregations, but they are all regarded as parts of one Church. There should be three classes of officers in every Church; Pastor, Ruling Elders, and Deacons. The Church courts are, the Kirk Session, the Presbytery, the Provincial Synod, and the General Assembly. The first *English* Presbytery was formed at Wandsworth in Surrey, Nov. 20, 1572. The Presbyterians of Scotland are divided into three distinct but similar churches. The man who may be regarded as the founder of Presbyterianism, is John Knox (1559). (1) **The Established Church.**—First meeting of the General Assembly was held Dec. 20., 1560. The peculiarity of this section is that it preserves its connection with the State, by receiving subsidies from it. (2) **United Presbyterian Church.**—A large, active, and energetic denomination, composed of dissenters from the Established Church. It was started by the union of the United Secession and the Relief Churches, in the year 1847. Its standards are the Westminster Confession of Faith, and the Longer and Shorter Catechisms. It has no General Assembly, or Provincial Synod. (3) **The Free Church of Scotland** was organised May 1843. It resulted from an attempt of the civil courts to coerce the courts of the Church in certain matters spiritual. At the General Assembly, 1842, a Claim of Rights was presented, then the Moderator and a large number of clerical and lay members, withdrew, met in Tanfield Hall, and formed the Free Church of Scotland. The Free Church maintains the doctrine, discipline, worship, and government of the Church of Scotland, and only renounces the benefits of establishment. Dr. Chalmers was the first Moderator, and 474 professors and

ministers signed the deed of demission. It includes some 800 churches, 800,000 adherents, and there are some 250 students in its Colleges.

The Evangelical Union of Scotland took its rise in certain peculiar theological views taught by the Rev. James Morison. The sect was founded in May 1843. It is popularly known as the "Morisonians". It has never been more than a small sect, and it will probably unite with the Congregationalists.

Independents or **Congregationalists.**—The genesis of Independency is to be found in the Puritan movement within the reformed English Church. The spirit of Puritanism appeared in the reign of Edward VI. Its object was to make the English Church a thoroughly Protestant Church, delivering it from every relic of popish dogma and ritual. Later on the Puritans split into two parties, Presbyterians and Independents. It is usual to associate the beginning of Independency with the preaching of one Robert Browne, 1583. American Independency began with the nonconformist minister John Robinson, who emigrated in 1619. The first Church was founded in 1620. The peculiarity of Independents lies in their conception of the constitution of a Christian Church. It is a voluntary association of any number of regenerate persons, who use each other's gifts for mutual edification, and manage their own affairs, under the sole presidency of Jesus Christ. They recognize only two kinds of officers—pastors and deacons.

Baptists.—These are identical in doctrinal belief, and in Church polity, with the Independents, differing from them only in requiring every person to be baptized by immersion, on profession, of faith. Such baptism is an absolute condition of church membership. The General Baptists are Arminian, and believe in a general redemption, whose benefits are conditioned on man's acceptance. The Particular Baptists are Calvinistic, and usually follow the Hyper type. In America the Baptists form the largest Christian denomination. The first Baptist church was founded in London, in 1608.

The Society of Friends, or **Quakers.** This Society took its rise, in the 17th century, from the teachings of George Fox, who was born in Leicestershire, July 1624. The privilege of direct access to God, without the intervention of priest or rite, was revealed to Fox's soul. And this is the key-note of the Quaker system. "What is most distinctive of the Society is, its belief in the immediate influence of the Holy Spirit, and its expectation of the guidance of the Spirit in worship, and all religious acts." The great names associated with Quakerism, are its founder, George Fox; its nation builder, William Penn; and its theologian, Robert Barclay.

The Catholic Apostolic Church, or **the Irvingites.**—A popular Scotch preacher, Edward Irving (1792—1834) delivered in 1829 a series of discourses on the extraordinary gifts of the Spirit. Mr. Irving was consequently deposed from the ministry by the presbytery of Annan. His followers provided a preaching place for him in Newman Street, London. And this was the beginning of the Irvingite Church. In it the orders of apostles, and prophets are resumed, and an elaborate ritual system has developed. The ministry consists of apostles, prophets, evangelists, and pastors. The standards of faith are the Apostles, Nicene, and Athanasian creeds. Expectation of the immediate return of the Saviour is cherished. It is not a missionary church.

Wesleyans, or **Methodists.**—These bodies originated in a religious movement, of a revivalistic character, which began in the second quarter of last century. John Wesley was born at Epworth in Lincolnshire, 1703. He dated his conversion, May 24, 1738. At first he worked within the Church of England, but subsequently founded a distinct organisation, of which the first Conference, or ruling council, was held June 1744. Doctrinally Wesley was an Arminian. His peculiarity was his requirement of a definite experience in conversion, and his teaching concerning

the possibility of a believer's freedom from sin. There have been many separations from the main body, but almost all have followed disputes concerning the exclusive composition of the original Conference. On one or two occasions divisions have followed the undue influence of some powerful personality. The first secession took place in 1796 under the leadership of Mr. Kilham. From this arose the **Methodist New Connexion,** which has a more liberally constituted Conference, and a large following in the Pottery districts. In 1827, thousands separated from the main body, through a dispute as to the power of the preachers to expel members of the Society. In 1835 a secession gave rise to the **Wesleyan Methodist Association.** In 1844, and 1848 certain Fly Sheets were issued, attacking the despotic authority of Conference. With these were associated the names of three ministers, Everitt, Dunn, and Griffith. In 1857, conference cut off from membership 56,000 disaffected members. The **Calvinistic Methodists** are found chiefly in Cornwall and Wales. They adhere to the Calvinistic views of Whitefield. The founder of Welsh Calvinistic Methodism is Howel Harris, who was an Oxford Student. The first Chapel was erected at Builth, 1747. The **Primitive Methodist** organisation began among the work people in the potteries of Staffordshire. Its founder was one William Clowes. The first camp meeting in England was held May 31, 1807, on Mow Hill, Cheshire. Work assumed a regular connexional aspect May 30, 1811. The doctrine is Arminian Wesleyan. Open air worship, and bright, lively services, are main features. It permits female preaching; and has an extensive following among the lower middle and working classes, throughout the country. **Bible Christians,** or **Bryanites.**—A sect similar in doctrine and government to the Methodists, but with a more popular form of government, founded in Cornwall, by the Rev. W. Bryan, who left the Wesleyan body in 1815.

Plymouth Brethren.—The body so named was started in Ireland, 1827, by an ex-Catholic, named Cronin. Presently J. N. Darby joined the party, and he soon became leader. At Oxford Darby met Newton, the other founder of the body, and at his request went to Plymouth, and commenced the new organisation. In 1845 Darby and Newton separated, and founded antagonistic schools. Newton's supposed error was his teaching that Christ was involved in the guilt of the first Adam, because he was born of a woman. Some of the sections of the "Brethren" are: I. **Exclusives,** in three branches, (1) followers of J. N. Darby; (2) followers of W. Kelly; (3) followers of Cluff. II. **Bethesda** neutral open Brethren. These may be associated with Müller of Bristol. They are strongly Baptist in opinion, and inclined to Independency in church order. III. **Newtonians,** with certain theological, and prophetical views peculiar to their founder. Brethren object to a paid ministry. They are a proselyting, but not missionary community.

Unitarians.—These include all who reject the doctrine of the Trinity, as three persons in one God. It claims its origin in the Monotheism of the Jewish revelation. The term Trinity was employed first by Tertullian, about A.D. 200. The Nicean Council, A.D. 325, made the Tri-theistic conception of God orthodox, and strict Monotheists became heretics. The Unitarian protest, which has been made in every age, received new impulse at the Reformation. The first nominal Unitarian Church in England, was established in Essex Street, London (1774), by the Rev. Theo. Lindsay. Robert Priestley is generally regarded as the founder of modern Unitarianism. His strong point was the simple humanity of Jesus, and his endowment as a prophet. Priestley died 1804. Channing of America, and Martineau of England, represent the spiritual side of Unitarianism, and differ by almost unmeasurable lines from liberal Orthodoxy. The British and Foreign Unitarian Association was formed in May 24, 1825. Unitarians refuse to

formulate a creed. They are among the best friends of national education.

Swedenborgians, or the New Jerusalem Church.—This body of Christians claim to have received a new dispensation of doctrinal truth, through Emmanuel Swedenborg, who was born at Stockholm, January, 1688. What is most peculiar is the new system of Bible Interpretation. The sacred writings have two senses, the natural, and the spiritual or celestial. The other speciality is the doctrine of correspondences. Everything visible has corresponding to it an invisible, spiritual reality. Swedenborgians have now a liturgy, but no form of ritual is regarded as binding on anyone. The late Isaac Pitman, of phonetic fame, was a prominent member of the body. There are only a few churches of this name, but the free circulation of Swedenborgian literature has largely influenced modern religious thought. **Mormonism or Latter Day Saints.**—The religion of a large section of people settled in one of the interior states of America. It is based on what is called the Book of Mormon, which is said to have been discovered by one Joseph Smith, Sept. 22, 1823, and secured in 1827. It is now known that the original of the book is a novel, which was written by one Solomon Spaulding, for his own amusement. It is an imaginary account of the teaching of a legendary person, named Mormon, who was the last of the sacred prophets of the American Indians, and died A.D. 426. In the hands of the Mormons, this book claims to be the history, faith, and prophecies of the ancient inhabitants of America. Joseph Smith was born Dec. 23, 1805. Brigham Young was born June 1, 1801, and became Mormon chief 1844. Mormonism is a politico-religious system. A leading feature is its encouragement of polygamy.

Philosophical and Ethical Systems.—Atheism denies the existence of God. **Deism** believes in God, but separates Him from all interest in His creation. **Theism** acknowledges God, but denies revelation of him in language. **Agnosticism** declares the impossibility of *knowing* whether there is a God or not. **Secularism** breaks with Theology, and makes religion bear only upon social questions. **Ethical** Societies attempt to unite creedless people upon a basis of common morality. **Positivism** is the name of the system founded by Auguste Comte, who was born 1798. This may be called the "Religion of Humanity". **Theosophy.**—The vagaries of esoteric Hindoism were introduced into England by Madame Blavatsky, who was born in 1831. But this mixture of fraud and delusion, and hysteria, has never taken any serious hold of the English mind. The sect is usually known by the name of Theosophists.

Religious Manias.—Illustrations of *religious Mania* may be found in *Thomas Manzer* (1525), who headed a remarkable sect in Germany, and declared himself to be an inspired prophet. In *Joanna Southcott*, who was born in Devonshire, 1700, and announced herself as the woman spoken of in the Book of Revelation. In *William Prince*, who founded the Agapemone, or Abode of Love. And in the modern building, raised at Chatham, as the abode of the New Israel.

STYLES OF ARCHITECTURE.

Name.	Prevailed.	Characteristics.	Examples.
Egyptian.	About B.C. 4000 to B.C. 526.		Pyramids and Tombs (other than pyramids) in Egypt and Nubia. Temple of Philæ. Cleopatra's needles. Palaces of Karnac and Manephthah.
Assyrian.	B.C. 2450 to B.C. 538.		Chaldean Temple (Tomb of Cyrus and Passargadæ). Judean Temples (Jerusalem). Assyrian Palaces (Sennacherib). Lycian Tombs in British Museum.
Grecian.	B.C. 1207 to 324.	Mathematical and optical refinements in many of the details and also in the general setting out. Divided into three styles, viz.: Doric, Ionic and Corinthian.	Parthenon at Athens (Doric). The collection known as the Elgin marbles at the British Museum contains part of the frieze of the Parthenon. Erechtheium at Athens (Ionic). Monument of Lysicrates (Corinthian).
Roman.	B.C. 753 to A.D. 328.	Round arches and superimposed orders, but details more or less copied from the Greek.	Few remains. Theatre of Marcellus (Rome). Temples of Minerva, Mars and Hercules. Temples of Fortune and Bacchus. Theatre of Marcellus. Baths of Diodesian. Temple of Vesta at Tivoli. Pantheon at Rome. Temples of Venus, Flora, and Prosperine.
		Doric Ionic Composite Corinthian	
Romanesque.	A.D. 395 to about 900.	Arches generally round (few pointed), modified Roman details. Columns or pillars often with twisted fluting—the idea possibly taken from cords or wreathes wound round diagonally for decorative purposes.	Church of St. Vitale and Tomb of Theodoric at Ravenna. Churches of St. Lorenzo (Milan), Notre Dame (Poictiers), the Apostles (Cologne), St. Martin (Cologne). Church at Bonn.
Norman.	1066 to 1154.	Round headed doorways and windows, heavy pillars, and zig-zag ornaments.	Nave of Rochester Cathedral. Greater portion of Durham Cathedral. Crypt in Tower of London. Ely, Lincoln and Worcester Cathedrals.
Transition.	1140 to 1200.	Same but with pointed windows.	Temple Church, London. Choir of Canterbury Cathedral. Ely, Worcester and Norwich Cathedrals.

Name.	Prevailed.	Characteristics.	Examples.
Early English.	1189 to 1272.	Narrow pointed windows, lancet shaped; clustered pillars.	Presbytery at east end of Lincoln Cathedral. Choir of Westminster Abbey. Salisbury Cathedral. Rochester, Ely, Durham Cathedrals.
Transition.	1260 to 1320.	Tracery introduced into windows.	East end of Lincoln Cathedral; St. Saviour's, Southwark.
Decorated.	1300 to 1370.	Geometrical tracery in windows, enriched doorways, beautifully arranged mouldings.	Lady Chapel, Ely. Norwich, Exeter and Wells Cathedrals. Nave of York Minster.
Transition.	1350 to 1400.	Lines less flowing.	Choir of York Minster.
Perpendicular.	1399 to 1547.	Upright lines of mouldings in windows, doorways often a combination of square heads with pointed arches.	King's College. Chapel Cambridge. Henry VIIth Chapel Westminster Abbey. Gloucester and Canterbury Cathedrals.
Tudor or Elizabethan.	1550 to 1600.	A debased species of perpendicular, mostly employed in domestic architecture.	Thornbury Castle and many country houses.
Jacobean.	1603 to 1641.	An admixture of Classical with all kinds of Gothic or Pointed.	Longleat House, Wiltshire. Audley End, Essex.
Renaissance and Classical Revival.	1625 to 1702 and onwards.	Modern examples of Classical Architecture. Characteristics similar to Roman.	Banqueting Hall, Whitehall (Ionic and Corinthian). St. Paul's Covent Garden (Doric). York Stairs, arch now only remains. Embankment Gardens, Charing Cross (Tuscan). St. Paul's Cathedral (Corinthian and Ionic). Bow Church, Cheapside (Ionic and Corinthian). Blenheim Palace (principally Ionic). Castle Howard (Corinthian). St. Martin's, Charing Cross (Corinthian and Ionic). Somerset House (Doric, Ionic and Corinthian).
Classical Revival.	1800 and on.		St. Pancras, Kennington, and Norwood Churches (Ionic and Corinthian). Bank of England. University College, Gower St. (Corinthian). National Gallery (Corinthian). British Museum (Ionic). Royal Exchange. Reform Club (Ionic).

Gothic architecture prevailed from about 1104 to 1530.

The Seven Wonders of the World were: 1. The Pyramids of Egypt, 2. The Temple of Diana at Ephesus, 3. The Walls and Hanging Gardens of Babylon, 4. The Colossus at Rhodes. 5. The Mausoleum of Artemesia, 6. The Statue of Jupiter Olympus, 7. The Pharos Ptolemy Philadelphus. 1. **The Pyramids of Egypt.**—Vast structures, containing tombs of the Kings of Egypt. They are of massive stone blocks, rising tier upon tier. The largest, that of Cheops, stands on 13 acres of ground. It required 6,000,000 tons of stone to build; it cost nearly £5,000,000, and it took 366,000 men twenty years to complete it. It is 732 feet square, and 474 feet in height. It is supposed to have been built more than 2000 years before Christ. 2. **The Temple of Diana** at Ephesus.—This celebrated temple was built for the worship of the goddess Diana. It was 425 feet long, and 200 feet broad. The roof was supported by 127 columns 60 feet high, some polished and some carved, which had been placed there by so many kings. The building was not completed till 220 years after its foundation. The treasures it contained were stupendous. It was burnt the night Alexander the Great was born [B.C. 335], but arose from its ruins more magnificent than ever. 3. **The Walls and Hanging Gardens of Babylon.**—These walls encircled the city of Babylon, the oldest city of which there are any traces remaining at the present day. They were 56 miles in circumference; 87 feet thick, and 337 feet high; they were built of brick in tiers, and on them the most luxurious vegetation was cultivated, which hung down from tier to tier. Together with the rest of the city, they were destroyed by Cyrus, B.C. 538. 4. **The Colossus at Rhodes.**—A brazen figure of Apollo, which formerly spanned the harbour of Rhodes, an island in the Levant, once a celebrated Greek city. The statue was executed by Charës, and was 126 feet high. It has been said that ships in full sail could pass under it, but Pliny does not mention this circumstance, though he in other ways describes it minutely. It stood 56 years, and was then overthrown by an earthquake, the brass which had composed it loaded 900 camels, and weighed 720,000 pounds. 5. **The Mausoleum of Artemesia.** This famous tomb was erected by Artemesia, daughter of a King of Halicarnassus to the memory of her husband Mausolus of whom she was excessively fond. Its grandeur and magnificence was such that the word "Mausoleum" has been given from that time to all monuments commemorating the dead, which are of unusual splendour. 6. **The Statue of Jupiter Olympus.**—A celebrated statue of Jupiter at Olympia, where he also had a temple dedicated to him. It was the work of Phidias. 7. **The Pharos of Ptolemy Philadelphus.**—A light-house built on the island of Pharos, near Alexandria; at the top of this tower, which was constructed of white marble, fires were constantly kept burning to warn sailors off the dangerous coast, and could be seen for 100 miles. It cost 800 talents, equivalent to about £165,000 English. "Pharos" has since been used as an appellation signifying any edifice which is raised for directing the course of sailors, either with lights or by signals.

OUR POSTAL SYSTEM.

The Post Office is the most wide reaching organisation of modern times, for its ramifications extend throughout the world. A letter, newspaper, book, or parcel—and even a telegram—sent from any part of the United Kingdom will in due course be delivered on the Steppes of Russia, in the interior of India and China; it will penetrate the vast forests of central America or the wilds of the great dark continent of Africa; bringing joy or sadness to those who are thousands of miles from home and it may be many hundreds of miles beyond the borders of civilisation; or it may be to transact business relations with persons at the uttermost parts of the earth.

To attempt to give a history of the Post Office with its multifarious duties would occupy more volumes than it is possible to allot even pages in this work. A brief summary of the introduction of its various branches of work is all that is attempted here; while those who are interested in this great Department will be well repaid if the opportunity offers to peruse the following works.

Her Majesty's Mails, by William Lewins. Life of Sir Rowland Hill, K.C.B., and History of the Penny Postage, by Geo. Birkbeck Hill. The Royal Mail. Its curiosities and Romance, by J. Wilson Hyde. 1885. The Post in Grant and Farm, by J. Wilson Hyde. The London Postal Service of to-day, by R. C. Tombs. 1891. An old Coachman's Chatter, by Colonel Corbett. Forty years in the Post Office, by F. E. Baines, C.B. History of the Post Office, by Herbert Joyce, C.B. 1893. On the Track of the Mail Coach, by F. E. Baines, C.B. 1895. The Post Office Packet Service, by Arthur H. Norway, 1896.

Historical Sketch.—The origin of the Post-office is involved in obscurity. Letters were originally sent by special messenger and there are records of payment to *nuncii* for carrying letters for the King which commence in the reign of King John and are continued through the following reigns; and more recently by common Carriers who began to ply regularly with their pack horses about the time of the wars of the Roses. In the reign of Edward II. horses were kept by private individuals so that messengers might travel post; and the words "Haste, Post Haste" are found written on the back of private letters of this period. In 1481 Eduard IV. established a system of relays of horses, the Post Stations being 20 miles apart and letters were conveyed 200 miles in three days. In 1548 the charge for post horses impressed for the service of the crown was fixed by statute at a penny per mile. As early as 1514 the Alien merchants residing in London had established a Post Office of their own from London to the Outports, appointing from time to time their own Postmasters. In 1568 a quarrel arose among them. The Spaniards appointed one and the Flemings appointed another. A petition was presented to the King; and the English merchants appear also to have presented a petition in the matter complaining that this Post acted unfairly towards them by keeping back their letters and so giving the foreigners the advantage of the market; the issue of this dispute is not known but incredible as it may seem, it proves that a postal service existed to places abroad maintained by foreigners for their own benefit, before a similar institution was established for our own country. Some years later for the benefit of the merchants James I. appears to have established a letter Post to Foreign Countries. In 1635 Charles I. issued a proclamation: "Wherefore he now commands his Postmaster of England for foreign parts to settle a running post or two, to run night and day between Edinburgh and London, to go thither and come back again in six days, and to take with them all such letters as shall be directed to any post town in or near that road." Posts were also to be established at the same time to Lincoln, Hull and other towns; to Exeter and Plymouth; and to Chester and Holyhead. The Rates of Postage were: under 80 miles 2*d.*; under 140 miles 4*d.*; beyond 140 miles 6*d.*; and to Scotland 8*d.* The Post Office may therefore be said to date from that time. In 1637 the monopoly of the Postmaster General was virtually set up. A weekly conveyance of letters into all parts of the Kingdom was established in 1644 by a man named Prideaux. In 1649 the Revenue of the Post Office was £5000 a year. In the same year the Common Council of London set up a Post in rivalry with that of the Parliament; but the Commons proceeded to put down the infringement of their own monopoly. In 1657 Cromwell and his Parliament give as a motive for the establishment of Posts "that they will be the best means to

discover and prevent many dangerous and wicked designs against the Commonwealth." In 1683 Robert Murray established for the conveyance of letters and small parcels a Penny Post who assigned it to William Dockwra. It was denounced by the ultra Protestant party as a contrivance of the Jesuits and it was alleged that if the bags were examined they would be found full of Popish plots. It was also in the same year that the London District Post was made a separate establishment from the General Post. A Statute of Queen Anne in 1710 remodelled the Post Office and it remained in force until 1837. In 1720 Ralph Allen suggested an improved method of working the cross country posts and he farmed them of the government at a rent of £6000 a year; he made a profit of £12,000; and he lived 44 years, spending it mainly in works of charity and in hospitality to men of learning and genius. In 1784 John Palmer devised the plan of sending mail bags by passenger coaches; the speed of post horses was between three and four miles an hour; but the coaches carried the mails at more than six miles an hour. In 1792 a system of sending money orders was set on foot by a few Post Office Clerks on their own account; it had the sanction of the Postmaster General but it was a private undertaking. In 1796 the Inland Rates of Postage were raised to a scale varying from 3*d.* to 9*d.*; and afterwards they were further raised until 1839, when the charges varied from 4*d.* to 1*s.* 8*d.* for a single letter of one sheet, an enclosure however small constituted a double letter at double postage. On the 25th of September, 1829, the General Post Office was removed from Lombard Street to St. Martins le Grand. In 1830 Mails were first conveyed by Railway—between Liverpool and Manchester. In 1835 the Mail to India was first conveyed through the Mediterranean and over the Isthmus of Suez, and it was subsequently extended to Australia. On the 1st of July, 1837, a Travelling Post Office was established on the Railway between Birmingham and Liverpool. In 1838 the Money Order Office was constituted a part of the Post Office. On the 12th of November, 1839, as a preliminary of the Penny Post a uniform Letter Rate of 4*d.* was established. On the 10th of January, 1840, after most formidable difficulties and great opposition the Penny Post Scheme of Rowland Hill was introduced. The scale of postage was ½ oz. 1*d.*; 1 oz. 2*d.*; 2 oz. 4*d.*; and 2*d.* for every additional oz. up to a maximum weight of 16 oz. In the same year, on the 6th of May, postage stamps were introduced; and shortly afterwards Day Mails were established. The Book Post was established in June, 1848. Telegraph Messages were first used for Post Office business on the 31st of August, 1849. The Post Office Savings Bank was opened on the 16th of September, 1861. The Telegraphs were transferred from the old Companies to the Post Office 5th February 1870, at a cost of £8,000,000. £2,130,000 was expended on extensions. Total £10,130,000. Post Cards were first issued on the 1st October, 1870. The International Treaty at Berne was concluded, forming the General Postal Union, on the 9th of October, 1874, and it came into operation 1st of July, 1875. The Postal Union has resulted in a uniform 2½*d.* postage throughout the whole world. Postal orders were first issued 1st January, 1881. Reply Post Cards were first issued 1st October, 1882. The Parcel Post was introduced the 1st of August, 1883. The charge for Telegrams reduced to sixpence for twelve words on 1 October, 1885. The London and Paris Telephone opened 1st of April, 1891. Foreign Telegraph Tariff greatly reduced 1st of July, 1891. Letter Cards were first issued 11th February, 1892. The Trunk Telephone Wires were opened by the Post Office 4th April, 1896. Reduction in letter and parcel rates of postage; extension of free delivery of letters etc., to every house; and extension of free delivery of telegrams from one to three miles; as well as many other reforms were made in commemoration of the Record Reign

of Her Majesty Queen Victoria on Jubilee Day 22nd June, 1897.

Statistics.—Few people have any conception of the vast amount of work which the Post Office performs; on reference to the various headings in subsequent pages some idea will be gained of its multifarious duties; but when we consider that this great department employs in Great Britain and Ireland no fewer than 140,000 employees (1894), distributed among 20,270 Post Offices; that in London alone there are no less than 7,657 Postmen, and it has been estimated that the aggregate number of miles they walk a day in their work covers a no less distance than 48,360 miles or more than twice the circumference of the globe. Then we must remember that there passes through the Post in the course of one year: 1,770,900,000 letters; 312,800,000 post cards; 614,000,000 book packets, circulars, and samples; 151,800,000 newspapers; and 57,136,000 parcels, making a total of 2,907,236,000 articles; also that the number of registered letters is 11,958,264, registered parcels 590,788, and the Express Delivery Service 273,540. The number of inland telegrams is 58,907,408, containing 970,000,000 words; press telegrams 5,401,783, containing 650,000,000 words; foreign telegrams 5,937,715; railway free telegrams 1,048,064; railway half rate telegrams 21,445; government telegrams 272,649, making a total of 71,589,064. The London local telegrams number 6,354,481. In addition to the 20,270 Post Offices of which 11,377 are Money Order Offices, there are 26,819 letter boxes. No less than 10,685,206 money orders—representing £28,923,127—are issued in a year; and Postal Orders number 60,681,078 for £22,759,282. Then the Post Office has standing to the credit of its Savings Bank Depositors £89,266,066. The number of deposits in the year being 10,973,651, representing £30,439,449; and withdrawals 3,863,886 representing £23,786,927. While the Interest amounts to £2,015,903 a year. The new accounts opened in a year number 1,135,525; and the number closed 775,001; the total number of Depositors being 6,108,763. The average balance standing to the credit of each Depositor being in England and Wales £14 12*s.* 2*d.*; Scotland £9 15s 1d; and Ireland £19 2*s.* 11*d.* There are 11,323 Post Offices which conduct Savings Bank business. In the London District alone there are nearly 1000 Savings Bank Offices, in Liverpool 118, in Manchester 99, in Birmingham 115, and in Glasgow 86. The payments by telegraph numbered 44163 representing £187,889. The Stock accounts number 71304 representing £7,028,197. Annuity contracts number 9781, amount £601,744 16*s.* 0*d.*, and there is also a large number of Insurants. Since the Savings Bank Department was formed in 1861 to December 31st 1894 there had been 19,303,782 deposit accounts opened and 152,216,675 deposits received for an amount of £410,704,600 1*s.* 4d.; while 13,195,019 accounts had been closed; 53,206,098 withdrawals made for an amount of £321,438,533 10*s.* 5*d.* The Surplus of assets over liabilities was £6,014,248 16*s.* 1*d.*

Inland Letter Postage.—Letters not above 4 oz. in weight ..... 1*d.*; and ½*d.* for every additional 2 oz.

Limit and Size.—No letter to be above 24 inches in length, 12 inches in width, and 12 inches in depth. For rates of Foreign letter post see p. 511.

Postage Stamps.—At Money Order Offices the following are kept for sale to the public, *viz.*, postage stamps, which are also available for the prepayment of telegrams, of the respective values of ½*d.*, 1*d.*, 1½*d.*, 2*d.*, 2½*d.*, 3*d.*, 4*d.*, 4½*d.*, 5*d.*, 6*d.*, 9*d.*, 10*d.*, 1*s.*, 2*s.* 6*d.*, 5*s.*, 10*s.*, 1*l.* and 5*l.* [the higher priced stamps are not kept at offices at which no demand for them is likely to arise];—registered letter envelopes;—newspaper wrappers with impressed halfpenny and penny postage stamps;—Inland and Foreign Post Cards, Envelopes, with embossed stamp, and Letter Cards.

Post Cards (Inland).—Rates single ½*d.*, thin 5½*d* or thick 6*d.*. for ten. **Reply Cards** single 1½*d.*, thin 5 for

5½*d.*, or 10 for 11*d.*, thick 5 for 6*d.* or 10 for 1/-. There must be nothing written, printed, or otherwise impressed on the front side, which by inconvenient proximity to the postage stamp or by obscuring the address may embarrass the officers of the Post Office. Nothing may be attached to the card on either side except stamps in payment of additional postage or stamp duty and a gummed label, not exceeding 2 ins. long and ¾ in. wide, bearing the address at which the card is to be delivered. An official Post Card may not be folded, nor may it be cut or otherwise altered so as to reduce the size below 3½ by 2¼ inches. If anyone of these rules be infringed, the card will be charged 1*d.* on delivery. Inland post cards are rendered transmissable abroad by affixing an additional halfpenny stamp. See Foreign and Colonial mails p. 511.

Private Cards.—The private cards must be composed of ordinary cardboard, not thicker than the material used for the Official Card, and must have a halfpenny stamp affixed to the face. The maximum size must correspond as nearly as may be to the size of the Inland Official Card, and the minimum size must not be less than 3½ by 2¼ inches. For information as to the conditions under which private cards are impressed with a halfpenny stamp, application must be made to the Office of Inland Revenue. Private post cards are transmissable abroad provided they fulfil the official conditions. See Foreign and Colonial mails.

Letters by Railway.—By an agreement with the Postmaster General certain Railway Companies are permitted to accept and convey by the next available train or steamship Single Inland Post Letters, not exceeding 4 oz. in weight, either to be called for at the station of address, or to be transferred there to the nearest Post Office Letter Box for delivery by postman. In addition to the postage of 1*d.*, which must be prepaid by means of adhesive stamps, the Companies are authorised to charge a fee of 2*d.* per letter For a list of the Companies and further particulars, see the current edition of the Post Office Guide, or the public notice which may be seen at any Post Office. Under certain regulations they can be delivered express by special messenger.

Re-direction of Letters, etc.—No charge is made for the re-direction of letters, post cards, newspapers, book packets and sample packets, whether registered or not, and whether re-directed by an officer of the Post Office or by an agent of the addressee after delivery, provided in the latter case that they are re-posted not later than the day (Sundays and public holidays not being counted) after delivery, and that they do not appear to have been opened, or tampered with. **Registered Letters** or packets, when redirected must be taken back to the Post Office. **Notices of Removal** and applications for letters, etc. to be re-directed, must in all cases be duly signed by the persons to whom the letters are addressed. Printed forms can be obtained from the local Postmaster, and in London of any District or Branch Office, or from the postman of the walk. The Post Office does not undertake the re-direction of letters, etc., for a person temporarily leaving home, unless the house be left uninhabited, nor, as a general rule, does it redirect letters addressed to hotels, boarding houses, or lodgings.

Poste Restante.—There is a Poste Restante at every Head Office in the United Kingdom; and at all Branch Post Offices in London—that is, all Post Offices not held at shops. Letters, etc., addressed to a Poste Restante to be called for are retained for one month. If not called for by the end of that time, they are sent to the Returned Letter office for disposal. But if a letter be addressed to a Post office at a seaport town for a person on board a ship, expected to arrive at that port, it is kept two months.

Undelivered Correspondence.—On reaching the Returned Letter Office, a letter originating in the United Kingdom is at once returned, if possible, to

the writer. If it does not contain either the writer's address or an enclosure of importance, the letter is destroyed. Any letter or packet which, on being opened, is found to contain value is, for its safety, recorded and returned registered, and, unless registered at the time of posting, the registration fee of 2*d.* is charged on the sender. Letters from abroad are returned unopened to the country of origin, after a brief detention in the Returned Letter Office. **Undelivered Book Packets** not exceeding 2 oz. in weight, inland post cards and newspapers, are returned only when they bear the sender's name and address with a request for return in case of non-delivery, and they are liable to a second postage for return. The name and address of the sender, with the request for return, should be placed on the outside of such packets before posting, if it is desired to recover them in case of non-delivery.

Newspaper Post.—For each Newspaper—½*d.*, no packet of Newspapers to be above 5 lbs. in weight, 2 feet in length, 1 foot in width, and 1 foot in depth. A Newspaper is a publication which fulfilling certain conditions has been registered at the General Post Office to pass within the United Kingdom at the Newspaper rate of postage. Without such registration a Newspaper cannot be sent at less than the book rate of postage. Newspapers so registered usually announce the fact in their columns.

Book Post.—For every 2 oz. ro part of that weight ½*d.* Above 2 oz. the same as Letter Postage. Book packets should be posted either without covers (in which case they must not be fastened in any way) or in unfastened envelopes, or in covers which can be easily removed for the purposes of examination. If anything is written or printed on the inside of the covers, the covers must be left unfastened. It is not forbidden to tie the ends of a book packet with string, but the string should be easy to unfasten.

Definitions.—1. Any matter wholly printed or written not being in the nature of a letter on paper or some substance ordinarily used for printing, with the exception of paper money. 2. Books and other publications or works of a literary character. 3. Sketches, drawings, paintings, photographs, engravings, maps, plans and charts, on paper or some other substance ordinarily used for the purpose, provided it is not of a brittle or exceptionally fragile substance. 4. The binding or mounting of any article hereinbefore described provided such binding or mounting be of a kind ordinarily used for the purpose, be not made of glass or any brittle or exceptionally fragile substance, and be transmitted in the same packet with the article in respect of which it is used. 5. The following documents, whether containing matter in the nature of a letter or not, provided they respectively conform to certain conditions—advice notes, agreements, assurance proposals and policies, bills of lading, certificates, deeds, examination papers with corrections and instructions, invoices, licenses, manuscript for press and printed proofs, with corrections and instructions, market reports, orders for goods, powers of attorney, prices current, proxy papers, receipts, statements of account, voting papers, way bills, and also notices, reports, returns, and certificates issued, made or given by officers of a Court of Justice, or other public officers in the discharge of their duties, and returns or reports made to public officers or public bodies.

Parcel Post (Inland).—A Parcel must be presented at the counter of a Post Office for transmission as a Parcel; or it may be accepted by Rural Postmen. The words "Parcel Post" should be written or printed on the left hand side, immediately above the address. The Sender's name and address should appear on the cover. The **Rates of Postage** are for a Parcel not exceeding 1 lb. in weight 3*d.*, 2 lb. 4*d.*, 3 lb. 5*d.*, 4 lb. 6*d.*, 5 lb. 7*d.*, 6 lb. 8*d.*, 7 lb. 9*d.*, 8 lb. 10*d.*, 9 lb. 11*d.*, 10 lb. and 11 lb. 1*s.*.

Conditions.—No Parcel can be sent exceeding 11 lbs. in weight.

Dimensions.—The dimensions allowed for an Inland Postal Parcel are,—Greatest length 3 ft. 6 in.; Greatest length and girth combined 6 ft. 0 in. For example.—A parcel measuring 3 ft. 6 in. in length may measure as much as 2 ft. 6 in. in girth. A shorter parcel may be thicker; thus,—if it measure no more than 3 ft. in length it may measure as much as 3 ft. in girth, *i.e.*,—round its thickest part. The full postage must be *prepaid* by means of postage stamps, which must be affixed by the sender. **Certificate of Posting.**—A certificate of the posting of a parcel can be obtained at any Post Office. This certificate must be filled up by the sender and handed to an Officer of the Post Office, who will sign and return it to him. **To be called for.**—Parcels addressed to a Post Office to be called for are kept (unless containing perishable articles) for three weeks. After they have remained in the office one clear day, they are liable to a charge of 1*d.* a day, called "demurrage." This charge is not made in respect of Sundays, holidays, etc., nor is it levied on parcels addressed to persons residing outside the free delivery, or to persons on board ship. **Re-direction.**—A charge at the full rate of postage originally payable is made for every re-direction of a parcel unless the original and corrected addresses are both in a delivery from the same Post Office. In such cases no additional charge is made for re-direction. Persons desiring parcels to be re-directed, as well as letters, &c., must fill up two re-direction notices, one for parcels, and one for letters and other postal packets. If the notice for letters be alone filled up, parcels will not be forwarded. The name and address of the sender should appear outside all parcels. **Undelivered Parcels.**—When a parcel bearing on its outside the name and address of the sender cannot be delivered owing to wrong or insufficient address, or from any other cause, it is retained at the Head Post Office of the District, and a notice is forwarded to the sender stating that the parcel will be given up free of charge on application at that office, or that it will be forwarded to a fresh address or returned to him on payment of a fresh postage. If the parcel be neither applied for, nor the proper charges paid for forwarding it within six days from the date of the notice, the parcel is sent to the Returned Letter Office of the District. An undelivered parcel which does not bear the name and address of the sender outside is sent to the District Returned Letter Office, and if on its being opened the sender's name and address are found, it is treated in accordance with the preceding rule. If not, the name of the addressee and other particulars are entered on a list exhibited at the Returned Letter Office in question. All undelivered parcels are retained at a Returned Letter Office for three months, after which time they are disposed of, if still unclaimed. If, however, the contents of a parcel become, or are likely to become offensive or injurious, or worthless through natural decay, they are liable to be disposed of forthwith. **Rural Collection.**—Rural Postmen, whether on foot or mounted, are required, under certain regulations and restrictions, to collect parcels from the public for despatch wherever they collect letters. The sender is held responsible that parcels so posted are within the prescribed limits of weight and size, and properly prepaid.

Compensation for Loss or Damage.—The Postmaster General is not legally liable to make good any claim arising out of the conveyance of a parcel sent by post, but he will accept liability under certain conditions. If the parcel is registered, compensation will be given under the rules and regulations.

Registration and Compensation Registered Letters, Parcels, etc.—Letters, parcels, etc. may be registered at the following rates under the following conditions. The Postmaster General will (not in consequence of any legal liability,

but voluntarily, and as an act of grace), subject to certain rules, give compensation up to a maximum limit of 120*l.* for the loss and damage of Inland Registered Postal Packets of all kinds upon prepayment of a fee in addition to the postage. **Rates.**—The scale of fees and the respective limits of compensation are as follow :—

Fee.		Limit of Compensation.
s.	*d.*	*£*
0	2	5
0	3	10
0	4	20
0	5	30
0	6	40
0	7	50
0	8	60
0	9	70
0	10	80
0	11	90
1	0	100
1	1	110
1	2	120

Conditions.—Every article to be registered must be given to an agent of the Post Office and a receipt obtained for it. It must be packed and enclosed in a reasonably strong case, wrapper, or cover; and if it be desired to secure compensation for damage to a postal packet (other than a parcel) it must bear the words "Fragile, with Care." The Packet must be marked with the word "Registered," and with the amount of the fee proper to the value up to which the sender desires to secure compensation, thus :—Registered 2*d.*; Registered 3*d.*; and so on. If sent unregistered, valuable articles are exposed to risk; consequently inland postal packets which contain coin, watches, or jewellery, and also all inland postal packets on the cover of which the word "Registered," or any word or phrase to that effect, are compulsorily registered, and a fee of fourpence is charged on delivery; but this gives no title to compensation. Money may be sent in a registered parcel, but no compensation will be given in respect of the loss or damage of such parcel or any of its contents. Every application for compensation should be made to the Secretary of the Post Office, London, Edinburgh, or Dublin, within seven days after the date on which the postal packet was posted. **Acknowledgment of Delivery.**—The sender of an inland registered letter, parcel, or other registered postal packet, may obtain an acknowledgment of its due delivery to the addressee by paying in advance, at the time of posting, a fee of 2*d.* in addition to the postage and registration fee. The sender must enter in the form provided for the purpose both his own name and address and the name and address of the person to whom the packet is sent, and he must also affix to the form a stamp of the value of 2*d.* in payment of the fee.

Foreign and Colonial Mails.—Letters per ½ oz. to certain British Possessions :—1*d.*, to all other places 2½*d.* Post Cards (single) :— 1*d.*, (reply) :—2*d.* Printed Papers (Newspapers, Books, etc) :—½*d.* per 2 oz. Commercial Papers :—½*d.* per 2 oz., with minimum charge of 2½*d.* Patterns and Samples :—½*d.* per 2 oz., with minimum charge of 1*d.*

Conditions.—No letter for a Colony or Foreign Country may exceed two feet in length or one foot in width or depth. The addresses of letters for Russia should by very plainly written; the name of the town, and of the province in which it is situated, should also be added in English, French, or German. Post Cards, single and reply, are transmissible to all parts of the world. Price: single cards 1*d.*, reply cards 2*d.* Inland Post Cards are rendered transmissible abroad by affixing an additional ½*d.* stamp. Private Post Cards are also transmissible abroad provided they are in conformity with the official Post Card, and must have the words "Post Card" printed on the address side without the Royal arms. The reply halves of private double cards must bear in print the words "Post Card—Great Britain and Ireland" and "Reply." Plain cards without any

printed inscription cannot be sent abroad. Nothing must appear on the face of a Post Card but the stamps required for postage, postal direction (such as Registered, Acknowledgment of Delivery, etc.) the name and address of the recipient in writing, or on a gummed label not exceeding in size 2 inches by ½ inch, and the name and address of the sender.

