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### A Tribute to Sir Isaac Newton.

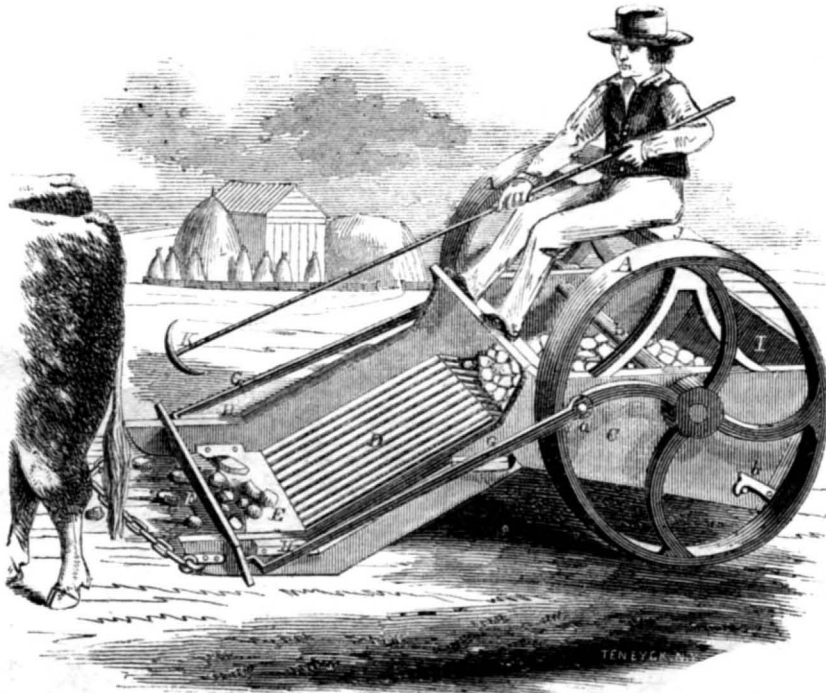
A ceremony of a most extraordinary character took place at Grantham, England, the native place of Sir Isaac Newton, on the 21st ult. This was the erection of a beautiful colossal bronze statue of the great philosopher. Men of the highest attainments in European science, literature and statesmanship were present to do honor to the proceedings, and the venerable Lord Brougham thrilled the immense audience with one of the most eloquent orations delivered since the voice of Demosthenes was hushed at Athens. His subject was the genius of Newton and the progress of physical discovery. In regard to his genius, he said:—"The consent of nations has declared that he is chargeable with nothing like a follower's exaggeration or local partiality who pronounces the name of Newton as the greatest genius ever bestowed by the bounty of Providence for instructing mankind on the frame of the universe, and the laws by which it is governed."

No exception, we believe, will be taken to this panegyric. We place a far higher estimate upon the quality of Newton's intellect than that of Cæsar, Napoleon, or any of the great warriors, whose feats in arms seem to dazzle the mass of mankind.

When Isaac Newton was a boy, he had a strong predilection for mechanics, and was quite "a whittling genius"—great for making wooden clocks, sundials, and all such knick-knacks. He was eighteen years of age before he commenced the study of mathematics, but he very soon attained to the front rank in this science. At twenty-five, he discovered the law of gravitation, and laid the foundation of celestial dynamics, a science which originated in his giant mind. He afterwards became a Professor in Cambridge, Master of the Mint, and lived to a good old age. Throughout his life he was an humble student of nature, always learning something new. After having attained to the highest elevation in science by his discoveries in mathematics, optics and the laws of the universe, he declared he was only like a boy, who had gathered a few pebbles on the shore of a great sea.

Lord Brougham, in his oration, stated that Newton's discoveries were great in degree rather than in kind, and that no science was the work of one mind. There is a law of gradual progress ruling in all the sciences—physical and moral—and development is the work of many minds. This idea deserves attention, because it is borne out by facts. A science is like a beautiful temple; many minds and many hands are necessarily required to complete the work, and its lofty walls may rest upon very rough foundation stones. There is not a single perfect science; and with all the progress which has been made in discovery and knowledge since Newton was laid in the grave, the greatest living sages must still say with the deceased philosopher, that only a few pebbles have yet been gathered on the shore of the great sea of the universe.

## BISHOP'S STONE GATHERER.



There is many a piece of land which seems only fit to grow weeds and produce stones, that would be useful and arable were the stones cleared, and these latter are one of the greatest nuisances on farms and new land. It costs too much to gather them one by one, and such a machine as our engraving represents will prove a great blessing to all agriculturists who are troubled with a stony farm, and also to roadmakers and others. The machine is fully shown in the accompanying perspective view, and is so simple, but at the same time perfect, that its construction can be seen almost at a glance.

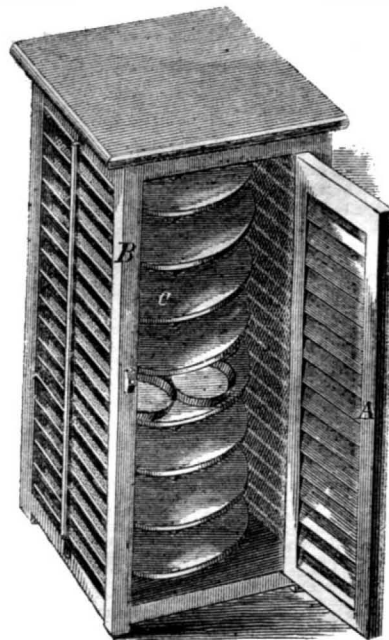
A are two broad wheels connected by and rotating on an axle, B. From B is suspended the box or body, C, so that all the soil which may be brought up with the stones, again can drop upon the land, and not be carried away. A metal plate, E, is secured across the part of the machine which rests upon the ground, and as the whole is drawn along, by oxen or horses, this passes under the stones and lifts them off the ground, and they are then brought up the inclined slats, D, as well as gathered on to E, by the scraper, F, which then forces them to fall into the back part of the device, C. I is a door or movable back suspended from the top, and secured by catches, b, so that it forms the back of C. When the machine is full, by loosening the catches, b, the stones by their own weight will force open the door, I, and fall in a heap upon the ground. Of course, they can be conveyed to any desirable spot before being dumped. The driver is seated on a seat, J, and carries in his hand a rake, K, provided with a long handle, so that if any stone from size or shape should obstruct the action of the machine, he can fix it in the proper position to be gathered.