Private Box or Bag.—A Private Box can be rented at any Head Post Office, the charge varying from one guinea a year at the smaller offices, to £3 a year at some of the larger offices. Also the charge for a Town Private Bag is usually one guinea a year; but the charge for the conveyance of a Private Bag conveyed upon Rural Posts differs according to the nature of the service and the weight of the bag when empty.

Letters for Soldiers, and Seamen in H.M.S.—(1) Non-commissioned officers, schoolmasters, schoolmistresses, private soldiers, seamen, writers in His Majesty's Navy, whether serving on sea or land, in a British possession or Foreign Country, the Cape Mounted Rifles, and enrolled pensioners in Canada, can send and receive prepaid letters *not exceeding the weight of half an ounce* for a postage of 1*d.*; but if any such letters have to pass through a foreign country they are subject, in addition, to the foreign postage, whatever that may be. When sent by private ship, such letters are in addition liable to the captain's gratuity. The person claiming the privilege must at the time be actually employed in the service of His Majesty, and must not be either a Commissioned Officer or Warrant Officer in the army, or an assistant engineer, gunner, boatswain, or carpenter in the navy, the privilege not extending to these officers. (2) The name of the soldier or seaman, with his class or description, must appear in the direction; and the officer having the command must sign his name and specify the ship or regiment, corps, or detachment to which the soldier or seaman belongs, the name of the ship or regiment being entered in full. The foregoing particulars must be given in one of the following forms:—

Seamen.

From *A.B.*, Seaman, H.M.S.———
(*Here the direction of the Letter to be inserted*)
C.D., Captain (*or other Commanding Officer*),
H.M.S.———

To *A.B.*
Seaman, H.M.S.———
(*Here the direction of the Letter to be finished.*)

Soldiers.

From *A.B.*, Sergeant, &c.—Regt.———
(*Here the direction of the Letter to be inserted*)
C.D., Colonel (*or other Commanding Officer*),
Regt.———

To *A.B.*,
Private (*or* Sergeant, Corporal, &c.)—
Regt.———
(*Here the direction to be finished.*)

Letters for Passengers on board Mail Packets.—Special arrangements are made for the delivery of letters addressed to passengers on board the packets for America calling at Queenstown, the packets for Canada calling at Londonderry, the Royal Mail Company's packets for Brazil, etc., calling at Lisbon, the Peninsular and Oriental packets from Brindisi with mails for Egypt, India, Australia, China, etc., and the Orient packets from Naples with mails for Australia. Such letters may be posted in any part of the United Kingdom up to the time at which ordinary *registered* letters to go by the same packets are received, but they must be *registered*, the postage and registration fee must be fully prepaid, and they must be addressed to the care of the Commander of the packet. The letters should be addressed thus: "Mr.———, on board the mail packet———, for———, at Queenstown, Londonderry, Lisbon, Brindisi, or

Naples, care of the Commander of the packet."

Letters, etc. by Private Ships.—Letters intended to be sent by Private Ship must be addressed "By Private Ship;" and if by a particular vessel, the name of the ship must be added. The Postage and conditions of transmission of letters, etc. by a Private Ship are the same as by Mail Packet.

Foreign and Colonial Registration.—There are a few countries where no arrangements for Registration exist. To some countries an article can be registered only to the port of arrival. Registration is applicable equally to letters, post cards, newspapers, book packets, and patterns addressed to places abroad. The sender of a registered article addressed to any Foreign Country or British Colony in the Postal Union, or to Bechuanaland, or Orange River Colony, may obtain an acknowledgment of its delivery to the addressee on paying a fee of 2½*d.* as well as the registration fee, in advance, at the time of registration. The name and address of the sender must be left at the Post Office at which the article is registered. Every letter must be placed in a strong cover securely fastened. It is forbidden to send coin, jewellery, or precious stones to several foreign countries.

Re-direction.—Free re-direction is adopted throughout the Postal Union and is subject to certain restrictions:—Letters, etc., re-directed after delivery at the first address, must be reposted not later than the day (Sundays and public holidays not being counted) after delivery. Any which may appear to have been opened will be liable to charge as freshly posted unpaid letters or packets. Whenever thought necessary a receipt may be required from the addressee of a re-directed letter or packet at the second address. All parcels sent by parcel post are chargeable with fresh postage if re-directed. All registered letters or packets, on being re-directed, must be taken back to the Post Office to be dealt with as registered, and must not be dropped into a letter box as ordinary letters or packets. Letters for commissioned officers, non-commissioned officers, private soldiers, or seamen in the Army or Navy on actual service, are exempt from any charge for re-direction, and are not subject to the usual restriction as to time for reposting. Letters, etc., returned to the senders that they may rectify or complete the address are not, when reposted, treated as re-directed, but as liable to fresh postage.

Undelivered Correspondence.—Undelivered correspondence of all kinds returned to this country from places abroad is disposed of in the same manner as inland correspondence.

Foreign and Colonial Parcel Post Regulations.—(1). The maximum dimensions allowed are as follows:—Parcels for British Possessions (except Canada), Beyrout, Colombia, Constantinople, Costa Rica, Egypt, Jeddah, Hawaii, Siam, Smyrna, Tangier.—Greatest length, 3 ft. 6 in.; greatest length and girth combined, 6 fr. For European countries (except Spain, Portugal viâ Spain, Greece and Turkey), and for Japan, Liberia, and Madeira.—Greatest length, breadth, or depth, 2 ft. For other Foreign countries.—Greatest length, 2 ft.; greatest length and girth combined, 4 ft. For Canada.—Greatest length, 2 ft.; greatest breadth or depth, 1 ft. (2). Dangerous and offensive articles, and contraband articles (a list of which can be seen at any Post Office) must not be sent by means of the Parcel Post. Parcels exceeding 50*l.* in value are not transmissible to Aden, India, Egypt, St. Helena, Ascension, the Cape of Good Hope, Natal and Zanzibar. (3). Foreign and Colonial Parcels must not be handed to a Rural Postman or a Mail Cart Driver. (4). One declaration or more of the contents and their value must accompany every parcel. Customs duty is collected on delivery. (5). Parcels for Foreign Countries, the Australian Colonies, South and Central Africa, Natal, Fiji, New Zealand, Jamaica, Mauritius, Seychelles, the Straits Settlements, and Trinidad, must not contain a letter. (6). Parcels for the under-mentioned Foreign Coun-

tries and British Possessions may be insured. Insurance is obligatory in the case of parcels addressed to these places containing coin, jewellery, watches or any article of gold or silver; Austria-Hungary, Azores (by sea to Lisbon), Belgium, Beyrout, Cameroons, China, Constantinople, Denmark, Egypt, Finland, France, Germany, Holland, Italy,* Luxemburg, Madeira, Montenegro, Norway, Portugal (by sea), Roumania, Servia, Smyrna, Sweden, Switzerland, Aden, Antigua, Ascension, Bahamas, Barbados, Bermuda, British Guiana, British North Borneo (as far as Sandakan), Ceylon, Cyprus, † Dominica, Falkland Islands, Gambia, Gibraltar, Grenada, Hong Kong, India, Labuan, Lagos, Mombasa, Montserrat, Nevis, Newfoundland, Niger Coast Protectorate, St. Helena, St. Kitts, St. Lucia, St. Vincent (West Indies), Straits Settlements (Malacca, Penang, Province Wellesley, and Singapore only), Tobago, Tortola, Trinidad, Zanzibar.

(7).

Fee.	Compensation.	Fee.	Compensation.
0/5	£12	1/5½	£72
0/7½	24	1/8	84
0/10	36	1/10½	96
1/0½	48	2/1	108
1/3	60	2/3½	120

These rates of insurance are *in addition to the ordinary postal rates.*

(8). No parcel can be insured for more than 120*l.* A parcel addressed to Holland, Italy, or Montenegro cannot be insured for more than 40*l.* or to Beyrout, Constantinople, Egypt viâ France, Finland, France, Italy viâ France, Roumania, Servia, Smyrna, and Switzerland viâ France, for more than 20*l.*

* No Compensation is given for fragile or perishable parcels damaged in Italy.

† No Compensation is given for parcels containing watches or jewellery lost or damaged in Cyprus.

(9). An Insured Parcel must be packed with special care and sealed with wax by the Sender. The sum for which it is insured, which must not exceed the real value of the contents, must be inscribed on the cover.

(10). There is at present no system of insurance for parcels exchanged with any Foreign Country or British Possession, except those mentioned in paragraph 6.

Express Delivery.

Postal Packets, Letters and Parcels are delivered by Express Messenger, under the following conditions:

Local Service.

Express throughout by being conveyed the entire distance by Special Messenger. In London they are accepted at about 260 Post Offices. In the Provinces they are accepted at all Post Offices from which there is a delivery of Telegrams, and are delivered in any part of the Town or Rural District.

Scale of Charges.

For a Letter, Packet, or other article the Express fee (including charges for omnibus, tramcar, railway, etc.) is:

For every mile or part of a mile 3d.

Ordinary Postage is not charged.

Special Conveyance.

Should the sender desire that a special conveyance be used, the actual cost of such conveyance will be charged in addition to the Express fee.

Public Conveyance.

If a public conveyance (*i.e.* railway, omnibus, tramcar, etc.) is not available in both directions and the distance exceeds two miles, or if the packet or packets exceed 20lbs. in weight (or 15 lbs. if a public conveyance is not avail-

able), the cost of a special conveyance will be charged in addition to the Express fee.

Foot Messenger.

A packet of not more than 5lbs. in weight may be delivered by a foot messenger up to any distance not exceeding three miles, and the fee of 3d. per mile will be charged. For a greater distance than three miles the cost of a special conveyance must be paid for, should a public conveyance not be available, in addition to the Express fee.

When several packets are tendered for delivery to one person, or for conveyance to a Post Office or Mail Train at a Railway Station to catch an outgoing Mail, or to a Railway Station for dispatch as Single Post Railway Letters, they should be tied by the sender into one parcel, which will be charged the Single Express fee of 3d. per mile. The weight of the parcel must not exceed 20lbs. (or 15lbs. if a public conveyance is not available) unless a special conveyance is used.

If several letters are tendered by one sender for delivery by the same messenger to different addresses or to different persons at the same address, the Express fee of 3d. per mile is charged for the full distance traversed in the delivery of all the Packets and an additional fee of 1d. for each article above one. The total number of Packets or Letters to be delivered by one Messenger must not exceed 10, the aggregate weight must not be more than 20lbs. (or 15lbs. if a public conveyance be not available) unless a special conveyance be used.

Conditions.—Hours of Posting 8.0 a.m to 8.0 p.m. In London, however, certain offices are open later. There is no Express Delivery on Sunday, Good Friday (except Scotland), or Christmas Day. The words "*Express Delivery*" must be boldly written by the sender above the address in the left hand corner of the cover. The delivering Messenger may take a **reply** or perform a **further express delivery service**, and the fee must be prepaid. The words "Wait Reply" or "Further Service" should be written above the address of the packet, and the messenger is allowed to wait for the reply 10 minutes free of charge, but after that time 2*d.* is charged for every quarter of an hour or part of that period. A Telegraph Messenger, on delivering a telegram may if desired take back to the Post Office where he is employed a Postal Packet for Express Delivery. The charge must be prepaid and the fee will be charged from the residence of the sender. **Letters** to be posted in the Late Fee Letter Boxes attached to the Mail Trains may be sent by Express Service to the Railway Station. If desired they can be met by an Express Messenger at the station of arrival provided the Mail Train is due during the hours for Telegraph business, and that the Postmaster of the nearest Telegraph Office is advised by Telegram. Such articles should be marked: "To be handed to Post Office Express Messenger at———Station." Under certain regulations a letter may be sent Express to a Railway Station, conveyed thence as a Railway letter and then be met by an Express Delivery Messenger at the Railway Station of its destination. Letters sent by Post can be delivered Express on arrival at Office of delivery. **Living Animals** may be accepted for express delivery, also **Liquids** in **Glass Bottles** though excluded from the ordinary post.

Express Delivery from Chief Offices.—Letters and Parcels transmitted by Mail in the regular course of Post from any Provincial Office to London can be delivered by Special Messenger from the General Post Office or other Chief District Office at which the bag containing the Letter or Parcel is first opened, thus gaining considerably in time of delivery. Similarly, Letters and Parcels addressed to any part of

the town or rural district served from a Provincial Head Post Office, can, if desired, be sent out for delivery by Special Messenger immediately on their arrival at the Head Office. **Fee.**—The Express Delivery Fee is chargeable subject to the same conditions as in the foregoing Service, and is calculated according to the distance of the address from the office from which delivery is actually made. In no case must a fee of less than 3*d.* be prepaid in addition to the Postage, and if the distance be over two miles, or in any case where a special conveyance is used, one half of the amount chargeable must be prepaid in stamps affixed to the letter or parcel. **Distinctive Marking.**—The words "*Express Delivery from Chief Office*" must be boldly and legibly marked above the address on the front of the cover of Letters and Parcels, and Letters must in addition be marked with a perpendicular line from top to bottom both on the front and back. Letters and Parcels for delivery in London should be marked "Express Delivery from General Post Office" or "Express Delivery from Head District Office," whichever is desired.

Special Delivery of Letters, etc., may be obtained by Express Service in advance of the ordinary Deliveries by Postmen upon application being made to the Postmaster or Chief Officer on duty.

Messengers called by Telephone or Private Wire.—Subscribers to the Telephone Exchanges of the Post Office, and Renters of private wires terminating at a Post Office, can use their wires for the purpose of summoning a Messenger for the Express Delivery of Letters or Parcels. The fees for such Express Service are charged to deposit account, and are calculated on the whole distance traversed by the Messenger from the Office from which he is summoned to the place of call and thence to the place of delivery.

International Express Service.—Arrangements have been made for the delivery by Special Messenger of letters, etc., marked "Express," despatched from this country to the under-mentioned foreign countries, and also for the delivery in the United Kingdom by Special Messenger of Express Letters, etc., received from those countries, viz.:—

Argentine Republic (Buenos Ayres, Rosario, and La Plata only).
Austria-Hungary.
Belgium.
Bosnia-Herzegovina (places served by a Post Office only).
Chili.
Denmark (places served by a Town Postman only).
France.
Germany.
Holland.
Italy.
Japan.
Liberia (Monrovia, Buchanan, Edina, Greenville, and Harper only).
Luxemburg.
Montenegro.
Paraguay (Asuncion only).
Portugal.
Salvador (San Salvador only).
Servia.
Siam (places served by a Post Office only).
Switzerland.

The letters, etc., intended for Express Delivery in any of these countries should be marked "Express," and be prepaid 3*d.* in addition to the postage. When the addressee resides in the immediate neighbourhood of a Post Office no charge will be made on delivery but when the place of address is beyond the limits of the ordinary Postal Delivery an additional charge will be levied in the country of destination at its Inland Express rate, allowance being made for the 3*d.* prepaid here by the Sender. Letters, etc. from these countries marked for Express Delivery, and prepaid and Express fee in addition to the postage, will be delivered by Express Messenger from the usual delivery office in London, or within a distance of one mile from the local Post Office in the provinces without further charge, but if Express Delivery is required to be made from the General Post Office or from a Head District

Office in London, at an address outside the ordinary delivery of such office, or beyond a distance of one mile from the local Post Office in the provinces, the charge will be at the same rate as for Inland Express letters, viz., 3*d.* a mile, and will be collected from the Addressee, but in consideration of the fee prepaid by the Sender 3*d.* will be deducted from the charge for the full distance.

Money Orders (Inland).—At every Post Office at which there is a Savings Bank, Money Orders can be obtained. The commission for these Orders is:—

For sums not exceeding £1 2*d.*
" " above £1 and not exc. £3 3*d.*
" " exc. £3 and not exc. £10 4*d.*

The person who purchases a Money Order must give his name and address, the name of the person to whom he wishes the money to be paid, and the office at which it is to be paid. A money order may be paid through a bank, in which case it may be crossed like a cheque.

Money Orders (Foreign).—Money can be sent by means of Foreign or Colonial Money Orders to India,* Hong Kong,† New Zealand, the United States, Australia, Canada, the Cape of Good Hope, to almost all our Colonies, and to the following Foreign Countries:—

Africa, East (German Possessions).
Africa, West (Cameroons and Togo, through Germany).
Austria.
Belgium.
Bosnia.
Bulgaria.
Chili.
Congo Free State.
Denmark, with Faroe Islands.
Danish West Indies.
Dutch East Indian Possessions.
Egypt.
Finland.
France (with Algeria).
German Empire.
Hawaii (Sandwich Islands).
Herzegovina.
Holland.
Hungary.
Iceland.
Italy (with offices on the Red Sea, and at Tripoli).
Japan.
Labuan.
Lamu (East Africa).
Luxemburg (Grand Duchy of).
Mombasa (East Africa).
New Guinea (German Protectorate of).
North Borneo (Sandakan and Kudat).
Norway.
Orange River Colony
Portugal (including Madeira and the Azores).
Roumania.
Salvador.
Sarawak (Borneo).
Siam.
Sweden.
Switzerland.
Transvaal.
Tunis.
United States.
Uruguay.
Tangier.
The Ottoman Towns of Adrianople, Beyrout, and Salonica.
The following places in Asia Minor and the Levant:—
Candia.
Canea (Khania, La Canee).
Chios (Khios).
Durazzo.
Jaffa.
Jerusalem.
Kaifa (Caiffa).
Kerassonde (Kèressoun).
Mitylene.
Prevesa.
Retimo.
Rhodes.
Samsoun.
Santi Quaranta (Sérandoz).
Thebizond (Trapezunt).
Valona.

BRITISH AGENCIES.

Constantinople.
Smyrna.

*Including agencies at Aden, Bagdad, Bunder Abbas, Bushire, Bassorah, Guadur, Jask, Linga, Muscat, and Zanzibar.

†Including agencies at Amoy, Canton, Foo Chow, Hankow, Hoihow, Ningpo, Shanghai, and Swatow.

Panama.

The commission for these Orders is:—

For sums not exceeding—

2*l.*	6*l.*	10*l.*
6*d.*	1*s.*	1*s.* 6*d.*

Telegraph Money Orders.—Money may be transmitted by Telegraph Money Order between all Post Offices in the United Kingdom authorised to transact Telegraph and Money Order business, with the exception that at those Offices which forward but do not deliver Telegrams, Telegraph Money Orders can be issued, but cannot be paid.

Charges for Telegraph Money Orders.—

The commission is:—	*s.*	*d.*
For sums not exceeding 3*l.* -	- 0	4
„ above 3*l.* and not exc. 10*l.* -	0	6

In addition to the commission, a charge is made at the ordinary Inland rate for the Official Telegram authorising payment at the Office of Payment and for the repetition thereof, the minimum being 9*d.* The telegraph charges only cover the cost of transmitting the Official Telegram of Advice to the Postmaster of the Office of Payment and its repetition. Any telegraphic communication which the Remitter may wish to despatch to the Payee must be paid for at the ordinary Inland rate, the minimum being 6*d.*

Postal Orders.—

Amount.	Poundage.	Amount.	Poundage.
6d.	½d.	11/-	1½d.
1/-		11/6	
1/6		12/-	
2/-	1d.	12/6	
2/6		13/-	
3/-		13/6	
3/6		14/-	
4/-		14/6	
4/6		15/-	
5/-		15/6	
5/6		16/-	
6/-		16/6	
6/6		17/-	
7/-		17/6	
7/6		18/-	
8/-		18/6	
8/6		19/-	
9/-		19/6	
9/6		20/-	
10/-			
10/6			

By the use of not more than five penny stamps affixed to the face of the Order, any broken amount may be made up. Perforated stamps cannot be accepted for the purpose. The person who sends one of these Orders *must fill in the name of the person to whom it is sent*, and, if he so wishes, he can also fill in the name of any particular Money Order Office, and the order will be cashed at that office and no other. No Postal Order will be paid, even though presented for payment by a Banker, unless the name of the Payee be inserted in the body of the Order. These orders should be cashed within three months of the last day of the month in which they are issued. The holder of a Postal Order may, in writing, on the face thereof, direct that payment be deferred for any period not exceeding 10 days; but in such case the name of some Money Order Office at which the Order shall be paid must be inserted in the body. Payment of the Order will then not be made until the period specified by the holder has elapsed. Every person before parting with an Order should preserve a note of the number of such Order. Postal Orders are now issued at all Money Order Offices in the United Kingdom, at the British Post Office at Constantinople, and in Malta, Gibraltar, India, Straits Settlements, Hong Kong, and Newfoundland. Such Postal Orders are paid at all Money Order Offices in the United Kingdom, and at the British Post Office, Constantinople. Payment is also made in Malta and Gibraltar provided the orders were issued in the United Kingdom or at the British Post Office, Constantinople.

Telegrams (Inland) Rates.—Rate for 12 words 6*d.*, every additional word ½*d.* Every word telegraphed is charged for, whether in addresses or text. Telegrams are now delivered free within three miles of the Terminal Office, or within the Town Postal Delivery of the Head Office when that delivery extends beyond three miles. Telegrams are now delivered free at all hours within the Metropolitan Postal District. **Porterage.**—When the address is beyond the Free delivery, porterage is charged at the

rate of 3*d.* per mile, or part of a mile, the charge being calculated from the Office door. For the arrangements for sending telegrams on Sundays in London, the reader is referred to pages 526—529, where a list of offices open on that day is given. The sender is liable for all charges incurred for delivery; which must, when practicable, be paid in advance; or a deposit given. **Telegrams to be forwarded** by *post* or *train* must bear the word "post" or "train" at the end of the address; and if sent per train a deposit of 1/- is taken to cover cost of conveyance. **Telegrams Repeated.**—*The receiver* of a telegram may have it repeated by depositing half the amount paid for its transmission to him. The cost of a *reply*, not exceeding forty-eight words in length may be prepaid. **Telegrams redirected** are liable to an additional charge. **Multiple Addresses.**—*Copies* of a telegram directed to more than one person in the same free delivery are delivered at an additional charge of two pence per copy, in addition to ½*d.* for each word in the address of the copy. Each London Postal District is regarded, for this purpose, as forming a separate delivery. Telegrams may be handed to *Rural Postmen* (but not to Town Postmen) on their way to a Telegraph Office; Telegrams may also be *posted* in a letter box and when collected will be transmitted free of extra charge. They should be legibly addressed "*Telegrams Immediate.*" *Unpaid* telegrams are not forwarded. **Late Telegrams.**—Postmasters may accept telegrams *after office hours* on certain conditions and by paying additional fees. **Combinations and Abbreviations.**—No combination of words is counted as one, with the exception of those which are ordinarily written as one, or coupled by hyphens, such as "sub-lieutenant," "alms-houses," "twopence," etc. All names of Towns and Villages in the United Kingdom are counted as one word, thus Malvern Wells and Upton Warren are chargeable as single words; but all other names are counted according to the number of words they contain, thus Drury Lane counts as two words. As exceptions, O'Neil, Macdonald, and De La Rue are counted as one word each. So also are names with the prefix St., but double names of persons (like Smith-Payne), althought written with a hyphen, are counted as two words. The abbreviations can't, won't, don't, and shan't are counted as one word; but there is a great risk of error. Words underlined, or placed in a parenthesis, or within inverted commas, two extra words are charged for. *Special instructions* may be written on the envelope, and are charged for as part of the message. The *sender* may have his message *cancelled.* Telegrams addressed to a Telegraph Office to be called for are kept two clear days. **Press Telegrams.**—Information respecting Press Telegrams may be obtained on application to the Secretary, General Post Office, London, E.C.

Weather Forecasts one day in advance of the weather in any one District not bordering on the Atlantic can be obtained by telegraph from the Meteorological Office on payment of 6*d.* in addition to the cost of a telegram and reply. The Meteorological Office is open between the hours of 8.30 a.m. and 8 p.m. on weekdays and between 6 p.m. and 8 p.m. on Sundays, and its telegraphic address is "Weather London."

Signalling Stations have been established by the Post Office, by Lloyds, and by others, at various points round the coasts of the United Kingdom, and telegrams to and from vessels passing such stations may be signalled when the vessels are passing. The charge for signalling the passing of a ship, at Hurst Castle, is 10*d.* and must be prepaid. The charges at other places vary in amount and are collected by Lloyds. All telegrams must in addition be prepaid at the ordinary rate.

Foreign Telegrams.—Foreign telegrams are divided into two classes—those written in plain language and those written in secret language. *Secret language* comprises (1) preconcerted language or code, only telegrams written in English,

French, German, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch and Latin are allowed; and (2) *cypher* composed wholly or in part of figures. Groups of letters not forming words are only admissible when they represent trade marks. Words of more than 10 letters are not allowed, but with telegrams in *plain language* the length allowed for a single word is 15 letters additional letters being charged for at the rate of 15 letters respectively to the word. *Compound words* and names of persons and places written without a break are counted as single words. If joined by a hyphen, or separated by an apostrophe, or other sign of punctuation, they are counted as so many separate words. In the *address* of a telegram the names of the place and country, province or district, for which the telegram is intended, are counted as single words, whatever their length. Every separate *figure* is charged for as one word, and every group of five figures is counted as one word, plus one word for any excess. Groups of letters denoting *trade marks* are counted like figures. *Bars* of division, decimal points, and stops used in numbers, are counted as figures, as are also letters added to figures to form ordinal numbers. *Addresses* should be written in French or the language of the country to which the telegrams are to be sent; and the full address of the addressee should be stated: the sender is held responsible for an incorrect or insufficient address. The senders of a telegram can *prepay a reply*. If the reply is to contain 10 words, the indication "R P" is inserted and charged for as one word; if it is to consist of more or less than 10 words, "RP——" are inserted and charged for as two words. More than 30 words cannot be prepaid. In telegrams to be *left until called for* at Telegraph Offices or at Post Offices, the words "*Telegraphe Restant*" or "*Poste Restant*" must be inserted as part of the receiver's address. *Multiple addresses*. A telegram addressed to several persons in the same town, or to the same firm at different localities in the same town, is charged for as a single telegram, and a sum of 5*d*. must be prepaid for every extra copy to be delivered if the number of chargeable words does not exceed 100; an additional sum of 5*d*. being charged for every additional 100 words or part of 100 words. In calculating the charge all the names and addresses are included. Telegrams having *Multiple addresses* are not accepted for *America*. Claims for *reimbursement* in the case of European telegrams are not entertained unless made within two months of the date of the original telegram; not in the case of Extra-European telegrams, unless made within six months.

Telegrams. Foreign.

(In no case is a lower sum than 10d accepted for a Telegram or Reply.)

Rates per word are as follows:—

EUROPEAN SYSTEM.

	s.	d.		s.	d.
Algeria	0	2½	Italy	0	3
Austria	0	3	Luxemburg	0	2½
Azores	0	9	Malta	0	6
Belgium	0	2	Montenegro	0	4
Bosnia — Herzegovina	0	4	Morocco	3½ to	5
Bulgaria & Eastern Roumelia	0	4	Norway	0	3
Canary Islands	0	9	Portugal	0	3½
Cyprus	1	7	Roumania	0	3½
Denmark	0	3	Russia-in-Europe	0	5½
France	0	2	Russia, Caucasus	0	5½
Germany	0	2	Servia	0	3½
Gibraltar	0	3½	Spain	3½ to	5½
Greece & Greek Islands	0	6½	Sweden	0	3½
Holland	0	2	Switzerland	0	3
Hungary	0	3	Tripoli	0	8½
			Tunis	0	2½
			Turkey	6½ to	11

West Africa:—

FRENCH COLONIES AND POSSESSIONS.

Dahomey	6	3	Ivory Coast	5/- to	5/2
French Congo	6	9	Senegal	1	5
French Guinea	4/6 to	4/7	Soudan (French)	1	5

GERMAN POSSESSIONS.

Togoland..5/11 to 6/6

PORTUGUESE POSSESSIONS.

Angola	8/6 to	10/10	Island of Principe	7	6
Bissao and Bolama	4	6	Island of St. Thomé	6	6

EXTRA EUROPEAN SYSTEM.

Aden	2	6	Bolivia	5	9
Alaska	3	10	British Borneo	4/10 to	5/3
Annan	5/- to	5/3	Boukhara	1	11
Argentine Republic	3/11 to	4/2	Brazil	3/- to	5/7
Ascension	2	6	British Central Africa (Nyassaland)	2	11
Australia	2/10 to	3/-	Burma	2/3 to	2/6
Bahamas	2	5			
Bermuda	2	6			

Canada.... 1/- to 3/2
Cape Colony.... 2 6
Cape Verd Islands ..2/2 to 3/1
Ceylon .... 2/4 to 2/7
Chili 5 9
China.....5/6 to 5/9
Cochin-China 4/3-4/6
Cocos 2 6
Colombia ..5/- to 5/9
Corea.....6/2 to 8/1
Costa Rica..... 4 2
Dutch East Indies 3/10 to 4/5
British East Africa ..2/6 to 2/10
German East Africa .. 2/8 to 3/1
Italian East Africa....2/7 to 2/8
Portuguese East Africa....2/6 to 3/-
Ecuador 5 9
Egypt.....1/7 to 2/6
Fanning Islands 2 6
Formosa.... 6/- to 6/2
Guatemala..3/1 to 3/4
British Guiana.. 7 0
Dutch Guiana .. 6 9
French Guiana.. 6 9
Hedjaz 3 9
Honduras (Independent) 3 9
India .....2/3 to 2 6
Japan .....6/2 to 7/9
Madagascar 3/2
Madeira 1 0

United States :—

Alabama 1 3
Arizona 1 6
Arkansas..... 1 5
California 1 6
Carolina 1 3
Colorado 1 5
Columbia..... 1 2
Connecticut .. 1 0
Dakota..... 1 5
Delaware..... 1 2
Florida....1/3 to 1/6
Georgia 1 3
Idaho 1 6
Illinois..... 1 3
Indiana 1 3
Indian Territory 1 5
Iowa 1 5
Kansas 1 5
Kentucky 1 3
Louisiana..1/3 to 1/5
Maine 1 0
Maryland 1 2
Massachusetts.. 1 0
Michigan..... 1 3
Minnesota..1/3 to 1/5
Mississippi 1 3
Missouri....1/3 to 1/5
Montana 1 5
Nebraska 1 5
Nevada 1 6
New Hampshire 1 0
New Jersey.. 1/-to1/2
New Mexico.... 1 5
New York..... 1 0
Ohio 1 3
Oklahoma Territory..... 1 5
Oregon 1 6
Pennsylvania .. 1 2
Rhode Island .. 1 0
Tennessee 1 3
Texas 1 5
Utah 1 6
Vermont 1 0
Virginia..... 1 3
Washington 1 3
Wisconsin..... 1 3
Wyoming 1 5

Uruguay..3/11 to 4/2
Venezuela..7/2 to 7/7
Malay Peninsula 3/4 to 3/6
Mauritius 2 6
Mexico .... 1/6 to 2/7
Muscat ....2/- to 2/3
Natal 2 6
New Caledonia 3/6-3/8
Newfoundland.. 1 0
New Zealand 2/10to3/-
Nicaragua 3/11 to 4/2
Norfolk Island.. 3 0
Obock .... 2/7 to 2/9
Orange River Colony 2 6
Paraguay 3/11 to 4/2
Perim..... 2 6
Persia .... 1/6 to 1/9
Persian Gulf.2/- to 2/3
Peru 5 9
Philippine Islnds. 5/7 to 6/-
Rhodesia(Northern)..... 2 11
Rhodesia (Southern)..... 2 8
Rodriguez 2 6
Russia in Asia1/-to1/3
St. Helena..... 2 6
St. Pierre and Miquelon 1 6
Sandwich Islands 3 0
Salvador....3/6 to 3/7
Seychelles Islands 2 6
Siam .... 3/10 to 4/10
Tasmania ..2/10 to 3/-
Tonquin....5/5 to 5/6
Transvaal 2 6

West Africa :—

Bathurst 3/6
Gold Coast..5/7 to 5/9
Cameroons 6 5
Nigeria ....6/3 to 6/5
Sierra Leone.... 4 6
Swakopmund .. 2 8

West Indies :—

Antigua..... 4 4
Barbados 4 9
Cuba .....1/8 to 1/10
Curacao 6 9
Dominica 4 2
Grenada..... 4 8
Guadeloupe 5 2
Hayti .....5/4 to 7/5
Jamaica..... 3 0
Les Saintes 5 2
Marie Galante.. 5 2
Martiniqne 5 2
Porto Rico 4 2
Curacao 6 9
St. Croix 5 3
Dominica 4 2
San Domingo .. 6 6
Grenada..... 4 8
St. Kitts..... 4 8
Guadeloupe 5 2
St. Lucia 4 6
Hayti .....5/4 to 7/5
St. Thomas 5 0
Jamaica..... 3 0
St. Vincent 4 7
Les Saintes 5 2
Trinidad 5 1
Marie Galante.. 5 2
Turks Island .. 3 0

Yemen 3 1
Zululand 2 6

Abbreviated Addresses, for Telegrams.—Any person may register an abbreviated or arbitrary address on payment of a fee of 1*l.* 1*s.* a year, dating from the day of registration. The address must consist of two words, one of which is to be the town or place of delivery. Telegrams intended to be delivered to the care of a person who has registered an abbreviated address must have "care of" "c/o" written before the abbreviated address, thus, "Smith care of Hercules London." The symbol "c/o" counts as one word.

Ordnance Survey Maps may now be obtained through upwards of 700 Head Post Offices where specimen maps are on exhibition.

Inland Revenue Stamps.—Impressed Bill Stamps of the respective value of 1*d.*, 2*d.*, 3*d.*, 6*d.*, 9*d.*, and 1*s.*; Civil Service, and Judicature Fee Stamps, are sold at all Head Post Offices in England (they can also be obtained through any Money Order Office in Ireland or Scotland); also Inland Revenue Stamps of all kinds.

Postage stamps are in future to be used instead of adhesive Inland Revenue stamps of the value of 1*d.*, 2*d.*, 3*d.*, 6*d.*, 9*d.*, 1*s.*, and 2*s.*, 6*d.*, to denote the duties payable on documents requiring Excise Stamps.

Licenses.—1. Excise Licenses are issued at all Money Order Offices in England and Scotland, as follows :—

	£	*s.*	*d.*
Dogs	0	7	6

	£	s.	d.
Guns	0	10	0
Private Brewers (not for sale)	0	4	0
Do. (do.)	0	9	0

2. (Issued at all Money Order Offices in England).

	£	s.	d.
Male Servants	0	15	0
Carriages (other than Hackney Carriages) with four or more wheels, and drawn, or adapted or fitted, to be drawn, by two or more horses or mules, or drawn or propelled by mechanical power	2	2	0
Ditto ditto ditto 1st Oct. to 31st Dec.	1	1	0
Carriages with four or more wheels, and drawn or fitted to be drawn by one horse or mule only	1	1	0
Ditto ditto ditto 1st Oct. to 31st Dec.	0	10	6
Carriages with less than four wheels	0	15	0
Ditto ditto 1st Oct. to 31st Dec.	0	7	6
Armorial Bearings, if worn or used, and painted on or affixed to Carriage	2	2	0
Armorial Bearings, if not on Carriage	1	1	0

3. Game and Gamekeepers' Licenses are issued at the London Head District Post Offices and at some Money Order Offices in the Provinces, viz.:—

	£	s.	d.
Game 1st Aug. to 31st July	3	0	0
„ 1st Aug. to 31st Oct.	2	0	0
„ 1st Nov. to 31st July	2	0	0
„ occasional, available for 14 days.	1	0	0
Gamekeepers	2	0	0

The Post Office Savings Bank.—There are more than 11000 Post Office Savings Banks open every week day; in the Country between 8.0 a.m. and 8.0 p.m. and in London the hours can be ascertained from the window notice exhibited at each Post Office. A person can only have one Savings Bank account at one time, but when he has opened an account he can use his deposit book to deposit or withdraw at any Post Office transacting Savings Bank business in the United Kingdom and Ireland. Any person who cannot attend at a Post Office to sign the usual declaration form may desire a friend to obtain such a form and when it has been filled up by the intended depositor on presenting the form and the money at a Post Office an account will be opened. Husband and wife may have separate accounts. Children over the age of 7 may also open accounts on their own behalf, and the parents or friends of children under 7 may open accounts for them. A person may open an account as Trustee for another person if the latter is not already a depositor; and two or more persons who are not depositors may open an account in their joint names. **Limits and Conditions of Deposits.**—Any sum from a shilling up to £50, excluding pence, may be deposited at one time. The annual limit in one year (ending 31st December) is £50. Beyond this a person can only replace money withdrawn during the year. No deposit can be made which will increase the amount due to over £200. A Charitable or Provident Society or Club may deposit beyond these limits; but application accompanied by a copy of its Rules should first be made to the Controller of the Savings Bank Department, General Post Office, London. An acknowledgment for every deposit is made from the Savings Bank Department. This can be addressed where he pleases or to a Post Office to be called for. For savings of less than one shilling, a form

can be obtained and postage stamps affixed. Perforated stamps cannot be accepted. Interest on ordinary deposits is allowed at the rate of £2.10.0 per cent per annum on every complete pound up to £200. A depositor can at any time withdraw part or the whole of his deposits. He has only to fill up and sign a Notice of Withdrawal, and forward it by post to the Controller who will at once send him a warrant. Deposits may be withdrawn by telegraph up to £10 in one day or by "return of post" payable on the following day up to £20. The cost of the telegrams being paid by the depositor. Applications by telegraph should be made between the hours of 9.0 a.m. and 4.0 p.m. or Saturdays 9.0 a.m. and 1.0 p.m. at any Post Office Savings Bank which is also a Telegraph Office.

Penny Banks.—Encouragement is also given in the establishment of Penny Banks in connection with the Post Office Savings Bank, and aid is afforded to those concerned in their management by furnishing them with—1. Specimen rules for such institutions. 2. Deposit Books, or cards, free of charge, to be issued gratuitously to the Depositors. 3. Cash Books and Ledgers at cost price. Full information in regard to these matters may be obtained from the Controller of the Savings Bank Department.

Other Advantages.—Among other advantages of the Post Office Savings Bank the following may be mentioned:—*a.* For the purpose of aiding thrift, Postal Orders, Money Orders, and Cheques are received for deposit, but they must not be crossed to a particular Bank. *b.* No postage need be paid on any letter or other communication sent by post to the Controller of the Savings Bank Department. *c.* The strictest secrecy in regard to Savings Bank transactions is observed by the officials of the Post Office. *d.* A depositor over 16 years of age may, without expense, nominate any person or persons to receive his deposits in the event of his death, and such nomination may take effect to the extent of 100*l.* *e.* In the event of the death of a depositor, whether he has made a nomination or not, his deposits are payable to his representatives upon the necessary evidence being furnished in support of the claim.

Government Stock. Investments.—A depositor may buy Government Stock without any trouble beyond filling up a form of application, and sending a form with his Deposit Book to the Savings Bank Department. Such forms may be obtained at any Post Office Savings Bank. There are four kinds of Stock in which investments may be made, namely:—2¾ per cent. Consols (1903); 2¾ per cent. Stock (1905); 2½ per cent. Stock; and Local Loans 3 per cent. Stock.

Any sum from 1*s.* upwards may be invested in Stock at one time at the current price of the day, and any number of investments may be made in the course of a year (ending 31st December) up to a limit of 200*l.* Stock, and, beyond this, Stock may be bought to replace the amount of one sale in the year. A person may have 500*l.* Stock in all, in addition to 200*l.* on deposit.

Dividends.—The dividends on Stock become due quarterly. The Post Office Savings Bank will collect these for the dispositor without charge, and will place them to the credit of his deposit account, where they can remain and bear interest like deposits.

Commission.—The commission of the purchase or sale of Stock is as follows:

	s.	*d.*
On Stock not exceeding 25*l.*	0	9
Exceeding 25*l.*, but not exc. 50*l.*	1	3
„ 50*l.* „ 75*l.*	1	9
„ 75*l.* „ 100*l.*	2	3

Beyond this a charge of 6*d.* is made for each additional 100*l.* Stock or part of 100*l.* Stock. The commission can be paid in as part of a deposit, or it can be taken from deposits made previously.

Life Insurance.—Any man or woman between 14 and 65 years of age can effect a Life Insurance for any sum from £5 to £100. Children between 8 and 14 years of age can be insured for £5. Insurances may be effected

by the payment of a lump sum, or by the payment of annual premiums. An Insurance may be effected on the life of a man or woman, payable—(1) At death, (2) On the attainment of the age of 55, 60, or 65 years or sooner if death occurs before that age is reached, and (3) On the expiration of 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, or 40 years, or sooner in the event of death The following examples show various ways in which Insurances may be effected:—The life of a male or female between 24 and 25 years of age may be insured for 10*l.*—By an annual payment throughout life of £0 4*s.* 4*d.* (1*d.* a week) or, By an annual payment to the age of 60 of £0 4*s.* 10*d.* or, By a single payment of £4 9*s.* 0*d.* Proposal Forms can be obtained at any Post Office Savings Bank. When the amount to be insured does not exceed £25 Medical Examination may not be required, but should the Insurant die before the second premium has been paid the amount of the first premium only will be paid to his representatives; and if he should die before the third premium becomes payable, half the amount insured, only, will be paid to his representatives. If after having paid not less than two annual premiums an insurant should be unable to continue, or should desire to discontinue, the payments, such portion of the premiums as the National Debt Commissioners shall specify will be returned. Any person, not under the age of 16 years, to whom an Insurance is granted may nominate a person to receive the money due at death, and a form of nomination, with full instructions as to filling it up, can be obtained upon application to the Controller, Savings Bank Department, General Post Office, London. Permission is granted to persons over 30 years of age who have been insured five years to reside in any part of the world without the payment of any extra premium. A Friendly or Provident Society can make arrangements with the Post Office for effecting Life Insurances for its members.