The operation is as follows:—To the wheels are attached bars, G, by the pivot, a, and these are connected with the scraper, F, which has in it two slots, one each side, that permit it to slide on the sides of C, with its base in contact with D and E, and another slot at right angles to and in these, which allows it to slide over the guides, H, at whose

upper end is a movable guide, h. When the wheels therefore rotate, they pull the scraper, F, up the inclined slats and with it the stones, and when at the top the end passes over the loose guides, h, and on the top of the stationary guides, H, down again, and drop at the bottom end of H, enclosing all the stones collected by E during the onward progress of the machine.

This is the most perfect stone gatherer we have ever seen, and is the invention of G. W. Bishop, Kent avenue, Brooklyn, L. I., from whom any further information can be obtained. It was patented July 6, 1858.

Nash's Refrigerator and Milk Closet



There are a great number of farmers who, having too few cows to make it worth their while to build a milk-house or dairy, have yet more milk than they use, and wish to keep the surplus for either butter or cheese. For either of these purposes it must be kept cool, which is almost impossible in the house, and therefore there is a great want for a cheap, portable, and cool milk-closet.

The subject of our engraving fully supplies this want. It is the invention of E. H. Nash, of Westport, Conn., and was patented July 27th, 1858. It consists of a simple framing, B, provided with a door, A, the panels of the sides and door being formed of slats like an ordinary shutter blind, these are lined inside with muslin or wire gauze, and a shaft is placed upright in its center, carrying the shelves, C, which are, with the shaft, capable of revolving. On these shelves can be placed the milk, meat, or other substance which it is desirable to preserve; and if the closet be placed in the open air, the continual draft through the slats will keep the contents cool, while the gauze prevents the entrance of insects or much dust.

In the hottest days of summer there is always some breeze stirring in the country, which is quite enough to act as a refrigerator, when, as in this contrivance, the articles are kept in the shade. The shelves being capable of revolving, allow of articles being easily placed on and taken off without disturbing the position of others. It is a most convenient and useful appliance, and serves as a meat-safe equally as well as a milk-closet, and, in fact, is generally useful "to have about the house."

Any further information can be obtained from the assignee of three-fourths of the patent, W. Wood, of Westport, Conn.

### The Inventor of Cotton-Spinning Machinery.

At the soirée of the British Association, now holding its meetings in Leeds, England, (and of whose proceedings we shall give more information) there were exhibited the patents granted in 1738 and 1758 to Lewis Paul, the original inventor of the cotton-spinning machine for which Arkwright now has the credit; together with autograph letters from Dr. Johnson to the Duke of Bedford, recommending Paul to his notice as the inventor of the mechanism.

### Death of a Great Engineer.

Foreign papers announce the death of Mr. John Macgregor of the firm of Todd & Macgregor, Glasgow, the greatest builders of iron steamships in the world. This firm was the first to commence building large iron steamers; this was in 1839, since which period, they have constructed 100, varying from 1,600 up to 3,000 tons burden. They are the principle owners of the steam line between this city and Glasgow. Mr. Macgregor had charge of constructing the hulls, his partner that of the engines, but both were thorough bred practical engineers.

AGENCY FOR PATENTS.—Messrs. Wethered & Tiffany inform us that they have established an agency for the introduction and sale of patents in California. Their office is in San Francisco, where the business of introducing inventions on the Pacific coast will be carefully attended to. This agency we hope will succeed, as there is a wide field for invention opening in that region.

GREAT ARTESIAN WELL.—An artesian well lately opened at Bourn, England, sends the water 25 feet above the surface, and discharges 360 gallons per minute, or 21,600 in one hour. It feeds three miles, and is said to be the greatest well of the kind in the world, excepting the celebrated one in Paris.

The iron mountain of Missouri is exciting a great deal of interest in foreign journals.





## New Inventions.

## Railroad Materials.

Z. Colburn, of this city, the eminent locomotive engineer, in a letter to the *London Engineer*, gives some interesting particulars concerning our railroad materials, which may not be known to many of our readers on this side of the Atlantic. He says that the Michigan Central Railroad is now having wrought iron driving wheels placed under their engines, and although they are more expensive, costing about \$250 each, yet they are lighter, weighing about 1,200 pounds, while cast iron wheels weigh 1,600 pounds and cost but \$50. Some cast iron driving wheels  $5\frac{1}{2}$  feet in diameter weigh 1,900 pounds exclusive of the tire, and those  $6\frac{1}{2}$  feet in diameter weigh 2,400 pounds each. Cast iron chilled wheels are almost invariably used under American engine bogies, and under the tenders and cars. The cast iron 30-inch wheels weigh 450 pounds, and cost from \$12 to \$15 each. They are chilled for half an inch in the depth of the tread, and are cooled without much strain from restricted contraction. They will run from 50,000 to 100,000 miles before wearing through the chill. The general pressure of steam in American locomotives is about 110 pounds, even 130, 150, and 200 pounds being sometimes carried in boilers 48 inches in diameter, and of but  $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch iron. The ordinary locomotive lamp will enable the engine driver to see any large object, such as cattle, at least 1000 feet ahead, on a dark night, and is far superior to the English lamp. On the whole Mr. Colburn makes out an excellent case for American rolling stock, and shows its equality, if not superiority, to that of other countries.

## Improved Self-Feeding Drill.

The convenience of self-feeding drills is thoroughly appreciated by all workers in wood or metal, and needs no recommendation of our's to call attention to any new invention or improvement that may be added to them to simplify their construction or extend their use.

The subject of our engraving is a new self-feeding drill, which is capable of being fed as it rotates, or fed more quickly without rotation. It is the invention of William Wakeley, of Homer, N. Y., and was patented November 17th, 1857.

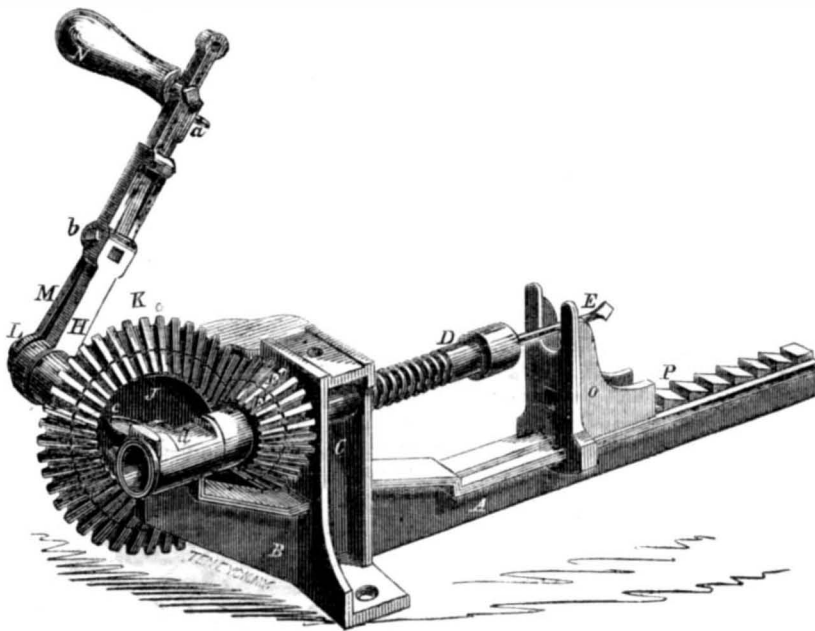
A piece of metal, A, of the shape shown, has a series of wedges or teeth, P, cast on it, and a flange each side, and on these flanges and over the wedges is placed a bed or rest, O, that by means of the wedges it may be secured in any position to hold the stuff to be drilled, thus forming a perfectly adjustable bed. To A is cast another piece, B and C, which serve as bearings for the operating parts. An arbor, D, having a screw thread cut upon it, and a groove down the screw, works through the bearings, C and d, and carries at its extremity the drill, E. The bevel wheel, E', has a feather cast inside it, which fits into the groove, and so when it is rotated it also causes the drill arbor to revolve, and at the same time allows it to slide to its work. Another smaller bevel wheel, F, is also placed on the drill arbor, the inside of which forms a nut for the screw thread of D, and by its revolution the drill is slowly fed to its work.

These two bevel wheels, F and E, are moved respectively by wheels, J K, both placed on the hollow axle of the crank, H, which is rotated by the handle, N. When it is desired to drill with a slow feed, the crank handle, N, is rotated, and by the bevel wheels, J K, both the nut wheel, F, and drill arbor wheel, E', are rotated, the difference in rate between F and E' causing the feed motion. When, however, a quick feed is required, J is disconnected from K, and with F it remains

stationary, F thus acting as a stationary nut, from which it is fed very rapidly. This is effected by the mechanism about to be described:—J is connected to K by two small pins passing through holes in J into corresponding holes in K, and of course when these

pins are drawn out of K, T is not moved. The pins are attached one to each end of a piece, c, the center of which is secured to a rod, L, that passes through the hollow shaft of H, and a claw at the end of M fits into a collar on L. M is a lever forming part of the

## WAKELEY'S SELF-FEEDING DRILL.

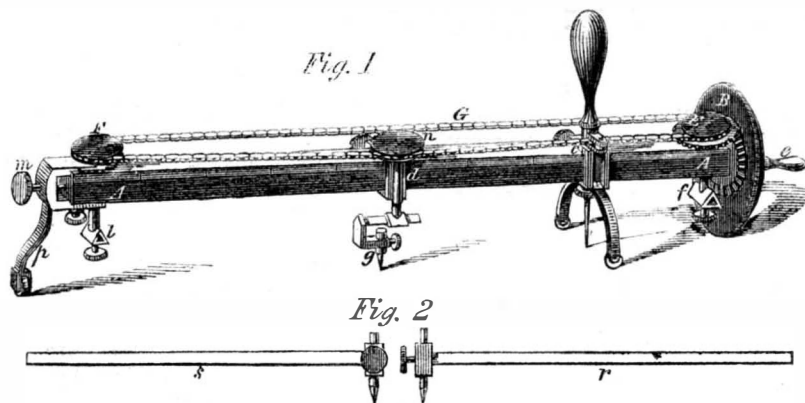


handle or crank, and capable of sufficient oscillation on a center, b, to throw c in or out of gear by the motion of N, and it can be held in any position by a small spring catch, a. By this arrangement the feed motion is perfectly under the control of the operator,

and the drill can be placed either horizontally or vertically, as most convenient.

It forms a cheap and valuable addition to the workshop, and the inventor will be happy to furnish any further information upon being addressed as above.