Annuities or **Old Age Pay.**—Immediate annuities or old age pay can be bought at any Post Office Savings Bank provided that the person on whose life the Annuity is to depend is not less than five years of age. Proposal forms can be obtained at any Post Office Savings Bank. By the payment of a lump sum an Annuity from £1 to £100 can be secured for life. The sums payable vary with the age and sex of the person on whose life the Annuity is to depend. Any two persons may purchase an Immediate Annuity on their joint lives, with or without the continuance of the Annuity to the survivor. **Old Age Pay** (Deferred Annuities), may be secured by the payment of a lump sum or by annual premiums, Old Age Pay from £1 up to £100 a year, to commence at a particular age may be purchased. The premiums vary with the age and sex of the person on whose life the Annuity is to depend, with the number of years which are to pass before the commencement of the Old Age Pay, and with the conditions of the contract as to the return or non-return of the purchase money. Payments for Old Age Pay are made through the Post Office Savings Bank, and are accepted in addition to both Ordinary Deposits and Investments in government sock. A friendly or Provident Society can purchase Old Age Pay for its members.

Some of the *advantages* of the Post Office system of *Life Insurances* and *Old Age Pay* are that there is direct *Government Security* for the payment of the money at the proper time. The cost of a *Certificate of Birth* may be avoided by furnishing a statement giving such particulars of age as can be verified by the Registrar General for England. In the case of Insurance, the Insurant, if not under 16 years of age, may *nominate* free of charge a person to receive the money at his death. Insurances for sums not exceeding £25 are granted *without medical examination* under certain conditions. If an Insurant after having paid two annual premiums, *cannot pay any more* the surrender value of the policy is returned, or a paid up policy will be granted to him.

Private Wires and Telephone

Exchanges.—A line of private wire between the place of business or residence of a firm or private individual and a Postal Telegraph Office, or between two or more places of business or residence, may be rented.

Besides receiving from and sending to the Postal Telegraph Office his messages by wire instead of by hand, the renter has the privilege of sending messages over his private wire to be forwarded from the Post Office as ordinary *letters*, or of calling a messenger for the Express delivery of a letter or parcel.

In any town where a sufficient number of wires are led into the Head Postal Telegraph Office, a Telephone Exchange can be formed, and messages transmitted by one renter to another *direct* without the necessity for repetition at the Postal Telegraph office.

Greenwich mean time is supplied by electric current every hour in the day in London, and at either 10 or 1 o'clock to places in the country.

The list of charges and the regulations can be consulted at any Post office.

Trunk Telephone Lines.—Where Post Office Telephone Exchanges in different towns are connected by Trunk lines, such lines may be used for conversation by local subscribers and the general public on payment of the following charges:

For	25 miles or under	threepence.
"	50 "	sixpence.
"	75 "	ninepence.
"	100 "	one shilling.
For every additional 40 miles or fraction thereof		sixpence.

The same charges are made to a subscriber to a Telephone Exchange worked under license from the Postmaster-General and connected with the Post Office Trunk system. But when the conversation is between such a subscriber and a subscriber to a Post Office Telephone Exchange in either direction, the following additional charges, which also apply to conversations between Call Offices, are made:—

When the Trunk wire charge for three minutes conversation does not exceed 1/6, threepence. When the charge exceeds 1/6 but does not exceed 3/-, fourpence. When the charge exceeds 3/-, sixpence.

The period of conversation is limited to three minutes, but any person may secure an uninterrupted use of a Trunk line for six minutes by prepaying a double fee.

London-Paris Telephone.—Public Call Offices.—General Post Office West (Bath Street), open always; West Strand Branch Office, open always; and Threadneedle Street Branch Post Office (near Royal Exchange), open on week-days, 8.0 a.m. to 8.0 p.m.

Charge, 8*s.* per conversation of three minutes. *

Hours for Telegraph Business.—Telegraph Offices (with the exception of Town Sub-Offices in London and other large towns) are, as a rule, open from 8 a.m. to 8 p.m. on Week days. On Sundays the hours of attendance are usually from 8 a.m. to 10 a.m. in England, and from 9 a.m. to 10 a.m. in Scotland and Ireland. Certain Offices are open longer, and information as to the hours at those Offices can be obtained at any Telegraph Office.

Hours for Postal Business. Country.—All provincial Post Offices, whether in town or country, are open for every description of business on week days (Bank Holidays excepted) from 8 a.m to 8 p.m. In all offices which are open to the Public for a longer period, viz., from 7 a.m. to 10 p.m. (including Head and Country Sub-Offices generally) the sale of postage stamps, registration of letters, etc., and acceptance of parcels, is continued during all the hours in which they are so open; unless the offices are open for telegraph business only, in which case the sale of postage stamps only is continued. Town Sub-Offices are open to the Public from 8 a.m. to 8 p.m. In those places, however, where one afternoon in the week is observed as a half-holiday Town Sub-Offices are

* In making appointments for conversations with correspondents bear in mind that Paris time is 10 minutes in advance on London time.

in many cases closed early. **London.**—Postage stamps and stamped envelopes are sold on week days at the Chief Office, St. Martin's-le-Grand, between the hours of 6.45 a.m. and 10 p.m., and at other Post Offices in the London District between the hours of 8 a.m. and 8 p.m. Postage stamps and stamped envelopes can also be purchased during exceptional hours on week days and on Sunday at Post Offices open for Telegraph business. Inland Revenue Stamps and Licenses are sold at all Post Offices in London between the hours of 8.0 a.m. and 8.0 p.m on week days. Postal Orders are sold and paid at any Post Office which is a Money Order Office during the time the Office is open on week days for the sale of stamps. Business relating to Money Orders, Savings Banks, Investments and Sales of Government Stock, Annuity and Insurance, etc., is transacted on week days at the Chief Office between 6.45 a.m. and 10.0 p.m., and at other offices in the Eastern Central District between 8 a.m. and 8 p.m., at the District Offices, the Branch and Sub-Offices in the other Town Districts between 10 a.m. and 4 p.m., at Branch Offices in the Western and South-Western Surburban Districts between 10 a.m. and 5 p.m., at Branch Offices in other Suburban Districts between 9.30 a.m. and 5 p.m.; and at Sub-Offices in the Suburban Districts generally between 9 a.m. and 6 p.m. Savings Bank *Deposits* are received however at all the District Offices and Branch and Sub-Offices which are Money Order Offices, during the hours the Offices are open on week days for the sale of Stamps, commencing at 8 a.m.

TELEGRAPH ARRANGEMENTS IN LONDON ON SUNDAYS.

Name of Office.	Hours of Attendance. From	To	From	To
	A.M.	A.M.	P.M.	P.M.
*Anerley Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.).....		Train times.		
*Battersea Park Rail. Stn. (L.B.S.C.R.).....		Train times.		
*Balham Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.).....	8 0	10 30	6 0	9 0
*Bermondsey (South) Ry. Stn. (L.B.S.C.R.).....		Train times.		
*Blackheath Railway Station (S.E.R.).....	8 0	10 0	3 0	6 0
*Blackheath Hill Railway Stn. (L.C.D.R.).....	9 0	10 0	6 0	8 0
Blackheath Village, B.O.....	8 0			8 0
Bow, B.O. (near the Church).....	8 0			10 0
*Brockley Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.).....		Train times.		
Camberwell Green, B.O.....	8 0			10 0
Camden Road, 57, B.O.....	8 0			8 0
*Cannon Street Railway Station (S.E.R.).....	8 0	10 0		
*Catford Bridge Railway Station (S.E.R.).....		Train times.		
*Catford Railway Station (L.C.D.R.).....	9 0	10 0	6 0	8 0
Central Telegraph Office (cr. of Newgate St.)...		Open always.		
*Charing Cross Railway Station (S.E.R.).....	7 30	11 0	2 0	11 0
Clapham Common, B.O. (near High St.).....	8 0			10 0
Clapham Junction, Queen's Parade.....	8 0	10 0	5 0	5 0
		P.M.		
*Clapham Junction Rail. Stn. (L.B.S.C.R.).....	8 0	12 30	4 30	11 0

Name of Office.	Hours of Attendance. From	To	From	To
	A.M.	A.M.	P.M.	P.M.
*Crofton Park Railway Stn. (L.C.D.R.)	9 0	10 0	6 0	8 0
*Crystal Palace Rail. Station (L.B.S.C.R.)	8 0	10 0	6 0	10 0
*Crystal Palace Rail. Station (L.C.D.R.)	9 0	10 0	6 0	8 0
*Denmark Hill Rail. Stn. (L.B.S.C.R.)	Train times.			
*Deptford Railway Station (S.E.R.)	Train times.			
*Dulwich Railway Station (L.C.D.R.)	9 0	10 0	6 0	8 0
Ealing District Office	8 0	10 0	5 0	6 0
*East Brixton Railway Stn. (L.B.S.C.R.)	Train times.			
*East Dulwich Rail. Station (L.B.S.C.R.)	Train times.			
Eastern District Office, 195, Whitechapel Rd.	8 0			8 0
Euston Square B.O.	8 0			10 0
*Euston Railway Station (L.N.W.R.)	Midnght. (Sat.)	8 0		
Fleet Street, B.O.			8 0	A.M. 1 0 (Monday)
*Forest Hill Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.)	Train times.			
Fulham Road, 262, B.O.	8 0			10 0
*Gipsy Hill Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.)	Train times.			
Greenwich (Nelson Street), B.O.	8 0			10 0
*Greenwich Railway Station (S.E.R.)	Train times.			
*Grove Park Railway Station (S.E.R.)	Train times.			
Hammersmith (Broadway), B.O.	8 0			8 0
Hampstead Green, B.O.	8 0			8 0
‡Hendon Railway Station (Mid. R.)	9 0	10 0		
*Hither Green Rail. Station (S.E.R.)	Train times.			
Holloway (Parkhurst Road), B.O.	8 0			10 0
*Honor Oak Park Rail. Station (L.B.S.C.R.)	Train times.			
Kensington (Young Street), B.O.	8 0			8 0
‡Kentish Town Railway Station (Mid. R.)	9 0	10 0		
*Kidbrooke Railway Station (S.E.R.)	Train times.			
Kilburn, B.O. (56, High Road)	8 0			8 0
†King's Cross Railway Station (G.N.R.)	P.M. (Midnght. (Sat.))	1 30	2 30	10 0
Kingsland, High Street, B.O.	8 0			10 0
*Ladywell Railway Station (S.E.R.)	Train times.			
*Lee Railway Station (S.E.R.)	Train times.			
*Lewisham Railway Station (S.E.R.)	Train times.			
*Lewisham Road Railway Station (L.C.D.R.)	A.M. 9 0	10 0	6 0	8 0
*Liverpool Street Railway Station (G.E.R.)	Open always.			
*London Bridge Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.)	7 0			11 0
‡London Bridge Railway Station (S.E.R.)	Open always.			
*Lower Sydenham Railway Station (S.E.R.)	Train times.			
*Ludgate Hill Railway Station (L.C.D.R.)	9 0	10 0	6 0	8 0
*Maze Hill Railway Station (S.E.R.)	Train times.			
*Merton Abbey Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.)	Train times.			
*Merton, Haydon's Road Rail. Stn. (L.B.S.C.R.)	Train times.			
*Merton Park Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.)	Train times.			

Name of Office.	Hours of Attendance. From	To	From	To
	A.M.	A.M.	P.M.	P.M.
*New Cross Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.).....	8 0			8 0
		P.M.		
*New Cross Railway Station (S.E.R.).....	8 0	1 0	3 0 / 6 0	5 0 / 10 0
*Norbury Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.).....		Train times.		
*North Dulwich Rail. Stn. (L.B.S.C.R.).....		Train times.		
Northern D.O. (46 Essex Road).....	8 0			8 0
Norwood D.O. (Westow Street).....	8 0			10 0
		A.M.		
*Norwood Junction Rail. Stn. (L.B.S.C.R.).....	Midnight (Sat.)	10 30	1 0 / 1 0	3 0 / 10 30
Notting Hill, B.O. (near Archer Street).....	8 0			10 0
*Nunhead Railway Station (L.C.D.R.).....	9 0	10 0	6 0	8 0
*Old Kent Road Rail. Stn. (L.B.S.C.R.).....		Train times.		
Paddington (Spring Street), B.O.....	8 0			8 0
‡Paddington Railway Station (G.W.R.).....		Open always.		
*Peckham, Queen's Road Rail. St. (L.B.S.C.R.).		Train times.		
*Peckham Rye Rail. Station (L.B.S.C.R.).....		Train times.		
*Penge Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.).....		Train times.		
*Penge Railway Station (L.C.D.R.).....	9 0	10 0	6 0	8 0
Poplar, B.O. (King Street).....	8 0			8 0
Putney, B.O. (near Railway Station).....	8 0	10 0	5 0	6 0
§Royal Albert Docks, B.O.....	8 0			4 0
*St. John's Railway Station (S.E.R.).....		Train times.		
St. John's Wood Terrace, B.O.....	8 0			10 0
*St. Pancras Railway Station (Mid. R.).....		Open always.		
*Selhurst Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.).....		Train times.		
South Eastern D.O. (239, Boro' High Street)...	8 0			8 0
South Kensington (Exhibition Road).....	8 0			8 0
South Western D.O. (Howick Pl., Victoria St.).	8 0			8 0
Stratford (Martin Street), B.O.....	8 0			8 0
*Stratford Railway Station (G.E.R.).....		Open always.		
*Streatham Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.).....		Train times.		
*Streatham Common Rail. Stn. (L.B.S.C.R.)....		Train times.		
*Streatham Hill Rail. Stn. (L.B.S.C.R.).....		Train times.		
*Sydenham Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.).....		Train times.		
*Tooting Junction Rail. Stn. (L.B.S.C.R.).....		Train times.		
Tottenham, White Hart Lane.....	8 0	10 0	5 0	6 0
*Tulse Hill Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.).....		Train times.		
*Upper Sydenham Rail. Stn. (L.C.D.R.).....	9 0	10 0	6 0	8 0
*Victoria Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.).....	7 0			11 0
*Victoria Railway Station (L.C.D.R.).....		Open always.		
Walthamstow (Orford Road).....	8 0	10 0		
*Wandsworth Common Railway St. (L.B.S.C.R.).		Train times.		
‡Waterloo Railway Station (L. & S.W.R.).....	8 0			11 0
*Westcombe Park Rail. Station (S.E.R.).....		Train times.		
Western D.O. (3, Vere Street).....	8 0			8 0
Western Central D.O., 126, High Holborn....	8 0			8 0
*West Norwood Rail. Stn. (L.B.S.C.R.).....		Train times.		

Name of Office.	Hours of Attendance. From	To	From	To
	A.M.	A.M.	P.M.	P.M.
West Strand B.O., 448, Strand.....	Open always.			
*Willesden Junction Rail. Stn. (L.N.W.R.).....	Open always.			
Wimbledon, Sub-Office (nr. Railway Stn.).....	8 0	10 0	5 0	6 0
*Wimbledon Railway Station (L.B.S.C.R.).....	Train times.			
Wood Green, High Street.....	8 0	10 0		
*Woodside Railway Station (S.E.R.).....	Train times.			

* These offices do not deliver off Station premises.
‡ These offices are open for collection, but not for delivery.
§ Open until 6 p.m. from 1st May to 30th September.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Avoirdupois Weight.—The standard of the Imperial pound avoirdupois is a cylinder of platinum in the custody of the Warden of the Standards. The weight of this cylinder equals that of 7000 grains and is the legal standard by which weights, and measures used as equivalents to weights, are tested. Avoirdupois weight is used generally in weighing all metals, except silver and gold—all household stores, groceries, chandleries, bread, meat, and vegetables when sold by weight. It is used also by carriers in weighing and determining the freight of goods sent by road, rail, or water.

TABLE.

27 11/32	Grains	equal 1	Dram.
16	Drams	„ 1	Ounce
16	Ounces	„ 1	Pound
14	Pounds	„ 1	Stone
2	Stones	„ 1	Quarter
4	Quarters	„ 1	Cwt.
20	Cwt.	„ 1	Ton (2240 lbs.)
100	Pounds	„ 1	Central

A stone of eight pounds is used in the London meat market.

Troy Weight is used in weighing gold, silver, precious stones, amber, etc. It is also used in weighing liquids. The ounce and pound Troy are the same as the ounce and pound Apothecaries weight, but the latter are divided and sub-divided differently. Standard gold for coinage is 22 carats of fine gold and 2 carats of copper fused. Standard silver for coinage is 11 oz. 2 dwts. of fine silver mixed with 18 dwts. of alloy. Troy weight bears the proportion of 14 to 17 Avoirdupois, a pound Troy containing 5,760 grains and a pound Avoirdupois 7000.

TABLE.

4 Grains equal 1 Carat
6 Carats „ 1 Pennyweight
20 Pennyweight (480 Grains) equal 1 Ounce
12 Ounce (5760 Grains) equal 1 Pound.

Apothecaries' Weight.—Up to the year 1864 the old apothecaries' weight was used in compounding medicines, but in that year the General Medical Council of the United Kingdom directed the discontinuance of the ounce Troy in favour of the ounce Avoirdupois as the standard for Apothecaries' weight. The council also directed the discontinuance of the drachm and scruple in medical prescriptions. Under this arrangement

437½ grains equal 1 ounce
7000 „ (16 oz.) equal 1 pound.

Avoirdupois weight is used in the sale and purchase of drugs, but the old measures are still sometimes used in dispensing, and are therefore appended.

TABLE.

20 Grains equal 1 Scruple
3 Scruples „ 1 Drachm
8 Drachms „ 1 Ounce
12 Ounces „ 1 Pound

Wool Weight is always used in the weighing of wool. The weight of a stone differs in different places and in the weighing of different classes of goods; English woolstaplers give 15 lbs. to the stone to allow for waste; Irish wool-staplers 16 lbs. The terms tod, wey, sack, and last, are now almost obsolete, wool being generally sold by pounds and stones.

TABLE.

7	Pounds	equal	1	Clove
2	Cloves	„	1	Stone
2	Stones	„	1	Tod
6½	Tods	„	1	Wey
2	Weys	„	1	Sack
12	Sacks	„	1	Last
20	Pounds	„	1	Score
12	Score (240 lbs.)	„	1	Pack

Coal Weight.—Coals are sold by Avoirdupois weight in the following measures:

TABLE.

1 Cwt.	equal	1	Small sack
2 „	„	„	Double sack
10 Stone	„	1	Bag
4 Bags	„	5	Cwt.
16 Bags	„	1	Ton
21 Tons 4 cwt.	„	1	Barge or Keel
20 Keels (424 tons)	„	1	Ship load

Coke Measure.—Coke is sold by measure.

TABLE.

4 Bushels	equal	1	Sack
12 Sacks	„	1	Chaldron
21 Chaldrons	„	1	Score.

Hay and Straw are sold by weight in the form of trusses or loads.

TABLE.

36 Pounds	equal	1	Truss of straw
56 „	„	1	Truss of old hay
60 „	„	1	„ „ new hay
36 Trusses	„	1	Load.

Measures of Extension are of three kinds: **Linear**, having regard to length of line; **Superficial**, having regard to area of surface, and **Solid**, having regard to volume of body in things having length, breadth, and depth. The standard unit, as determined by the "Weights and Measures Act," of 1878, is the Imperial Standard yard, defined as "The straight line between the centres of two gold plugs in a certain bronze bar deposited in the Standards department of the Board of Trade, when the bar is at a temperature of 62°, Fahrenheit's thermometer." One thirty-sixth of this measure is an inch, which may be taken as the unit for short measurements. The inch is divided into eight parts or eighths for trade purposes, into twelve parts or lines by engineers, and into tenths and hundredths by scientists.

Long or Linear Measure is used for measuring distances, lengths, heights, and depths.

TABLE.

12 Inches	equal	1	Foot.
3 Feet	„	1	Yard.
5½ Yards	„	1	Rod, Pole or Perch.
7 Yards	„	1	Irish Perch.
40 Poles	„	1	Furlong.
8 Furlongs or 1760 Yards	„	1	Statute Mile.
3 Miles	„	1	League.

OTHER LINEAR MEASUREMENTS.

4	Inches	equal	1	Hand.
9	Inches	„	1	Span.
18	„	„	1	Cubit.
2½	Feet	„	1	Milit. pace.
5	„	„	1	Geometric. pace.
6	„	„	1	Fathom.
2000	Yards	„	1	Scotch Yard.
2240	Yards	„	1	Irish mile.
2026 Yards or 1 1760/2026 Statute Miles		„	1	Geograph. or Naut-Mile.
60 Geograph. Miles or 69.09 Statute Miles		„	1	Degree.

360 Degrees equal the circumference of the Globe.

Hands are used in measuring the height of horses, Fathoms in measuring the depth of the sea.

Nautical Measures are used in measuring distances at sea.

TABLE.

6 Feet	equals	1 Fathom.

8 Fathoms	equals	1 Log line.
120 Fathoms or 240 Yards	„	1 Cable's length.
1000 Fathoms	„	1 Knot.

Cloth Measure is used in measuring linens, woollens, silks, cloths, muslins, ribands, tapes, tapestry, etc. Scotch and Irish linens are measured by the yard, Dutch linens by the English ell, tapestry by the Flemish ell.

TABLE.

2¼ Inches	equal	1 Nail.
4 Nails (9 inches)	„	1 Quarter.
3 Quarters (27 ins.)	„	1 Flemish Ell.
4 Quarters (36 ins.)	„	1 Yard.
4 Quarters 1 inch (37 ins.)	„	1 Scotch Ell.
5 Quarters (45 ins.)	„	1 English Ell.
6 Quarters (54 ins.)	„	1 French Ell.

Linen Yarn or **Thread Measure** is as follows:

TABLE.

2½ yards	equal	1 Thread.
300 yds. 120 thrds	„	1 Lea or Cut.
12 Leas	„	1 Hank.
16 Hanks (60,000yds.)	„	1 Bundle.

Cotton yarn is measured by its own scale.

120 Yards	equal	1 Skein or Lea.
7 Skeins or Leas	„	1 Hank.
20 Hanks (16,800 Yrds	„	1 Doffing or Reed.

Worsted yarn has also a measure of its own.

TABLE.

80 Yards	equal	1 Skein
7 Skeins	„	1 Hank
144 Hanks	„	1 Gross

Square or Surface Measure is used in the measurement of land and other superficial areas.

TABLE.

144 Square Inches	equal	1	Square	Foot
9 „ Feet	„	1	„	Yard
30¼ „ Yards	„	1	„	Pole
40 „ Poles	„	1	Rood	
4 Roods or 4840 Square yards	„	1	Acre	
640 Acres	„	1	Square	Mile

OTHER MEASURES.

22 yards or 100 Links	equal	1 Chain of land
80 Chains or 1,760 Yards	„	1 Statute Mile
10,000 Sq. Links	equal	1 Square Chain
2½ Sq. Chains	„	1 Rood
10 Sq. Chains	„	1 Acre

Cubic or **Solid Measure** is used in measuring bodies having length, breadth, and depth.

1728 Cubic inches	equal	1	Cubic Foot
27 „ feet	„	1	„ Yard

Measure of capacity.—The standard measure of capacity as determined by Act of Parliament is "the Gallon, containing ten Imperial standard pounds weight of distilled water, weighed in air against brass weights with the water and the air at 62° Fahrenheit's thermometer, and with the barometer at 30 in"—41 and 42 Vict., 15. The act further stipulates that "In using an Imperial measure of capacity, the same shall not be heaped, but either shall be stricken with a round stick or roller straight and of the same diameter from end to end; or, if the article sold cannot, from its size or shape, be conveniently stricken, shall be filled in all parts as nearly to the level of the brim as the size and shape of the article will admit." The Gallon was formerly said to equal 277.274 Cubic inches, but more recent calculations give it as equal to 277.123 cubic inches.

Liquid Measure is used in measuring liquids, and Troy weight in weighing them.

TABLE.

4 Gills	equal	1 Pint
2 Pints	„	1 Quart
4 Quarts	„	1 Gallon

Ale and Beer Measure is used in the measurement of malt liquids:

TABLE.

2 Pints	equal	1 Quart
4 Quarts	„	1 Gallon
9 Gallons	„	1 Firkin
2 Firkins (18 gals.)	equal	1 Kilderkin
2 Kilderkins (36 gals.)	„	1 Barrel
1½ Barrels (54 gals.)	„	1 Hogshead

Dry Measure is used for all kinds of grains—wheat, barley, oats, peas, etc.

TABLE.

4 Gills	equal	1	Pint
2 Pints	„	1	Quart
2 Quarts	„	1	Pottle
2 Pottles	„	1	Gallon
2 Gallons	„	1	Peck
4 Pecks	„	1	Bushel
4 Bushels	„	1	Sack, or Coomb
8 Bushels	„	1	Quarter
5 Quarters	„	1	Load

Flour Measure is used in measuring flour. A sack of flour will make 90 four-pound loaves.

TABLE.

14 pounds		equal 1	Peck
56 „		„ 1	Bushel
140 „		„ 1	Boll
196 „		„ 1	Barrel
224 „	(2 cwts.)	„ 1	Bag
280 „	(2½ cwts.)	„ 1	Sack

Miscellaneous Weights and Measures.

Aum of hock wine... =	30 gals.
Bag of coffee ..... =	1¼ to 1½ cwt.
„ hops ..... =	about 2½ „
„ rice ..... =	about 1½ „
Bale of coffee (Mocha) =	2 to 2½ „
„ cotton ..... =	200 to 500 lbs.
„ flax (Russia) .=	5 to 6 cwt.
Barrel of beef..... =	200 lbs.
„ butter ..... =	224 „
„ flour..... =	196 „
„ gunpowder .=	100 „
„ herring .... =	500 her.
„ raisins ..... =	112 lbs.
„ soap (soft).. =	256 „
„ tar ..... =	26¼ gals.
Box of raisins..... =	56 lbs.
„ salmon ..... =	120 to 130 „
Butt of sherry ..... =	108 gals.
Case of mace ..... =	about 1½ cwt.
Cask of clover ..... =	7 to 9 „
„ raisins ..... =	1 to 2½ „
„ rice (Amer.) .=	6 „
Chest of soap..... =	3½ „
„ tea, Congou.=	about 84 lbs.
„ „ Hyson..=	60 to 80 „
Drum of figs ..... =	24 lbs.
Firkin of beef ..... =	100 „
„ butter ..... =	56 „
„ soap ..... =	64 „
Fodder of lead..... =	19½ cwt.
Frail of figs ..... =	32 to 56 lbs.
Gallon of salt..... =	7 „
„ oil..... =	9 „
Hogshead of brandy .=	60 gals.
„ rum....=	45 to 50 „
„ sugar...=	13 to 16 cwt.
Load of bricks..... =	500 bricks.
„ tiles..... =	1000 tiles.
Loaf (quartern)..... =	4 lbs.
Mat of flax (Dutch)..=	126 „
Pig of Lead ..... =	273 „
Pipe of Port wine ..=	115 gals.
„ Madeira.....=	92 „
Pocket of hops..... =	1½ to 2 cwt.
Puncheon of brandy..=	100 to 110 gals.
„ rum ....=	90 to 100 „
„ whisky..=	about 120 „
Quintal of fish ..... =	112 lbs.
Quire of paper..... =	24 sheets
Ream of writing paper =	20 quires, or 480 sheets.
„ printing paper ..... =	516 „
Robin of coffee ..... =	1 to 1½ cwt.
Roll of parchment... =	60 skins.
Sack of clover ..... =	2 to 3½ cwt.
„ flour ..... =	280 lbs.
Stone of glass..... =	5 lbs.
Seam of glass ..... =	120 „
Seron of almonds.... =	1¼ to 2 cwt.
Tierce of coffee ..... =	5 to 7 „
„ sugar..... =	7 to 9 „
Tub of butter..... =	84 lbs.

Arithmetical Signs.

\+ Plus; Sign of Addition.
— Minus; Sign of Subtraction.
× Sign of Multiplication.
÷ Sign of Division.
= Sign of Equality.
: : : : Sign of Proportion.
$\sqrt{}$ Sign of the Square Root.
$\sqrt[3]{}$ Sign of the Cube Root.
° Degree, 'minute, "second.
∴ Therefore

UNIVERSAL INTEREST TABLE.

Showing the Interest, to the 100th part of a farthing, on any Sum from £1 to £1,000,000 for any number of days at any rate per cent.

	£	s.	d.	f.	100ths		£	s.	d.	f.	100ths
1	0	0	0	2	3	50,000	136	19	8	2	85
2	0	0	1	1	26	60,000	164	7	8	0	22
3	0	0	1	3	89	70,000	191	15	7	1	59
4	0	0	2	2	52	80,000	219	3	6	0	96
5	0	0	3	1	15	90,000	246	11	6	0	32
6	0	0	3	3	78	100,000	273	19	5	1	70
7	0	0	4	2	41	200,000	547	18	10	3	40
8	0	0	5	1	4	300,000	821	18	4	1	9
9	0	0	5	3	67	400,000	1095	17	9	2	79
10	0	0	6	2	30	500,000	1369	17	3	0	49
20	0	1	1	0	60	600,000	1643	16	8	2	19
30	0	1	7	2	90	700,000	1917	16	1	3	89
40	0	2	2	1	21	800,000	2191	15	7	1	59
50	0	2	8	3	51	900,000	2465	15	0	3	29
60	0	3	3	1	81	1,000,000	2739	14	6	0	99
70	0	3	10	0	11						
80	0	4	4	2	41						
90	0	4	11	0	71						
100	0	5	5	3	1						
200	0	10	11	2	3						
300	0	16	5	1	4						
400	1	1	11	0	5						
500	1	7	4	3	7						
600	1	12	10	2	8						
700	1	18	4	1	10						
800	2	3	10	0	11						
900	2	9	3	3	12						
1,000	2	14	9	2	14						
2,000	5	9	7	0	27						
3,000	8	4	4	2	41						
4,000	10	19	2	0	55						
5,000	13	13	1	2	68						
6,000	16	8	9	0	82						
7,000	19	3	6	2	96						
8,000	21	18	4	1	10						
9,000	24	13	1	3	23						
10,000	27	7	11	1	37						
20,000	54	15	10	2	74						
30,000	82	3	10	0	11						
40,000	109	11	9	1	48						

The Rule.—Multiply the number of £ upon which the interest is to be calculated by the number of days, and then multiply this product by the rate of interest, strike out the last two figures to the right hand and find from the table the interest on the remaining figures.

EXAMPLE.—What is the interest of £271 for 90 days at 7 per cent. per ann.?

Multiply £271
by 90 number of days

24390

then multiply 24390
by 7 rate of interest

170730

strike out last 2 figures 1707$\frac{30}{100}$, and in the table against 1000 you find

	£	s.	d.	f.	100ths
1000	2	14	9	2	14
700	1	18	4	1	10
7	0	0	4	2	41
	£4	13	6	1	65

This universal Interest Table by Mr. Alfred Fryer is from *Everybody's Pocket Cyclopedia*, by permission of Messrs. Saxon & Co.

VALUE OF FOREIGN MONEY IN ENGLISH COINAGE.

No.	UNITED STATES. 100 Cents = 1 Dollar.			FRANCE. 100 Centimes = 1 Franc.			HOLLAND. 100 Cents = 1 Florin.			AUSTRIA. 100 Kreutzers = 1 Florin.			RUSSIA. 100 Copecs = 1 Rouble.			GERMAN EMPIRE. 100 Pfennings = 1 Mark.			SPAIN. 20 Reals Vellon = 1 Dollar.			INDIA. 16 Annas = 1 Rupee.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1		4	1¼			9½		1	8		1	11¼		3	1½			11¾		4	2		1	10¼
2		8	2¾		1	7		3	4		3	10½		6	3		1	11½		8	4		3	8½
3		12	4		2	4½		5	0		5	9½		9	4½		2	11¼		12	6		5	6¼
4		16	5¼		3	2		6	8		7	8¾		12	6		3	11		16	8		7	5¾
5	1	0	6½		3	11½		8	4		9	8		15	7½		4	10¾	1	0	10		9	3
6	1	4	8		4	9		10	0		11	7		18	9		5	10½	1	5	0		11	1½
7	1	8	9¼		5	6½		11	8		13	6¾	1	1	10½		6	10¼	1	9	2		12	11¾
8	1	12	10½		6	4		13	4		15	5½	1	5	0		7	10	1	13	4		14	10
9	1	16	11¾		7	1½		15	0		17	4½	1	8	1½		8	9¾	1	17	6		16	8¼
10	2	1	1		7	11¼		16	8		19	3¾	1	11	3		9	9½	2	1	8		18	6½
20	4	2	2¼		15	10¼	1	13	4	1	18	7½	3	2	6		19	7	4	3	4	1	17	1
30	6	3	3¼	1	3	9¼	2	10	0	2	17	11	4	13	9	1	9	4½	6	5	0	2	15	7½
40	8	4	4½	1	11	8½	3	6	8	3	17	2¾	6	5	0	1	19	2	8	6	8	3	14	2
50	10	5	5¾	1	19	7¾	4	3	4	4	16	6½	7	16	3	2	8	11½	10	8	4	4	12	8½
60	12	6	6¾	2	7	6¾	5	0	0	5	15	10	9	7	6	2	18	9	12	10	0	5	11	3
70	14	7	8	2	15	6	5	16	8	6	15	1½	10	18	9	3	8	6½	14	11	8	6	9	9½
80	16	8	9¼	3	3	5¼	6	13	4	7	14	5½	12	10	0	3	18	4	16	13	4	7	8	4
90	18	9	10¼	3	11	4¼	7	10	0	8	13	9	14	1	3	4	8	1½	18	15	0	8	6	10½
100	20	10	11½	3	19	3½	8	6	8	9	13	0½	15	12	6	4	17	11	20	16	8	9	5	5
200	41	1	11	7	18	7	16	13	4	19	6	1¼	31	5	0	9	15	10	41	13	4	18	10	10
300	61	12	10½	11	17	10¾	25	0	0	28	19	2	46	17	6	14	13	9	62	10	0	27	16	3
400	82	3	10	15	17	2¼	33	6	8	38	12	2½	62	10	0	19	11	8	83	6	8	37	1	8
500	102	14	9½	19	16	6	41	13	4	48	5	3	78	2	6	24	9	7	104	3	4	46	7	1
600	123	5	9	23	15	9½	50	0	0	57	18	4	93	15	0	29	7	6	125	0	0	55	12	6
700	143	16	8½	27	15	1	58	6	8	67	11	4	109	7	6	34	5	5	145	16	8	64	17	11
800	164	7	8	31	14	4¾	66	13	4	77	4	5	125	0	0	39	3	4	166	13	4	74	3	4
900	184	18	7½	35	13	8¼	75	0	0	86	17	6	140	12	6	44	1	3	187	10	0	83	8	9
1000	205	9	7	39	13	0¼	83	6	8	96	10	6	156	5	0	48	19	2	208	6	8	92	14	2

At 1 Farthing.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	0¼
2	0	0	0½
3	0	0	0¾
4	0	0	1
5	0	0	1¼
6	0	0	1½
7	0	0	1¾
8	0	0	2
9	0	0	2¼
10	0	0	2½
11	0	0	2¾
12	0	0	3
13	0	0	3¼
14	0	0	3½
15	0	0	3¾
16	0	0	4
17	0	0	4¼
18	0	0	4½
19	0	0	4¾
20	0	0	5
21	0	0	5¼
22	0	0	5½
23	0	0	5¾
24	0	0	6
25	0	0	6¼
26	0	0	6½
27	0	0	6¾

No.	£	s.	d.
28	0	0	7
29	0	0	7¼
30	0	0	7½
31	0	0	7¾
32	0	0	8
33	0	0	8¼
34	0	0	8½
35	0	0	8¾
36	0	0	9
37	0	0	9¼
38	0	0	9½
39	0	0	9¾
40	0	0	10
41	0	0	10¼
42	0	0	10½
43	0	0	10¾
44	0	0	11
45	0	0	11¼
46	0	0	11½
47	0	0	11¾
48	0	1	0
49	0	1	0¼
50	0	1	0½
51	0	1	0¾
52	0	1	1
53	0	1	1¼
54	0	1	1½
55	0	1	1¾
56	0	1	2
57	0	1	2¼

No.	£	s.	d.
58	0	1	2½
59	0	1	2¾
60	0	1	3
61	0	1	3¼
62	0	1	3½
63	0	1	3¾
64	0	1	4
65	0	1	4¼
66	0	1	4½
67	0	1	4¾
68	0	1	5
69	0	1	5¼
70	0	1	5½
71	0	1	5¾
72	0	1	6
73	0	1	6¼
74	0	1	6½
75	0	1	6¾
76	0	1	7
77	0	1	7¼
78	0	1	7½
79	0	1	7¾
80	0	1	8
81	0	1	8¼
82	0	1	8½
83	0	1	8¾
84	0	1	9
85	0	1	9¼
86	0	1	9½
87	0	1	9¾

No.	£	s.	d.
88	0	1	10
89	0	1	10¼
90	0	1	10½
91	0	1	10¾
92	0	1	11
93	0	1	11¼
94	0	1	11½
95	0	1	11¾
96	0	2	0
97	0	2	0¼
98	0	2	0½
99	0	2	0¾
100	0	2	1
110	0	2	3½
112	0	2	4
120	0	2	6
130	0	2	8½
140	0	2	11
144	0	3	0
150	0	3	1½
160	0	3	4
170	0	3	6½
180	0	3	9
190	0	3	11½
200	0	4	2
210	0	4	4½
220	0	4	7
230	0	4	9½
240	0	5	0
250	0	5	2½

No.	£	s.	d.
256	0	5	4
272	0	5	8
300	0	6	3
365	0	7	7½
400	0	8	4
500	0	10	5
600	0	12	6
700	0	14	7
750	0	15	7½
800	0	16	8
900	0	18	9
1000	1	0	10
1100	1	2	11
1200	1	5	0
1250	1	6	0½
1300	1	7	1
1400	1	9	2
1500	1	11	3
2000	2	1	8
3000	3	2	6
4000	4	3	4
5000	5	4	2
6000	6	5	0
7000	7	5	10
8000	8	6	8
9000	9	7	6
10000	10	8	4
20000	20	16	8
25000	26	0	10
50000	52	1	8

At 1 Halfpenny.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	0½
2	0	0	1
3	0	0	1½
4	0	0	2
5	0	0	2½
6	0	0	3
7	0	0	3½
8	0	0	4
9	0	0	4½
10	0	0	5
11	0	0	5½
12	0	0	6
13	0	0	6½
14	0	0	7
15	0	0	7½
16	0	0	8
17	0	0	8½
18	0	0	9
19	0	0	9½
20	0	0	10
21	0	0	10½
22	0	0	11
23	0	0	11½
24	0	1	0
25	0	1	0½
26	0	1	1
27	0	1	1½

No.	£	s.	d.
28	0	1	2
29	0	1	2½
30	0	1	3
31	0	1	3½
32	0	1	4
33	0	1	4½
34	0	1	5
35	0	1	5½
36	0	1	6
37	0	1	6½
38	0	1	7
39	0	1	7½
40	0	1	8
41	0	1	8½
42	0	1	9
43	0	1	9½
44	0	1	10
45	0	1	10½
46	0	1	11
47	0	1	11½
48	0	2	0
49	0	2	0½
50	0	2	1
51	0	2	1½
52	0	2	2
53	0	2	2½
54	0	2	3
55	0	2	3½
56	0	2	4
57	0	2	4½

No.	£	s.	d.
58	0	2	5
59	0	2	5½
60	0	2	6
61	0	2	6½
62	0	2	7
63	0	2	7½
64	0	2	8
65	0	2	8½
66	0	2	9
67	0	2	9½
68	0	2	10
69	0	2	10½
70	0	2	11
71	0	2	11½
72	0	3	0
73	0	3	0½
74	0	3	1
75	0	3	1½
76	0	3	2
77	0	3	2½
78	0	3	3
79	0	3	3½
80	0	3	4
81	0	3	4½
82	0	3	5
83	0	3	5½
84	0	3	6
85	0	3	6½
86	0	3	7
87	0	3	7½

No.	£	s.	d.
88	0	3	8
89	0	3	8½
90	0	3	9
91	0	3	9½
92	0	3	10
93	0	3	10½
94	0	3	11
95	0	3	11½
96	0	4	0
97	0	4	0½
98	0	4	1
99	0	4	1½
100	0	4	2
110	0	4	7
112	0	4	8
120	0	5	0
130	0	5	5
140	0	5	10
144	0	6	0
150	0	6	3
160	0	6	8
170	0	7	1
180	0	7	6
190	0	7	11
200	0	8	4
210	0	8	9
220	0	9	2
230	0	9	7
240	0	10	0
250	0	10	5

No.	£	s.	d.
256	0	10	8
272	0	11	4
300	0	12	6
365	0	15	2½
400	0	16	8
500	1	0	10
600	1	5	0
700	1	19	2
750	1	11	3
800	1	13	4
900	1	7	6
1000	2	1	8
1100	2	5	10
1200	2	10	0
1250	2	12	1
1300	2	14	2
1400	2	18	4
1500	3	2	6
2000	4	3	4
3000	6	5	0
4000	8	6	8
5000	10	8	4
6000	12	10	0
7000	14	11	8
8000	16	13	4
9000	18	15	0
10000	20	16	8
20000	41	13	4
25000	52	1	8
50000	104	3	4