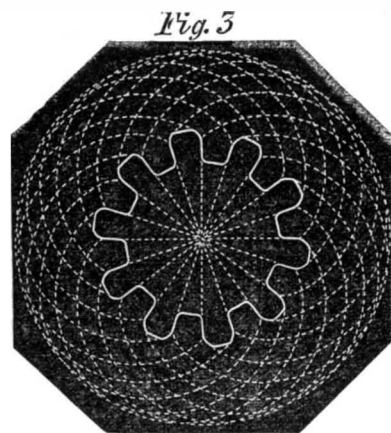
## PATENT CYCLO-ELLIPTO-PANTOGRAPH.



The instrument of which a perspective view is given in Fig. 1 is designed to serve for drawing ellipses, curves, spirals, and many other figures, or can be employed as an ordinary pantograph, to enlarge or reduce drawings, engravings, works of art or other purposes. It consists of a beam of wood, A, about fourteen inches in length, upon which is a brass frame, c, capable of sliding along its whole length, and carrying a point, supported by two friction rollers, as a center. Another sliding frame, d, carries a pulley, n, in it, to whose axis is attached the sliding pencil holder, g. On one end of the beam is an axis, upon which a brass milled wheel, B, is made to revolve by the friction of the paper on which the drawing is to be made. Upon the face of B is a beveled wheel that gears into another beveled wheel on the under side of the pulley, E, to which it gives motion, as well as to the socket, f. An endless chain, G, passes over the pulleys, E F, and n, which is adjusted to the proper strain by the screw, m, at the end of the beam, the socket, l, being placed on the axis of F.

The legs, r, and s, Fig. 2, are only used when the instrument is used as a pantograph. It will be perceived that when the instrument is placed upon the drawing board, the paper takes the place of a wheel, upon which the disk, B, rotates, and which may be of any radius, by sliding the center frame nearer to or further from the disk; thus the ratio of the velocity of the disk to that of the pencil

may be regulated by the graduations on the beam. Now, if the velocity be equal, or c be placed at the first division, the pencil will make one revolution on its axis, n, to one revolution of the disk, B; if c be placed at division, 2, the pencil will make two revolutions to one of the disk. The pencil may be made to move in the same direction as the disk or otherwise by placing the endless chain, G,



against the inner or outer edge of the pulley, n.

For the sake of illustration, suppose the arm carrying the pencil to be the radius of a circle rolling upon the circumference of another circle which is fixed, and let us call the rolling circle the *generating circle*, the pencil point the *generatrix*, and the fixed circle the

*directrix*. We will also call the distance between the center point and the disk, B, the radius of the *fundamental circle*. When the chain, G, passes over the outer edge of the pulley, n, the generating circle is supposed to roll on the convex surface of the directrix, and when it presses against the inner edge of the pulley it rolls on the concave side. When the generating circle has rolled once over, so that every point shall have been in contact with the directrix, the portion generated is called a *branch*. As every revolution of the disk, B, generates a branch of a curve, the number of branches will depend upon the ratio between the fundamental circle and the disk, and is determined by the divisions of the graduation of the beam.

By means of this instrument epicycloid curves can be accurately drawn, so that it becomes suitable for the drafting of cog wheels, as seen in Fig. 3, and it is calculated to be useful to the mechanical engineer, mathematician, architect, designer and artists in general, and also for describing in schools the lines produced by the revolutions of the planets and their satellites.

It is manufactured and sold by James W. Queen, No. 924 Chestnut street, Philadelphia, and each instrument is accompanied by a pamphlet full of illustrations of its powers and explanations of the *modus operandi* to obtain with it any form of curves. This pamphlet will be given separately on application to Mr. Queen. It was patented July 27, 1858.

## Casting Heavy Guns.

It is mentioned in a late London paper that all the guns cast at the Royal Standard Foundry, since the opening of that immense establishment, have been condemned as unfit for service, notwithstanding that experiments have been almost daily carried on for the purpose of ascertaining the best description and the proper fusion of the metals required. The makers of American cannon are more successful than this. At a recent trial at Castle Island, near Boston, of a gun of nine inch calibre, for the purpose of testing its endurance, it burst only at the 1531st fire, 1,509 fires having been made with ordinary service charges of ten pounds of powder and a shell weighing seventy pounds, and 22 fires with bursting charges varying from 15 pounds of powder and one shot of 90 pounds, to twenty pounds of powder and ten shot weighing 900 pounds. This last charge very nearly filled the gun up to the muzzle, and burst it. This gun was one of Captain Dahlgren's for marine service, and was cast by Allier & Co. The test was to ascertain the reliability of this formidable engine of war. Guns of this class weigh ninety-two hundred pounds, and there was consumed in the test no less than fifteen thousand four hundred pounds of powder, while the aggregate weight of shot and shells fired amounted to one hundred and fifteen thousand pounds. Government has also been trying the new rifle cannon of Mr. Sawyer, at Fitchburg, Mass. The cannon is grooved like a rifle, and the bullet is shaped like the Minie rifle ball. It is filled with powder, which explodes after striking and entering an object. It is said that at one mile the body of an ordinary sized tree would not be missed once in fifty shots, and experiment has proved it to be nearly so. This is the closest shooting with heavy cannon known in the service.

## A Sensible Memorial.

The cottage in which George Stephenson was born is being pulled down, and in its place a handsome memorial school will be erected, which will at all times be allegorical of the great man who first saw the light in that humble spot. John Bull is, perhaps, not very "go ahead," but there is much for us to admire and copy in the way that he is now celebrating great events and marking historic spots, namely, by erecting school-houses, public fountains, and statues. How much better than fireworks, parades, and buncombe speeches!

Scientific American.

NEW YORK, OCTOBER 30, 1858.

Reminiscences of Sewing Machine Inventors.