At 3 Farthings.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	0¾
2	0	0	1½
3	0	0	2¼
4	0	0	3
5	0	0	3¾
6	0	0	4½
7	0	0	5¼
8	0	0	6
9	0	0	6¾
10	0	0	7½
11	0	0	8¼
12	0	0	9
13	0	0	9¾
14	0	0	10½
15	0	0	11¼
16	0	1	0
17	0	1	0¾
18	0	1	1½
19	0	1	2¼
20	0	1	3
21	0	1	3¾
22	0	1	4½
23	0	1	5¼
24	0	1	6
25	0	1	6¾
26	0	1	7½
27	0	1	8¼
28	0	1	9
29	0	1	9¾
30	0	1	10½
31	0	1	11¼
32	0	2	0
33	0	2	0¾
34	0	2	1½
35	0	2	2¼
36	0	2	3
37	0	2	3¾
38	0	2	4½
39	0	2	5¼
40	0	2	6
41	0	2	6¾
42	0	2	7½
43	0	2	8¼
44	0	2	9
45	0	2	9¾
46	0	2	10½
47	0	2	11¼
48	0	3	0
49	0	3	0¾
50	0	3	1½
51	0	3	2¼
52	0	3	3
53	0	3	3¾
54	0	3	4½
55	0	3	5¼
56	0	3	6
57	0	3	6¾
58	0	3	7½
59	0	3	8¼
60	0	3	9
61	0	3	9¾
62	0	3	10½
63	0	3	11¼
64	0	4	0
65	0	4	0¾
66	0	4	1½
67	0	4	2¼
68	0	4	3
69	0	4	3¾
70	0	4	4½
71	0	4	5¼
72	0	4	6
73	0	4	6¾
74	0	4	7½
75	0	4	8¼
76	0	4	9
77	0	4	9¾
78	0	4	10½
79	0	4	11¼
80	0	5	0
81	0	5	0¾
82	0	5	1½
83	0	5	2¼
84	0	5	3
85	0	5	3¾
86	0	5	4½
87	0	5	5¼
88	0	5	6
89	0	5	6¾
90	0	5	7½
91	0	5	8¼
92	0	5	9
93	0	5	9¾
94	0	5	10½
95	0	5	11¼
96	0	6	0
97	0	6	0¾
98	0	6	1½
99	0	6	2¼
100	0	6	3
110	0	6	10½
112	0	7	0
120	0	7	6
130	0	8	1½
140	0	8	9
144	0	9	0
150	0	9	4½
160	0	10	0
170	0	10	7½
180	0	11	3
190	0	11	10½
200	0	12	6
210	0	13	1½
220	0	13	9
230	0	14	4½
240	0	15	0
250	0	15	7½
256	0	16	0
272	0	17	0
300	0	18	9
365	1	2	9¾
400	1	5	0
500	1	11	3
600	1	17	6
700	2	3	9
750	2	6	10½
800	2	10	0
900	2	16	3
1000	3	2	6
1100	3	8	9
1200	3	15	0
1250	3	18	1½
1300	4	1	3
1400	4	7	6
1500	4	13	9
2000	6	5	0
3000	9	7	6
4000	12	10	0
5000	15	12	6
6000	18	15	0
7000	21	17	6
8000	25	0	0
9000	28	2	6
10000	31	5	0
20000	62	10	0
25000	78	2	6
50000	156	5	0

At 1 Penny.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	1
2	0	0	2
3	0	0	3
4	0	0	4
5	0	0	5
6	0	0	6
7	0	0	7
8	0	0	8
9	0	0	9
10	0	0	10
11	0	0	11
12	0	1	0
13	0	1	1
14	0	1	2
15	0	1	3
16	0	1	4
17	0	1	5
18	0	1	6
19	0	1	7
20	0	1	8
21	0	1	9
22	0	1	10
23	0	1	11
24	0	2	0
25	0	2	1
26	0	2	2
27	0	2	3
28	0	2	4
29	0	2	5
30	0	2	6
31	0	2	7
32	0	2	8
33	0	2	9
34	0	2	10
35	0	2	11
36	0	3	0
37	0	3	1
38	0	3	2
39	0	3	3
40	0	3	4
41	0	3	5
42	0	3	6
43	0	3	7
44	0	3	8
45	0	3	9
46	0	3	10
47	0	3	11
48	0	4	0
49	0	4	1
50	0	4	2
51	0	4	3
52	0	4	4
53	0	4	5
54	0	4	6
55	0	4	7
56	0	4	8
57	0	4	9
58	0	4	10
59	0	4	11
60	0	5	0
61	0	5	1
62	0	5	2
63	0	5	3
64	0	5	4
65	0	5	5
66	0	5	6
67	0	5	7
68	0	5	8
69	0	5	9
70	0	5	10
71	0	5	11
72	0	6	0
73	0	6	1
74	0	6	2
75	0	6	3
76	0	6	4
77	0	6	5
78	0	6	6
79	0	6	7
80	0	6	8
81	0	6	9
82	0	6	10
83	0	6	11
84	0	7	0
85	0	7	1
86	0	7	2
87	0	7	3
88	0	7	4
89	0	7	5
90	0	7	6
91	0	7	7
92	0	7	8
93	0	7	9
94	0	7	10
95	0	7	11
96	0	8	0
97	0	8	1
98	0	8	2
99	0	8	3
100	0	8	4
110	0	9	2
112	0	9	4
120	0	10	0
130	0	10	10
140	0	11	8
144	0	12	0
150	0	12	6
160	0	13	4
170	0	14	2
180	0	15	0
190	0	15	10
200	0	16	8
210	0	17	6
220	0	18	4
230	0	19	2
240	1	0	0
250	1	0	10
256	1	1	4
272	1	2	8
300	1	5	0
365	1	10	5
400	1	13	4
500	2	1	8
600	2	10	0
700	2	18	4
750	3	2	6
800	3	6	8
900	3	15	0
1000	4	3	4
1100	4	11	8
1200	5	0	0
1250	5	4	2
1300	5	8	4
1400	5	16	8
1500	6	5	0
2000	8	6	8
3000	12	10	0
4000	16	13	4
5000	20	16	8
6000	25	0	0
7000	29	3	4
8000	33	6	8
9000	37	10	0
10000	41	13	4
20000	83	6	8
25000	104	3	4
50000	209	6	8

At 1 Penny 1 Farthing.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	1¼
2	0	0	2½
3	0	0	3¾
4	0	0	5
5	0	0	6¼
6	0	0	7½
7	0	0	8¾
8	0	0	10
9	0	0	11¼
10	0	1	0½
11	0	1	1¾
12	0	1	3
13	0	1	4¼
14	0	1	5½
15	0	1	6¾
16	0	1	8
17	0	1	9¼
18	0	1	10½
19	0	1	11¾
20	0	2	1
21	0	2	2¼
22	0	2	3½
23	0	2	4¾
24	0	2	6
25	0	2	7¼
26	0	2	8½
27	0	2	9¾
28	0	2	11
29	0	3	0¼
30	0	3	1½
31	0	3	2¾
32	0	3	4
33	0	3	5¼
34	0	3	6½
35	0	3	7¾
36	0	3	9
37	0	3	10¼
38	0	3	11½
39	0	4	0¾
40	0	4	2
41	0	4	3¼
42	0	4	4½
43	0	4	5¾
44	0	4	7
45	0	4	8¼
46	0	4	9½
47	0	4	10¾
48	0	5	0
49	0	5	1¼
50	0	5	2½
51	0	5	3¾
52	0	5	5
53	0	5	6¼
54	0	5	7½
55	0	5	8¾
56	0	5	10
57	0	5	11¼
58	0	6	0½
59	0	6	1¾
60	0	6	3
61	0	6	4¼
62	0	6	5½
63	0	6	6¾
64	0	6	8
65	0	6	9¼
66	0	6	10½
67	0	6	11¾
68	0	7	1
69	0	7	2¼
70	0	7	3½
71	0	7	4¾
72	0	7	6
73	0	7	7¼
74	0	7	8½
75	0	7	9¾
76	0	7	11
77	0	8	0¼
78	0	8	1½
79	0	8	2¾
80	0	8	4
81	0	8	5¼
82	0	8	6½
83	0	8	7¾
84	0	8	9
85	0	8	10¼
86	0	8	11½
87	0	9	0¾
88	0	9	2
89	0	9	3¼
90	0	9	4½
91	0	9	5¾
92	0	9	7
93	0	9	8¼
94	0	9	9½
95	0	9	10¾
96	0	10	0
97	0	10	1¼
98	0	10	2½
99	0	10	3¾
100	0	10	5
110	0	11	5½
112	0	11	8
120	0	12	6
130	0	13	6½
140	0	14	7
144	0	15	0
150	0	15	7½
160	0	16	8
170	0	17	8½
180	0	18	9
190	0	19	9½
200	1	0	10
210	1	1	10½
220	1	2	11
230	1	3	11½
240	1	5	0
250	1	6	0½
256	1	6	8
272	1	8	4
300	1	11	3
365	1	18	0¾
400	2	1	8
500	2	12	1
600	3	2	6
700	3	12	11
750	3	18	1¼
800	4	3	4
900	4	13	9
1000	5	4	2
1100	5	14	7
1200	6	5	0
1250	6	10	2½
1300	6	15	5
1400	7	5	10
1500	7	16	3
2000	10	8	4
3000	15	12	6
4000	20	16	8
5000	26	0	10
6000	31	5	0
7000	36	9	2
8000	41	13	4
9000	46	17	6
10000	52	1	8
20000	104	3	4
25000	130	4	2
50000	260	8	4

At 1 Penny Halfpenny.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	1½
2	0	0	3
3	0	0	4½
4	0	0	6
5	0	0	7½
6	0	0	9
7	0	0	10½
8	0	1	0
9	0	1	1½
10	0	1	3
11	0	1	4½
12	0	1	6
13	0	1	7½
14	0	1	9
15	0	1	10½
16	0	2	0
17	0	2	1½
18	0	2	3
19	0	2	4½
20	0	2	6
21	0	2	7½
22	0	2	9
23	0	2	10½
24	0	3	0
25	0	3	1½
26	0	3	3
27	0	3	4½
28	0	3	6
29	0	3	7½
30	0	3	9
31	0	3	10½
32	0	4	0
33	0	4	1½
34	0	4	3
35	0	4	4½
36	0	4	6
37	0	4	7½
38	0	4	9
39	0	4	10½
40	0	5	0
41	0	5	1½
42	0	5	3
43	0	5	4½
44	0	5	6
45	0	5	7½
46	0	5	9
47	0	5	10½
48	0	6	0
49	0	6	1½
50	0	6	3
51	0	6	4½
52	0	6	6
53	0	6	7½
54	0	6	9
55	0	6	10½
56	0	7	0
57	0	7	1½
58	0	7	3
59	0	7	4½
60	0	7	6
61	0	7	7½
62	0	7	9
63	0	7	10½
64	0	8	0
65	0	8	1½
66	0	8	3
67	0	8	4½
68	0	8	6
69	9	8	7½
70	0	8	9
71	0	8	10½
72	0	9	0
73	0	9	1½
74	0	9	3
75	0	9	4½
76	0	9	6
77	0	9	7½
78	0	9	9
79	0	9	10½
80	0	10	0
81	0	10	1½
82	0	10	3
83	0	10	4½
84	0	10	6
85	0	10	7½
86	0	10	9
87	0	10	10½
88	0	11	0
89	0	11	1½
90	0	11	3
91	0	11	4½
92	0	11	6
93	0	11	7½
94	0	11	9
95	0	11	10½
96	0	12	0
97	0	12	1½
98	0	12	3
99	0	12	4½
100	0	12	6
110	0	13	9
112	0	14	0
120	0	15	0
130	0	16	3
140	0	17	6
144	0	18	0
150	0	18	9
160	1	0	0
170	1	1	3
180	1	2	6
190	1	3	9
200	1	5	0
210	1	6	3
220	1	7	6
230	1	8	9
240	1	10	0
250	1	11	3
256	1	12	0
272	1	14	0
300	1	17	6
365	2	5	7½
400	2	10	0
500	3	2	6
600	3	15	0
700	4	7	6
750	4	13	9
800	5	0	0
900	5	12	6
1000	6	5	0
1100	6	17	6
1200	7	10	0
1250	7	16	3
1300	8	2	6
1400	8	15	0
1500	9	7	6
2000	12	10	0
3000	18	15	0
4000	25	0	0
5000	31	5	0
6000	37	10	0
7000	43	15	0
8000	50	0	0
9000	56	5	0
10000	62	10	0
20000	125	0	0
25000	156	5	0
50000	312	10	0

At 1 Penny 3 Farthings.

No.	s.	d.
1	0	1¾
2	0	3½
3	0	5¼
4	0	7
5	0	8¾
6	0	10½
7	1	0¼
8	1	2
9	1	3¾
10	1	5½
11	1	7¼
12	1	9
13	1	10¾
14	2	0½
15	2	2¼
16	2	4
17	2	5¾
18	2	7½
19	2	9¼
20	2	11
21	3	0¾
22	3	2½
23	3	4¼
24	3	6
25	3	7¾
26	3	9½
27	3	11¼

No.	s.	d.
28	4	1
29	4	2¾
30	4	4½
31	4	6¼
32	4	8
33	4	9¾
34	4	11½
35	5	1¼
36	5	3
37	5	4¾
38	5	6½
39	5	8¼
40	5	10
41	5	11¾
42	6	1½
43	6	3¼
44	6	5
45	6	6¾
46	6	8½
47	6	10¼
48	7	0
49	7	1¾
50	7	3½
51	7	5¼
52	7	7
53	7	8¾
54	7	10½
55	8	0¼
56	8	2
57	8	3¾

No.	s.	d.
58	8	5½
59	8	7¼
60	8	9
61	8	10¾
62	9	0½
63	9	2¼
64	9	4
65	9	5¾
66	9	7½
67	9	9¼
68	9	11
69	10	0¾
70	10	2½
71	10	4¼
72	10	6
73	10	7¾
74	10	9½
75	10	11¼
76	11	1
77	11	2¾
78	11	4½
79	11	6¼
80	11	8
81	11	9¾
82	11	11½
83	12	1¼
84	12	3
85	12	4¾
86	12	6½
87	12	8¼

No.	s.	d.
88	12	10
89	12	11¾
90	13	1½
91	13	3¼
92	13	5
93	13	6¾
94	13	8½
95	13	10¼
96	14	0
97	14	1¾
98	14	3½
99	14	5¼
100	14	7
110	16	0½
112	16	4
120	17	6
130	18	11½
140	1	0 5
144	1	1 0
150	1	1 10½
160	1	3 4
170	1	4 9½
180	1	6 3
190	1	7 8½
200	1	9 2
210	1	10 7½
220	1	12 1
230	1	13 6½
240	1	15 0
250	1	16 5½

No.	£	s.	d.
256	1	17	4
272	1	19	8
300	2	3	9
365	2	13	2¾
400	2	18	4
500	3	12	11
600	4	7	6
700	5	2	1
750	5	9	4½
800	5	16	8
900	6	11	3
1000	7	5	10
1100	8	0	5
1200	8	15	0
1250	9	2	3½
1300	9	9	7
1400	10	4	2
1500	10	18	9
2000	14	11	8
3000	21	17	6
4000	29	3	4
5000	36	9	2
6000	43	15	0
7000	51	0	10
8000	58	6	8
9000	65	12	6
10000	72	18	4
20000	145	16	8
25000	182	5	10
50000	364	11	8

At 2 Pence.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	2
2	0	0	4
3	0	0	6
4	0	0	8
5	0	0	10
6	0	1	0
7	0	1	2
8	0	1	4
9	0	1	6
10	0	1	8
11	0	1	10
12	0	2	0
13	0	2	2
14	0	2	4
15	0	2	6
16	0	2	8
17	0	2	10
18	0	3	0
19	0	3	2
20	0	3	4
21	0	3	6
22	0	3	8
23	0	3	10
24	0	4	0
25	0	4	2
26	0	4	4
27	0	4	6

No.	£	s.	d.
28	0	4	8
29	0	4	10
30	0	5	0
31	0	5	2
32	0	5	4
33	0	5	6
34	0	5	8
35	0	5	10
36	0	6	0
37	0	6	2
38	0	6	4
39	0	6	6
40	0	6	8
41	0	6	10
42	0	7	0
43	0	7	2
44	0	7	4
45	0	7	6
46	0	7	8
47	0	7	10
48	0	8	0
49	0	8	2
50	0	8	4
51	0	8	6
52	0	8	8
53	0	8	10
54	0	9	0
55	0	9	2
56	0	9	4
57	0	9	6

No.	£	s.	d.
58	0	9	8
59	0	9	10
60	0	10	0
61	0	10	2
62	0	10	4
63	0	10	6
64	0	10	8
65	0	10	10
66	0	11	0
67	0	11	2
68	0	11	4
69	0	11	6
70	0	11	8
71	0	11	10
72	0	12	0
73	0	12	2
74	0	12	4
75	0	12	6
76	0	12	8
77	0	12	10
78	0	13	0
79	0	13	2
80	0	13	4
81	0	13	6
82	0	13	8
83	0	13	10
84	0	14	0
85	0	14	2
86	0	14	4
87	0	14	6

No.	£	s.	d.
88	0	14	8
89	0	14	10
90	0	15	0
91	0	15	2
92	0	15	4
93	0	15	6
94	0	15	8
95	0	15	10
96	0	16	0
97	0	16	2
98	0	16	4
99	0	16	6
100	0	16	8
110	0	18	4
112	0	18	8
120	1	0	0
130	1	1	8
140	1	3	4
144	1	4	0
150	1	5	0
160	1	6	8
170	1	8	4
180	1	10	0
190	1	11	8
200	1	13	4
210	1	15	0
220	1	16	8
230	1	18	4
240	2	0	0
250	2	1	8

No.	£	s.	d
256	2	2	8
272	2	5	4
300	2	10	0
365	3	0	10
400	3	6	8
500	4	3	4
600	5	0	0
700	5	16	8
750	6	5	0
800	6	13	4
900	7	10	0
1000	8	6	8
1100	9	3	4
1200	10	0	0
1250	10	8	4
1300	10	16	8
1400	11	13	4
1500	12	10	0
2000	16	13	4
3000	25	0	0
4000	33	6	8
5000	41	13	4
6000	50	0	0
7000	58	6	8
8000	66	13	4
9000	75	0	0
10000	83	6	8
20000	166	13	4
25000	208	6	8
50000	416	13	4

At 2 Pence 1 Farthing.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	2¼
2	0	0	4½
3	0	0	6¾
4	0	0	9
5	0	0	11¼
6	0	1	1½
7	0	1	3¾
8	0	1	6
9	0	1	8¼
10	0	1	10½
11	0	2	0¾
12	0	2	3
13	0	2	5¼
14	0	2	7½
15	0	2	9¾
16	0	3	0
17	0	3	2¼
18	0	3	4½
19	0	3	6¾
20	0	3	9
21	0	3	11¼
22	0	4	1½
23	0	4	3¾
24	0	4	6
25	0	4	8¼
26	0	4	10½
27	0	5	0¾
28	0	5	3
29	0	5	5¼
30	0	5	7½
31	0	5	9¾
32	0	6	0
33	0	6	2¼
34	0	6	4½
35	0	6	6¾
36	0	6	9
37	0	6	11¼
38	0	7	1½
39	0	7	3¾
40	0	7	6
41	0	7	8¼
42	0	7	10½
43	0	8	0¾
44	0	8	3
45	0	8	5¼
46	0	8	7½
47	0	8	9¾
48	0	9	0
49	0	9	2¼
50	0	9	4½
51	0	9	6¾
52	0	9	9
53	0	9	11¼
54	0	10	1½
55	0	10	3¾
56	0	10	6
57	0	10	8¼
58	0	10	10½
59	0	11	0¾
60	0	11	3
61	0	11	5¼
62	0	11	7½
63	0	11	9¾
64	0	12	0
65	0	12	2¼
66	0	12	4½
67	0	12	6¾
68	0	12	9
69	0	12	11¼
70	0	13	1½
71	0	13	3¾
72	0	13	6
73	0	13	8¼
74	0	13	10½
75	0	14	0¾
76	0	14	3
77	0	14	5¼
78	0	14	7½
79	0	14	9¾
80	0	15	0
81	0	15	2¼
82	0	15	4½
83	0	15	6¾
84	0	15	9
85	0	15	11¼
86	0	16	1½
87	0	16	3¾
88	0	16	6
89	0	16	8¼
90	0	16	10½
91	0	17	0¾
92	0	17	3
93	0	17	5¼
94	0	17	7½
95	0	17	9¾
96	0	18	0
97	0	18	2¼
98	0	18	4½
99	0	18	6¾
100	0	18	9
110	1	0	7½
112	1	1	0
120	1	2	6
130	1	4	4½
140	1	6	3
144	1	7	0
150	1	8	1½
160	1	10	0
170	1	11	10½
180	1	13	9
190	1	15	7½
200	1	17	6
210	1	19	4½
220	2	1	3
230	2	3	1½
240	2	5	0
250	2	6	10½
256	2	8	0
272	2	11	0
300	2	16	3
365	3	8	5¼
400	3	15	0
500	4	13	9
600	5	12	6
700	6	11	3
750	7	0	7½
800	7	10	0
900	8	8	9
1000	9	7	6
1100	10	6	3
1200	11	5	0
1250	11	14	4½
1300	12	3	9
1400	13	2	6
1500	14	1	3
2000	18	15	0
3000	28	2	6
4000	37	10	0
5000	46	17	6
6000	56	5	0
7000	65	12	6
8000	75	0	0
9000	84	7	6
10000	93	15	0
20000	187	10	0
25000	234	7	6
50000	468	15	0

At 2 Pence Halfpenny.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	2½
2	0	0	5
3	0	0	7½
4	0	0	10
5	0	1	0½
6	0	1	3
7	0	1	5½
8	0	1	8
9	0	1	10½
10	0	2	1
11	0	2	3½
12	0	2	6
13	0	2	8½
14	0	2	11
15	0	3	1½
16	0	3	4
17	0	3	6½
18	0	3	9
19	0	3	11½
20	0	4	2
21	0	4	4½
22	0	4	7
23	0	4	9½
24	0	5	0
25	0	5	2½
26	0	5	5
27	0	5	7½
28	0	5	10
29	0	6	0½
30	0	6	3
31	0	6	5½
32	0	6	8
33	0	6	10½
34	0	7	1
35	0	7	3½
36	0	7	6
37	0	7	8½
38	0	7	11
39	0	8	1½
40	0	8	4
41	0	8	6½
42	0	8	9
43	0	8	11½
44	0	9	2
45	0	9	4½
46	0	9	7
47	0	9	9½
48	0	10	0
49	0	10	2½
50	0	10	5
51	0	10	7½
52	0	10	10
53	0	11	0½
54	0	11	3
55	0	11	5½
56	0	11	8
57	0	11	10½
58	0	12	1
59	0	12	3½
60	0	12	6
61	0	12	8½
62	0	12	11
63	0	13	1½
64	0	13	4
65	0	13	6½
66	0	13	9
67	0	13	11½
68	0	14	2
69	0	14	4½
70	0	14	7
71	0	14	9½
72	0	15	0
73	0	15	2½
74	0	15	5
75	0	15	7½
76	0	15	10
77	0	16	0½
78	0	16	3
79	0	16	5½
80	0	16	8
81	0	16	10½
82	0	17	1
83	0	17	3½
84	0	17	6
85	0	17	8½
86	0	17	11
87	0	18	1½
88	0	18	4
89	0	18	6½
90	0	18	9
91	0	18	11½
92	0	19	2
93	0	19	4½
94	0	19	7
95	0	19	9½
96	1	0	0
97	1	0	2½
98	1	0	5
99	1	0	7½
100	1	0	10
110	1	2	11
112	1	3	4
120	1	5	0
130	1	7	1
140	1	9	2
144	1	10	0
150	1	11	3
160	1	13	4
170	1	15	5
180	1	17	6
190	1	19	7
200	2	1	8
210	2	3	9
220	2	5	10
230	2	7	11
240	2	10	0
250	2	12	1
256	2	13	4
272	2	16	8
300	3	2	6
365	3	16	0½
400	4	3	4
500	5	4	2
600	6	5	0
700	7	5	10
750	7	16	3
800	8	6	8
900	9	7	6
1000	10	8	4
1100	11	9	2
1200	12	10	0
1250	13	0	5
1300	13	10	10
1400	14	11	8
1500	15	12	6
2000	20	16	8
3000	31	5	0
4000	41	13	4
5000	52	1	8
6000	62	10	0
7000	72	18	4
8000	83	6	8
9000	93	15	0
10000	104	3	4
20000	208	6	8
25000	260	8	4
50000	520	16	8

At 2 Pence 3 Farthings.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	2¾
2	0	0	5½
3	0	0	8¼
4	0	0	11
5	0	1	1¾
6	0	1	4½
7	0	1	7¼
8	0	1	10
9	0	2	0¾
10	0	2	3½
11	0	2	6¼
12	0	2	9
13	0	2	11¾
14	0	3	2½
15	0	3	5¼
16	0	3	8
17	0	3	10¾
18	0	4	1½
19	0	4	4¼
20	0	4	7
21	0	4	9¾
22	0	5	0½
23	0	5	3¼
24	0	5	6
25	0	5	8¾
26	0	5	11½
27	0	6	2¼
28	0	6	5
29	0	6	7¾
30	0	6	10½
31	0	7	1¼
32	0	7	4
33	0	7	6¾
34	0	7	9½
35	0	8	0¼
36	0	8	3
37	0	8	5¾
38	0	8	8½
39	0	8	11¼
40	0	9	2
41	0	9	4¾
42	0	9	7½
43	0	9	10¼
44	0	10	1
45	0	10	3¾
46	0	10	6½
47	0	10	9¼
48	0	11	0
49	0	11	2¾
50	0	11	5½
51	0	11	8¼
52	0	11	11
53	0	12	1¾
54	0	12	4½
55	0	12	7¼
56	0	12	10
57	0	13	0¾
58	0	13	3½
59	0	13	6¼
60	0	13	9
61	0	13	11¾
62	0	14	2½
63	0	14	5¼
64	0	14	8
65	0	14	10¾
66	0	15	1½
67	0	15	4¼
68	0	15	7
69	0	15	9¾
70	0	16	0½
71	0	16	3¼
72	0	16	6
73	0	16	8¾
74	0	16	11½
75	0	17	2¼
76	0	17	5
77	0	17	7¾
78	0	17	10½
79	0	18	1¼
80	0	18	4
81	0	18	6¾
82	0	18	9½
83	0	19	0¼
84	0	19	3
85	0	19	5¾
86	0	19	8½
87	0	19	11¼
88	1	0	2
89	1	0	4¾
90	1	0	7½
91	1	0	10¼
92	1	1	1
93	1	1	3¾
94	1	1	6½
95	1	1	9¼
96	1	2	0
97	1	2	2¾
98	1	2	5½
99	1	2	8¼
100	1	2	11
110	1	5	2½
112	1	5	8
120	1	7	6
130	1	9	9½
140	1	12	1
144	1	13	0
150	1	14	4½
160	1	16	8
170	1	18	11½
180	2	1	3
190	2	3	6½
200	2	5	10
210	2	8	1½
220	2	10	5
230	2	12	8½
240	2	15	0
250	2	17	3½
256	2	18	8
272	3	2	4
300	3	8	9
365	4	3	7¾
400	4	11	8
500	5	14	7
600	6	17	6
700	8	0	5
750	8	11	10½
800	9	3	4
900	10	6	3
1000	11	9	2
1100	12	12	1
1200	13	15	0
1250	14	6	5½
1300	14	17	11
1400	16	0	10
1500	17	3	9
2000	22	18	4
3000	34	7	6
4000	45	16	8
5000	57	5	10
6000	68	15	0
7000	80	4	2
8000	91	13	4
9000	103	2	6
10000	114	11	8
20000	229	3	4
25000	286	9	2
50000	572	18	4

At 3 Pence.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	3
2	0	0	6
3	0	0	9
4	0	1	0
5	0	1	3
6	0	1	6
7	0	1	9
8	0	2	0
9	0	2	3
10	0	2	6
11	0	2	9
12	0	3	0
13	0	3	3
14	0	3	6
15	0	3	9
16	0	4	0
17	0	4	3
18	0	4	6
19	0	4	9
20	0	5	0
21	0	5	3
22	0	5	6
23	0	5	9
24	0	6	0
25	0	6	3
26	0	6	6
27	0	6	9
28	0	7	0
29	0	7	3
30	0	7	6
31	0	7	9
32	0	8	0
33	0	8	3
34	0	8	6
35	0	8	9
36	0	9	0
37	0	9	3
38	0	9	6
39	0	9	9
40	0	10	0
41	0	10	3
42	0	10	6
43	0	10	9
44	0	11	0
45	0	11	3
46	0	11	6
47	0	11	9
48	0	12	0
49	0	12	3
50	0	12	6
51	0	12	9
52	0	13	0
53	0	13	3
54	0	13	6
55	0	13	9
56	0	14	0
57	0	14	3
58	0	14	6
59	0	14	9
60	0	15	0
61	0	15	3
62	0	15	6
63	0	15	9
64	0	16	0
65	0	16	3
66	0	16	6
67	0	16	9
68	0	17	0
69	0	17	3
70	0	17	6
71	0	17	9
72	0	18	0
73	0	18	3
74	0	18	6
75	0	18	9
76	0	19	0
77	0	19	3
78	0	19	6
79	0	19	9
80	1	0	0
81	1	0	3
82	1	0	6
83	1	0	9
84	1	1	0
85	1	1	3
86	1	1	6
87	1	1	9
88	1	2	0
89	1	2	3
90	1	2	6
91	1	2	9
92	1	3	0
93	1	3	3
94	1	3	6
95	1	3	9
96	1	4	0
97	1	4	3
98	1	4	6
99	1	4	9
100	1	5	0
110	1	7	6
112	1	8	0
120	1	10	0
130	1	12	6
140	1	15	0
144	1	16	0
150	1	17	6
160	2	0	0
170	2	2	6
180	2	5	0
190	2	7	6
200	2	10	0
210	2	12	6
220	2	15	0
230	2	17	6
240	3	0	0
250	3	2	6
256	3	4	0
272	3	8	0
300	3	15	0
365	4	11	3
400	5	0	0
500	6	5	0
600	7	10	0
700	8	15	0
750	9	7	6
800	10	0	0
900	11	5	0
1000	12	10	0
1100	13	15	0
1200	15	0	0
1250	15	12	6
1300	16	5	0
1400	17	10	0
1500	18	15	0
2000	25	0	0
3000	37	10	0
4000	50	0	0
5000	62	10	0
6000	75	0	0
7000	87	10	0
8000	100	0	0
9000	112	10	0
10000	125	0	0
20000	250	0	0
25000	312	10	0
50000	625	0	0

At 3 Pence 1 Farthing.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	3¼
2	0	0	6½
3	0	0	9¾
4	0	1	1
5	0	1	4¼
6	0	1	7½
7	0	1	10¾
8	0	2	2
9	0	2	5¼
10	0	2	8½
11	0	2	11¾
12	0	3	3
13	0	3	6¼
14	0	3	9½
15	0	4	0¾
16	0	4	4
17	0	4	7¼
18	0	4	10½
19	0	5	1¾
20	0	5	5
21	0	5	8¼
22	0	5	11½
23	0	6	2¾
24	0	6	6
25	0	6	9¼
26	0	7	0½
27	0	7	3¾
28	0	7	7
29	0	7	10¼
30	0	8	1½
31	0	8	4¾
32	0	8	8
33	0	8	11¼
34	0	9	2½
35	0	9	5¾
36	0	9	9
37	0	10	0¼
38	0	10	3½
39	0	10	6¾
40	0	10	10
41	0	11	1¼
42	0	11	4½
43	0	11	7¾
44	0	11	11
45	0	12	2¼
46	0	12	5½
47	0	12	8¾
48	0	13	0
49	0	13	3¼
50	0	13	6½
51	0	13	9¾
52	0	14	1
53	0	14	4¼
54	0	14	7½
55	0	14	10¾
56	0	15	2
57	0	15	5¼
58	0	15	8½
59	0	15	11¾
60	0	16	3
61	0	16	6¼
62	0	16	9½
63	0	17	0¾
64	0	17	4
65	0	17	7¼
66	0	17	10½
67	0	18	1¾
68	0	18	5
69	0	18	8¼
70	0	18	11½
71	0	19	2¾
72	0	19	6
73	0	19	9¼
74	1	0	0½
75	1	0	3¾
76	1	0	7
77	1	0	10¼
78	1	1	1½
79	1	1	4¾
80	1	1	8
81	1	1	11¼
82	1	2	2½
83	1	2	5¾
84	1	2	9
85	1	3	0¼
86	1	3	3½
87	1	3	6¾
88	1	3	10
89	1	4	1¼
90	1	4	4½
91	1	4	7¾
92	1	4	11
93	1	5	2¼
94	1	5	5½
95	1	5	8¾
96	1	6	0
97	1	6	3¼
98	1	6	6½
99	1	6	9¾
100	1	7	1
110	1	9	9½
112	1	10	4
120	1	12	6
130	1	15	2½
140	1	17	11
144	1	19	0
150	2	0	7½
160	2	3	4
170	2	6	0½
180	2	8	9
190	2	11	5½
200	2	14	2
210	2	16	10½
220	2	19	7
230	3	2	3½
240	3	5	0
250	3	7	8½
256	3	9	4
272	3	13	8
300	4	1	3
365	4	18	10½
400	5	8	4
500	6	15	5
600	8	2	6
700	9	9	7
750	10	3	1½
800	10	16	8
900	12	3	9
1000	13	10	10
1100	14	17	11
1200	16	5	0
1250	16	18	6½
1300	17	12	1
1400	18	19	2
1500	20	6	3
2000	27	1	8
3000	40	12	6
4000	54	3	4
5000	67	14	2
6000	81	5	0
7000	94	15	10
8000	108	6	8
9000	121	17	6
10000	135	8	4
20000	270	16	8
25000	338	10	10
50000	677	1	8

At 3 Pence Halfpenny.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	3½
2	0	0	7
3	0	0	10½
4	0	1	2
5	0	1	5½
6	0	1	9
7	0	2	0½
8	0	2	4
9	0	2	7½
10	0	2	11
11	0	3	2½
12	0	3	6
13	0	3	9½
14	0	4	1
15	0	4	4½
16	0	4	8
17	0	4	11½
18	0	5	3
19	0	5	6½
20	0	5	10
21	0	6	1½
22	0	6	5
23	0	6	8½
24	0	7	0
25	0	7	3½
26	0	7	7
27	0	7	10½
28	0	8	2
29	0	8	5½
30	0	8	9
31	0	9	0½
32	0	9	4
33	0	9	7½
34	0	9	11
35	0	10	2½
36	0	10	6
37	0	10	9½
38	0	11	1
39	0	11	4½
40	0	11	8
41	0	11	11½
42	0	12	3
43	0	12	6½
44	0	12	10
45	0	13	1½
46	0	13	5
47	0	13	8½
48	0	14	0
49	0	14	3½
50	0	14	7
51	0	14	10½
52	0	15	2
53	0	15	5½
54	0	15	9
55	0	16	0½
56	0	16	4
57	0	16	7½
58	0	16	11
59	0	17	2½
60	0	17	6
61	0	17	9½
62	0	18	1
63	0	18	4½
64	0	18	8
65	0	18	11½
66	0	19	3
67	0	19	6½
68	0	19	10
69	1	0	1½
70	1	0	5
71	1	0	8½
72	1	1	0
73	1	1	3½
74	1	1	7
75	1	1	10½
76	1	2	2
77	1	2	5½
78	1	2	9
79	1	3	0½
80	1	3	4
81	1	3	7½
82	1	3	11
83	1	4	2½
84	1	4	6
85	1	4	9½
86	1	5	1
87	1	5	4½
88	1	5	8
89	1	5	11½
90	1	6	3
91	1	6	6½
92	1	6	10
93	1	7	1½
94	1	7	5
95	1	7	8½
96	1	8	0
97	1	8	3½
98	1	8	7
99	1	8	10½
100	1	9	2
110	1	12	1
112	1	12	8
120	1	15	0
130	1	17	11
140	2	0	10
144	2	2	0
150	2	3	9
160	2	6	8
170	2	9	7
180	2	12	6
190	2	15	5
200	2	18	4
210	3	1	3
220	3	4	2
230	3	7	1
240	3	10	0
250	3	12	11
256	3	14	8
272	3	19	4
300	4	7	6
365	5	6	5½
400	5	16	8
500	7	5	10
600	8	15	0
700	10	4	2
750	10	18	9
800	11	13	4
900	13	2	6
1000	14	11	8
1100	16	0	10
1200	17	10	0
1250	18	4	7
1300	18	19	2
1400	20	8	4
1500	21	17	6
2000	29	3	4
3000	43	15	0
4000	58	6	8
5000	72	18	4
6000	87	10	0
7000	102	1	8
8000	116	13	4
9000	131	5	0
10000	145	16	8
20000	291	13	4
25000	364	11	8
50000	729	8	4

At 3 Pence 3 Farthings.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	3¾
2	0	0	7½
3	0	0	11¼
4	0	1	3
5	0	1	6¾
6	0	1	10½
7	0	2	2¼
8	0	2	6
9	0	2	9¾
10	0	3	1½
11	0	3	5¼
12	0	3	9
13	0	4	0¾
14	0	4	4½
15	0	4	8¼
16	0	5	0
17	0	5	3¾
18	0	5	7½
19	0	5	11¼
20	0	6	3
21	0	6	6¾
22	0	6	10½
23	0	7	2¼
24	0	7	6
25	0	7	9¾
26	0	8	1½
27	0	8	5¼
28	0	8	9
29	0	9	0¾
30	0	9	4½
31	0	9	8¼
32	0	10	0
33	0	10	3¾
34	0	10	7½
35	0	10	11¼
36	0	11	3
37	0	11	6¾
38	0	11	10½
39	0	12	2¼
40	0	12	6
41	0	12	9¾
42	0	13	1½
43	0	13	5¼
44	0	13	9
45	0	14	0¾
46	0	14	4½
47	0	14	8¼
48	0	15	0
49	0	15	3¾
50	0	15	7½
51	0	15	11¼
52	0	16	3
53	0	16	6¾
54	0	16	10½
55	0	17	2¼
56	0	17	6
57	0	17	9¾
58	0	18	1½
59	0	18	5¼
60	0	18	9
61	0	19	0¾
62	0	19	4½
63	0	19	8¼
64	1	0	0
65	1	0	3¾
66	1	0	7½
67	1	0	11¼
68	1	1	3
69	1	1	6¾
70	1	1	10½
71	1	2	2¼
72	1	2	6
73	1	2	9¾
74	1	3	1½
75	1	3	5¼
76	1	3	9
77	1	4	0¾
78	1	4	4½
79	1	4	8¼
80	1	5	0
81	1	5	3¾
82	1	5	7½
83	1	5	11¼
84	1	6	3
85	1	6	6¾
86	1	6	10½
87	1	7	2¼
88	1	7	6
89	1	7	9¾
90	1	8	1½
91	1	8	5¼
92	1	8	9
93	1	9	0¾
94	1	9	4½
95	1	9	8¼
96	1	10	0
97	1	10	3¾
98	1	10	7½
99	1	10	11¼
100	1	11	3
110	1	14	4½
112	1	15	0
120	1	17	6
130	2	0	7½
140	2	3	9
144	2	5	0
150	2	6	10½
160	2	10	0
170	2	13	1½
180	2	16	3
190	2	19	4½
200	3	2	6
210	3	5	7½
220	3	8	9
230	3	11	10½
240	3	15	0
250	3	18	1½
256	4	0	0
272	4	5	0
300	4	13	9
365	5	14	0¾
400	6	5	0
500	7	16	3
600	9	7	6
700	10	18	9
750	11	14	4½
800	12	10	0
900	14	1	3
1000	15	12	6
1100	17	3	9
1200	18	15	0
1250	19	10	7½
1300	20	6	3
1400	21	17	6
1500	23	8	9
2000	31	5	0
3000	46	17	6
4000	62	10	0
5000	78	2	6
6000	93	15	0
7000	109	7	6
8000	125	0	0
9000	140	12	6
10000	156	5	0
20000	312	10	0
25000	390	12	6
50000	781	5	0