We have often thought that reminiscences touching the mental operations and the rights and wrongs of inventors, if they could be brought under the graphic pen of a Charles Dickens, would form a most instructive and amusing volume. From an experience of more than thirteen years with the order of persons usually denominated "geniuses," many facts of an interesting nature suggest themselves to our minds. In the present instance, we venture to say a few words bearing only upon one class.

Elias Howe, Jr., of Cambridge, Mass., obtained a patent for the first practically useful sewing machine in 1846. For several years it was a source of annoyance and expense to him, with little or no pecuniary profit. Since that time many improvements have been patented, and the manufacturing of sewing machines is now one of the most extensive businesses in the United States, and thousands are sold annually. Elias Howe, Jr., once a poor inventor, with few friends, now receives, from the most prominent makers of sewing machines, a tribute that will make him, before the first term of his patent expires (1860), one of the wealthiest men in this country. We do not speak from any positive knowledge of the facts, but his present annual income cannot be calculated at less than \$100,000; certain it is, that, in the course of a single month, he must have received from one establishment no less than \$6,000, judging from the number of machines sold by that concern. On almost any pleasant day a portly man with flowing hair, white cravat, and broad-brimmed Kossuth hat, may be seen on Broadway, dashing along behind a splendid pair of fancy horses, fit for the stud of an emperor, and with all the ease and independence of a millionaire. That man is Elias Howe, Jr., once the poor and humble inventor. We rejoice in the good fortune of our old friend, and can only say to him that he is entitled to all that he has received.

In the year 1849, there came to our office a spare-looking humble man, hailing from Pittsfield, Mass. After taking a cursory survey of the modest premises which we then tenanted, and feeling a degree of security that he could trust to our integrity and honor, he carefully untied a handkerchief, and brought out two models—one a sewing machine, the other a rotary steam engine. He was a poor inventor, and had not the means to take patents for both of his darling projects; and upon our advice he gave us an order to proceed to secure his right on the sewing machine, which we accordingly did. Subsequently, his Letters Patent issued, and he unsuspectingly intrusted his affairs in the hands of unprincipled men, and he was cheated. Nothing daunted, he set his prolific genius at work, and as the result, A. B. Wilson soon produced an almost perfect sewing machine, which, under the good business management of Nathaniel Wheeler (we wish every inventor could secure such an efficient and honest co-operator) is now a triumph. Should any of our readers chance to visit the neat village of Watertown, Conn., they will find that the occupant of one of its most beautiful mansions is no less a personage than our once poor client with his cotton handkerchief full of inventions!

In the same year (1849), a young machinist, with a small capital but an honorable ambition, opened a small shop at No. 33 Gold street, within a stone's throw of our office. With a considerable stock of ingenuity, and the advantage of ready hands, he applied himself to render the sewing machine available to various arts, and did much towards this result; but, possibly acting under some pre-

judice that patents were humbugs, and inventors ditto, he did not secure his rights, as he should have done; and not until he saw his improvements subsequently taken advantage of by others, did he awake to the value and importance of securing his improvements to himself. He let the "liquid chance go by;" as it is only within twelve or eighteen months that A. Bartholf (who is now an extensive manufacturer of sewing machines at No. 489 Broadway) has placed himself in a position to reap a suitable reward for his genius and industry. If he had been anything else than a most persevering and industrious man, he would have been stranded high and dry by the other energetic pioneers in the race.

Had we time and space to enter upon this subject in more extended detail, we could furnish interesting items in the life of Isaac M. Singer, a veteran inventor and manufacturer of sewing machines; also of Grover & Baker, and others engaged in the same branch of manufacturing. Enough has been said to show what has been accomplished, in less than ten years, in the improvement of sewing machines. The same remarks will apply to other branches in which inventive talent has been employed and richly remunerated. During this time we have not been mere idle lookers-on. We have had a professional hand in this business, beginning as far back as the time when Howe, (through the aid of a Mr. Thomas, who was then an extensive corset-maker in London) undertook to introduce his first humble sewing machine into England. The original drawings in this case were made by our Chief-Examiner; and since that time, hundreds of applications for patents on sewing machines have passed through the Scientific American Patent Agency.

"The Salt, if you Please."

Everybody has a partiality for dinner, and one of the most frequent expressions at a dinner table is the one which forms our caption, and in order that our readers may know something of the substance they are using, we will tell them a few facts about salt. Salt is a chemical compound of twenty-three parts by weight of a beautifully silver white but soft metal, called sodium, discovered by Sir H. Davy in 1807, and thirty-five parts of a pungent, yellowish green gas, called chlorine, discovered by Scheele in 1774—these two combined form this, the most widely diffused and useful of any one compound in the world. It is found in the sea, and in the rocks, from which our principal supply comes. The most wonderful deposits are in Poland and Hungary where it is quarried like a rock, one of the Polish mines having been worked since 1251. These Polish salt mines have heard the groan of many a poor captive, and have seen the last agonies of many a brave man, for until lately, they were worked entirely by the state prisoners of Austria, Russia or Poland, whichever happened to be in power at the time; and once the offender, or fancied hindrance to some other person's advancement, was let down into this subterranean prison, he never saw the light of day again. So salt has its history as well as science. Other large deposits are found in Cheshire, England, where the water is forced down by pipes into the salt, and is again pumped up as brine, which is evaporated and the salt obtained. To such an extent has this been carried that one town in the "salt country," as it is called, has scarcely an upright house in it, all the foundations having sunk with the ground, to fill up the cavity left by the extracted salt.