At 4 Pence.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	4
2	0	0	8
3	0	1	0
4	0	1	4
5	0	1	8
6	0	2	0
7	0	2	4
8	0	2	8
9	0	3	0
10	0	3	4
11	0	3	8
12	0	4	0
13	0	4	4
14	0	4	8
15	0	5	0
16	0	5	4
17	0	5	8
18	0	6	0
19	0	6	4
20	0	6	8
21	0	7	0
22	0	7	4
23	0	7	8
24	0	8	0
25	0	8	4
26	0	8	8
27	0	9	0
28	0	9	4
29	0	9	8
30	0	10	0
31	0	10	4
32	0	10	8
33	0	11	0
34	0	11	4
35	0	11	8
36	0	12	0
37	0	12	4
38	0	12	8
39	0	13	0
40	0	13	4
41	0	13	8
42	0	14	0
43	0	14	4
44	0	14	8
45	0	15	0
46	0	15	4
47	0	15	8
48	0	16	0
49	0	16	4
50	0	16	8
51	0	17	0
52	0	17	4
53	0	17	8
54	0	18	0
55	0	18	4
56	0	18	8
57	0	19	0
58	0	19	4
59	0	19	8
60	1	0	0
61	1	0	4
62	1	0	8
63	1	1	0
64	1	1	4
65	1	1	8
66	1	2	0
67	1	2	4
68	1	2	8
69	1	3	0
70	1	3	4
71	1	3	8
72	1	4	0
73	1	4	4
74	1	4	8
75	1	5	0
76	1	5	4
77	1	5	8
78	1	6	0
79	1	6	4
80	1	6	8
81	1	7	0
82	1	7	4
83	1	7	8
84	1	8	0
85	1	8	4
86	1	8	8
87	1	9	0
88	1	9	4
89	1	9	8
90	1	10	0
91	1	10	4
92	1	10	8
93	1	11	0
94	1	11	4
95	1	11	8
96	1	12	0
97	1	12	4
98	1	12	8
99	1	13	0
100	1	13	4
110	1	16	8
112	1	17	4
120	2	0	0
130	2	3	4
140	2	6	8
144	2	8	0
150	2	10	0
160	2	13	4
170	2	16	8
180	3	0	0
190	3	3	4
200	3	6	8
210	3	10	0
220	3	13	4
230	3	16	8
240	4	0	0
250	4	3	4
256	4	5	4
272	4	10	8
300	5	0	0
365	6	1	8
400	6	13	4
500	8	6	8
600	10	0	0
700	11	13	4
750	12	10	0
800	13	6	8
900	15	0	0
1000	16	13	4
1100	18	6	8
1200	20	0	0
1250	20	16	8
1300	21	13	4
1400	23	6	8
1500	25	0	0
2000	33	6	8
3000	50	0	0
4000	66	13	4
5000	83	6	8
6000	100	0	0
7000	116	13	4
8000	133	6	8
9000	150	0	0
10000	166	13	4
20000	333	6	8
25000	416	13	4
50000	833	6	8

At 4 Pence 1 Farthing.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	4¼
2	0	0	8½
3	0	1	0¾
4	0	1	5
5	0	1	9¼
6	0	2	1½
7	0	2	5¾
8	0	2	10
9	0	3	2¼
10	0	3	6½
11	0	3	10¾
12	0	4	3
13	0	4	7¼
14	0	4	11½
15	0	5	3¾
16	0	5	8
17	0	6	0¼
18	0	6	4½
19	0	6	8¾
20	0	7	1
21	0	7	5¼
22	0	7	9½
23	0	8	1¾
24	0	8	6
25	0	8	10¼
26	0	9	2½
27	0	9	6¾
28	0	9	11
29	0	10	3¼
30	0	10	7½
31	0	10	11¾
32	0	11	4
33	0	11	8¼
34	0	12	0½
35	0	12	4¾
36	0	12	9
37	0	13	1¼
38	0	13	5½
39	0	13	9¾
40	0	14	2
41	0	14	6¼
42	0	14	10½
43	0	15	2¾
44	0	15	7
45	0	15	11¼
46	0	16	3½
47	0	16	7¾
48	0	17	0
49	0	17	4¼
50	0	17	8½
51	0	18	0¾
52	0	18	5
53	0	18	9¼
54	0	19	1½
55	0	19	5¾
56	0	19	10
57	1	0	2¼
58	1	0	6½
59	1	0	10¾
60	1	1	3
61	1	1	7¼
62	1	1	11½
63	1	2	3¾
64	1	2	8
65	1	3	0¼
66	1	3	4½
67	1	3	8¾
68	1	4	1
69	1	4	5¼
70	1	4	9½
71	1	5	1¾
72	1	5	6
73	1	5	10¼
74	1	6	2½
75	1	6	6¾
76	1	6	11
77	1	7	3¼
78	1	7	7½
79	1	7	11¾
80	1	8	4
81	1	8	8¼
82	1	9	0½
83	1	9	4¾
84	1	9	9
85	1	10	1¼
86	1	10	5½
87	1	10	9¾
88	1	11	2
89	1	11	6¼
90	1	11	10½
91	1	12	2¾
92	1	12	7
93	1	12	11¼
94	1	13	3½
95	1	13	7¾
96	1	14	0
97	1	14	4¼
98	1	14	8½
99	1	15	0¾
100	1	15	5
110	1	18	11½
112	1	19	8
120	2	2	6
130	2	6	0½
140	2	9	7
144	2	11	0
150	2	13	1½
160	2	16	8
170	3	0	2½
180	3	3	9
190	3	7	3½
200	3	10	10
210	3	14	4½
220	3	17	11
230	4	1	5½
240	4	5	0
250	4	8	6½
256	4	10	8
272	4	16	4
300	5	6	3
365	6	9	3¼
400	7	1	8
500	8	17	1
600	10	12	6
700	12	7	11
750	13	5	7½
800	14	3	4
900	15	18	9
1000	17	14	2
1100	19	9	7
1200	21	5	0
1250	22	2	8½
1300	23	0	5
1400	24	15	10
1500	26	11	3
2000	35	8	4
3000	53	2	6
4000	70	16	8
5000	88	10	10
6000	106	5	0
7000	123	19	2
8000	141	13	4
9000	159	7	6
10000	177	1	8
20000	354	3	4
25000	442	14	2
50000	885	8	4

At 4 Pence Halfpenny.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	4½
2	0	0	9
3	0	1	1½
4	0	1	6
5	0	1	10½
6	0	2	3
7	0	2	7½
8	0	3	0
9	0	3	4½
10	0	3	9
11	0	4	1½
12	0	4	6
13	0	4	10½
14	0	5	3
15	0	5	7½
16	0	6	0
17	0	6	4½
18	0	6	9
19	0	7	1½
20	0	7	6
21	0	7	10½
22	0	8	3
23	0	8	7½
24	0	9	0
25	0	9	4½
26	0	9	9
27	0	10	1½
28	0	10	6
29	0	10	10½
30	0	11	3
31	0	11	7½
32	0	12	0
33	0	12	4½
34	0	12	9
35	0	13	1½
36	0	13	6
37	0	13	10½
38	0	14	3
39	0	14	7½
40	0	15	0
41	0	15	4½
42	0	15	9
43	0	16	1½
44	0	16	6
45	0	16	10½
46	0	17	3
47	0	17	7½
48	0	18	0
49	0	18	4½
50	0	18	9
51	0	19	1½
52	0	19	6
53	0	19	10½
54	1	0	3
55	1	0	7½
56	1	1	0
57	1	1	4½
58	1	1	9
59	1	2	1½
60	1	2	6
61	1	2	10½
62	1	3	3
63	1	3	7½
64	1	4	0
65	1	4	4½
66	1	4	9
67	1	5	1½
68	1	5	6
69	1	5	10½
70	1	6	3
71	1	6	7½
72	1	7	0
73	1	7	4½
74	1	7	9
75	1	8	1½
76	1	8	6
77	1	8	10½
78	1	9	3
79	1	9	7½
80	1	10	0
81	1	10	4½
82	1	10	9
83	1	11	1½
84	1	11	6
85	1	11	10½
86	1	12	3
87	1	12	7½
88	1	13	0
89	1	13	4½
90	1	13	9
91	1	14	1½
92	1	14	6
93	1	14	10½
94	1	15	3
95	1	15	7½
96	1	16	0
97	1	16	4½
98	1	16	9
99	1	17	1½
100	1	17	6
110	2	1	3
112	2	2	0
120	2	5	0
130	2	8	9
140	2	12	6
144	2	14	0
150	2	16	3
160	3	0	0
170	3	3	9
180	3	7	6
190	3	11	3
200	3	15	0
210	3	18	9
220	4	2	6
230	4	6	3
240	4	10	0
250	4	13	9
256	4	16	0
272	5	2	0
300	5	12	6
365	6	16	10½
400	7	10	0
500	9	7	6
600	11	5	0
700	13	2	6
750	14	1	3
800	15	0	0
900	16	17	6
1000	18	15	0
1100	20	12	6
1200	22	10	0
1250	23	8	9
1300	24	7	6
1400	26	5	0
1500	28	2	6
2000	37	10	0
3000	56	5	0
4000	75	0	0
5000	93	15	0
6000	112	10	0
7000	131	5	0
8000	150	0	0
9000	168	15	0
10000	187	10	0
20000	375	0	0
25000	468	15	0
50000	937	10	0

At 4 Pence 3 Farthings.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	4¾
2	0	0	9½
3	0	1	2¼
4	0	1	7
5	0	1	11¾
6	0	2	4½
7	0	2	9¼
8	0	3	2
9	0	3	6¾
10	0	3	11½
11	0	4	4¼
12	0	4	9
13	0	5	1¾
14	0	5	6½
15	0	5	11¼
16	0	6	4
17	0	6	8¾
18	0	7	1½
19	0	7	6¼
20	0	7	11
21	0	8	3¾
22	0	8	8½
23	0	9	1¼
24	0	9	6
25	0	9	10¾
26	0	10	3½
27	0	10	8¼

No.	£	s.	d.
28	0	11	1
29	0	11	5¾
30	0	11	10½
31	0	12	3¼
32	0	12	8
33	0	13	0¾
34	0	13	5½
35	0	13	10¼
36	0	14	3
37	0	14	7¾
38	0	15	0½
39	0	15	5¼
40	0	15	10
41	0	16	2¾
42	0	16	7½
43	0	17	0¼
44	0	17	5
45	0	17	9¾
46	0	18	2½
47	0	18	7¼
48	0	19	0
49	0	19	4¾
50	0	19	9½
51	1	0	2¼
52	1	0	7
53	1	0	11¾
54	1	1	4½
55	1	1	9¼
56	1	2	2
57	1	2	6¾

No.	£	s.	d.
58	1	2	11½
59	1	3	4¼
60	1	3	9
61	1	4	1¾
62	1	4	6½
63	1	4	11¼
64	1	5	4
65	1	5	8¾
66	1	6	1½
67	1	6	6¼
68	1	6	11
69	1	7	3¾
70	1	7	8½
71	1	8	1¼
72	1	8	6
73	1	8	10¾
74	1	9	3½
75	1	9	8¼
76	1	10	1
77	1	10	5¾
78	1	10	10½
79	1	11	3¼
80	1	11	8
81	1	12	0¾
82	1	12	5½
83	1	12	10¼
84	1	13	3
85	1	13	7¾
86	1	14	0½
87	1	14	5¼

No.	£	s.	d.
88	1	14	10
89	1	15	2¾
90	1	15	7½
91	1	16	0
92	1	16	5
93	1	16	9¾
94	1	17	2½
95	1	17	7¼
96	1	18	0
97	1	18	4¾
98	1	18	9½
99	1	19	2¼
100	1	19	7
110	2	3	6½
112	2	4	4
120	2	7	6
130	2	11	5½
140	2	15	5
144	2	17	0
150	2	19	4½
160	3	3	4
170	3	7	3½
180	3	11	3
190	3	15	2½
200	3	19	2
210	4	3	1½
220	4	7	1
230	4	11	0½
240	4	15	0
250	4	18	11½

No.	£	s.	d.
256	5	1	4
272	5	7	8
300	5	18	9
365	7	4	5¾
400	7	18	4
500	9	17	11
600	11	17	6
700	13	17	1
750	14	16	10½
800	15	16	8
900	17	16	3
1000	19	15	10
1100	21	15	5
1200	23	15	0
1250	24	14	9½
1300	25	14	7
1400	27	14	2
1500	29	13	9
2000	39	11	8
3000	59	7	6
4000	79	3	4
5000	98	19	2
6000	118	15	0
7000	138	10	10
8000	158	6	8
9000	178	2	6
10000	197	18	4
20000	395	16	8
25000	494	15	10
50000	989	11	8

At 5 Pence.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	5
2	0	0	10
3	0	1	3
4	0	1	8
5	0	2	1
6	0	2	6
7	0	2	11
8	0	3	4
9	0	3	9
10	0	4	2
11	0	4	7
12	0	5	0
13	0	5	5
14	0	5	10
15	0	6	3
16	0	6	8
17	0	7	1
18	0	7	6
19	0	7	11
20	0	8	4
21	0	8	9
22	0	9	2
23	0	9	7
24	0	10	0
25	0	10	5
26	0	10	10
27	0	11	3

No.	£	s.	d.
28	0	11	8
29	0	12	1
30	0	12	6
31	0	12	11
32	0	13	4
33	0	13	9
34	0	14	2
35	0	14	7
36	0	15	0
37	0	15	5
38	0	15	10
39	0	16	3
40	0	16	8
41	0	17	1
42	0	17	6
43	0	17	11
44	0	18	4
45	0	18	9
46	0	19	2
47	0	19	7
48	1	0	0
49	1	0	5
50	1	0	10
51	1	1	3
52	1	1	8
53	1	2	1
54	1	2	6
55	1	2	11
56	1	3	4
57	1	3	9

No.	£	s.	d.
58	1	4	2
59	1	4	7
60	1	5	0
61	1	5	5
62	1	5	10
63	1	6	3
64	1	6	8
65	1	7	1
66	1	7	6
67	1	7	11
68	1	8	4
69	1	8	9
70	1	9	2
71	1	9	7
72	1	10	0
73	1	10	5
74	1	10	10
75	1	11	3
76	1	11	8
77	1	12	1
78	1	12	6
79	1	12	11
80	1	13	4
81	1	13	9
82	1	14	2
83	1	14	7
84	1	15	0
85	1	15	5
86	1	15	10
87	1	16	3

No.	£	s.	d.
88	1	16	8
89	1	17	1
90	1	17	6
91	1	17	11
92	1	18	4
93	1	18	9
94	1	19	2
95	1	19	7
96	2	0	0
97	2	0	5
98	2	0	10
99	2	1	3
100	2	1	8
110	2	5	10
112	2	6	8
120	2	10	0
130	2	14	2
140	2	18	4
144	3	0	0
150	3	2	6
160	3	6	8
170	3	10	10
180	3	15	0
190	3	19	2
200	4	3	4
210	4	7	6
220	4	11	8
230	4	15	10
240	5	0	0
250	5	4	2

No.	£	s.	d.
256	5	6	8
272	5	13	4
300	6	5	0
365	7	12	1
400	8	6	8
500	10	8	4
600	12	10	0
700	14	11	8
750	15	12	6
800	16	13	4
900	18	15	0
1000	20	16	8
1100	22	18	4
1200	25	0	0
1250	26	0	10
1300	27	1	8
1400	29	3	4
1500	31	5	0
2000	41	13	4
3000	62	10	0
4000	83	6	8
5000	104	3	4
6000	125	0	0
7000	145	16	8
8000	166	13	4
9000	187	10	0
10000	208	6	8
20000	416	13	4
25000	520	16	8
50000	1041	13	4

At 5 Pence 1 Farthing.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	5¼
2	0	0	10½
3	0	1	3¾
4	0	1	9
5	0	2	2¼
6	0	2	7½
7	0	3	0¾
8	0	3	6
9	0	3	11¼
10	0	4	4½
11	0	4	9¾
12	0	5	3
13	0	5	8¼
14	0	6	1½
15	0	6	6¾
16	0	7	0
17	0	7	5¼
18	0	7	10½
19	0	8	3¾
20	0	8	9
21	0	9	2¼
22	0	9	7½
23	0	10	0¾
24	0	10	6
25	0	10	11¼
26	0	11	4½
27	0	11	9¾

No.	£	s.	d.
28	0	12	3
29	0	12	8¼
30	0	13	1½
31	0	13	6¾
32	0	14	0
33	0	14	5¼
34	0	14	10½
35	0	15	3¾
36	0	15	9
37	0	16	2¼
38	0	16	7½
39	0	17	0¾
40	0	17	6
41	0	17	11¼
42	0	18	4½
43	0	18	9¾
44	0	19	3
45	0	19	8¼
46	1	0	1½
47	1	0	6¾
48	1	1	0
49	1	1	5¼
50	1	1	10½
51	1	2	3¾
52	1	2	9
53	1	3	2¼
54	1	3	7½
55	1	4	0¾
56	1	4	6
57	1	4	11¼

No.	£	s.	d.
58	1	5	4½
59	1	5	9¾
60	1	6	3
61	1	6	8¼
62	1	7	1½
63	1	7	6¾
64	1	8	0
65	1	8	5¼
66	1	8	10½
67	1	9	3¾
68	1	9	9
69	1	10	2¼
70	1	10	7½
71	1	11	0¾
72	1	11	6
73	1	11	11¼
74	1	12	4½
75	1	12	9¾
76	1	13	3
77	1	13	8¼
78	1	14	1½
79	1	14	6¾
80	1	15	0
81	1	15	5¼
82	1	15	10½
83	1	16	3¾
84	1	16	9
85	1	17	2¼
86	1	17	7½
87	1	18	0¾

No.	£	s.	d.
88	1	18	6
89	1	18	11¼
90	1	19	4½
91	1	19	9¾
92	2	0	3
93	2	0	8¼
94	2	1	1½
95	2	1	6¾
96	2	2	0
97	2	2	5¼
98	2	2	10½
99	2	3	3¾
100	2	3	9
110	2	8	1½
112	2	9	0
120	2	12	6
130	2	16	10½
140	3	1	3
144	3	3	0
150	3	5	7½
160	3	10	0
170	3	14	4½
180	3	18	9
190	4	3	1½
200	4	7	6
210	4	11	10½
220	4	16	3
230	5	0	7½
240	5	5	0
250	5	9	4½

No.	£	s.	d.
256	5	12	0
272	5	19	0
300	6	11	3
365	7	19	8¼
400	8	15	0
500	10	18	9
600	13	2	6
700	15	6	3
750	16	8	1½
800	17	10	0
900	19	13	9
1000	21	17	6
1100	24	1	3
1200	26	5	0
1250	27	6	10½
1300	28	8	9
1400	30	12	6
1500	32	16	3
2000	43	15	0
3000	65	12	6
4000	87	10	0
5000	109	7	6
6000	131	5	0
7000	153	2	6
8000	175	0	0
9000	196	17	6
10000	218	15	0
20000	437	10	0
25000	546	17	6
50000	1093	15	0

At 5 Pence Halfpenny.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	5½
2	0	0	11
3	0	1	4½
4	0	1	10
5	0	2	3½
6	0	2	9
7	0	3	2½
8	0	3	8
9	0	4	1½
10	0	4	7
11	0	5	0½
12	0	5	6
13	0	5	11½
14	0	6	5
15	0	6	10½
16	0	7	4
17	0	7	9½
18	0	8	3
19	0	8	8½
20	0	9	2
21	0	9	7½
22	0	10	1
23	0	10	6½
24	0	11	0
25	0	11	5½
26	0	11	11
27	0	12	4½

No.	£	s.	d.
28	0	12	10
29	0	13	3½
30	0	13	9
31	0	14	2½
32	0	14	8
33	0	15	1½
34	0	15	7
35	0	16	0½
36	0	16	6
37	0	16	11½
38	0	17	5
39	0	17	10½
40	0	18	4
41	0	18	9½
42	0	19	3
43	0	19	8½
44	1	0	2
45	1	0	7½
46	1	1	1
47	1	1	6½
48	1	2	0
49	1	2	5½
50	1	2	11
51	1	3	4½
52	1	3	10
53	1	4	3½
54	1	4	9
55	1	5	2½
56	1	5	8
57	1	6	1½

No.	£	s.	d.
58	1	6	7
59	1	7	0½
60	1	7	6
61	1	7	11½
62	1	8	5
63	1	8	10½
64	1	9	4
65	1	9	9½
66	1	10	3
67	1	10	8½
68	1	11	2
69	1	11	7½
70	1	12	1
71	1	12	6½
72	1	13	0
73	1	13	5½
74	1	13	11
75	1	14	4½
76	1	14	10
77	1	15	3½
78	1	15	9
79	1	16	2½
80	1	16	8
81	1	17	1½
82	1	17	7
83	1	18	0½
84	1	18	6
85	1	18	11½
86	1	19	5
87	1	19	10½

No.	£	s.	d.
88	2	0	4
89	2	0	9½
90	2	1	3
91	2	1	8½
92	2	2	2
93	2	2	7½
94	2	3	1
95	2	3	6½
96	2	4	0
97	2	4	5½
98	2	4	11
99	2	5	4½
100	2	5	10
110	2	10	5
112	2	11	4
120	2	15	0
130	2	19	7
140	3	4	2
144	3	6	0
150	3	8	9
160	3	13	4
170	3	17	11
180	4	2	6
190	4	7	1
200	4	11	8
210	4	16	3
220	5	0	10
230	5	5	5
240	5	10	0
250	5	14	7

No.	£	s.	d.
256	5	17	4
272	6	4	8
300	6	17	6
365	8	7	3½
400	9	3	4
500	11	9	2
600	13	15	0
700	16	0	10
750	17	3	9
800	18	6	8
900	20	12	6
1000	22	18	4
1100	25	4	2
1200	27	10	0
1250	28	12	11
1300	29	15	10
1400	32	1	8
1500	34	7	6
2000	45	16	8
3000	68	15	0
4000	91	13	4
5000	114	11	8
6000	137	10	0
7000	160	8	4
8000	183	6	8
9000	206	5	0
10000	229	3	4
20000	458	6	8
25000	572	18	4
50000	1145	16	8

At 5 Pence 3 Farthings.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	5¾
2	0	0	11½
3	0	1	5¼
4	0	1	11
5	0	2	4¾
6	0	2	10½
7	0	3	4¼
8	0	3	10
9	0	4	3¾
10	0	4	9½
11	0	5	3¼
12	0	5	9
13	0	6	2¾
14	0	6	8½
15	0	7	2¼
16	0	7	8
17	0	8	1¾
18	0	8	7½
19	0	9	1¼
20	0	9	7
21	0	10	0¾
22	0	10	6½
23	0	11	0¼
24	0	11	6
25	0	11	11¾
26	0	12	5½
27	0	12	11¼
28	0	13	5
29	0	13	10¾
30	0	14	4½
31	0	14	10¼
32	0	15	4
33	0	15	9¾
34	0	16	3½
35	0	16	9¼
36	0	17	3
37	0	17	8¾
38	0	18	2½
39	0	18	8¼
40	0	19	2
41	0	19	7¾
42	1	0	1½
43	1	0	7¼
44	1	1	1
45	1	1	6¾
46	1	2	0½
47	1	2	6¼
48	1	3	0
49	1	3	5¾
50	1	3	11½
51	1	4	5¼
52	1	4	11
53	1	5	4¾
54	1	5	10½
55	1	6	4¼
56	1	6	10
57	1	7	3¾
58	1	7	9½
59	1	8	3¼
60	1	8	9
61	1	9	2¾
62	1	9	8½
63	1	10	2¼
64	1	10	8
65	1	11	1¾
66	1	11	7½
67	1	12	1¼
68	1	12	7
69	1	13	0¾
70	1	13	6½
71	1	14	0¼
72	1	14	6
73	1	14	11¾
74	1	15	5½
75	1	15	11¼
76	1	16	5
77	1	16	10¾
78	1	17	4½
79	1	17	10¼
80	1	18	4
81	1	18	9¾
82	1	19	3½
83	1	19	9¼
84	2	0	3
85	2	0	8¾
86	2	1	2½
87	2	1	8¼
88	2	2	2
89	2	2	7¾
90	2	3	1½
91	2	3	7¼
92	2	4	1
93	2	4	6¾
94	2	5	0½
95	2	5	6¼
96	2	6	0
97	2	6	5¾
98	2	6	11½
99	2	7	5¼
100	2	7	11
110	2	12	8½
112	2	13	8
120	2	17	6
130	3	2	3½
140	3	7	1
144	3	9	0
150	3	11	10½
160	3	16	8
170	4	1	5½
180	4	6	3
190	4	11	0½
200	4	15	10
210	5	0	7½
220	5	5	5
230	5	10	2½
240	5	15	0
250	5	19	9½
256	6	2	8
272	6	10	4
300	7	3	9
365	8	14	10¾
400	9	11	8
500	11	19	7
600	14	7	6
700	16	15	5
750	17	19	4½
800	19	3	4
900	21	11	3
1000	23	19	2
1100	26	7	1
1200	28	15	0
1250	29	18	11¼
1300	31	2	11
1400	33	10	10
1500	35	18	9
2000	47	18	4
3000	71	17	6
4000	95	16	8
5000	119	15	10
6000	143	15	0
7000	167	14	2
8000	191	13	4
9000	215	12	6
10000	239	11	8
20000	479	3	4
25000	598	19	2
50000	1197	18	4

At 6 Pence.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	6
2	0	1	0
3	0	1	6
4	0	2	0
5	0	2	6
6	0	3	0
7	0	3	6
8	0	4	0
9	0	4	6
10	0	5	0
11	0	5	6
12	0	6	0
13	0	6	6
14	0	7	0
15	0	7	6
16	0	8	0
17	0	8	6
18	0	9	0
19	0	9	6
20	0	10	0
21	0	10	6
22	0	11	0
23	0	11	6
24	0	12	0
25	0	12	6
26	0	13	0
27	0	13	6
28	0	14	0
29	0	14	6
30	0	15	0
31	0	15	6
32	0	16	0
33	0	16	6
34	0	17	0
35	0	17	6
36	0	18	0
37	0	18	6
38	0	19	0
39	0	19	6
40	1	0	0
41	1	0	6
42	1	1	0
43	1	1	6
44	1	2	0
45	1	2	6
46	1	3	0
47	1	3	6
48	1	4	0
49	1	4	6
50	1	5	0
51	1	5	6
52	1	6	0
53	1	6	6
54	1	7	0
55	1	7	6
56	1	8	0
57	1	8	6
58	1	9	0
59	1	9	6
60	1	10	0
61	1	10	6
62	1	11	0
63	1	11	6
64	1	12	0
65	1	12	6
66	1	13	0
67	1	13	6
68	1	14	0
69	1	14	6
70	1	15	0
71	1	15	6
72	1	16	0
73	1	16	6
74	1	17	0
75	1	17	6
76	1	18	0
77	1	18	6
78	1	19	0
79	1	19	6
80	2	0	0
81	2	0	6
82	2	1	0
83	2	1	6
84	2	2	0
85	2	2	6
86	2	3	0
87	2	3	6
88	2	4	0
89	2	4	6
90	2	5	0
91	2	5	6
92	2	6	0
93	2	6	6
94	2	7	0
95	2	7	6
96	2	8	0
97	2	8	6
98	2	9	0
99	2	9	6
100	2	10	0
110	2	15	0
112	2	16	0
120	3	0	0
130	3	5	0
140	3	10	0
144	3	12	0
150	3	15	0
160	4	0	0
170	4	5	0
180	4	10	0
190	4	15	0
200	5	0	0
210	5	5	0
220	5	10	0
230	5	15	0
240	6	0	0
250	6	5	0
256	6	8	0
272	6	16	0
300	7	10	0
365	9	2	6
400	10	0	0
500	12	10	0
600	15	0	0
700	17	10	0
750	18	15	0
800	20	0	0
900	22	10	0
1000	25	0	0
1100	27	10	0
1200	30	0	0
1250	31	5	0
1300	32	10	0
1400	35	0	0
1500	37	10	0
2000	50	0	0
3000	75	0	0
4000	100	0	0
5000	125	0	0
6000	150	0	0
7000	175	0	0
8000	200	0	0
9000	225	0	0
10000	250	0	0
20000	500	0	0
25000	625	0	0
50000	1250	0	0

At 6 Pence 1 Farthing.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	6¼
2	0	1	0½
3	0	1	6¾
4	0	2	1
5	0	2	7¼
6	0	3	1½
7	0	3	7¾
8	0	4	2
9	0	4	8¼
10	0	5	2½
11	0	5	8¾
12	0	6	3
13	0	6	9¼
14	0	7	3½
15	0	7	9¾
16	0	8	4
17	0	8	10¼
18	0	9	4½
19	0	9	10¾
20	0	10	5
21	0	10	11¼
22	0	11	5½
23	0	11	11¾
24	0	12	6
25	0	13	0¼
26	0	13	6½
27	0	14	0¾

No.	£	s.	d.
28	0	14	7
29	0	15	1¼
30	0	15	7½
31	0	16	1¾
32	0	16	8
33	0	17	2¼
34	0	17	8½
35	0	18	2¾
36	0	18	9
37	0	19	3¼
38	0	19	9½
39	1	0	3¾
40	1	0	10
41	1	1	4¼
42	1	1	10½
43	1	2	4¾
44	1	2	11
45	1	3	5¼
46	1	3	11½
47	1	4	5¾
48	1	5	0
49	1	5	6¼
50	1	6	0½
51	1	6	6¾
52	1	7	1
53	1	7	7¼
54	1	8	1½
55	1	8	7¾
56	1	9	2
57	1	9	8¼

No.	£	s.	d.
58	1	10	2½
59	1	10	8¾
60	1	11	3
61	1	11	9¼
62	1	12	3½
63	1	12	9¾
64	1	13	4
65	1	13	10¼
66	1	14	4½
67	1	14	10¾
68	1	15	5
69	1	15	11¼
70	1	16	5½
71	1	16	11¾
72	1	17	6
73	1	18	0¼
74	1	18	6½
75	1	19	0¾
76	1	19	7
77	2	0	1¼
78	2	0	7½
79	2	1	1¾
80	2	1	8
81	2	2	2¼
82	2	2	8½
83	2	3	2¾
84	2	3	9
85	2	4	3¼
86	2	4	9½
87	2	5	3¾

No.	£	s.	d.
88	2	5	10
89	2	6	4¼
90	2	6	10½
91	2	7	4¾
92	2	7	11
93	2	8	5¼
94	2	8	11½
95	2	9	5¾
96	2	10	0
97	2	10	6¼
98	2	11	0½
99	2	11	6¾
100	2	12	1
110	2	17	3½
112	2	18	4
120	3	2	6
130	3	7	8½
140	3	12	11
144	3	15	0
150	3	18	1½
160	4	3	4
170	4	8	6½
180	4	13	9
190	4	18	11½
200	5	4	2
210	5	9	4½
220	5	14	7
230	5	19	9½
240	6	5	0
250	6	10	2½

No.	£	s.	d.
256	6	13	4
272	7	1	8
300	7	16	3
365	9	10	1¼
400	10	8	4
500	13	0	5
600	15	12	6
700	18	4	7
750	19	10	7½
800	20	16	8
900	23	8	9
1000	26	0	10
1100	28	12	11
1200	31	5	0
1250	32	11	0½
1300	33	17	1
1400	36	9	2
1500	39	1	3
2000	52	1	8
3000	78	2	6
4000	104	3	4
5000	130	4	2
6000	156	5	0
7000	182	5	10
8000	208	6	8
9000	234	7	6
10000	260	8	4
20000	520	16	8
25000	651	0	10
50000	1302	1	8

At 6 Pence Halfpenny.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	6½
2	0	1	1
3	0	1	7½
4	0	2	2
5	0	2	8½
6	0	3	3
7	0	3	9½
8	0	4	4
9	0	4	10½
10	0	5	5
11	0	5	11½
12	0	6	6
13	0	7	0½
14	0	7	7
15	0	8	1½
16	0	8	8
17	0	9	2½
18	0	9	9
19	0	10	3½
20	0	10	10
21	0	11	4½
22	0	11	11
23	0	12	5½
24	0	13	0
25	0	13	6½
26	0	14	1
27	0	14	7½

No.	£	s.	d.
28	0	15	2
29	0	15	8½
30	0	16	3
31	0	16	9½
32	0	17	4
33	0	17	10½
34	0	18	5
35	0	18	11½
36	0	19	6
37	1	0	0½
38	1	0	7
39	1	1	1½
40	1	1	8
41	1	2	2½
42	1	2	9
43	1	3	3½
44	1	3	10
45	1	4	4½
46	1	4	11
47	1	5	5½
48	1	6	0
49	1	6	6½
50	1	7	1
51	1	7	7½
52	1	8	2
53	1	8	8½
54	1	9	3
55	1	9	9½
56	1	10	4
57	1	10	10½

No.	£	s.	d.
58	1	11	5
59	1	11	11½
60	1	12	6
61	1	13	0½
62	1	13	7
63	1	14	1½
64	1	14	8
65	1	15	2½
66	1	15	9
67	1	16	3½
68	1	16	10
69	1	17	4½
70	1	17	11
71	1	18	5½
72	1	19	0
73	1	19	6½
74	2	0	1
75	2	0	7½
76	2	1	2
77	2	1	8½
78	2	2	3
79	2	2	9½
80	2	3	4
81	2	3	10½
82	2	4	5
83	2	4	11½
84	2	5	6
85	2	6	0½
86	2	6	7
87	2	7	1½

No.	£	s.	d.
88	2	7	8
89	2	8	2½
90	2	8	9
91	2	9	3½
92	2	9	10
93	2	10	4½
94	2	10	11
95	2	11	5½
96	2	12	0
97	2	12	6½
98	2	13	1
99	2	13	7½
100	2	14	2
110	2	19	7
112	3	0	8
120	3	5	0
130	3	10	5
140	3	15	10
144	3	18	0
150	4	1	3
160	4	6	8
170	4	12	1
180	4	17	6
190	5	2	11
200	5	8	4
210	5	13	9
220	5	19	2
230	6	4	7
240	6	10	0
250	6	15	5

No.	£	s.	d.
256	6	18	8
272	7	7	4
300	8	2	6
365	9	17	8½
400	10	16	8
500	13	10	10
600	16	5	0
700	18	19	2
750	20	6	3
800	21	13	4
900	24	7	6
1000	27	1	8
1100	29	15	10
1200	32	10	0
1250	33	17	1
1300	35	4	2
1400	37	18	4
1500	40	12	6
2000	54	3	4
3000	81	5	0
4000	108	6	8
5000	135	8	4
6000	162	10	0
7000	189	11	8
8000	216	13	4
9000	243	15	0
10000	270	16	8
20000	541	13	4
25000	677	1	8
50000	1354	3	4

At 6 Pence 3 Farthings

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	6¾
2	0	1	1½
3	0	1	8¼
4	0	2	3
5	0	2	9¾
6	0	3	4½
7	0	3	11¼
8	0	4	6
9	0	5	0¾
10	0	5	7½
11	0	6	2¼
12	0	6	9
13	0	7	3¾
14	0	7	10½
15	0	8	5¼
16	0	9	0
17	0	9	6¾
18	0	10	1½
19	0	10	8¼
20	0	11	3
21	0	11	9¾
22	0	12	4½
23	0	12	11¼
24	0	13	6
25	0	14	0¾
26	0	14	7½
27	0	15	2¼
28	0	15	9
29	0	16	3¾
30	0	16	10½
31	0	17	5¼
32	0	18	0
33	0	18	6¾
34	0	19	1½
35	0	19	8¼
36	1	0	3
37	1	0	9¾
38	1	1	4½
39	1	1	11¼
40	1	2	6
41	1	3	0¾
42	1	3	7½
43	1	4	2¼
44	1	4	9
45	1	5	3¾
46	1	5	10½
47	1	6	5¼
48	1	7	0
49	1	7	6¾
50	1	8	1½
51	1	8	8¼
52	1	9	3
53	1	9	9¾
54	1	10	4½
55	1	10	11¼
56	1	11	6
57	1	12	0¾
58	1	12	7½
59	1	13	2¼
60	1	13	9
61	1	14	3¾
62	1	14	10½
63	1	15	5¼
64	1	16	0
65	1	16	6¾
66	1	17	1½
67	1	17	8¼
68	1	18	3
69	1	18	9¾
70	1	19	4½
71	1	19	11¼
72	2	0	6
73	2	1	0¾
74	2	1	7½
75	2	2	2¼
76	2	2	9
77	2	3	3¾
78	2	3	10½
79	2	4	5¼
80	2	5	0
81	2	5	6¾
82	2	6	1½
83	2	6	8¼
84	2	7	3
85	2	7	9¾
86	2	8	4½
87	2	8	11¼
88	2	9	6
89	2	10	0¾
90	2	10	7½
91	2	11	2¼
92	2	11	9
93	2	12	3¾
94	2	12	10½
95	2	13	5¼
96	2	14	0
97	2	14	6¾
98	2	15	1½
99	2	15	8¼
100	2	16	3
110	3	1	10½
112	3	3	0
120	3	7	6
130	3	13	1½
140	3	18	9
144	4	1	0
150	4	4	4½
160	4	10	0
170	4	15	7½
180	5	1	3
190	5	6	10½
200	5	12	6
210	5	18	1½
220	6	3	9
230	6	9	4½
240	6	15	0
250	7	0	7½
256	7	4	0
272	7	13	0
300	8	8	9
365	10	5	3¾
400	11	5	0
500	14	1	3
600	16	17	6
700	19	13	9
750	21	1	10½
800	22	10	0
900	25	6	3
1000	28	2	6
1100	30	18	9
1200	33	15	0
1250	35	3	1½
1300	36	11	3
1400	39	7	6
1500	42	3	9
2000	56	5	0
3000	84	7	6
4000	112	10	0
5000	140	12	6
6000	168	15	0
7000	196	17	6
8000	225	0	0
9000	253	2	6
10000	281	5	0
20000	562	10	0
25000	703	2	6
50000	1406	5	0

At 7 Pence.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	7
2	0	1	2
3	0	1	9
4	0	2	4
5	0	2	11
6	0	3	6
7	0	4	1
8	0	4	8
9	0	5	3
10	0	5	10
11	0	6	5
12	0	7	0
13	0	7	7
14	0	8	2
15	0	8	9
16	0	9	4
17	0	9	11
18	0	10	6
19	0	11	1
20	0	11	8
21	0	12	3
22	0	12	10
23	0	13	5
24	0	14	0
25	0	14	7
26	0	15	2
27	0	15	9
28	0	16	4
29	0	16	11
30	0	17	6
31	0	18	1
32	0	18	8
33	0	19	3
34	0	19	10
35	1	0	5
36	1	1	0
37	1	1	7
38	1	2	2
39	1	2	9
40	1	3	4
41	1	3	11
42	1	4	6
43	1	5	1
44	1	5	8
45	1	6	3
46	1	6	10
47	1	7	5
48	1	8	0
49	1	8	7
50	1	9	2
51	1	9	9
52	1	10	4
53	1	10	11
54	1	11	6
55	1	12	1
56	1	12	8
57	1	13	3
58	1	13	10
59	1	14	5
60	1	15	0
61	1	15	7
62	1	16	2
63	1	16	9
64	1	17	4
65	1	17	11
66	1	18	6
67	1	19	1
68	1	19	8
69	2	0	3
70	2	0	10
71	2	1	5
72	2	2	0
73	2	2	7
74	2	3	2
75	2	3	9
76	2	4	4
77	2	4	11
78	2	5	6
79	2	6	1
80	2	6	8
81	2	7	3
82	2	7	10
83	2	8	5
84	2	9	0
85	2	9	7
86	2	10	2
87	2	10	9
88	2	11	4
89	2	11	11
90	2	12	6
91	2	13	1
92	2	13	8
93	2	14	3
94	2	14	10
95	2	15	5
96	2	16	0
97	2	16	7
98	2	17	2
99	2	17	9
100	2	18	4
110	3	4	2
112	3	5	4
120	3	10	0
130	3	15	10
140	4	1	8
144	4	4	0
150	4	7	6
160	4	13	4
170	4	19	2
180	5	5	0
190	5	10	10
200	5	16	8
210	6	2	6
220	6	8	4
230	6	14	2
240	7	0	0
250	7	5	10
256	7	9	4
272	7	18	8
300	8	15	0
365	10	12	11
400	11	13	4
500	14	11	8
600	17	10	0
700	20	8	4
750	21	17	6
800	23	6	8
900	26	5	0
1000	29	3	4
1100	32	1	8
1200	35	0	0
1250	36	9	2
1300	37	18	4
1400	40	16	8
1500	43	15	0
2000	58	6	8
3000	87	10	0
4000	116	13	4
5000	145	16	8
6000	175	0	0
7000	204	3	4
8000	233	6	8
9000	262	10	0
10000	291	13	4
20000	583	6	8
25000	729	3	4
50000	1458	6	8

At 7 Pence 1 Farthing.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	7¼
2	0	1	2½
3	0	1	9¾
4	0	2	5
5	0	3	0¼
6	0	3	7½
7	0	4	2¾
8	0	4	10
9	0	5	5¼
10	0	6	0½
11	0	6	7¾
12	0	7	3
13	0	7	10¼
14	0	8	5½
15	0	9	0¾
16	0	9	8
17	0	10	3¼
18	0	10	10½
19	0	11	5¾
20	0	12	1
21	0	12	8¼
22	0	13	3½
23	0	13	10¾
24	0	14	6
25	0	15	1¼
26	0	15	8½
27	0	16	3¾

No.	£	s.	d.
28	0	16	11
29	0	17	6¼
30	0	18	1½
31	0	18	8¾
32	0	19	4
33	0	19	11¼
34	1	0	6½
35	1	1	1¾
36	1	1	9
37	1	2	4¼
38	1	2	11½
39	1	3	6¾
40	1	4	2
41	1	4	9¼
42	1	5	4½
43	1	5	11¾
44	1	6	7
45	1	7	2¼
46	1	7	9½
47	1	8	4¾
48	1	9	0
49	1	9	7¼
50	1	10	2½
51	1	10	9¾
52	1	11	5
53	1	12	0¼
54	1	12	7½
55	1	13	2¾
56	1	13	10
57	1	14	5¼

No.	£	s.	d.
58	1	15	0½
59	1	15	7¾
60	1	16	3
61	1	16	10¼
62	1	17	5½
63	1	18	0¾
64	1	18	8
65	1	19	3¼
66	1	19	10½
67	2	0	5¾
68	2	1	1
69	2	1	8¼
70	2	2	3½
71	2	2	10¾
72	2	3	6
73	2	4	1¼
74	2	4	8½
75	2	5	3¾
76	2	5	11
77	2	6	6¼
78	2	7	1½
79	2	7	8¾
80	2	8	4
81	2	8	11¼
82	2	9	6½
83	2	10	1¾
84	2	10	9
85	2	11	4¼
86	2	11	11½
87	2	12	6¾

No.	£	s.	d.
88	2	13	2
89	2	13	9¼
90	2	14	4½
91	2	14	11¾
92	2	15	7
93	2	16	2¼
94	2	16	9½
95	2	17	4¾
96	2	18	0
97	2	18	7¼
98	2	19	2½
99	2	19	9¾
100	3	0	5
110	3	6	5½
112	3	7	8
120	3	12	6
130	3	18	6½
140	4	4	7
144	4	7	0
150	4	10	7½
160	4	16	8
170	5	2	8½
180	5	8	9
190	5	14	9½
200	6	0	10
210	6	6	10½
220	6	12	11
230	6	18	11½
240	7	5	0
250	7	11	0½

No.	£	s.	d.
256	7	14	8
272	8	4	4
300	9	1	3
365	11	0	6¼
400	12	1	8
500	15	2	1
600	18	2	6
700	21	2	11
750	22	13	1½
800	24	3	4
900	27	3	9
1000	30	4	2
1100	33	4	7
1200	36	5	0
1250	37	15	2½
1300	39	5	5
1400	42	5	10
1500	45	6	3
2000	60	8	4
3000	90	12	6
4000	120	16	8
5000	151	0	10
6000	181	5	0
7000	211	9	2
8000	241	13	4
9000	271	17	6
10000	302	1	8
20000	604	3	4
25000	755	4	2
50000	1510	8	4

At 7 Pence Halfpenny.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	7½
2	0	1	3
3	0	1	10½
4	0	2	6
5	0	3	1½
6	0	3	9
7	0	4	4½
8	0	5	0
9	0	5	7½
10	0	6	3
11	0	6	10½
12	0	7	6
13	0	8	1½
14	0	8	9
15	0	9	4½
16	0	10	0
17	0	10	7½
18	0	11	3
19	0	11	10½
20	0	12	6
21	0	13	1½
22	0	13	9
23	0	14	4½
24	0	15	0
25	0	15	7½
26	0	16	3
27	0	16	10½

No.	£	s.	d.
28	0	17	6
29	0	18	1½
30	0	18	9
31	0	19	4½
32	1	0	0
33	1	0	7½
34	1	1	3
35	1	1	10½
36	1	2	6
37	1	3	1½
38	1	3	9
39	1	4	4½
40	1	5	0
41	1	5	7½
42	1	6	3
43	1	6	10½
44	1	7	6
45	1	8	1½
46	1	8	9
47	1	9	4½
48	1	10	0
49	1	10	7½
50	1	11	3
51	1	11	10½
52	1	12	6
53	1	13	1½
54	1	13	9
55	1	14	4½
56	1	15	0
57	1	15	7½

No.	£	s.	d.
58	1	16	3
59	1	16	10½
60	1	17	6
61	1	18	1½
62	1	18	9
63	1	19	4½
64	2	0	0
65	2	0	7½
66	2	1	3
67	2	1	10½
68	2	2	6
69	2	3	1½
70	2	3	9
71	2	4	4½
72	2	5	0
73	2	5	7½
74	2	6	3
75	2	6	10½
76	2	7	6
77	2	8	1½
78	2	8	9
79	2	9	4½
80	2	10	0
81	2	10	7½
82	2	11	3
83	2	11	10½
84	2	12	6
85	2	13	1½
86	2	13	9
87	2	14	4½

No.	£	s.	d.
88	2	15	0
89	2	15	7½
90	2	16	3
91	2	16	10½
92	2	17	6
93	2	18	1½
94	2	18	9
95	2	19	4½
96	3	0	0
97	3	0	7½
98	3	1	3
99	3	1	10½
100	3	2	6
110	3	8	9
112	3	10	0
120	3	15	0
130	4	1	3
140	4	7	6
144	4	10	0
150	4	13	9
160	5	0	0
170	5	6	3
180	5	12	6
190	5	18	9
200	6	5	0
210	6	11	3
220	6	17	6
230	7	3	9
240	7	10	0
250	7	16	3

No.	£	s.	d.
256	8	0	0
272	8	10	0
300	9	7	6
365	11	8	1½
400	12	10	0
500	15	12	6
600	18	15	0
700	21	17	6
750	23	8	9
800	25	0	0
900	28	2	6
1000	31	5	0
1100	34	7	6
1200	37	10	0
1250	39	1	3
1300	40	12	6
1400	43	15	0
1500	46	17	0
2000	62	10	0
3000	93	15	0
4000	125	0	0
5000	156	5	0
6000	187	10	0
7000	218	15	0
8000	250	0	0
9000	281	5	0
10000	312	10	0
20000	625	0	0
25000	781	5	0
50000	1562	10	0

At 7 Pence 3 Farthings.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	7¾
2	0	1	3½
3	0	1	11¼
4	0	2	7
5	0	3	2¾
6	0	3	10½
7	0	4	6¼
8	0	5	2
9	0	5	9¾
10	0	6	5½
11	0	7	1¼
12	0	7	9
13	0	8	4¾
14	0	9	0½
15	0	9	8¼
16	0	10	4
17	0	10	11¾
18	0	11	7½
19	0	12	3¼
20	0	12	11
21	0	13	6¾
22	0	14	2½
23	0	14	10¼
24	0	15	6
25	0	16	1¾
26	0	16	9½
27	0	17	5¼
28	0	18	1
29	0	18	8¾
30	0	19	4½
31	1	0	0¼
32	1	0	8
33	1	1	3¾
34	1	1	11½
35	1	2	7¼
36	1	3	3
37	1	3	10¾
38	1	4	6½
39	1	5	2¼
40	1	5	10
41	1	6	5¾
42	1	7	1½
43	1	7	9¼
44	1	8	5
45	1	9	0¾
46	1	9	8½
47	1	10	4¼
48	1	11	0
49	1	11	7¾
50	1	12	3½
51	1	12	11¼
52	1	13	7
53	1	14	2¾
54	1	14	10½
55	1	15	6¼
56	1	16	2
57	1	16	9¾
58	1	17	5½
59	1	18	1¼
60	1	18	9
61	1	19	4¾
62	2	0	0½
63	2	0	8¼
64	2	1	4
65	2	1	11¾
66	2	2	7½
67	2	3	3¼
68	2	3	11
69	2	4	6¾
70	2	5	2½
71	2	5	10¼
72	2	6	6
73	2	7	1¾
74	2	7	9½
75	2	8	5¼
76	2	9	1
77	2	9	8¾
78	2	10	4½
79	2	11	0¼
80	2	11	8
81	2	12	3¾
82	2	12	11½
83	2	13	7¼
84	2	14	3
85	2	14	10¾
86	2	15	6½
87	2	16	2¼
88	2	16	10
89	2	17	5¾
90	2	18	1½
91	2	18	9¼
92	2	19	5
93	3	0	0¾
94	3	0	8½
95	3	1	4¼
96	3	2	0
97	3	2	7¾
98	3	3	3½
99	3	3	11¼
100	3	4	7
110	3	11	0½
112	3	12	4
120	3	17	6
130	4	3	11½
140	4	10	5
144	4	13	0
150	4	16	10½
160	5	3	4
170	5	9	9½
180	5	16	3
190	6	2	8½
200	6	9	2
210	6	15	7½
220	7	2	1
230	7	8	6½
240	7	15	0
250	8	1	5½
256	8	5	4
272	8	15	8
300	9	13	9
365	11	15	8¾
400	12	18	4
500	16	2	11
600	19	7	6
700	22	12	1
750	24	4	4½
800	25	16	8
900	29	1	3
1000	32	5	10
1100	35	10	5
1200	38	15	0
1250	40	7	3½
1300	41	19	7
1400	45	4	2
1500	48	8	9
2000	64	11	8
3000	96	17	6
4000	129	3	4
5000	161	9	2
6000	193	15	9
7000	226	0	10
8000	258	6	8
9000	290	12	6
10000	322	18	4
20000	645	16	8
25000	807	5	10
50000	1614	11	8

At 8 Pence.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	8
2	0	1	4
3	0	2	0
4	0	2	8
5	0	3	4
6	0	4	0
7	0	4	8
8	0	5	4
9	0	6	0
10	0	6	8
11	0	7	4
12	0	8	0
13	0	8	8
14	0	9	4
15	0	10	0
16	0	10	8
17	0	11	4
18	0	12	0
19	0	12	8
20	0	13	4
21	0	14	0
22	0	14	8
23	0	15	4
24	0	16	0
25	0	16	8
26	0	17	4
27	0	18	0
28	0	18	8
29	0	19	4
30	1	0	0
31	1	0	8
32	1	1	4
33	1	2	0
34	1	2	8
35	1	3	4
36	1	4	0
37	1	4	8
38	1	5	4
39	1	6	0
40	1	6	8
41	1	7	4
42	1	8	0
43	1	8	8
44	1	9	4
45	1	10	0
46	1	10	8
47	1	11	4
48	1	12	0
49	1	12	8
50	1	13	4
51	1	14	0
52	1	14	8
53	1	15	4
54	1	16	0
55	1	16	8
56	1	17	4
57	1	18	0
58	1	18	8
59	1	19	4
60	2	0	0
61	2	0	8
62	2	1	4
63	2	2	0
64	2	2	8
65	2	3	4
66	2	4	0
67	2	4	8
68	2	5	4
69	2	6	0
70	2	6	8
71	2	7	4
72	2	8	0
73	2	8	8
74	2	9	4
75	2	10	0
76	2	10	8
77	2	11	4
78	2	12	0
79	2	12	8
80	2	13	4
81	2	14	0
82	2	14	8
83	2	15	4
84	2	16	0
85	2	16	8
86	2	17	4
87	2	18	0
88	2	18	8
89	2	19	4
90	3	0	0
91	3	0	8
92	3	1	4
93	3	2	0
94	3	2	8
95	3	3	4
96	3	4	0
97	3	4	8
98	3	5	4
99	3	6	0
100	3	6	8
110	3	13	4
112	3	14	8
120	4	0	0
130	4	6	8
140	4	13	4
144	4	16	0
150	5	0	0
160	5	6	8
170	5	13	4
180	6	0	0
190	6	6	8
200	6	13	4
210	7	0	0
220	7	6	8
230	7	13	4
240	8	0	0
250	8	6	8
256	8	10	8
272	9	1	4
300	10	0	0
365	12	3	4
400	13	6	8
500	16	13	4
600	20	0	0
700	23	6	8
750	25	0	0
800	26	13	4
900	30	0	0
1000	33	6	8
1100	36	13	4
1200	40	0	0
1250	41	13	4
1300	43	6	8
1400	46	13	4
1500	50	0	0
2000	66	13	4
3000	100	0	0
4000	133	6	8
5000	166	13	4
6000	200	0	0
7000	233	6	8
8000	266	13	4
9000	300	0	0
10000	333	6	8
20000	666	13	4
25000	833	6	8
50000	1666	13	4

At 8 Pence 1 Farthing.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	8¼
2	0	1	4½
3	0	2	0¾
4	0	2	9
5	0	3	5¼
6	0	4	1½
7	0	4	9¾
8	0	5	6
9	0	6	2¼
10	0	6	10½
11	0	7	6¾
12	0	8	3
13	0	8	11¼
14	0	9	7½
15	0	10	3¾
16	0	11	0
17	0	11	8¼
18	0	12	4½
19	0	13	0¾
20	0	13	9
21	0	14	5¼
22	0	15	1½
23	0	15	9¾
24	0	16	6
25	0	17	2¼
26	0	17	10½
27	0	18	6¾
28	0	19	3
29	0	19	11¼
30	1	0	7½
31	1	1	3¾
32	1	2	0
33	1	2	8¼
34	1	3	4½
35	1	4	0¾
36	1	4	9
37	1	5	5¼
38	1	6	1½
39	1	6	9¾
40	1	7	6
41	1	8	2¼
42	1	8	10½
43	1	9	6¾
44	1	10	3
45	1	10	11¼
46	1	11	7½
47	1	12	3¾
48	1	13	0
49	1	13	8¼
50	1	14	4½
51	1	15	0¾
52	1	15	9
53	1	16	5¼
54	1	17	1½
55	1	17	9¾
56	1	18	6
57	1	19	2¼
58	1	19	10½
59	2	0	6¾
60	2	1	3
61	2	1	11¼
62	2	2	7½
63	2	3	3¾
64	2	4	0
65	2	4	8¼
66	2	5	4½
67	2	6	0¾
68	2	6	9
69	2	7	5¼
70	2	8	1½
71	2	8	9¾
72	2	9	6
73	2	10	2¼
74	2	10	10½
75	2	11	6¾
76	2	12	3
77	2	12	11¼
78	2	13	7½
79	2	14	3¾
80	2	15	0
81	2	15	8¼
82	2	16	4½
83	2	17	0¾
84	2	17	9
85	2	18	5¼
86	2	19	1½
87	2	19	9¾
88	3	0	6
89	3	1	2¼
90	3	1	10½
91	3	2	6¾
92	3	3	3
93	3	3	11¼
94	3	4	7½
95	3	5	3¾
96	3	6	0
97	3	6	8¼
98	3	7	4½
99	3	8	0¾
100	3	8	9
110	3	15	7½
112	3	17	0
120	4	2	6
130	4	9	4½
140	4	16	3
144	4	19	0
150	5	3	1½
160	5	10	0
170	5	16	10½
180	6	3	9
190	6	10	7½
200	6	17	6
210	7	4	4½
220	7	11	3
230	7	18	1½
240	8	5	0
250	8	11	10½
256	8	16	0
272	9	7	0
300	10	6	3
365	12	10	11¼
400	13	15	0
500	17	3	9
600	20	12	6
700	24	1	3
750	25	15	7½
800	27	10	0
900	30	18	9
1000	34	7	6
1100	37	16	3
1200	41	5	0
1250	42	19	4½
1300	44	13	9
1400	48	2	6
1500	51	11	3
2000	68	15	0
3000	103	2	6
4000	137	10	0
5000	171	17	6
6000	206	5	0
7000	240	12	6
8000	275	0	0
9000	309	7	6
10000	343	15	0
20000	687	10	0
25000	859	7	6
50000	1718	15	0

At 8 Pence Halfpenny.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	8½
2	0	1	5
3	0	2	1½
4	0	2	10
5	0	3	6½
6	0	4	3
7	0	4	11½
8	0	5	8
9	0	6	4½
10	0	7	1
11	0	7	9½
12	0	8	6
13	0	9	2½
14	0	9	11
15	0	10	7½
16	0	11	4
17	0	12	0½
18	0	12	9
19	0	13	5½
20	0	14	2
21	0	14	10½
22	0	15	7
23	0	16	3½
24	0	17	0
25	0	17	8½
26	0	18	5
27	0	19	1½
28	0	19	10
29	1	0	6½
30	1	1	3
31	1	1	11½
32	1	2	8
33	1	3	4½
34	1	4	1
35	1	4	9½
36	1	5	6
37	1	6	2½
38	1	6	11
39	1	7	7½
40	1	8	4
41	1	9	0½
42	1	9	9
43	1	10	5½
44	1	11	2
45	1	11	10½
46	1	12	7
47	1	13	3½
48	1	14	0
49	1	14	8½
50	1	15	5
51	1	16	1½
52	1	16	10
53	1	17	6½
54	1	18	3
55	1	18	11½
56	1	19	8
57	2	0	4½
58	2	1	1
59	2	1	9½
60	2	2	6
61	2	3	2½
62	2	3	11
63	2	4	7½
64	2	5	4
65	2	6	0½
66	2	6	9
67	2	7	5½
68	2	8	2
69	2	8	10½
70	2	9	7
71	2	10	3½
72	2	11	0
73	2	11	8½
74	2	12	5
75	2	13	1½
76	2	13	10
77	2	14	6½
78	2	15	3
79	2	15	11½
80	2	16	8
81	2	17	4½
82	2	18	1
83	2	18	9½
84	2	19	6
85	3	0	2½
86	3	0	11
87	3	1	7½
88	3	2	4
89	3	3	0½
90	3	3	9
91	3	4	5½
92	3	5	2
93	3	5	10½
94	3	6	7
95	3	7	3½
96	3	8	0
97	3	8	8½
98	3	9	5
99	3	10	1½
100	3	10	10
110	3	17	11
112	3	19	4
120	4	5	0
130	4	12	1
140	4	19	2
144	5	2	0
150	5	6	3
160	5	13	4
170	6	0	5
180	6	7	6
190	6	14	7
200	7	1	8
210	7	8	9
220	7	15	10
230	8	2	11
240	8	10	0
250	8	17	1
256	9	1	4
272	9	12	8
300	10	12	6
365	12	18	6½
400	14	3	4
500	17	14	2
600	21	5	0
700	24	15	10
750	26	11	8
800	28	6	3
900	31	17	6
1000	35	8	4
1100	38	19	2
1200	42	10	0
1250	44	5	5
1300	46	0	10
1400	49	11	8
1500	53	2	6
2000	70	16	8
3000	106	5	0
4000	141	13	4
5000	177	1	8
6000	212	10	0
7000	247	18	4
8000	283	6	8
9000	318	15	0
10000	354	3	4
20000	708	6	8
25000	885	8	4
50000	1770	16	8

At 8 Pence 3 Farthings.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	8¾
2	0	1	5½
3	0	2	2¼
4	0	2	11
5	0	3	7¾
6	0	4	4½
7	0	5	1¼
8	0	5	10
9	0	6	6¾
10	0	7	3½
11	0	8	0¼
12	0	8	9
13	0	9	5¾
14	0	10	2½
15	0	10	11¼
16	0	11	8
17	0	12	4¾
18	0	13	1½
19	0	13	10¼
20	0	14	7
21	0	15	3¾
22	0	16	0½
23	0	16	9¼
24	0	17	6
25	0	18	2¾
26	0	18	11½
27	0	19	8¼

No.	£	s.	d.
28	1	0	5
29	1	1	1¾
30	1	1	10½
31	1	2	7¼
32	1	3	4
33	1	4	0¾
34	1	4	9½
35	1	5	6¼
36	1	6	3
37	1	6	11¾
38	1	7	8½
39	1	8	5¼
40	1	9	2
41	1	9	10¾
42	1	10	7½
43	1	11	4¼
44	1	12	1
45	1	12	9¾
46	1	13	6½
47	1	14	3¼
48	1	15	0
49	1	15	8¾
50	1	16	5½
51	1	17	2¼
52	1	17	11
53	1	18	7¾
54	1	19	4½
55	2	0	1¼
56	2	0	10
57	2	1	6¾

No.	£	s.	d.
58	2	2	3½
59	2	3	0¼
60	2	3	9
61	2	4	5¾
62	2	5	2½
63	2	5	11¼
64	2	6	8
65	2	7	4¾
66	2	8	1½
67	2	8	10¼
68	2	9	7
69	2	10	3¾
70	2	11	0½
71	2	11	9¼
72	2	12	6
73	2	13	2¾
74	2	13	11½
75	2	14	8¼
76	2	15	5
77	2	16	1¾
78	2	16	10½
79	2	17	7¼
80	2	18	4
81	2	19	0¾
82	2	19	9½
83	3	0	6¼
84	3	1	3
85	3	1	11¾
86	3	2	8½
87	3	3	5¼

No.	£	s.	d.
88	3	4	2
89	3	4	10¾
90	3	5	7½
91	3	6	4¼
92	3	7	1
93	3	7	9¾
94	3	8	6½
95	3	9	3¼
96	3	10	0
97	3	10	8¾
98	3	11	5½
99	3	12	2¼
100	3	12	11
110	4	0	2½
112	4	1	8
120	4	7	6
130	4	14	9½
140	5	2	1
144	5	5	0
150	5	9	4½
160	5	16	8
170	6	3	11½
180	6	11	3
190	6	18	6½
200	7	5	10
210	7	13	1½
220	8	0	5
230	8	7	8½
240	8	15	0
250	9	2	3½

No.	£	s.	d.
256	9	6	8
272	9	18	4
300	10	18	9
365	13	6	1¾
400	14	11	8
500	18	4	7
600	21	17	6
700	25	10	5
750	27	6	10½
800	29	3	4
900	32	16	3
1000	36	9	2
1100	40	2	1
1200	43	15	0
1250	45	11	5¼
1300	47	7	11
1400	51	0	10
1500	54	13	9
2000	72	18	4
3000	109	7	6
4000	145	16	8
5000	182	5	10
6000	218	15	0
7000	255	4	2
8000	291	13	4
9000	328	2	6
10000	364	11	8
20000	729	3	4
25000	911	9	2
50000	1822	18	4

At 9 Pence.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	9
2	0	1	6
3	0	2	3
4	0	3	0
5	0	3	9
6	0	4	6
7	0	5	3
8	0	6	0
9	0	6	9
10	0	7	6
11	0	8	3
12	0	9	0
13	0	9	9
14	0	10	6
15	0	11	3
16	0	12	0
17	0	12	9
18	0	13	6
19	0	14	3
20	0	15	0
21	0	15	9
22	0	16	6
23	0	17	3
24	0	18	0
25	0	18	9
26	0	19	6
27	1	0	3

No.	£	s.	d.
28	1	1	0
29	1	1	9
30	1	2	6
31	1	3	3
32	1	4	0
33	1	4	9
34	1	5	6
35	1	6	3
36	1	7	0
37	1	7	9
38	1	8	6
39	1	9	3
40	1	10	0
41	1	10	9
42	1	11	6
43	1	12	3
44	1	13	0
45	1	13	9
46	1	14	6
47	1	15	3
48	1	16	0
49	1	16	9
50	1	17	6
51	1	18	3
52	1	19	0
53	1	19	9
54	2	0	6
55	2	1	3
56	2	2	0
57	2	2	9

No.	£	s.	d.
58	2	3	6
59	2	4	3
60	2	5	0
61	2	5	9
62	2	6	6
63	2	7	3
64	2	8	0
65	2	8	9
66	2	9	6
67	2	10	3
68	2	11	0
69	2	11	9
70	2	12	6
71	2	13	3
72	2	14	0
73	2	14	9
74	2	15	6
75	2	16	3
76	2	17	0
77	2	17	9
78	2	18	6
79	2	19	3
80	3	0	0
81	3	0	9
82	3	1	6
83	3	2	3
84	3	3	0
85	3	3	9
86	3	4	6
87	3	5	3

No.	£	s.	d.
88	3	6	0
89	3	6	9
90	3	7	6
91	3	8	3
92	3	9	0
93	3	9	9
94	3	10	6
95	3	11	3
96	3	12	0
97	3	12	9
98	3	13	6
99	3	14	3
100	3	15	0
110	4	2	6
112	4	4	0
120	4	10	0
130	4	17	6
140	5	5	0
144	5	8	0
150	5	12	6
160	6	0	0
170	6	7	6
180	6	15	0
190	7	2	6
200	7	10	0
210	7	17	6
220	8	5	0
230	8	12	6
240	9	0	0
250	9	7	6

No.	£	s.	d.
256	9	12	0
272	10	4	0
300	11	5	0
365	13	13	9
400	15	0	0
500	18	15	0
600	22	10	0
700	26	5	0
750	28	2	6
800	30	0	0
900	33	15	0
1000	37	10	0
1100	41	5	0
1200	45	0	0
1250	46	17	6
1300	48	15	0
1400	52	10	0
1500	56	5	0
2000	75	0	0
3000	112	10	0
4000	150	0	0
5000	187	10	0
6000	225	0	0
7000	262	10	0
8000	300	0	0
9000	337	10	0
10000	375	0	0
20000	750	0	0
25000	937	10	0
50000	1875	0	0

At 9 Pence 1 Farthing.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	9¼
2	0	1	6½
3	0	2	3¾
4	0	3	1
5	0	3	10¼
6	0	4	7½
7	0	5	4¾
8	0	6	2
9	0	6	11¼
10	0	7	8½
11	0	8	5¾
12	0	9	3
13	0	10	0¼
14	0	10	9½
15	0	11	6¾
16	0	12	4
17	0	13	1¼
18	0	13	10½
19	0	14	7¾
20	0	15	5
21	0	16	2¼
22	0	16	11½
23	0	17	8¾
24	0	18	6
25	0	19	3¼
26	1	0	0½
27	1	0	9¾

No.	£	s.	d.
28	1	1	7
29	1	2	4¼
30	1	3	1½
31	1	3	10¾
32	1	4	8
33	1	5	5¼
34	1	6	2½
35	1	6	11¾
36	1	7	9
37	1	8	6¼
38	1	9	3½
39	1	10	0¾
40	1	10	10
41	1	11	7¼
42	1	12	4½
43	1	13	1¾
44	1	13	11
45	1	14	8¼
46	1	15	5½
47	1	16	2¾
48	1	17	0
49	1	17	9¼
50	1	18	6½
51	1	19	3¾
52	2	0	1
53	2	0	10¼
54	2	1	7½
55	2	2	4¾
56	2	3	2
57	2	3	11¼

No.	£	s.	d.
58	2	4	8½
59	2	5	5¾
60	2	6	3
61	2	7	0¼
62	2	7	9½
63	2	8	6¾
64	2	9	4
65	2	10	1¼
66	2	10	10½
67	2	11	7¾
68	2	12	5
69	2	13	2¼
70	2	13	11½
71	2	14	8¾
72	2	15	6
73	2	16	3¼
74	2	17	0½
75	2	17	9¾
76	2	18	7
77	2	19	4¼
78	3	0	1½
79	3	0	10¾
80	3	1	8
81	3	2	5¼
82	3	3	2½
83	3	3	11¾
84	3	4	9
85	3	5	6¼
86	3	6	3½
87	3	7	0¾

No.	£	s.	d.
88	3	7	10
89	3	8	7¼
90	3	9	4½
91	3	10	1¾
92	3	10	11
93	3	11	8¼
94	3	12	5½
95	3	13	2¾
96	3	14	0
97	3	14	9¼
98	3	15	6½
99	3	16	3¾
100	3	17	1
110	4	4	9½
112	4	6	4
120	4	12	6
130	5	0	2½
140	5	7	11
144	5	11	0
150	5	15	7½
160	6	3	4
170	6	11	0½
180	6	18	9
190	7	6	5½
200	7	14	2
210	8	1	10½
220	8	9	7
230	8	17	3½
240	9	5	0
250	9	12	8½

No.	£	s.	d.
256	9	17	4
272	10	9	8
300	11	11	3
365	14	1	4¼
400	15	8	4
500	19	5	5
600	23	2	6
700	26	19	7
750	28	18	1½
800	30	16	8
900	34	13	9
1000	38	10	10
1100	42	7	11
1200	46	5	0
1250	48	3	6½
1300	50	2	1
1400	53	19	2
1500	57	16	3
2000	77	1	8
3000	115	12	6
4000	154	3	4
5000	192	14	2
6000	231	5	0
7000	269	15	10
8000	308	6	8
9000	346	17	6
10000	385	8	4
20000	770	16	8
25000	963	10	10
50000	1927	1	8

At 9 Pence Halfpenny.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	9½
2	0	1	7
3	0	2	4½
4	0	3	2
5	0	3	11½
6	0	4	9
7	0	5	6½
8	0	6	4
9	0	7	1½
10	0	7	11
11	0	8	8½
12	0	9	6
13	0	10	3½
14	0	11	1
15	0	11	10½
16	0	12	8
17	0	13	5½
18	0	14	3
19	0	15	0½
20	0	15	10
21	0	16	7½
22	0	17	5
23	0	18	2½
24	0	19	0
25	0	19	9½
26	1	0	7
27	1	1	4½

No.	£	s.	d.
28	1	2	2
29	1	2	11½
30	1	3	9
31	1	4	6½
32	1	5	4
33	1	6	1½
34	1	6	11
35	1	7	8½
36	1	8	6
37	1	9	3½
38	1	10	1
39	1	10	10½
40	1	11	8
41	1	12	5½
42	1	13	3
43	1	14	0½
44	1	14	10
45	1	15	7½
46	1	16	5
47	1	17	2½
48	1	18	0
49	1	18	9½
50	1	19	7
51	2	0	4½
52	2	1	2
53	2	1	11½
54	2	2	9
55	2	3	6½
56	2	4	4
57	2	5	1½

No.	£	s.	d.
58	2	5	11
59	2	6	8½
60	2	7	6
61	2	8	3½
62	2	9	1
63	2	9	10½
64	2	10	8
65	2	11	5½
66	2	12	3
67	2	13	0½
68	2	13	10
69	2	14	7½
70	2	15	5
71	2	16	2½
72	2	17	0
73	2	17	9½
74	2	18	7
75	2	19	4½
76	3	0	2
77	3	0	11½
78	3	1	9
79	3	2	6½
80	3	3	4
81	3	4	1½
82	3	4	11
83	3	5	8½
84	3	6	6
85	3	7	3½
86	3	8	1
87	3	8	10½

No.	£	s.	d.
88	3	9	8
89	3	10	5½
90	3	11	3
91	3	12	0½
92	3	12	10
93	3	13	7½
94	3	14	5
95	3	15	2½
96	3	16	0
97	3	16	9½
98	3	17	7
99	3	18	4½
100	3	19	2
110	4	7	1
112	4	8	8
120	4	15	0
130	5	2	11
140	5	10	10
144	5	14	0
150	5	18	9
160	6	6	8
170	6	14	7
180	7	2	6
190	7	10	5
200	7	18	4
210	8	6	3
220	8	14	2
230	9	2	1
240	9	10	0
250	9	17	11

No.	£	s.	d.
256	10	2	8
272	10	15	4
300	11	17	6
365	14	8	11½
400	15	16	8
500	19	15	10
600	23	15	0
700	27	14	2
750	29	13	9
800	31	13	4
900	35	12	6
1000	39	11	8
1100	43	10	10
1200	47	10	0
1250	49	9	7
1300	51	9	2
1400	55	8	4
1500	59	7	6
2000	79	3	4
3000	118	15	0
4000	158	6	8
5000	197	18	4
6000	237	10	0
7000	277	1	8
8000	316	13	4
9000	356	5	0
10000	395	16	8
20000	791	13	4
25000	989	11	8
50000	1979	3	4

At 9 Pence 3 Farthings.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	9¾
2	0	1	7½
3	0	2	5¼
4	0	3	3
5	0	4	0¾
6	0	4	10½
7	0	5	8¼
8	0	6	6
9	0	7	3¾
10	0	8	1½
11	0	8	11¼
12	0	9	9
13	0	10	6¾
14	0	11	4½
15	0	12	2¼
16	0	13	0
17	0	13	9¾
18	0	14	7½
19	0	15	5¼
20	0	16	3
21	0	17	0¾
22	0	17	10½
23	0	18	8¼
24	0	19	6
25	1	0	3¾
26	1	1	1½
27	1	1	11¼

No.	£	s.	d.
28	1	2	9
29	1	3	6¾
30	1	4	4½
31	1	5	2¼
32	1	6	0
33	1	6	9¾
34	1	7	7½
35	1	8	5¼
36	1	9	3
37	1	10	0¾
38	1	10	10½
39	1	11	8¼
40	1	12	6
41	1	13	3¾
42	1	14	1½
43	1	14	11¼
44	1	15	9
45	1	16	6¾
46	1	17	4½
47	1	18	2¼
48	1	19	0
49	1	19	9¾
50	2	0	7½
51	2	1	5¼
52	2	2	3
53	2	3	0¾
54	2	3	10½
55	2	4	8¼
56	2	5	6
57	2	6	3¾

No.	£	s.	d.
58	2	7	1½
59	2	7	11¼
60	2	8	9
61	2	9	6¾
62	2	10	4½
63	2	11	2¼
64	2	12	0
65	2	12	9¾
66	2	13	7½
67	2	14	5¼
68	2	15	3
69	2	16	0¾
70	2	16	10½
71	2	17	8¼
72	2	18	6
73	2	19	3¾
74	3	0	1½
75	3	0	11¼
76	3	1	9
77	3	2	6¾
78	3	3	4½
79	3	4	2¼
80	3	5	0
81	3	5	9¾
82	3	6	7½
83	3	7	5¼
84	3	8	3
85	3	9	0¾
86	3	9	10½
87	3	10	8¼

No.	£	s.	d.
88	3	11	6
89	3	12	3¾
90	3	13	1½
91	3	13	11¼
92	3	14	9
93	3	15	6¾
94	3	16	4½
95	3	17	2¼
96	3	18	0
97	3	18	9¾
98	3	19	7½
99	4	0	5¼
100	4	1	3
110	4	9	4½
112	4	11	0
120	4	17	6
130	5	5	7½
140	5	13	9
144	5	17	0
150	6	1	10½
160	6	10	0
170	6	18	1½
180	7	6	3
190	7	14	4½
200	8	2	6
210	8	10	7½
220	8	18	9
230	9	6	10½
240	9	15	0
250	10	3	1½

No.	£	s.	d.
256	10	8	0
272	11	1	0
300	12	3	9
365	14	16	6¾
400	16	5	0
500	20	6	3
600	24	7	6
700	28	8	9
750	30	9	4½
800	32	10	0
900	36	11	3
1000	40	12	6
1100	44	13	9
1200	48	15	0
1250	50	15	7½
1300	52	16	3
1400	56	17	6
1500	60	18	9
2000	81	5	0
3000	121	17	6
4000	162	10	0
5000	203	2	6
6000	243	15	0
7000	284	7	6
8000	325	0	0
9000	365	12	6
10000	406	5	0
20000	812	10	0
25000	1015	12	6
50000	2031	5	0

At 10 Pence.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	10
2	0	1	8
3	0	2	6
4	0	3	4
5	0	4	2
6	0	5	0
7	0	5	10
8	0	6	8
9	0	7	6
10	0	8	4
11	0	9	2
12	0	10	0
13	0	10	10
14	0	11	8
15	0	12	6
16	0	13	4
17	0	14	2
18	0	15	0
19	0	15	10
20	0	16	8
21	0	17	6
22	0	18	4
23	0	19	2
24	1	0	0
25	1	0	10
26	1	1	8
27	1	2	6

No.	£	s.	d.
28	1	3	4
29	1	4	2
30	1	5	0
31	1	5	10
32	1	6	8
33	1	7	6
34	1	8	4
35	1	9	2
36	1	10	0
37	1	10	10
38	1	11	8
39	1	12	6
40	1	13	4
41	1	14	2
42	1	15	0
43	1	15	10
44	1	16	8
45	1	17	6
46	1	18	4
47	1	19	2
48	2	0	0
49	2	0	10
50	2	1	8
51	2	2	6
52	2	3	4
53	2	4	2
54	2	5	0
55	2	5	10
56	2	6	8
57	2	7	6

No.	£	s.	d.
58	2	8	4
59	2	9	2
60	2	10	0
61	2	10	10
62	2	11	8
63	2	12	6
64	2	13	4
65	2	14	2
66	2	15	0
67	2	15	10
68	2	16	8
69	2	17	6
70	2	18	4
71	2	19	2
72	3	0	0
73	3	0	10
74	3	1	8
75	3	2	6
76	3	3	4
77	3	4	2
78	3	5	0
79	3	5	10
80	3	6	8
81	3	7	6
82	3	8	4
83	3	9	2
84	3	10	0
85	3	10	10
86	3	11	8
87	3	12	6

No.	£	s.	d.
88	3	13	4
89	3	14	2
90	3	15	0
91	3	15	10
92	3	16	8
93	3	17	6
94	3	18	4
95	3	19	2
96	4	0	0
97	4	0	10
98	4	1	8
99	4	2	6
100	4	3	4
110	4	11	8
112	4	13	4
120	5	0	0
130	5	8	4
140	5	16	8
144	6	0	0
150	6	5	0
160	6	13	4
170	7	1	8
180	7	10	0
190	7	18	4
200	8	6	8
210	8	15	0
220	9	3	4
230	9	11	8
240	10	0	0
250	10	8	4

No.	£	s.	d.
256	10	13	4
272	11	6	8
300	12	10	0
365	15	4	2
400	16	13	4
500	20	16	8
600	25	0	0
700	29	3	4
750	31	5	0
800	33	6	8
900	37	10	0
1000	41	13	4
1100	45	16	8
1200	50	0	0
1250	52	1	8
1300	54	3	4
1400	58	6	8
1500	62	10	0
2000	83	6	8
3000	125	0	0
4000	166	13	4
5000	208	6	8
6000	250	0	0
7000	291	13	4
8000	333	6	8
9000	375	0	0
10000	416	13	4
20000	833	6	8
25000	1041	13	4
50000	2083	6	8

At 10 Pence 1 Farthing.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	10¼
2	0	1	8½
3	0	2	6¾
4	0	3	5
5	0	4	3¼
6	0	5	1½
7	0	5	11¾
8	0	6	10
9	0	7	8¼
10	0	8	6½
11	0	9	4¾
12	0	10	3
13	0	11	1¼
14	0	11	11½
15	0	12	9¾
16	0	13	8
17	0	14	6¼
18	0	15	4½
19	0	16	2¾
20	0	17	1
21	0	17	11¼
22	0	18	9½
23	0	19	7¾
24	1	0	6
25	1	1	4¼
26	1	2	2½
27	1	3	0¾

No.	£	s.	d.
28	1	3	11
29	1	4	9¼
30	1	5	7½
31	1	6	5¾
32	1	7	4
33	1	8	2¼
34	1	9	0½
35	1	9	10¾
36	1	10	9
37	1	11	7¼
38	1	12	5½
39	1	13	3¾
40	1	14	2
41	1	15	0¼
42	1	15	10½
43	1	16	8¾
44	1	17	7
45	1	18	5¼
46	1	19	3½
47	2	0	1¾
48	2	1	0
49	2	1	10¼
50	2	2	8½
51	2	3	6¾
52	2	4	5
53	2	5	3¼
54	2	6	1½
55	2	6	11¾
56	2	7	10
57	2	8	8¼

No.	£	s.	d.
58	2	9	6½
59	2	10	4¾
60	2	11	3
61	2	12	1¼
62	2	12	11½
63	2	13	9¾
64	2	14	8
65	2	15	6¼
66	2	16	4½
67	2	17	2¾
68	2	18	1
69	2	18	11¼
70	2	19	9½
71	3	0	7¾
72	3	1	6
73	3	2	4¼
74	3	3	2½
75	3	4	0¾
76	3	4	11
77	3	5	9¼
78	3	6	7½
79	3	7	5¾
80	3	8	4
81	3	9	2¼
82	3	10	0½
83	3	10	10¾
84	3	11	9
85	3	12	7¼
86	3	13	5½
87	3	14	3¾

No.	£	s.	d.
88	3	15	2
89	3	16	0¼
90	3	16	10½
91	3	17	8¾
92	3	18	7
93	3	19	5¼
94	4	0	3½
95	4	1	1¾
96	4	2	0
97	4	2	10¼
98	4	3	8½
99	4	4	6¾
100	4	5	5
110	4	13	11½
112	4	15	8
120	5	2	6
130	5	11	0½
140	5	19	7
144	6	3	0
150	6	8	1½
160	6	16	8
170	7	5	2½
180	7	13	9
190	8	2	3½
200	8	10	10
210	8	19	4½
220	9	7	11
230	9	16	5½
240	10	5	0
250	10	13	6½

No.	£	s.	d.
256	10	18	8
272	11	12	4
300	12	16	3
365	15	11	9½
400	17	1	8
500	21	7	1
600	25	12	6
700	29	17	11
750	32	0	7½
800	34	3	4
900	38	8	9
1000	42	14	2
1100	46	19	7
1200	51	5	0
1250	53	7	8½
1300	55	10	5
1400	59	15	10
1500	64	1	3
2000	85	8	4
3000	128	2	6
4000	170	16	8
5000	213	10	10
6000	256	5	0
7000	298	19	2
8000	341	13	4
9000	384	7	6
10000	427	1	8
20000	854	3	4
25000	1067	14	2
50000	2135	8	4

At 10 Pence Halfpenny.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	10½
2	0	1	9
3	0	2	7½
4	0	3	6
5	0	4	4½
6	0	5	3
7	0	6	1½
8	0	7	0
9	0	7	10½
10	0	8	9
11	0	9	7½
12	0	10	6
13	0	11	4½
14	0	12	3
15	0	13	1½
16	0	14	0
17	0	14	10½
18	0	15	9
19	0	16	7½
20	0	17	6
21	0	18	4½
22	0	19	3
23	1	0	1½
24	1	1	0
25	1	1	10½
26	1	2	9
27	1	3	7½

No.	£	s.	d.
28	1	4	6
29	1	5	4½
30	1	6	3
31	1	7	1½
32	1	8	0
33	1	8	10½
34	1	9	9
35	1	10	7½
36	1	11	6
37	1	12	4½
38	1	13	3
39	1	14	1½
40	1	15	0
41	1	15	10½
42	1	16	9
43	1	17	7½
44	1	18	6
45	1	19	4½
46	2	0	3
47	2	1	1½
48	2	2	0
49	2	2	10½
50	2	3	9
51	2	4	7½
52	2	5	6
53	2	6	4½
54	2	7	3
55	2	8	1½
56	2	9	0
57	2	9	10½

No.	£	s.	d.
58	2	10	9
59	2	11	7½
60	2	12	6
61	2	13	4½
62	2	14	3
63	2	15	1½
64	2	16	0
65	2	16	10½
66	2	17	9
67	2	18	7½
68	2	19	6
69	3	0	4½
70	3	1	3
71	3	2	1½
72	3	3	0
73	3	3	10½
74	3	4	9
75	3	5	7½
76	3	6	6
77	3	7	4½
78	3	8	3
79	3	9	1½
80	3	10	0
81	3	10	10½
82	3	11	9
83	3	12	7½
84	3	13	6
85	3	14	4½
86	3	15	3
87	3	16	1½