In Virginia there are beds of salt, and the Salmon Mountains, in Oregon, are capable of affording large quantities of the same material. The brine springs of Salina and Syracuse are well known, and from about forty gallons of their brine, one bushel of salt is obtained. There are also extensive salt springs in Ohio. The brine is pumped up from wells made in the rock, and into which it flows and runs into boilers. These boilers are larger

iron kettles set in brickwork, and when fires are lighted under them, the brine is quickly evaporated. The moment the brine begins to boil, it becomes turbid, from the compounds of lime that it contains, and which are soluble in cold, but not in hot water; these first sediments are taken out with ladles called "bittern ladles," and the salt being next deposited from the brine is carried away to drain and dry. The remaining liquid contains a great quantity of magnesia in various forms, and gives it the name of "bittern" from the taste peculiar to magnesia in every form.

"But how did this salt come into the rock?" is the natural query, and the wonder seems greater when we recollect that salt-beds are found in nearly every one of the strata composing the earth's crust. This fact proves another, that as the majority of these salt-beds have come from lakes left in the hollows of the rocks by the recession of the sea, the sea has through all the geologic ages been as salt as it is to-day. Let us take the Great Salt Lake as an illustration, it being the largest salt lake in the world, but by no means the only one, as such inland masses of saline water are found over the whole earth, but as ours is the greatest in extent, it will form the best example. It is situated at an elevation of 4,200 feet above the sea, on the Rocky Mountains, and has an area of 2,000 square miles; yet, high as it is, "once upon a time," as the story-books of our juvenality used to say, it was part of the sea, which retired, by the upheaval of the rocks, and that great basin took its salt water up with it. Should this in time evaporate, and its salt become covered with mud and sand, and the land again be depressed; then, at some distant future age, the people would be wondering how the salt got there, little thinking that the Mormons had ever built a city on its shores when it was a great salt lake. There are also, however, salt rocks taking their place in regular geologic series with other rocks, interspersed between red sandstone, magnesian and carboniferous strata; these we can only account for, as we do for other stratified rocks, viz., that they were deposited from their solution in water or carried mechanically to the spot where now found by that ever mobile liquid. We fear we should be accused of an attempt to put our readers in pickle, so will stay our pen, hoping they will remember these bits of information when next they say, "The salt, if you please."

American Steel.

Although we possess inexhaustible stores of the best iron ores for making all kinds of steel, yet very little of this useful metal is manufactured in our country in comparison with the amount imported from abroad. We import annually about 13,000 tons of steel, valued at \$2,300,000, and the best qualities come from England. We learn from the recently published work of B. F. French on the American iron manufacture, that about 6,000 tons of steel are produced annually in Pennsylvania, but it is of such an inferior quality as not to interfere with the trade in English steel.

The iron from which the best steel in Sheffield is made, is the product of Swedish magnetic ores, of which England is deficient, while similar ores are very abundant in various parts of the United States. It is not much to our credit, therefore, that while we have the natural resources to make the best brands of steel, we are dependent for our supply of this metal upon a country which has not the good fortune to contain such natural resources. Various unsuccessful attempts had been made to manufacture American cast steel, but we learn from the work referred to, that Neville's process is now practised in our country somewhat successfully, although on a limited scale. Its nature consists in fusing wrought iron with certain substances containing cyanogen. About twenty pounds of malleable iron broken into small pieces, are put

into a crucible, with ten ounces of charcoal, six of common table salt, or  $\frac{1}{2}$  oz. oxyd of manganese, one ounce of sal ammoniac, and half an ounce of the ferro-cyanide of potash. These being mixed together, the crucible containing them is introduced into the furnace, its contents thoroughly melted, the scum skimmed off, and the melting heat maintained for three hours, when the metal is ready to be poured out into ingot molds. This process, it is stated, makes good cast steel, either for hammering or rolling. Good cast steel may also be made from scrap iron, by smelting it in crucibles, with three ounces of the oxyd of manganese, ten of charcoal dust, and one of lime, to thirty pounds of the iron. The operation of smelting requires about three hours, during which the scoria is carefully skimmed from the top of the crucible. This is the basis of what is called "Heath's process," which has been practised for many years in England.

It would be a most important improvement were good steel to be made from our cast iron, because it would save several expensive common processes through which iron passes in order to be converted into steel. To obtain such a result in a profitable manner, so as to carry out the manufacture on an extensive scale in our country, we invite particular attention. We advise no doubtful project; for the manufacture of cast steel from cast iron, we believe, is now successfully practised in England.

In a paper recently read before the Institution of Mechanical Engineers, by T. Spencer, of Newcastle, he described the Uchatius process for this purpose, and claimed very high results from it. The cast iron is first run in a molten state from a cupola furnace, and allowed to drop in thin streams in a tub containing cold water. This operation reduces it to a granulated state, having a very extensive surface, to adapt it for decarbonization. After this it is placed in crucibles of any requisite size, and about twenty per cent of calcined ground hematite, or oxyd of iron, and five per cent of soda or of caustic lime added. The crucibles are then introduced into the furnace, and their contents gradually brought up to the melting point, and the heat increased towards the end of the operation, which lasts about three hours. During this period the scoria is frequently skimmed from the surface, and the molten metal when ready, is poured into ingot molds. Good cast steel is made from cast iron, so it is positively asserted, by this process; and it is also stated that a bar of it one inch square, the same price as a bar of iron of the same dimensions, is three times stronger. As cast iron contains too much carbon and other impurities, these have to be removed in converting it into cast steel. The oxyd of iron mixed with the granulated cast metal, presents sufficient oxygen to the excess of carbon to convert it into carbonic acid, which escapes; the lime or other alkali acts as a purifying flux to remove silica and sulphur, which arise on the surface of the crucibles as slag. If we could substitute a cheap cast steel for wrought iron in making boilers, and a thousand other bulky objects requiring great strength, the advantageous results arising therefrom would surpass all calculation.

This is a subject to which our people should direct their attention. It is a duty which they owe to themselves and their country. Instead of being dependent on other countries for our steel, as we now are, we ought to be supplying England, France, and Germany with it, just as we supply them with cotton and wheat. Great efforts should be made to bring about such a result, because we are now furnished with steel from a source which appears to be as natural for our country as to find water running up a hill.