No.	£	s.	d.
88	3	17	0
89	3	17	10½
90	3	18	9
91	3	19	7½
92	4	0	6
93	4	1	4½
94	4	2	3
95	4	3	1½
96	4	4	0
97	4	4	10½
98	4	5	9
99	4	6	7½
100	4	7	6
110	4	16	3
112	4	18	0
120	5	5	0
130	5	13	9
140	6	2	6
144	6	6	0
150	6	11	3
160	7	0	0
170	7	8	9
180	7	17	6
190	8	6	3
200	8	15	0
210	9	3	9
220	9	12	6
230	10	1	3
240	10	10	0
250	10	18	9

No.	£	s.	d.
256	11	4	0
272	11	18	0
300	13	2	6
365	15	19	4½
400	17	10	0
500	21	17	6
600	26	5	0
700	30	12	6
750	32	16	3
800	35	0	0
900	39	7	6
1000	43	15	0
1100	48	2	6
1200	52	10	0
1250	54	13	9
1300	56	17	6
1400	61	5	0
1500	65	12	6
2000	87	10	0
3000	131	5	0
4000	175	0	0
5000	218	15	0
6000	262	10	0
7000	306	5	0
8000	350	0	0
9000	393	15	0
10000	437	10	0
20000	875	0	0
25000	1093	15	0
50000	2187	10	0

At 10 Pence 3 Farthings.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	10¾
2	0	1	9½
3	0	2	8¼
4	0	3	7
5	0	4	5¾
6	0	5	4½
7	0	6	3¼
8	0	7	2
9	0	8	0¾
10	0	8	11½
11	0	9	10¼
12	0	10	9
13	0	11	7¾
14	0	12	6½
15	0	13	5¼
16	0	14	4
17	0	15	2¾
18	0	16	1½
19	0	17	0¼
20	0	17	11
21	0	18	9¾
22	0	19	8½
23	1	0	7¼
24	1	1	6
25	1	2	4¾
26	1	3	3½
27	1	4	2¼

No.	£	s.	d.
28	1	5	1
29	1	5	11¾
30	1	6	10½
31	1	7	9¼
32	1	8	8
33	1	9	6¾
34	1	10	5½
35	1	11	4¼
36	1	12	3
37	1	13	1¾
38	1	14	0½
39	1	14	11¼
40	1	15	10
41	1	16	8¾
42	1	17	7½
43	1	18	6¼
44	1	19	5
45	2	0	3¾
46	2	1	2½
47	2	2	1¼
48	2	3	0
49	2	3	10¾
50	2	4	9½
51	2	5	8¼
52	2	6	7
53	2	7	5¾
54	2	8	4½
55	2	9	3¼
56	2	10	2
57	2	11	0¾

No.	£	s.	d.
58	2	11	11½
59	2	12	10¼
60	2	13	9
61	2	14	7¾
62	2	15	6½
63	2	16	5¼
64	2	17	4
65	2	18	2¾
66	2	19	1½
67	3	0	0¼
68	3	0	11
69	3	1	9¾
70	3	2	8½
71	3	3	7¼
72	3	4	6
73	3	5	4¾
74	3	6	3½
75	3	7	2¼
76	3	8	1
77	3	8	11¾
78	3	9	10½
79	3	10	9¼
80	3	11	8
81	3	12	6¾
82	3	13	5½
83	3	14	4¼
84	3	15	3
85	3	16	1¾
86	3	17	0½
87	3	17	11¼

No.	£	s.	d.
88	3	18	10
89	3	19	8¾
90	4	0	7½
91	4	1	6¼
92	4	2	5
93	4	3	3¾
94	4	4	2½
95	4	5	1¼
96	4	6	0
97	4	6	10¾
98	4	7	9½
99	4	8	8¼
100	4	9	7
110	4	18	6½
112	5	0	4
120	5	7	6
130	5	16	5½
140	6	5	5
144	6	9	0
150	6	14	4½
160	7	3	4
170	7	12	3½
180	8	1	3
190	8	10	2½
200	8	19	2
210	9	8	1½
220	9	17	1
230	10	6	0½
240	10	15	0
250	11	3	11½

No.	£	s.	d.
256	11	9	4
272	12	3	8
300	13	8	9
365	16	6	11¾
400	17	18	4
500	22	7	11
600	26	17	6
700	31	7	1
750	33	11	10½
800	35	16	8
900	40	6	3
1000	44	15	10
1100	49	5	5
1200	53	15	0
1250	55	19	9½
1300	58	4	7
1400	62	14	2
1500	67	3	9
2000	89	11	8
3000	134	7	6
4000	179	3	4
5000	223	19	2
6000	268	15	0
7000	313	10	10
8000	358	6	8
9000	403	2	6
10000	447	18	4
20000	895	16	8
25000	1119	15	10
50000	2239	11	8

At 11 Pence.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	11
2	0	1	10
3	0	2	9
4	0	3	8
5	0	4	7
6	0	5	6
7	0	6	5
8	0	7	4
9	0	8	3
10	0	9	2
11	0	10	1
12	0	11	0
13	0	11	11
14	0	12	10
15	0	13	9
16	0	14	8
17	0	15	7
18	0	16	6
19	0	17	5
20	0	18	4
21	0	19	3
22	1	0	2
23	1	1	1
24	1	2	0
25	1	2	11
26	1	3	10
27	1	4	9

No.	£	s.	d.
28	1	5	8
29	1	6	7
30	1	7	6
31	1	8	5
32	1	9	4
33	1	10	3
34	1	11	2
35	1	12	1
36	1	13	0
37	1	13	11
38	1	14	10
39	1	15	9
40	1	16	8
41	1	17	7
42	1	18	6
43	1	19	5
44	2	0	4
45	2	1	3
46	2	2	2
47	2	3	1
48	2	4	0
49	2	4	11
50	2	5	10
51	2	6	9
52	2	7	8
53	2	8	7
54	2	9	6
55	2	10	5
56	2	11	4
57	2	12	3

No.	£	s.	d.
58	2	13	2
59	2	14	1
60	2	15	0
61	2	15	11
62	2	16	10
63	2	17	9
64	2	18	8
65	2	19	7
66	3	0	6
67	3	1	5
68	3	2	4
69	3	3	3
70	3	4	2
71	3	5	1
72	3	6	0
73	3	6	11
74	3	7	10
75	3	8	9
76	3	9	8
77	3	10	7
78	3	11	6
79	3	12	5
80	3	13	4
81	3	14	3
82	3	15	2
83	3	16	1
84	3	17	0
85	3	17	11
86	3	18	10
87	3	19	9

No.	£	s.	d.
88	4	0	8
89	4	1	7
90	4	2	6
91	4	3	5
92	4	4	4
93	4	5	3
94	4	6	2
95	4	7	1
96	4	8	0
97	4	8	11
98	4	9	10
99	4	10	9
100	4	11	8
110	5	0	10
112	5	2	8
120	5	10	0
130	5	19	2
140	6	8	4
144	6	12	0
150	6	17	6
160	7	6	8
170	7	15	10
180	8	5	0
190	8	14	2
200	9	3	4
210	9	12	6
220	10	1	8
230	10	10	10
240	11	0	0
250	11	9	2

No.	£	s.	d.
256	11	14	8
272	12	9	4
300	13	15	0
365	16	14	7
400	18	6	8
500	22	18	4
600	27	10	0
700	32	1	8
750	34	7	6
800	36	13	4
900	41	5	0
1000	45	16	8
1100	50	8	4
1200	55	0	0
1250	57	5	10
1300	59	11	8
1400	64	3	4
1500	68	15	0
2000	91	13	4
3000	137	10	0
4000	183	6	8
5000	229	3	4
6000	275	0	0
7000	320	16	8
8000	366	13	4
9000	412	10	0
10000	458	6	8
20000	916	13	4
25000	1145	16	8
50000	2291	13	4

At 11 Pence 1 Farthing.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	11¼
2	0	1	10½
3	0	2	9¾
4	0	3	9
5	0	4	8¼
6	0	5	7½
7	0	6	6¾
8	0	7	6
9	0	8	5¼
10	0	9	4½
11	0	10	3¾
12	0	11	3
13	0	12	2¼
14	0	13	1½
15	0	14	0¾
16	0	15	0
17	0	15	11¼
18	0	16	10½
19	0	17	9¾
20	0	18	9
21	0	19	8¼
22	1	0	7½
23	1	1	6¾
24	1	2	6
25	1	3	5¼
26	1	4	4½
27	1	5	3¾
28	1	6	3
29	1	7	2¼
30	1	8	1½
31	1	9	0¾
32	1	10	0
33	1	10	11¼
34	1	11	10½
35	1	12	9¾
36	1	13	9
37	1	14	8¼
38	1	15	7½
39	1	16	6¾
40	1	17	6
41	1	18	5¼
42	1	19	4½
43	2	0	3¾
44	2	1	3
45	2	2	2¼
46	2	3	1½
47	2	4	0¾
48	2	5	0
49	2	5	11¼
50	2	6	10½
51	2	7	9¾
52	2	8	9
53	2	9	8¼
54	2	10	7½
55	2	11	6¾
56	2	12	6
57	2	13	5¼
58	2	14	4½
59	2	15	3¾
60	2	16	3
61	2	17	2¼
62	2	18	1½
63	2	19	0¾
64	3	0	0
65	3	0	11¼
66	3	1	10½
67	3	2	9¾
68	3	3	9
69	3	4	8¼
70	3	5	7½
71	3	6	6¾
72	3	7	6
73	3	8	5¼
74	3	9	4½
75	3	10	3¾
76	3	11	3
77	3	12	2¼
78	3	13	1½
79	3	14	0¾
80	3	15	0
81	3	15	11¼
82	3	16	10½
83	3	17	9¾
84	3	18	9
85	3	19	8¼
86	4	0	7½
87	4	1	6¾
88	4	2	6
89	4	3	5¼
90	4	4	4½
91	4	5	3¾
92	4	6	3
93	4	7	2¼
94	4	8	1½
95	4	9	0¾
96	4	10	0
97	4	10	11¼
98	4	11	10½
99	4	12	9¾
100	4	13	9
110	5	3	1½
112	5	5	0
120	5	12	6
130	6	1	10½
140	6	11	3
144	6	15	0
150	7	0	7½
160	7	10	0
170	7	19	4½
180	8	8	9
190	8	18	1½
200	9	7	6
210	9	16	10½
220	10	6	3
230	10	15	7½
240	11	5	0
250	11	14	4½
256	12	0	0
272	12	15	0
300	14	1	3
365	17	2	2¼
400	18	15	0
500	23	8	9
600	28	2	6
700	32	16	3
750	35	3	1½
800	37	10	0
900	42	3	9
1000	46	17	6
1100	51	11	3
1200	56	5	0
1250	58	11	10½
1300	60	18	9
1400	65	12	6
1500	70	6	3
2000	93	15	0
3000	140	12	6
4000	187	10	0
5000	234	7	6
6000	281	5	0
7000	328	2	6
8000	375	0	0
9000	421	17	6
10000	468	15	0
20000	937	10	0
25000	1171	17	6
50000	2343	15	0

At 11 Pence Halfpenny.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	11½
2	0	1	11
3	0	2	10½
4	0	3	10
5	0	4	9½
6	0	5	9
7	0	6	8½
8	0	7	8
9	0	8	7½
10	0	9	7
11	0	10	6½
12	0	11	6
13	0	12	5½
14	0	13	5
15	0	14	4½
16	0	15	4
17	0	16	3½
18	0	17	3
19	0	18	2½
20	0	19	2
21	1	0	1½
22	1	1	1
23	1	2	0½
24	1	3	0
25	1	3	11½
26	1	4	11
27	1	5	10½
28	1	6	10
29	1	7	9½
30	1	8	9
31	1	9	8½
32	1	10	8
33	1	11	7½
34	1	12	7
35	1	13	6½
36	1	14	6
37	1	15	5½
38	1	16	5
39	1	17	4½
40	1	18	4
41	1	19	3½
42	2	0	3
43	2	1	2½
44	2	2	2
45	2	3	1½
46	2	4	1
47	2	5	0½
48	2	6	0
49	2	6	11½
50	2	7	11
51	2	8	10½
52	2	9	10
53	2	10	9½
54	2	11	9
55	2	12	8½
56	2	13	8
57	2	14	7½
58	2	15	7
59	2	16	6½
60	2	17	6
61	2	18	5½
62	2	19	5
63	3	0	4½
64	3	1	4
65	3	2	3½
66	3	3	3
67	3	4	2½
68	3	5	2
69	3	6	1½
70	3	7	1
71	3	8	0½
72	3	9	0
73	3	9	11½
74	3	10	11
75	3	11	10½
76	3	12	10
77	3	13	9½
78	3	14	9
79	3	15	8½
80	3	16	8
81	3	17	7½
82	3	18	7
83	3	19	6½
84	4	0	6
85	4	1	5½
86	4	2	5
87	4	3	4½
88	4	4	4
89	4	5	3½
90	4	6	3
91	4	7	2½
92	4	8	2
93	4	9	1½
94	4	10	1
95	4	11	0½
96	4	12	0
97	4	12	11½
98	4	13	11
99	4	14	10½
100	4	15	10
110	5	5	5
112	5	7	4
120	5	15	0
130	6	4	7
140	6	14	2
144	6	18	0
150	7	3	9
160	7	13	4
170	8	2	11
180	8	12	6
190	9	2	1
200	9	11	8
210	10	1	3
220	10	10	10
230	11	0	5
240	11	10	0
250	11	19	7
256	12	5	4
272	13	0	8
300	14	7	6
365	17	9	9½
400	19	3	4
500	23	19	2
600	28	15	0
700	33	10	10
750	35	18	9
800	38	6	8
900	43	2	6
1000	47	18	4
1100	52	14	2
1200	57	10	0
1250	59	17	11
1300	62	5	10
1400	67	1	8
1500	71	17	6
2000	95	16	8
3000	143	15	0
4000	191	13	4
5000	239	11	8
6000	287	10	0
7000	335	8	4
8000	383	6	8
9000	431	5	0
10000	479	3	4
20000	958	6	8
25000	1197	18	4
50000	2395	16	8

At 11 Pence 3 Farthings.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	11¾
2	0	1	11½
3	0	2	11¼
4	0	3	11
5	0	4	10¾
6	0	5	10½
7	0	6	10¼
8	0	7	10
9	0	8	9¾
10	0	9	9½
11	0	10	9¼
12	0	11	9
13	0	12	8¾
14	0	13	8½
15	0	14	8¼
16	0	15	8
17	0	16	7¾
18	0	17	7½
19	0	18	7¼
20	0	19	7
21	1	0	6¾
22	1	1	6½
23	1	2	6¼
24	1	3	6
25	1	4	5¾
26	1	5	5½
27	1	6	5¼

No.	£	s.	d.
28	1	7	5
29	1	8	4¾
30	1	9	4½
31	1	10	4¼
32	1	11	4
33	1	12	3¾
34	1	13	3½
35	1	14	3¼
36	1	15	3
37	1	16	2¾
38	1	17	2½
39	1	18	2¼
40	1	19	2
41	2	0	1¾
42	2	1	1½
43	2	2	1¼
44	2	3	1
45	2	4	0¾
46	2	5	0½
47	2	6	0¼
48	2	7	0
49	2	7	11¾
50	2	8	11½
51	2	9	11¼
52	2	10	11
53	2	11	10¾
54	2	12	10½
55	2	13	10¼
56	2	14	10
57	2	15	9¾

No.	£	s.	d.
58	2	16	9½
59	2	17	9¼
60	2	18	9
61	2	19	8¾
62	3	0	8½
63	3	1	8¼
64	3	2	8
65	3	3	7¾
66	3	4	7½
67	3	5	7¼
68	3	6	7
69	3	7	6¾
70	3	8	6½
71	3	9	6¼
72	3	10	6
73	3	11	5¾
74	3	12	5½
75	3	13	5¼
76	3	14	5
77	3	15	4¾
78	3	16	4½
79	3	17	4¼
80	3	18	4
81	3	19	3¾
82	4	0	3½
83	4	1	3¼
84	4	2	3
85	4	3	2¾
86	4	4	2½
87	4	5	2¼

No.	£	s.	d.
88	4	6	2
89	4	7	1¾
90	4	8	1½
91	4	9	1¼
92	4	10	1
93	4	11	0¾
94	4	12	0½
95	4	13	0¼
96	4	14	0
97	4	14	11¾
98	4	15	11½
99	4	16	11¼
100	4	17	11
110	5	7	8½
112	5	9	8
120	5	17	6
130	6	7	3½
140	6	17	1
144	7	1	0
150	7	6	10½
160	7	16	8
170	8	6	5½
180	8	16	3
190	9	6	0½
200	9	15	10
210	10	5	7½
220	10	15	5
230	11	5	2½
240	11	15	0
250	12	4	9½

No.	£	s.	d.
256	12	10	8
272	13	6	4
300	14	13	9
365	17	17	4½
400	19	11	8
500	24	9	7
600	29	7	6
700	34	5	5
750	36	14	4½
800	39	3	4
900	44	1	3
1000	48	19	2
1100	53	17	1
1200	58	15	0
1250	61	3	11½
1300	63	12	11
1400	68	10	10
1500	73	8	9
2000	97	18	4
3000	146	17	6
4000	195	16	8
5000	244	15	10
6000	293	15	0
7000	342	14	2
8000	391	13	4
9000	440	12	6
10000	489	11	8
20000	979	3	4
25000	1223	19	2
50000	2447	18	4

At 12 Pence—*or* 1s.

No.	£	s.	d.
1	0	1	0
2	0	2	0
3	0	3	0
4	0	4	0
5	0	5	0
6	0	6	0
7	0	7	0
8	0	8	0
9	0	9	0
10	0	10	0
11	0	11	0
12	0	12	0
13	0	13	0
14	0	14	0
15	0	15	0
16	0	16	0
17	0	17	0
18	0	18	0
19	0	19	0
20	1	0	0
21	1	1	0
22	1	2	0
23	1	3	0
24	1	4	0
25	1	5	0
26	1	6	0
27	1	7	0

No.	£	s.	d.
28	1	8	0
29	1	9	0
30	1	10	0
31	1	11	0
32	1	12	0
33	1	13	0
34	1	14	0
35	1	15	0
36	1	16	0
37	1	17	0
38	1	18	0
39	1	19	0
40	2	0	0
41	2	1	0
42	2	2	0
43	2	3	0
44	2	4	0
45	2	5	0
46	2	6	0
47	2	7	0
48	2	8	0
49	2	9	0
50	2	10	0
51	2	11	0
52	2	12	0
53	2	13	0
54	2	14	0
55	2	15	0
56	2	16	0
57	2	17	0

No.	£	s.	d.
58	2	18	0
59	2	19	0
60	3	0	0
61	3	1	0
62	3	2	0
63	3	3	0
64	3	4	0
65	3	5	0
66	3	6	0
67	3	7	0
68	3	8	0
69	3	9	0
70	3	10	0
71	3	11	0
72	3	12	0
73	3	13	0
74	3	14	0
75	3	15	0
76	3	16	0
77	3	17	0
78	3	18	0
79	3	19	0
80	4	0	0
81	4	1	0
82	4	2	0
83	4	3	0
84	4	4	0
85	4	5	0
86	4	6	0
87	4	7	0

No.	£	s.	d.
88	4	8	0
89	4	9	0
90	4	10	0
91	4	11	0
92	4	12	0
93	4	13	0
94	4	14	0
95	4	15	0
96	4	16	0
97	4	17	0
98	4	18	0
99	4	19	0
100	5	0	0
110	5	10	0
112	5	12	0
120	6	0	0
130	6	10	0
140	7	0	0
144	7	4	0
150	7	10	0
160	8	0	0
170	8	10	0
180	9	0	0
190	9	10	0
200	10	0	0
210	10	10	0
220	11	0	0
230	11	10	0
240	12	0	0
250	12	10	0

No.	£	s.	d.
256	12	16	0
272	13	12	0
300	15	0	0
365	18	5	0
400	20	0	0
500	25	0	0
600	30	0	0
700	35	0	0
750	37	10	0
800	40	0	0
900	45	0	0
1000	50	0	0
1100	55	0	0
1200	60	0	0
1250	62	10	0
1300	65	0	0
1400	70	0	0
1500	75	0	0
2000	100	0	0
3000	150	0	0
4000	200	0	0
5000	250	0	0
6000	300	0	0
7000	350	0	0
8000	400	0	0
9000	450	0	0
10000	500	0	0
20000	1000	0	0
25000	1250	0	0
50000	2500	0	0

INTEREST AT 5 PER CENT.

Principal.	1 Day	2 Days	3 Days	4 Days	5 Days	6 Days
£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
2	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½
3	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½
4	0 0 0	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½
5	0 0 0	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½
6	0 0 0	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 1
7	0 0 0	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 1	0 0 1½
8	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 1	0 0 1½	0 0 1½
9	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 1	0 0 1½	0 0 1½
10	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½
20	0 0 0½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 2½	0 0 3½	0 0 3½
30	0 0 0½	0 0 1½	0 0 2½	0 0 3½	0 0 4½	0 0 5½
40	0 0 1½	0 0 2½	0 0 3½	0 0 5½	0 0 6½	0 0 7½
50	0 0 1½	0 0 3½	0 0 4½	0 0 6½	0 0 8	0 0 9½
60	0 0 1½	0 0 3½	0 0 5½	0 0 7½	0 0 9½	0 0 11½
70	0 0 2½	0 0 4½	0 0 6½	0 0 9	0 0 11½	0 1 1½
80	0 0 2½	0 0 5½	0 0 7½	0 0 10½	0 1 1	0 1 3½
90	0 0 2½	0 0 5½	0 0 8½	0 0 11½	0 1 2½	0 1 5½
100	0 0 3½	0 0 6½	0 0 9½	0 1 1	0 1 4½	0 1 7½
200	0 0 6½	0 1 1	0 1 7½	0 2 2½	0 2 8½	0 3 3½
300	0 0 9½	0 1 7½	0 2 5½	0 3 3½	0 4 1½	0 4 11
400	0 1 1	0 2 2½	0 3 3½	0 4 4½	0 5 5½	0 6 6½
500	0 1 4½	0 2 8½	0 4 1½	0 5 5½	0 6 10	0 8 2½
600	0 1 7½	0 3 3½	0 4 11	0 6 6½	0 8 2½	0 9 10½
700	0 1 11	0 3 10	0 5 9	0 7 8	0 9 7	0 11 6
800	0 2 2½	0 4 4½	0 6 6½	0 8 9	0 10 11½	0 13 1½
900	0 2 5½	0 4 11	0 7 4½	0 9 10½	0 12 3½	0 14 9½
1000	0 2 8½	0 5 5½	0 8 2½	0 10 11½	0 13 8½	0 16 5½
2000	0 5 5½	0 10 11½	0 16 5½	1 1 11	1 7 4½	1 12 10½
5000	0 13 8½	1 7 4½	2 1 1	2 14 9½	3 8 5½	4 2 2½
10000	1 7 4½	2 14 9½	4 2 2½	5 9 7	6 16 11½	8 4 4½

Principal.	7 Days	8 Days	9 Days	10 Days	11 Days	12 Days
£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1	0 0 0	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½
2	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½
3	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 0½	0 0 1
4	0 0 0½	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1
5	0 0 1	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½
6	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½
7	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 2
8	0 0 1½	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 2½	0 0 2½	0 0 2½
9	0 0 2	0 0 2½	0 0 2½	0 0 2½	0 0 2½	0 0 3
10	0 0 2½	0 0 2½	0 0 2½	0 0 3	0 0 3½	0 0 3½
20	0 0 4½	0 0 5½	0 0 5½	0 0 6½	0 0 7	0 0 7½
30	0 0 6½	0 0 7½	0 0 8½	0 0 9½	0 0 10½	0 0 11½
40	0 0 9	0 0 10½	0 0 11½	0 1 1	0 1 2½	0 1 3½
50	0 0 11½	0 1 1	0 1 2½	0 1 4½	0 1 6	0 1 7½
60	0 1 1½	0 1 3½	0 1 5½	0 1 7½	0 1 9½	0 1 11½
70	0 1 4	0 1 6½	0 1 8½	0 1 11	0 2 1½	0 2 3½
80	0 1 6½	0 1 9	0 1 11½	0 2 2½	0 2 4½	0 2 7½
90	0 1 8½	0 1 11½	0 2 2½	0 2 5½	0 2 8½	0 2 11½
100	0 1 11	0 2 2½	0 2 5½	0 2 8½	0 3 0	0 3 3½
200	0 3 10	0 4 4½	0 4 11	0 5 5½	0 6 0½	0 6 6½
300	0 5 9	0 6 6½	0 7 4½	0 8 2½	0 9 0½	0 9 10½
400	0 7 8	0 8 9	0 9 10½	0 10 11½	0 12 0½	0 13 1½
500	0 9 7	0 10 11½	0 12 3½	0 13 8½	0 15 0½	0 16 5½
600	0 11 6	0 13 1½	0 14 9½	0 16 5½	0 18 0½	0 19 8½
700	0 13 5	0 15 4	0 17 3	0 19 2	1 1 1	1 3 0
800	0 15 4	0 17 6½	0 19 8½	1 1 11	1 4 1½	1 6 3½
900	0 17 3	0 19 8½	1 2 2½	1 4 7½	1 7 1½	1 9 7
1000	0 19 2	1 1 11	1 4 7½	1 7 4½	1 10 1½	1 12 10½
2000	1 18 4½	2 3 10	2 9 3½	2 14 9½	3 0 3½	3 5 9
5000	4 15 10½	5 9 7	6 3 3½	6 16 11½	7 10 8	8 4 4½
10000	9 11 9½	10 19 2	12 6 6½	13 13 11½	15 1 4½	16 8 9

INTEREST AT 5 PER CENT.

Principal.	13 Days			14 Days			15 Days			16 Days			17 Days			18 Days		
£	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	0¼	0	0	0¼	0	0	0¼	0	0	0½	0	0	0½	0	0	0½
2	0	0	0½	0	0	0½	0	0	0½	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1
3	0	0	1¼	0	0	1¼	0	0	1¼	0	0	1½	0	0	1½	0	0	1½
4	0	0	1½	0	0	1½	0	0	1½	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	2¼
5	0	0	2	0	0	2¼	0	0	2¼	0	0	2½	0	0	2¾	0	0	2¾
6	0	0	2½	0	0	2¾	0	0	2¾	0	0	3	0	0	3¼	0	0	3½
7	0	0	2¾	0	0	3	0	0	3¼	0	0	3½	0	0	3¾	0	0	4
8	0	0	3¼	0	0	3½	0	0	3¾	0	0	4	0	0	4¼	0	0	4½
9	0	0	3¾	0	0	4	0	0	4¼	0	0	4½	0	0	5	0	0	5¼
10	0	0	4¼	0	0	4½	0	0	4¾	0	0	5¼	0	0	5½	0	0	5¾
20	0	0	8½	0	0	9	0	0	9¾	0	0	10½	0	0	11	0	0	11½
30	0	1	0¾	0	1	1¾	0	1	2¾	0	1	3¾	0	1	4¾	0	1	5¾
40	0	1	5	0	1	6¼	0	1	7¼	0	1	9	0	1	10¼	0	1	11½
50	0	1	9¼	0	1	11	0	2	0¾	0	2	2¼	0	2	3¾	0	2	5¾
60	0	2	1½	0	2	3½	0	2	5¾	0	2	7½	0	2	9½	0	2	11½
70	0	2	5¾	0	2	8	0	2	10¾	0	3	0¾	0	3	3	0	3	5¼
80	0	2	10	0	3	0¾	0	3	3¼	0	3	6	0	3	8¼	0	3	11¼
90	0	3	2¼	0	3	5¼	0	3	8¼	0	3	11¼	0	4	2¼	0	4	5¼
100	0	3	6½	0	3	10	0	4	1¼	0	4	4½	0	4	7½	0	4	11
200	0	7	1¼	0	7	8	0	8	2½	0	8	9	0	9	3½	0	9	10½
300	0	10	8	0	11	6	0	12	3¾	0	13	1½	0	13	11½	0	14	9½
400	0	14	2¾	0	15	4	0	16	5¼	0	17	6¼	0	18	7½	0	19	8½
500	0	17	9¼	0	19	2	1	0	6½	1	1	11	1	3	3¼	1	4	7¼
600	1	1	4¼	1	3	0	1	4	7¼	1	6	3½	1	7	11¼	1	9	7
700	1	4	11	1	6	10	1	8	9	1	10	8	1	12	7	1	14	6
800	1	8	5¾	1	10	8	1	12	10½	1	15	0¾	1	17	3	1	19	5¼
900	1	12	0½	1	14	6	1	16	11¾	1	19	5¼	2	1	11	2	4	4½
1000	1	15	7¼	1	18	4¼	2	1	1	2	3	10	2	6	6¾	2	9	3¾
2000	3	11	2¾	3	16	8½	4	2	2¼	4	7	8	4	13	1¾	4	18	7½
5000	8	18	0¾	9	11	9¼	10	5	5¾	10	19	2	11	12	10½	12	6	6¾
10000	17	16	1¾	19	3	6½	20	10	11½	21	18	4¼	23	5	9	24	13	1¾

Principal.	19 Days			20 Days			21 Days			22 Days			23 Days			24 Days		
£	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	0½	0	0	0¼	0	0	0¼	0	0	0½	0	0	0¾	0	0	0¾
2	0	0	1	0	0	1¼	0	0	1¼	0	0	1¼	0	0	1½	0	0	1½
3	0	0	1½	0	0	1¾	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	2¼	0	0	2¼
4	0	0	2¼	0	0	2½	0	0	2¾	0	0	3¼	0	0	3	0	0	3
5	0	0	3	0	0	3¼	0	0	3¼	0	0	3¼	0	0	3¾	0	0	3¾
6	0	0	3½	0	0	3¾	0	0	4	0	0	4¼	0	0	4½	0	0	4½
7	0	0	4¼	0	0	4½	0	0	4¾	0	0	5	0	0	5¼	0	0	5¼
8	0	0	4¾	0	0	5¼	0	0	5½	0	0	5¾	0	0	6	0	0	6¼
9	0	0	5½	0	0	5¾	0	0	6	0	0	6¼	0	0	6¾	0	0	7
10	0	0	6	0	0	6¼	0	0	6¾	0	0	7	0	0	7½	0	0	7¾
20	0	1	0¼	0	1	1	0	1	1¾	0	1	2¼	0	1	3	0	1	3¾
30	0	1	6¼	0	1	7½	0	1	8½	0	1	9½	0	1	10½	0	1	11½
40	0	2	0¾	0	2	2¼	0	2	3½	0	2	4¾	0	2	6	0	2	7½
50	0	2	7	0	2	8¾	0	2	10¼	0	3	0	0	3	1¾	0	3	3¼
60	0	3	1¼	0	3	3¾	0	3	5¼	0	3	7¼	0	3	9¼	0	3	11¼
70	0	3	7½	0	3	10	0	4	0¼	0	4	2¾	0	4	4¾	0	4	7
80	0	4	1¾	0	4	4½	0	4	7	0	4	9¾	0	5	0¾	0	5	3
90	0	4	8	0	4	11	0	5	2	0	5	5	0	5	8	0	5	11
100	0	5	2¼	0	5	5¾	0	5	9	0	6	0¼	0	6	3½	0	6	6¾
200	0	10	4½	0	10	11½	0	11	6	0	12	0¼	0	12	7	0	13	1½
300	0	15	7¼	0	16	5¼	0	17	3	0	18	0¾	0	18	10¾	0	19	8½
400	1	0	9¾	1	1	11	1	3	0	1	4	1¼	1	5	2¼	1	6	3½
500	1	6	0¼	1	7	4¾	1	8	9	1	10	1½	1	11	6	1	12	10½
600	1	11	2¾	1	12	10½	1	14	6	1	16	1¾	1	17	9½	1	19	5¼
700	1	16	5¼	1	18	4¼	2	0	3¼	2	2	2¼	2	4	1¼	2	6	0¼
800	2	1	7½	2	3	10	2	6	0¼	2	8	2¾	2	10	4¾	2	12	7
900	2	6	10	2	9	3¾	2	11	9¼	2	14	2¾	2	16	8¾	2	19	2
1000	2	12	0¼	2	14	9½	2	17	6¼	3	0	3¼	3	3	0	3	5	9
2000	5	4	1¼	5	9	7	5	15	0¾	6	0	6¼	6	6	0¼	6	11	6
5000	13	0	3¼	13	13	11½	14	7	8	15	1	4¼	15	15	0¾	16	8	9
10000	26	0	6½	27	7	11¼	28	15	4	30	2	8¾	31	10	1½	32	17	6¼

INTEREST AT 5 PER CENT.

Principal.	25 Days	26 Days	27 Days	28 Days	29 Days	30 Days
£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1	0 0 0¾	0 0 0¾	0 0 0¾	0 0 0¾	0 0 0¾	0 0 0¾
2	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½
3	0 0 2¼	0 0 2¼	0 0 2¼	0 0 2¼	0 0 2¼	0 0 2¼
4	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 3
5	0 0 4	0 0 4¼	0 0 4¼	0 0 4¼	0 0 4¼	0 0 4¼
6	0 0 4¾	0 0 5	0 0 5¼	0 0 5¼	0 0 5¼	0 0 5¼
7	0 0 5¾	0 0 5¾	0 0 6	0 0 6¼	0 0 6¼	0 0 6¼
8	0 0 6¾	0 0 6¾	0 0 7	0 0 7¼	0 0 7¼	0 0 7¼
9	0 0 7¼	0 0 7½	0 0 7¾	0 0 8¼	0 0 8¼	0 0 8¼
10	0 0 8	0 0 8½	0 0 8¾	0 0 9	0 0 9½	0 0 9½
20	0 1 4¼	0 1 5	0 1 5¾	0 1 6¼	0 1 7	0 1 7½
30	0 2 0½	0 2 1½	0 2 2½	0 2 3½	0 2 4½	0 2 5½
40	0 2 8¾	0 2 10	0 2 11¼	0 3 0¾	0 3 2	0 3 3¼
50	0 3 5	0 3 6¼	0 3 8¼	0 3 10	0 3 11½	0 4 1¼
60	0 4 1¼	0 4 3½	0 4 5¼	0 4 7	0 4 9	0 4 11
70	0 4 9½	0 4 11¾	0 5 2	0 5 4¼	0 5 6¼	0 5 9
80	0 5 5¾	0 5 8¼	0 5 11	0 6 1½	0 6 4¼	0 6 6¾
90	0 6 1¾	0 6 4¾	0 6 7¾	0 6 10¾	0 7 1¾	0 7 4¾
100	0 6 10	0 7 1¼	0 7 4¾	0 7 8	0 7 11¼	0 8 2½
200	0 13 8¼	0 14 2½	0 14 9½	0 15 4	0 15 10½	0 16 5½
300	1 0 6½	1 1 4¼	1 2 2¼	1 3 0	1 3 10	1 4 7½
400	1 7 4¾	1 8 5¾	1 9 7	1 10 8	1 11 9½	1 12 10½
500	1 14 2¾	1 15 7¼	1 16 11¾	1 18 4¼	1 19 8½	2 1 1
600	2 1 1	2 2 8¾	2 4 4½	2 6 0¼	2 7 8	2 9 3¾
700	2 7 11¼	2 9 10¼	2 11 9¼	2 13 8¼	2 15 7¼	2 17 6¼
800	2 14 9½	2 16 11¾	2 19 2	3 1 4¼	3 3 6½	3 5 9
900	3 1 7½	3 4 1¼	3 6 6¾	3 9 0¼	3 11 6	3 13 11¼
1000	3 8 5¾	3 11 2¾	3 13 11½	3 16 8½	3 19 5¼	4 2 2¼
2000	6 16 11½	7 2 5¼	7 7 11¼	7 13 5	7 18 10¾	8 4 4½
5000	17 2 5½	17 16 1¾	18 9 10¼	19 3 6¼	19 17 3	20 10 11½
10000	34 4 11	35 12 3¾	36 19 8½	38 7 1¼	39 14 6	41 1 11

Principal.	31 Days	32 Days	33 Days	34 Days	35 Days	36 Days
£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1
2	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 2¼	0 0 2¼
3	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 3¼	0 0 3¼	0 0 3¼	0 0 3¼
4	0 0 4	0 0 4	0 0 4¼	0 0 4¼	0 0 4½	0 0 4½
5	0 0 5	0 0 5¼	0 0 5¼	0 0 5½	0 0 5¾	0 0 5¾
6	0 0 6	0 0 6¼	0 0 6½	0 0 6¾	0 0 7	0 0 7
7	0 0 7	0 0 7¼	0 0 7½	0 0 7¾	0 0 8	0 0 8¼
8	0 0 8	0 0 8¼	0 0 8¾	0 0 8¾	0 0 9	0 0 9¼
9	0 0 9	0 0 9¼	0 0 9¾	0 0 10	0 0 10¼	0 0 10½
10	0 0 10	0 0 10½	0 0 10¾	0 0 11	0 0 11½	0 0 11¾
20	0 1 8¼	0 1 9	0 1 9½	0 1 10¼	0 1 11	0 1 11½
30	0 2 6½	0 2 7½	0 2 8½	0 2 9½	0 2 10½	0 2 11½
40	0 3 4¾	0 3 6	0 3 7¼	0 3 8¾	0 3 10	0 3 11¼
50	0 4 2¾	0 4 4½	0 4 6	0 4 7¾	0 4 9½	0 4 11
60	0 5 1	0 5 3	0 5 5	0 5 7	0 5 9	0 5 11
70	0 5 11¼	0 6 1½	0 6 3¾	0 6 6	0 6 8½	0 6 10¾
80	0 6 9½	0 7 0	0 7 2¾	0 7 5¼	0 7 8	0 7 10¼
90	0 7 7½	0 7 10½	0 8 1½	0 8 4¼	0 8 7½	0 8 10¼
100	0 8 5¾	0 8 9	0 9 0¼	0 9 3¼	0 9 7	0 9 10¼
200	0 16 11½	0 17 6¼	0 18 0¾	0 18 7½	0 19 2	0 19 8½
300	1 5 5¾	1 6 3¼	1 7 1¼	1 7 11¼	1 8 9	1 9 7
400	1 13 11½	1 15 0¾	1 16 1¾	1 17 3	1 18 4½	1 19 5¼
500	2 2 5¾	2 3 10	2 5 2¼	2 6 6¾	2 7 11¼	2 9 3¾
600	2 10 11¼	2 12 7	2 14 2¾	2 15 10½	2 17 6¼	2 19 2
700	2 19 5¼	3 1 4¼	3 3 3¼	3 5 2¼	3 7 1¼	3 9 0¼
800	3 7 11¼	3 10 1¾	3 12 3¾	3 14 6	3 16 8½	3 18 10¾
900	3 16 5¼	3 18 10¾	4 1 4¼	4 3 10	4 6 3¾	4 8 9
1000	4 4 11	4 7 8	4 10 4¾	4 13 1¾	4 15 10½	4 18 7½
2000	8 9 10¼	8 15 4	9 0 9¼	9 6 3½	9 11 9¼	9 17 3
5000	21 4 7¾	21 18 4¼	22 12 0¼	23 5 9	23 19 5¼	24 13 1¾
10000	42 9 3½	43 16 8½	45 4 1¼	46 11 6	47 18 10¾	49 6 3½

INTEREST AT 5 PER CENT.