THE German Scientific Congress is now holding its thirty-seventh session at Karlsruhe. There are 1,100 members present, from all parts of the world.

**Iron Girders.—No. 1.**

Messrs. Editors—Considering the importance and peculiar fitness of iron in architectural and bridge construction, it is to be regretted that writers on this subject have not made the manner and forms of its use more plain; as there is no doubt but its application might be made far more simple, and its use more extensive and economical than in the manner and forms in which it is now generally employed.

The greatest obstacle in the way of a more extensive use of iron for such purposes, arises from the mystified, and in some respects, conflicting conjectures and theories of learned writers on this subject. The writings of these men afford evidences that their authors do not clearly understand the questions they have treated, and they have confused practical men who have consulted them for scientific information. All which they have produced which is really valuable has been the result of experiment rather than calculation. They were astonished at the perfectly natural results which were developed by experiments with pressures on elliptical, cylindrical, and rectangular tubes, thus showing that they had not a correct understanding of the subject, or comprehension of the whole question. For example, the projectors of the Britannia Bridge—after numerous experiments, and after combining what they had thus learned with their formulæ—in devising a model of seventy-five feet span to represent a section of that bridge, and making this model as perfect as they knew how, it proved on trial so defective that by adding gradually about one-fifth to its weight, as its defects became apparent, under tests, they were enabled to raise its capacity of strength from thirty-five and one-half tons to eighty-six and one-tenth tons.

Now, in their very poor success in this instance in devising a right form and proportions based on calculations, there is no evidence of want of knowledge of the capacity of iron to bear direct strains—they seem to have been well informed in this respect. But the fact that they tried elliptical and cylindrical tubes at all for such purposes, and that they finally adopted rectangular tubes of nearly uniform cross section, shows that they did not understand the direction in which the forces act in such structures, and consequently they were not able to determine the direction nor intensity of the mechanical strains at different points. Had they understood the normal direction of the forces and of the resulting strains, they would have adopted very different, and much better forms, and their reports on this not very complicated question might have been more simple, and better adapted to the capacity of plain practical men.

That they did not adopt the best forms, nor the best modes of construction, will appear more plainly by comparing their results with others obtained by testing a different form and mode of construction, differing from the rectangular girder in nearly every feature and principle. The results obtained from testing one of the latter were reported in the April number of the "Journal of the Franklin Institute," in 1854. This was a girder 34½ feet long, made to span 33 feet; its weight was 3,450 pounds, equal to 100 pounds to the lineal foot. It bore a load of 104,000 pounds uniformly distributed (equal to 52,000 pounds on the middle), without sustaining any injury to its strength. Its deflection under this load was 1 5-16 inches, and when the load was removed, the girder resumed its original form; there was no "set" in the deflection. These girders have been made of various lengths and capacity, for various purposes, and all seem to answer equally well. These are termed "compound girders," and are formed and constructed in almost total disregard of the theories and rules laid down by the writers and experimentalists alluded to, and which are generally adopted in our country by those who take Fairbairn as their guide. The form and construction of the latter were

wholly based on calculation, not on experiments. Experiments have since been tried, but these have only proved the correctness of the calculations, without suggesting any change by which their value can be enhanced. A careful comparison of these results with the results of tests in England, and with those made at Washington on rectangular tubes and solid rolled beams and girders, shows the compound girder to be superior in value by at least one-third in weight of material, besides being so much more simple and economical in construction, that the compound can be afforded at two-sevenths less per pound than the rectangular girders. This is certainly a very great difference; but it is confidently believed that any one who will take the trouble of a careful comparison of the facts and data which are open to all, must come to very nearly the same conclusions.

The views published by the makers of most of the beams and girders used by our government, sustain these conclusions fully. One of their girders of the same length and capacity of the compound girder of 34½ feet referred to, will weigh about 137 pounds to the lineal foot, whereas the weight of the compound girder was only 100 pounds to the foot, a difference of more than one-third in weight, besides, as before stated, its cost per pound is 2-7 less, making the actual difference equal to about one-half of the entire cost, and at the same time it possesses several important practical advantages over the others.

BENJAMIN SEVERSON.

Baltimore, Md., October, 1858.

**Materials for Paper.**

When reading and writing became common, and paper was demanded in such large quantities, the consequent increased intelligence of the people taught them more and more the value of economy, and it was feared that in time rags would become so scarce that the price of paper would rise enormously. This actually happened three years ago, and the price of paper rose from two to three cents a pound all over the world. The London Times offered a very large premium for any substitute which will make the same quality of paper at a less price; this set fresh men at work, and stimulated those who were already in the field of discovery, and this newspaper is now printed on paper made from cotton and beet residue, but we are not aware that they have been so fully satisfied as to pay the premium. Dr. Collyer, of London, discovered that the refuse of the beet sugar manufactories mixed with cotton could be made into excellent paper; and we believe that the general impression is that paper has been made from the refuse alone. There is an abundance of this material in Europe.