Principal.	37 Days	38 Days	39 Days	40 Days	41 Days	42 Days
£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1¼	0 0 1¼	0 0 1¼	0 0 1½
2	0 0 2¼	0 0 2¼	0 0 2½	0 0 2½	0 0 2½	0 0 2¾
3	0 0 3½	0 0 3½	0 0 3¾	0 0 3¾	0 0 4	0 0 4
4	0 0 4¾	0 0 4¾	0 0 5	0 0 5¼	0 0 5¼	0 0 5½
5	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6¼	0 0 6¼	0 0 6½	0 0 6¾
6	0 0 7¼	0 0 7¼	0 0 7½	0 0 7¾	0 0 8	0 0 8¼
7	0 0 8½	0 0 8½	0 0 8¾	0 0 9	0 0 9¼	0 0 9½
8	0 0 9¾	0 0 9¾	0 0 10¼	0 0 10½	0 0 10¾	0 0 11
9	0 0 10¾	0 0 11	0 0 11½	0 0 11¾	0 1 0	0 1 0¼
10	0 1 0	0 1 0¼	0 1 0¾	0 1 1	0 1 1¼	0 1 1¾
20	0 2 0¼	0 2 0¾	0 2 1¼	0 2 1¾	0 2 2¼	0 2 2¾
30	0 3 0¼	0 3 1¼	0 3 2¼	0 3 3¼	0 3 4¼	0 3 5¼
40	0 4 0¾	0 4 1¾	0 4 3¼	0 4 4¾	0 4 5¾	0 4 7
50	0 5 0¾	0 5 2¼	0 5 4	0 5 5¾	0 5 7¼	0 5 9
60	0 6 0¾	0 6 2¾	0 6 4¾	0 6 6¾	0 6 8¾	0 6 10¾
70	0 7 1	0 7 3¼	0 7 5¾	0 7 8	0 7 10¼	0 8 0¾
80	0 8 1¼	0 8 3¾	0 8 6¼	0 8 9	0 8 11¾	0 9 2¼
90	0 9 1¼	0 9 4¼	0 9 7¼	0 9 10¼	0 10 1¼	0 10 4¼
100	0 10 1¾	0 10 4¾	0 10 8	0 10 11½	0 11 2¾	0 11 6
200	1 0 3¼	1 0 9¾	1 1 4¼	1 1 11	1 2 5½	1 3 0
300	1 10 4¾	1 11 2¾	1 12 0¾	1 12 10½	1 13 8¼	1 14 6
400	2 0 6¼	2 1 7¾	2 2 8¾	2 3 10	2 4 11	2 6 0¼
500	2 10 8	2 12 0¾	2 13 5	2 14 9½	2 16 1¾	2 17 6¼
600	3 0 9¾	3 2 5¼	3 4 1¼	3 5 9	3 7 4¾	3 9 0¼
700	3 10 11½	3 12 10½	3 14 9½	3 16 8½	3 18 7½	4 0 6½
800	4 1 1	4 3 3¼	4 5 5¾	4 7 8	4 9 10¼	4 12 0¾
900	4 11 2¾	4 13 8¼	4 16 1¾	4 18 7½	5 1 1	5 3 6¾
1000	5 1 4¼	5 4 1¼	5 6 10	5 9 7	5 12 3¾	5 15 0¾
2000	10 2 8½	10 8 2½	10 13 8½	10 19 2	11 4 7½	11 10 1½
5000	25 6 10	26 0 6½	26 14 2½	27 7 11¼	28 1 7½	28 15 4
10000	50 13 8¼	52 1 1	53 8 5¼	54 15 10½	56 3 3¼	57 10 8

Principal.	43 Days	44 Days	45 Days	46 Days	47 Days	48 Days
£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1	0 0 1¼	0 0 1¼	0 0 1¼	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½
2	0 0 2¼	0 0 2¼	0 0 2½	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 3
3	0 0 4	0 0 4¼	0 0 4¼	0 0 4½	0 0 4½	0 0 4½
4	0 0 5½	0 0 5¾	0 0 5¾	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6¼
5	0 0 7	0 0 7	0 0 7¼	0 0 7½	0 0 7½	0 0 7¾
6	0 0 8¼	0 0 8½	0 0 8¾	0 0 9	0 0 9¼	0 0 9¼
7	0 0 9¾	0 0 10	0 0 10¼	0 0 10½	0 0 10¾	0 0 11
8	0 0 11¼	0 0 11½	0 0 11¾	0 1 0	0 1 0¼	0 1 0½
9	0 1 0½	0 1 1	0 1 1¼	0 1 1½	0 1 1¾	0 1 2
10	0 1 2	0 1 2¼	0 1 2½	0 1 3	0 2 3¼	0 1 3¾
20	0 2 4¼	0 2 4½	0 2 5½	0 2 6	0 3 6¾	0 2 7½
30	0 3 6¼	0 3 7¼	0 3 8¼	0 3 9¼	0 5 1¾	0 3 11¼
40	0 4 8½	0 4 9¾	0 4 11	0 5 0¼	0 6 5¼	0 5 3
50	0 5 10½	0 6 0¼	0 6 1¾	0 6 3½	0 7 8½	0 6 6¾
60	0 7 0¾	0 7 2¾	0 7 4¾	0 7 6¾	0 9 0	0 7 10½
70	0 8 2¾	0 8 5¼	0 8 7¼	0 8 9¾	0 10 3½	0 9 2¼
80	0 9 5	0 9 7½	0 9 10¼	0 10 0¾	0 11 7	0 10 6
90	0 10 7	0 10 10	0 11 1	0 11 4	0 12 10½	0 11 10
100	0 11 9¼	0 12 0½	0 12 3¾	0 12 7	1 5 9	0 13 1¾
200	1 3 6½	1 4 1¼	1 4 7¾	1 5 2½	1 18 7½	1 6 3½
300	1 15 4	1 16 1¾	1 16 11¾	1 17 9½	2 11 6	1 19 5¼
400	2 7 1¼	2 8 2¼	2 9 3¾	2 10 4¾	3 4 4½	2 12 7
500	2 18 10¼	3 0 3¼	3 1 7½	3 3 0	3 17 3	3 5 9
600	3 10 8	3 12 3¾	3 13 11½	3 15 7½	4 10 1½	3 18 10¾
700	4 2 5½	4 4 4½	4 6 3½	4 8 2½	5 3 0	4 12 0½
800	4 14 2¾	4 16 5¼	4 18 7½	5 0 9¾	5 15 10½	5 5 2¼
900	5 6 0¼	5 8 5¾	5 10 11½	5 13 5	6 8 9	5 18 4¼
1000	5 17 9½	6 0 6¼	6 3 3¼	6 6 0¼	6 17 6¼	6 11 6
2000	11 15 7¼	12 1 1	12 6 6¼	12 12 0¼	13 3 0	13 3 0
5000	29 9 0¼	30 2 8¾	30 16 5¼	31 10 1¼	32 3 10	32 17 6¼
10000	58 18 0¼	60 5 5¼	61 12 10¼	63 0 3¼	64 7 8	65 15 0¼

INTEREST AT 5 PER CENT.

Principal.	49 Days	50 Days	51 Days	52 Days	53 Days	54 Days
£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1½	0 0 1¾
2	0 0 3	0 0 3¼	0 0 3¼	0 0 3¼	0 0 3¼	0 0 3½
3	0 0 4½	0 0 4½	0 0 5	0 0 5	0 0 5	0 0 5¼
4	0 0 6¼	0 0 6½	0 0 6¾	0 0 6¾	0 0 6¾	0 0 7
5	0 0 8	0 0 8	0 0 8¼	0 0 8¼	0 0 8½	0 0 8¾
6	0 0 9½	0 0 9¾	0 0 10	0 0 10¼	0 0 10¼	0 0 10½
7	0 0 11¼	0 0 11½	0 0 11¾	0 0 11¾	0 1 0	0 1 0¼
8	0 1 0¾	0 1 1	0 1 1¼	0 1 1½	0 1 1¾	0 1 2
9	0 1 2¼	0 1 2¾	0 1 3	0 1 3¼	0 1 3½	0 1 3¾
10	0 1 4	0 1 4¼	0 1 4¾	0 1 5	0 1 5¼	0 1 5¾
20	0 2 8	0 2 8¾	0 2 9½	0 2 10	0 2 10¾	0 2 11½
30	0 4 0¼	0 4 1¼	0 4 2¼	0 4 3¼	0 4 4¼	0 4 5¼
40	0 5 4¼	0 5 5¾	0 5 7	0 5 8¼	0 5 9½	0 5 11
50	0 6 8¼	0 6 10	0 6 11¾	0 7 1¼	0 7 3	0 7 4¾
60	0 8 0½	0 8 2½	0 8 4½	0 8 6½	0 8 8½	0 8 10½
70	0 9 4¾	0 9 7	0 9 9¼	0 9 11½	0 10 1¾	0 10 4¼
80	0 10 8¾	0 10 11¼	0 11 2	0 11 4¾	0 11 7¼	0 11 10
90	0 12 0¾	0 12 3¾	0 12 6¾	0 12 9¾	0 13 0¾	0 13 3¾
100	0 13 5	0 13 8¼	0 13 11½	0 14 2¾	0 14 6	0 14 9½
200	1 6 10	1 7 4¾	1 7 11¼	1 8 5¾	1 9 0¼	1 9 7
300	2 0 3¼	2 1 1	2 1 11	2 2 8¾	2 3 6¼	2 4 4½
400	2 13 8¼	2 14 9½	2 15 10½	2 16 11¾	2 18 0¾	2 19 2
500	3 7 1¼	3 8 5¾	3 9 10¼	3 11 2¾	3 12 7	3 13 11½
600	4 0 6½	4 2 2¼	4 3 10	4 5 5¾	4 7 1¼	4 8 9
700	4 13 11¼	4 15 10½	4 17 9½	4 19 8¾	5 1 7½	5 3 6¼
800	5 7 4½	5 9 7	5 11 9¼	5 13 11½	5 16 1¾	5 18 4¼
900	6 0 9¾	6 3 3¼	6 5 9	6 8 2¼	6 10 8	6 13 1¾
1000	6 14 2¾	6 16 11¼	6 19 8¼	7 2 5½	7 5 2¼	7 7 11¼
2000	13 8 5¾	13 13 11½	13 19 5¼	14 4 11	14 10 4¾	14 15 10¼
5000	33 11 2¾	34 4 11	34 18 7½	35 12 3¾	36 6 0¼	36 19 8¼
10000	67 2 5½	68 9 10¼	69 17 3	71 4 7½	72 12 0½	73 19 5¼

Principal.	55 Days	56 Days	57 Days	58 Days	59 Days	60 Days
£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1	0 0 1¾	0 0 1¾	0 0 1¾	0 0 1¾	0 0 1¾	0 0 1¾
2	0 0 3½	0 0 3½	0 0 3½	0 0 3¾	0 0 3¾	0 0 3¾
3	0 0 5¼	0 0 5¼	0 0 5¼	0 0 5¼	0 0 5¾	0 0 5¾
4	0 0 7	0 0 7¼	0 0 7¼	0 0 7½	0 0 7¾	0 0 7¾
5	0 0 9	0 0 9	0 0 9¼	0 0 9¼	0 0 9¾	0 0 9¾
6	0 0 10¾	0 0 11	0 0 11	0 0 11¼	0 0 11½	0 0 11¾
7	0 1 0½	0 1 0¾	0 1 1	0 1 1¼	0 1 1½	0 1 1¾
8	0 1 2¼	0 1 2½	0 1 2¾	0 1 3¼	0 1 3½	0 1 3¾
9	0 1 4¼	0 1 4½	0 1 4¾	0 1 5	0 1 5¼	0 1 5¾
10	0 1 6	0 1 6¼	0 1 6¾	0 1 7	0 1 7¼	0 1 7¾
20	0 3 0	0 3 0¾	0 3 1¾	0 3 2	0 3 2¾	0 3 3¼
30	0 4 6	0 4 7	0 4 8	0 4 9	0 4 10	0 4 11
40	0 6 0½	0 6 1½	0 6 2¾	0 6 4¼	0 6 5¼	0 6 6¾
50	0 7 6¼	0 7 8	0 7 9¼	0 7 11¼	0 8 0¾	0 8 2¼
60	0 9 0½	0 9 2¼	0 9 4¼	0 9 6¼	0 9 8¼	0 9 10¼
70	0 10 6¼	0 10 8¾	0 10 11	0 11 1¼	0 11 3¾	0 11 6
80	0 12 0¼	0 12 3¼	0 12 5¾	0 12 8¾	0 12 11	0 13 1¾
90	0 13 6¼	0 13 9¾	0 14 0¼	0 14 3½	0 14 6¾	0 14 9¾
100	0 15 0¾	0 15 4	0 15 7¼	0 15 10½	0 16 1¾	0 16 5
200	1 10 1½	1 10 8	1 11 2¾	1 11 9¼	1 12 3¾	1 12 10½
300	2 5 2¼	2 6 0¼	2 6 10	2 7 8	2 8 5¾	2 9 3¾
400	3 0 3¼	3 1 4¼	3 2 5½	3 3 6½	3 4 7¾	3 5 9
500	3 15 4	3 16 8¼	3 18 0¾	3 19 5¼	4 0 9¾	4 2 2¼
600	4 10 4¾	4 12 0¼	4 13 8¼	4 15 4	4 16 11¾	4 18 7½
700	5 5 5¾	5 7 4¾	5 9 3¾	5 11 2¾	5 13 1¾	5 15 0¾
800	6 0 6¾	6 2 8¾	6 4 11	6 7 1½	6 9 3¾	6 11 6
900	6 15 7¼	6 18 0¾	7 0 6¼	7 3 0	7 5 5¾	7 7 11¼
1000	7 10 8	7 13 5	7 16 1¾	7 18 10¾	8 1 7½	8 4 4½
2000	15 1 4¼	15 6 10	15 12 3½	15 17 9½	16 3 3½	16 8 9
5000	37 13 5	38 7 1¼	39 0 9¾	39 14 6	40 8 2¼	41 1 11
10000	75 6 10	76 14 2½	78 1 7½	79 9 0½	80 16 5¼	82 3 10

INTEREST AT 5 PER CENT.

Principal.	61 Days	62 Days	63 Days	64 Days	65 Days	66 Days
£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 2
2	0 0 4	0 0 4	0 0 4	0 0 4	0 0 4¼	0 0 4¼
3	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6¼	0 0 6½	0 0 6½
4	0 0 8	0 0 8	0 0 8¼	0 0 8½	0 0 8½	0 0 8½
5	0 0 10	0 0 10	0 0 10½	0 0 10½	0 0 10½	0 0 10½
6	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0½	0 1 0½	0 1 0½	0 1 1
7	0 1 2	0 1 2¼	0 1 2½	0 1 2½	0 1 2½	0 1 3
8	0 1 4	0 1 4¼	0 1 4½	0 1 4½	0 1 5	0 1 5¼
9	0 1 6	0 1 6¼	0 1 6½	0 1 6½	0 1 7	0 1 7½
10	0 1 8	0 1 8¼	0 1 8½	0 1 9	0 1 9¼	0 1 9½
20	0 3 4	0 3 4½	0 3 5¼	0 3 6	0 3 6½	0 3 7¼
30	0 5 0	0 5 1	0 5 2	0 5 3	0 5 4	0 5 5
40	0 6 8	0 6 9½	0 6 10½	0 7 0	0 7 1½	0 7 2½
50	0 8 4½	0 8 5½	0 8 7½	0 8 9	0 8 10½	0 9 0¼
60	0 10 0½	0 10 2¼	0 10 4¼	0 10 6	0 10 8	0 10 10
70	0 11 8¼	0 11 10½	0 12 0½	0 12 3½	0 12 5½	0 12 7½
80	0 13 4½	0 13 7	0 13 9½	0 14 0½	0 14 2½	0 14 5½
90	0 15 0½	0 15 3½	6 15 6½	0 15 9½	0 16 0½	0 16 3½
100	0 16 8½	0 16 11½	0 17 3	0 17 6½	0 17 9½	0 18 0½
200	1 13 5	1 13 11½	1 14 6	1 15 0½	1 15 7¼	1 16 1½
300	2 10 1½	2 10 11½	2 11 9½	2 12 7	2 13 5	2 14 2½
400	3 6 10	3 7 11½	3 9 0½	3 10 1½	3 11 2½	3 12 3½
500	4 3 6½	4 4 11	4 6 3½	4 7 8	4 9 0½	4 10 4½
600	5 0 3½	5 1 11	5 3 6½	5 5 2½	5 6 10	5 8 5½
700	5 16 11½	5 18 10½	6 0 9½	6 2 8½	6 4 7½	6 6 6½
800	6 13 8½	6 15 10½	6 18 0½	7 0 3½	7 2 5½	7 4 7½
900	7 10 4½	7 12 10½	7 15 4	7 17 9½	8 0 3½	8 2 8½
1000	8 7 1½	8 9 10½	8 12 7	8 15 4	8 18 0½	9 0 9½
2000	16 14 2½	16 19 8½	17 5 2½	17 10 8	17 16 1½	18 1 7½
5000	41 15 7½	42 9 3½	43 3 0	43 16 8½	44 10 4½	45 4 1½
10000	83 11 2½	84 18 7½	86 6 0½	87 13 5	89 0 9½	90 8 2½

Principal.	67 Days	68 Days	69 Days	70 Days	71 Days	72 Days
£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 2¼	0 0 2¼	0 0 2¼	0 0 2¼
2	0 0 4¼	0 0 4¼	0 0 4½	0 0 4½	0 0 4½	0 0 4½
3	0 0 6¼	0 0 6½	0 0 6¾	0 0 6¾	0 0 7	0 0 7
4	0 0 8¾	0 0 8¾	0 0 9	0 0 9	0 0 9¼	0 0 9¼
5	0 0 11	0 0 11	0 0 11¼	0 0 11½	0 0 11½	0 0 11½
6	0 1 1	0 1 1¼	0 1 1½	0 1 1¾	0 1 2	0 1 2
7	0 1 3¼	0 1 3½	0 1 3¾	0 1 4	0 1 4¼	0 1 4½
8	0 1 5½	0 1 5¾	0 1 6	0 1 6¼	0 1 6½	0 1 6¾
9	0 1 7¾	0 1 8	0 1 8¼	0 1 8½	0 1 9	0 1 9¼
10	0 1 10	0 1 10¼	0 1 10½	0 1 11	0 1 11¼	0 1 11½
20	0 3 8	0 3 8½	0 3 9¼	0 3 10	0 3 10½	0 3 11¼
30	0 5 6	0 5 7	0 5 8	0 5 9	0 5 10	0 5 11
40	0 7 4	0 7 5¼	0 7 6¼	0 7 8	0 7 9¼	0 7 10½
50	0 9 2	0 9 3¾	0 9 5¼	0 9 7	0 9 8½	0 9 10¼
60	0 11 0	0 11 2	0 11 4	0 11 6	0 11 8	0 11 10
70	0 12 10	0 13 0¼	0 13 2¾	0 13 5	0 13 7¼	0 13 9½
80	0 14 8	0 14 10¾	0 15 1¼	0 15 4	0 15 6½	0 15 9¼
90	0 16 6	0 16 9	0 17 0	0 17 3	0 17 6	0 17 9
100	0 18 4¼	0 18 7½	0 18 10¾	0 19 2	0 19 5¼	0 19 8½
200	1 16 8½	1 17 3	1 17 9¼	1 18 4¼	1 18 10¾	1 19 5¼
300	2 15 0¾	2 15 10½	2 16 8½	2 17 6¼	2 18 4¼	2 19 2
400	3 13 5	3 14 6	3 15 7¼	3 16 8½	3 17 9½	3 18 10¾
500	4 11 9¼	4 13 1¾	4 14 6	4 15 10¼	4 17 3	4 18 7½
600	5 10 1½	5 11 9½	5 13 5	5 15 0¾	5 16 8½	5 18 4¼
700	6 8 5¾	6 10 4¾	6 12 3¾	6 14 2¾	6 16 1¾	6 18 0¾
800	7 6 10	7 9 0¼	7 11 2¼	7 13 5	7 15 7¼	7 17 9½
900	8 5 2¼	8 7 8	8 10 1¼	8 12 7	8 15 0¾	8 17 6¼
1000	9 3 6¼	9 6 3½	9 9 0¼	9 11 9¼	9 14 6	9 17 3
2000	18 7 1¼	18 12 7	18 18 0¾	19 3 6¾	19 9 0¼	19 14 6
5000	45 17 9¼	46 11 6	47 5 2¼	47 18 10¾	48 12 7	49 6 3½
10000	91 15 7½	93 3 0	94 10 4½	95 17 9½	97 5 2¼	98 12 7

INTEREST AT 5 PER CENT.

Principal.	73 Days	74 Days	75 Days	76 Days	77 Days	78 Days
£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1	0 0 2¼	0 0 2¼	0 0 2¼	0 0 2¼	0 0 2½	0 0 2½
2	0 0 4½	0 0 4½	0 0 4½	0 0 4½	0 0 5	0 0 5
3	0 0 7	0 0 7¼	0 0 7¼	0 0 7¼	0 0 7½	0 0 7½
4	0 0 9½	0 0 9¾	0 0 9¾	0 0 9¾	0 0 10	0 0 10¼
5	0 1 0	0 1 0¼	0 1 0¼	0 1 0¼	0 1 0½	0 1 0¾
6	0 1 2¼	0 1 2½	0 1 2¾	0 1 2¾	0 1 3	0 1 3¼
7	0 1 4½	0 1 5	0 1 5¼	0 1 5¼	0 1 5½	0 1 5¾
8	0 1 7	0 1 7½	0 1 7½	0 1 7¾	0 1 8¼	0 1 8¾
9	0 1 9½	0 1 9¾	0 1 10	0 1 10¼	0 1 10¾	0 1 11
10	0 2 0	0 2 0¼	0 2 0½	0 2 0¾	0 2 1¼	0 2 1¼
20	0 4 0	0 4 0½	0 4 1¼	0 4 1½	0 4 2½	0 4 3¼
30	0 6 0	0 6 0¾	0 6 1½	0 6 2¾	0 6 3¾	0 6 4¾
40	0 8 0	0 8 1¼	0 8 2½	0 8 3½	0 8 5¼	0 8 6½
50	0 10 0	0 10 1½	0 10 3¼	0 10 4¾	0 10 6½	0 10 8
60	0 12 0	0 12 1¾	0 12 3¾	0 12 5¾	0 12 7¾	0 12 9¾
70	0 14 0	0 14 2¼	0 14 4¼	0 14 6¾	0 14 9	0 14 11½
80	0 16 0	0 16 2½	0 16 5¼	0 16 7¾	0 16 10½	0 17 1
90	0 18 0	0 18 2¾	0 18 5¾	0 18 8¾	0 18 11¾	0 19 2¾
100	1 0 0	1 0 3¼	1 0 6½	1 0 9¾	1 1 1	1 1 4¼
200	2 0 0	2 0 6¾	2 1 1	2 1 7½	2 2 2¼	2 2 8¾
300	3 0 0	3 0 9¾	3 1 7½	3 2 5½	3 3 3¼	3 4 1¼
400	4 0 0	4 1 1	4 2 2¼	4 3 3¼	4 4 4½	4 5 5¾
500	5 0 0	5 1 4½	5 2 8¾	5 4 1¼	5 5 5¾	5 6 10
600	6 0 0	6 1 7½	6 3 3¼	6 4 11	6 6 6¾	6 8 2½
700	7 0 0	7 1 11	7 3 10	7 5 9	7 7 8	7 9 7
800	8 0 0	8 2 2¼	8 4 4½	8 6 6¾	8 8 9	8 10 11¼
900	9 0 0	9 2 5¾	9 4 11	9 7 4½	9 9 10¼	9 12 3¾
1000	10 0 0	10 2 8¾	10 5 5¾	10 8 2¼	10 10 11½	10 13 8¼
2000	20 0 0	20 5 5½	20 10 11½	20 16 5¼	21 1 11	21 7 4½
5000	50 0 0	50 13 8¼	50 7 4¾	52 1 1	52 14 9½	53 8 5¾
10000	100 0 0	101 7 4½	102 14 9½	104 2 2¼	105 9 7	106 16 11½

Principal.	79 Days	80 Days	81 Days	82 Days	83 Days	84 Days
£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1	0 0 2½	0 0 2¾	0 0 2¾	0 0 2¾	0 0 2¾	0 0 2¾
2	0 0 5	0 0 5¼	0 0 5¼	0 0 5¼	0 0 5¼	0 0 5½
3	0 0 7½	0 0 7¾	0 0 7¾	0 0 8	0 0 8	0 0 8¼
4	0 0 10¼	0 0 10½	0 0 10¾	0 0 10¾	0 0 10¾	0 0 11
5	0 1 0¾	0 1 1	0 1 1¼	0 1 1¼	0 1 1½	0 1 1¾
6	0 1 3½	0 1 3¾	0 1 3¾	0 1 4	0 1 4½	0 1 4½
7	0 1 6	0 1 6¼	0 1 6¾	0 1 6¾	0 1 7	0 1 7¼
8	0 1 8¾	0 1 9	0 1 9¼	0 1 9½	0 1 9¾	0 1 10
9	0 1 11¼	0 1 11½	0 1 11¾	0 2 0¼	0 2 0¾	0 2 0¾
10	0 2 1¾	0 2 2¼	0 2 2¼	0 2 2¾	0 2 3¼	0 2 3½
20	0 4 3½	0 4 4½	0 4 5¼	0 4 5¾	0 4 6¼	0 4 7
30	0 6 5¾	0 6 6¾	0 6 7¾	0 6 8¾	0 6 9¾	0 6 10¾
40	0 8 7¾	0 8 9	0 8 10½	0 8 11¾	0 9 1	0 9 2¼
50	0 10 9¾	0 10 11¼	0 11 1	0 11 2¾	0 11 4¼	0 11 6
60	0 12 11¾	0 13 1¾	0 13 3¾	0 13 5¾	0 13 7½	0 13 9¼
70	0 15 1¾	0 15 4	0 15 6½	0 15 8½	0 15 11	0 16 1¼
80	0 17 3¾	0 17 6¼	0 17 9	0 17 11¼	0 18 2¼	0 18 4½
90	0 19 5¾	0 19 8½	0 19 11¼	1 0 2¼	1 0 5¼	1 0 8½
100	1 1 7¾	1 1 11	1 2 2¼	1 2 5½	1 2 8¾	1 3 0
200	2 3 3¼	2 3 10	2 4 4½	2 4 11	2 5 5¾	2 6 0¼
300	3 4 11	3 5 9	3 6 6¾	3 7 4¾	3 8 2¾	3 9 0¼
400	4 6 6¾	4 7 8	4 8 9	4 9 10¼	4 10 11½	4 12 0¼
500	5 8 2¾	5 9 7	5 10 11¼	5 12 3¾	5 13 8¼	5 15 0¾
600	6 9 10¼	6 11 6	6 13 1¾	6 14 9½	6 16 5¼	6 18 0¾
700	7 11 6	7 13 5	7 15 4	7 17 3	7 19 2	8 1 1
800	8 13 1¾	8 15 4	8 17 6¼	8 19 8¼	9 1 11	9 4 1¼
900	9 14 9½	9 17 3	9 19 8½	11 2 2¼	10 4 7¾	10 7 1¼
1000	10 16 5¼	10 19 2	11 1 11	11 4 7¾	11 7 4¾	11 10 1¾
2000	21 12 10¼	21 18 4½	22 3 10	22 9 3¾	22 14 9¼	23 0 3¼
5000	54 2 2¾	54 15 10¼	55 9 7	56 3 3¼	56 16 11½	57 10 8
10000	108 4 4½	109 11 9¼	110 19 2	112 6 6½	113 13 11½	115 1 4¼

INTEREST AT 5 PER CENT.

Principal.	85 Days	86 Days	87 Days	88 Days	89 Days	90 Days
£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1	0 0 2¾	0 0 2¾	0 0 2¾	0 0 2¾	0 0 2¾	0 0 2¾
2	0 0 5½	0 0 5½	0 0 5½	0 0 5½	0 0 5½	0 0 5½
3	0 0 8¼	0 0 8¼	0 0 8¼	0 0 8¼	0 0 8¼	0 0 8¼
4	0 0 11	0 0 11	0 0 11	0 0 11	0 0 11	0 0 11
5	0 1 1¾	0 1 2	0 1 2	0 1 2¼	0 1 2¼	0 1 2¼
6	0 1 4¾	0 1 4¾	0 1 5	0 1 5¼	0 1 5¼	0 1 5½
7	0 1 7½	0 1 7¾	0 1 8	0 1 8¼	0 1 8¼	0 1 8¼
8	0 1 10¼	0 1 10½	0 1 10¾	0 1 11	0 1 11¼	0 1 11¼
9	0 2 1	0 2 1¼	0 2 1½	0 2 2	0 2 2¼	0 2 2¼
10	0 2 3¾	0 2 4¼	0 2 4½	0 2 4¾	0 2 5¼	0 2 5½
20	0 4 7½	0 4 8½	0 4 9	0 4 9½	0 4 10½	0 4 11
30	0 6 11¼	0 7 0¾	0 7 1¾	0 7 2¾	0 7 3¾	0 7 4¾
40	0 9 3¾	0 9 5	0 9 6¼	0 9 7½	0 9 9	0 9 10¼
50	0 11 7½	0 11 9¼	0 11 11	0 12 0½	0 12 2¼	0 12 3¾
60	0 13 11¼	0 14 1½	0 14 3½	0 14 5½	0 14 7½	0 14 9½
70	0 16 3½	0 16 5¾	0 16 8	0 16 10½	0 17 0¾	0 17 3
80	0 18 7½	0 18 10	0 19 0¾	0 19 3¼	0 19 6	0 19 8½
90	1 0 11¼	1 1 2¼	1 1 5¼	1 1 8¼	1 1 11¼	1 2 2¼
100	1 3 3¼	1 3 6¼	1 3 10	1 4 1¼	1 4 4½	1 4 7½
200	2 6 6½	2 7 1¼	2 7 8	2 8 2½	2 8 9	2 9 3½
300	3 9 10¼	3 10 8	3 11 6	3 12 3¾	3 13 1¾	3 13 11¼
400	4 13 1¾	4 14 2¾	4 15 4	4 16 5¼	4 17 6¼	4 18 7½
500	5 16 5¼	5 17 9½	5 19 2	6 0 6¼	6 1 11	6 3 3¼
600	6 19 8½	7 1 4¼	7 3 0	7 4 7¾	7 6 3½	7 7 11¼
700	8 3 0	8 4 11	8 6 10	8 8 9	8 10 8	8 12 7
800	9 6 3½	9 8 5¾	9 10 8	9 12 10½	9 15 0¾	9 17 3
900	10 9 7	10 12 0½	10 14 6	10 16 11¾	10 19 5¼	11 1 11
1000	11 12 10½	11 15 7¼	11 18 4¼	12 1 1	12 3 10	12 6 6¾
2000	23 5 9	23 11 2¾	23 16 8½	24 2 2½	24 7 8	24 13 1¾
5000	58 4 4½	58 18 0¾	59 11 9¼	60 5 5¾	60 19 2	61 12 10½
10000	116 8 9	117 16 1¾	119 3 6½	120 10 11½	121 18 4¼	123 5 9

Principal.	91 Days	92 Days	93 Days	94 Days	95 Days	96 Days
£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1	0 0 2¾	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 3
2	0 0 5½	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6¼
3	0 0 8¼	0 0 9	0 0 9	0 0 9¼	0 0 9¼	0 0 9¼
4	0 0 11¼	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0¼	0 1 0¼	0 1 0¼
5	0 1 2¼	0 1 3	0 1 3¼	0 1 3¼	0 1 3¼	0 1 3¼
6	0 1 5¼	0 1 6	0 1 6¼	0 1 6½	0 1 6½	0 1 6½
7	0 1 8¼	0 1 9	0 1 9¼	0 1 9½	0 1 9¾	0 1 10
8	0 1 11¼	0 2 0	0 2 0¼	0 2 0¾	0 2 0¾	0 2 1
9	0 2 2¼	0 2 3	0 2 3¼	0 2 3¾	0 2 4	0 2 4¼
10	0 2 5¼	0 2 6	0 2 6½	0 2 6¾	0 2 7	0 2 7½
20	0 4 11¼	0 5 0¼	0 5 1	0 5 1¾	0 5 2¼	0 5 3
30	0 7 5¼	0 7 6½	0 7 7½	0 7 8¾	0 7 9¼	0 7 10½
40	0 9 11½	0 10 0¾	0 10 2¼	0 10 3¾	0 10 4¾	0 10 6
50	0 12 5¾	0 12 7	0 12 8¾	0 12 10¼	0 13 0	0 13 1¾
60	0 14 11½	0 15 1¼	0 15 3¼	0 15 5¼	0 15 7¼	0 15 9¼
70	0 17 5¾	0 17 7½	0 17 10	0 18 0¼	0 18 2¼	0 18 4½
80	0 19 11¾	1 0 1¾	1 0 4½	1 0 7	1 0 9¾	1 1 0¼
90	1 2 5¾	1 2 8	1 2 11	1 3 2	1 3 5	1 3 8
100	1 4 11	1 5 2¼	1 5 5¾	1 5 9	1 6 0¼	1 6 3½
200	2 9 10¼	2 10 4½	2 10 11½	2 11 6	2 12 0¼	2 12 7
300	3 14 9½	3 15 7¼	3 16 5¼	3 17 3	3 18 0¾	3 18 10¾
400	4 19 8¼	5 0 9¾	5 1 11	5 3 0	5 4 1¼	5 5 2¼
500	6 4 7¾	6 6 0¼	6 7 4¾	6 8 9	6 10 1¼	6 11 6
600	7 9 7	7 11 2¾	7 12 10½	7 14 6	7 16 1½	7 17 9½
700	8 14 6	8 16 5¼	8 18 4¼	9 0 3¼	9 2 2¼	9 4 1¼
800	9 19 5¼	10 1 7½	10 3 10	10 6 0¼	10 8 2¼	10 10 4¼
900	11 4 4¼	11 6 10	11 9 3¾	11 11 9¼	11 14 2¾	11 16 8½
1000	12 9 3¾	12 12 0½	12 14 9½	12 17 6¼	13 0 3¼	13 3 0
2000	24 18 7½	25 4 1¼	25 9 7	25 15 0½	26 0 6¼	26 6 0¼
5000	62 6 6¾	63 0 3¼	63 13 11¼	64 7 8	65 1 4¼	65 15 0½
10000	124 13 1½	126 0 6½	127 7 11½	128 15 4	130 2 8½	131 10 1½

INTEREST AT 5 PER CENT.

Principal.	97 Days	98 Days	99 Days	100 Days	183 Days	365 Days
£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 3¼	0 0 3¼	0 0 6	0 1 0
2	0 0 6¼	0 0 6¼	0 0 6½	0 0 6½	0 1 0	0 2 0
3	0 0 9½	0 0 9½	0 0 9¾	0 0 9¾	0 1 6	0 3 0
4	0 1 0½	0 1 0½	0 1 1	0 1 1	0 2 0	0 4 0
5	0 1 3¾	0 1 4	0 1 4¼	0 1 4¼	0 2 6	0 5 0
6	0 1 7	0 1 7¼	0 1 7½	0 1 7½	0 3 0	0 6 0
7	0 1 10¼	0 1 10½	0 1 10¾	0 1 11	0 3 6	0 7 0
8	0 2 1½	0 2 1¾	0 2 2	0 2 2¼	0 4 0	0 8 0
9	0 2 4¾	0 2 4¾	0 2 5¼	0 2 5¼	0 4 6	0 9 0
10	0 2 7¾	0 2 8	0 2 8½	0 2 8¾	0 5 0	0 10 0
20	0 5 3¾	0 5 4¼	0 5 5	0 5 5½	0 10 0¼	1 0 0
30	0 7 11¼	0 8 0¼	0 8 1½	0 8 2½	0 15 0¼	1 10 0
40	0 10 7½	0 10 8¾	0 10 10	0 10 11¼	1 0 0¼	2 0 0
50	0 13 3¾	0 13 5	0 13 6¼	0 13 8¼	1 5 0¾	2 10 0
60	0 15 11¼	0 16 1¼	0 16 3¼	0 16 5¼	1 10 0¾	3 0 0
70	0 18 7	0 18 9¼	0 18 11¼	0 19 2	1 15 1	3 10 0
80	1 1 3	1 1 5¾	1 1 8¼	1 1 11	2 0 1¼	4 0 0
90	1 3 11	1 4 1¾	1 4 4¾	1 4 7¾	2 5 1¾	4 10 0
100	1 6 6¾	1 6 10	1 7 1¼	1 7 4¾	2 10 1¾	5 0 0
200	2 13 1¾	2 13 8¼	2 14 2¾	2 14 9¾	5 0 3¼	10 0 0
300	3 19 8¼	4 0 6¼	4 1 4¼	4 2 2¼	7 10 4¾	15 0 0
400	5 6 3¼	5 7 4¼	5 8 5¾	5 9 7	10 0 6½	20 0 0
500	6 12 10¾	6 14 2¾	6 15 7¼	6 16 11¾	12 10 8	25 0 0
600	7 19 5¼	8 1 1	8 2 8¾	8 4 4½	15 0 9¾	30 0 0
700	9 6 0¾	9 7 11¼	9 9 10¼	9 11 9¼	17 10 11½	35 0 0
800	10 12 7	10 14 9¼	10 16 11¾	10 19 2	20 1 1	40 0 0
900	11 19 2	12 1 7¼	12 4 1¼	12 6 6¾	22 11 2¾	45 0 0
1000	13 5 9	13 8 5¾	13 11 2¾	13 13 11¼	25 1 4¼	50 0 0
2000	26 11 6	26 16 11½	27 2 5½	27 7 11½	50 2 8½	100 0 0
5000	66 8 9	67 2 5½	67 16 1¼	68 9 10½	125 6 10	250 0 0
10000	132 17 6¼	134 4 11	135 12 3½	136 19 8½	250 13 8¼	500 0 0

Principal.	1 Month	2 Months	3 Months	4 Months	5 Months	6 Months
£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1	0 0 1	0 0 2	0 0 3	0 0 4	0 0 5	0 0 6
2	0 0 2	0 0 4	0 0 6	0 0 8	0 0 10	0 1 0
3	0 0 3	0 0 6	0 0 9	0 1 0	0 1 3	0 1 6
4	0 0 4	0 0 8	0 1 0	0 1 4	0 1 8	0 2 0
5	0 0 5	0 0 10	0 1 3	0 1 8	0 2 1	0 2 6
6	0 0 6	0 1 0	0 1 6	0 2 0	0 2 6	0 3 0
7	0 0 7	0 1 2	0 1 9	0 2 4	0 2 11	0 3 6
8	0 0 8	0 1 4	0 2 0	0 2 8	0 3 4	0 4 0
9	0 0 9	0 1 6	0 2 3	0 3 0	0 3 9	0 4 6
10	0 0 10	0 1 8	0 2 6	0 3 4	0 4 2	0 5 0
20	0 1 8	0 3 4	0 5 0	0 6 8	0 8 4	0 10 0
30	0 2 6	0 5 0	0 7 6	0 10 0	0 12 6	0 15 0
40	0 3 4	0 6 8	0 10 0	0 13 4	0 16 8	1 0 0
50	0 4 2	0 8 4	0 12 6	0 16 8	1 0 10	1 5 0
60	0 5 0	0 10 0	0 15 0	1 0 0	1 5 0	1 10 0
70	0 5 10	0 11 8	0 17 6	1 3 4	1 9 2	1 15 0
80	0 6 8	0 13 4	1 0 0	1 6 8	1 13 4	2 0 0
90	0 7 6	0 15 0	1 2 6	1 10 0	1 17 6	2 5 0
100	0 8 4	0 16 8	1 5 0	1 13 4	2 1 8	2 10 0
200	0 16 8	1 13 4	2 10 0	3 6 8	4 3 4	5 0 0
300	1 5 0	2 10 0	3 15 0	5 0 0	6 5 0	7 10 0
400	1 13 4	3 6 8	5 0 0	6 13 4	8 6 8	10 0 0
500	2 1 8	4 3 4	6 5 0	8 6 8	10 8 4	12 10 0
600	2 10 0	5 0 0	7 10 0	10 0 0	12 10 0	15 0 0
700	2 18 4	5 16 8	8 15 0	11 13 4	14 11 8	17 10 0
800	3 6 8	6 13 4	10 0 0	13 6 8	16 13 4	20 0 0
900	3 15 0	7 10 0	11 5 0	15 0 0	18 15 0	22 10 0
1000	4 3 4	8 6 8	12 10 0	16 13 4	20 16 8	25 0 0
2000	8 6 8	16 13 4	25 0 0	33 6 8	41 13 4	50 0 0
5000	20 16 8	41 13 4	62 10 0	83 6 8	104 3 4	125 0 0
10000	41 13 4	83 6 8	125 0 0	166 13 4	208 6 8	250 0 0

INTEREST AT 5 PER CENT.

Principal.	7 Months			8 Months			9 Months			10 Months			11 Months			12 Months		
£	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1	0	0	7	0	0	8	0	0	9	0	0	10	0	0	11	0	1	0
2	0	1	2	0	1	4	0	1	6	0	1	8	0	1	10	0	2	0
3	0	1	9	0	2	0	0	2	3	0	2	6	0	2	9	0	3	0
4	0	2	4	0	2	8	0	3	0	0	3	4	0	3	8	0	4	0
5	0	2	11	0	3	4	0	3	9	0	4	2	0	4	7	0	5	0
6	0	3	6	0	4	0	0	4	6	0	5	0	0	5	6	0	6	0
7	0	4	1	0	4	8	0	5	3	0	5	10	0	6	5	0	7	0
8	0	4	8	0	5	4	0	6	0	0	6	8	0	7	4	0	8	0
9	0	5	3	0	6	0	0	6	9	0	7	6	0	8	3	0	9	0
10	0	5	10	0	6	8	0	7	6	0	8	4	0	9	2	0	10	0
20	0	11	8	0	13	4	0	15	0	0	16	8	0	18	4	1	0	0
30	0	17	6	1	0	0	1	2	6	1	5	0	1	7	6	1	10	0
40	1	3	4	1	6	8	1	10	0	1	13	4	1	16	8	2	0	0
50	1	9	2	1	13	4	1	17	6	2	1	8	2	5	10	2	10	0
60	1	15	0	2	0	0	2	5	0	2	10	0	2	15	0	3	0	0
70	2	0	10	2	6	8	2	12	6	2	18	4	3	4	2	3	10	0
80	2	6	8	2	13	4	3	0	0	3	6	8	3	13	4	4	0	0
90	2	12	6	3	0	0	3	7	6	3	15	0	4	2	6	4	10	0
100	2	18	4	3	6	8	3	15	0	4	3	4	4	11	8	5	0	0
200	5	16	8	6	13	4	7	10	0	8	6	8	9	3	4	10	0	0
300	8	15	0	10	0	0	11	5	0	12	10	0	13	15	0	15	0	0
400	11	13	4	13	6	8	15	0	0	16	13	4	18	6	8	20	0	0
500	14	11	8	16	13	4	18	15	0	20	16	8	22	18	4	25	0	0
600	17	10	0	20	0	0	22	10	0	25	0	0	27	10	0	30	0	0
700	20	8	4	23	6	8	26	5	0	29	3	4	32	1	8	35	0	0
800	23	6	8	26	13	4	30	0	0	33	6	8	36	13	4	40	0	0
900	26	5	0	30	0	0	33	15	0	37	10	0	41	5	0	45	0	0
1000	29	3	4	33	6	8	37	10	0	41	13	4	45	16	8	50	0	0
2000	58	6	8	66	13	4	75	0	0	83	6	8	91	13	4	100	0	0
5000	145	16	8	166	13	4	187	10	0	208	6	8	229	3	4	250	0	0
10000	291	13	4	333	6	8	375	0	0	416	13	4	458	6	8	500	0	0

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