In France, Belgium, and Germany there are 3,000 beet sugar manufactories, which give an annual refuse of 300,000 tons, and there is about 100,000 more to be obtained from the refuse of distilleries, so that the supply may be regarded for the present as almost illimitable. Very little change is required in the machinery for manufacturing paper from it, and it obviates the use of size. It is said to contain about 56 per cent of fiber, 30 parts of albumen and cellulose, and 10 parts of fixed salts. We are inclined to think, however, that in estimating the saving which the introduction of beet residue will cause, some important considerations have been omitted by the discoverer and his friends. In our opinion, from an examination of the residue, and the paper manufactured from it and cotton mixed, the fiber of the beet plays but a very small part, and it is the mucilage which does the business. We have not seen any paper made of beet residue alone; the samples which have come under our notice all containing more or less cotton, and in proportion to the amount of cotton is the superior quality of the paper. The beet residue, therefore, seems to us to play the part of a mucilaginous medium, instead of an aqueous one, the tendency of which is to bind the cotton

fibers better together, to produce a sizing and face, and save material, by preventing the escape of the small and finer cotton fibers from the pulp, and by filling up the interstices between the fibers; but the amount of fiber which it contributes, we are convinced, is small. It is, for all this, a great discovery, and produces an excellent paper, which can be printed dry; and by varying the proportions of beet and cotton, any quality of paper can be obtained. The printing paper for newspapers is made from equal quantities of each, is worth about thirteen cents per pound in this market. Mr. Winchester, of 211 Center street, this city, is introducing it into this country.

Another material that we wish to notice is reeds. We have seen some most excellent wrapping paper made from Carolinian reeds by a manufacturer in the neighborhood of this city. It was strong, and when unbleached had a pleasant brown color. The experiments are not yet concluded, and we have many doubts whether any fine paper can be made from them; but if a good wrapping paper and the coarser varieties can be made, it will leave a quantity of rags to be better employed; and therefore we wish success to the experimenter. We are not by any means sanguine, however, respecting the ultimatum of any of the new materials which are proposed for paper-making; but as cotton and hemp can be cheaply cultivated, the proper method of cheapening paper will be to pay attention to the cultivation of cotton, and spread its geographical distribution, so that the raw material will cost so little that it can be used directly to make pulp without having to be passed through other manufacturing processes, as well as in a manufactured state. This seems to us to be the idea which should be propagated, as it would not only reduce the price of the best material known, but would also save the labor and expense of reducing the rags, washing and bleaching, and simplify the process of paper-making by about one-third.

Since writing the above we have received a very interesting letter from a correspondent on this subject, which we shall publish in our next number.

**Some of the Wonders of Chess-Playing.**

The Paris correspondent of the London Times gives an interesting account of the astounding performances of young Paul Morphy, which have brought the excitement of the chess-playing world to a white heat. Not long since he played against and beat, blind-folded, eight of the best players of Paris at one time! The Café de la Regence, at which this extraordinary feat occurred, has two large rooms on the ground floor. In the first room, which is full of marbled tables, were seated the eight adversaries of Mr. Morphy. In the second room, in which are two billiard tables, was seated the single player. A large portion of this room, including the billiard tables, was shut off from the crowd by a cord, and behind the tables, in a large arm-chair, sat Mr. Morphy, with his back directly to the crowd. Two gentlemen, reporting for the press, kept the game, and two other gentlemen, Messrs. Tournoud and Arnoud de Riviere, cried out the moves, or rather carried them from one room to the other. The adversaries of Mr. Morphy were Messrs. Baucher, Bierwith, Barnemann, Lequesne, (the distinguished sculptor,) Potier, Preti, and Seguin. They were all either old or middle-aged men, and superior players, while Mr. Morphy is but twenty-one years of age. The boards of the eight players were numbered 1, 2, 3, &c., in the order in which I have named the gentlemen. At 12½ o'clock the games commenced, Mr. Morphy playing first, calling out the same moves for all the eight boards. K P 2. (The games were conducted in French, Mr. Morphy speaking French perfectly.) At 7 o'clock, No. 7 was beaten with an unlooked for check-mate. Soon after 8 o'clock, No. 6 abandoned the game as hopeless, and half an hour later M. Lequesne, No. 5 played for and gained a draw game. Nos. 1, 2 and 3 were soon after

beaten. At 10 o'clock, No. 4 made the blind player accept a draw game, but it was 10½ o'clock before M. Seguin (No. 8) a very old gentleman, who contended with great desperation, was beaten. Thus he beat six, while two who acted on the defensive and only sought a draw game, effected their purpose, but a draw game, under such circumstances, ought to be considered equivalent to a beat.

During the entire game, which lasted just ten hours, Mr. Morphy sat with his knees and eyes against the bare wall, never once rising or looking towards the audience, nor even taking a glass of drink or other refreshment. His only movements were those of crossing his legs from side to side, and occasionally thumping a tune with his fingers on the arms of the *fauteuil*. He cried out his moves without turning his head. Against 1, 2, 3, and 6 and 7, who were not up to the standard of the other three players, he frequently made his moves instantaneously after receiving theirs. He was calm throughout, and never made a mistake, nor did he call a move twice. It must be recollected, moreover, that Morphy played "against the field"—in other words, that around each of the eight boards there was a large collection of excellent chess-players, who gave their advice freely, and who had eight times longer to study their play in than the single player. He played certainly against fifty men, and they never ceased for a moment making supposed moves and studying their game most thoroughly during the long intervals that necessarily fell to each board. And yet Morphy, who was out of sight of these eight boards, saw the game plainer on each than those who surrounded them! I could scarcely have believed the thing possible if I had not seen it. At the end of the game there was a shout from the three hundred throats present, which made one believe he was back again in old Tammany Hall! The fact is, there was a considerable number of Englishmen and Americans present (among the latter was Prof. Morse, who took deep interest in this extraordinary game), but much the larger number were French. Morphy did not seem at all fatigued, and appeared so modest that the frenzy and admiration of the French knew no bounds. He was shaken by the hand and complimented till he hung down his head in confusion. One grey-haired old man, an octogenarian chess-player, stroked his hair with his hands, as he would a child of his own, and showered him with terms of endearment. Morphy has no beard yet, and looks more like a schoolboy than a world's champion. He escaped from the excited crowd as soon as possible, and left, with some friends, to get something to eat. It is not necessary to point out to chess-players the immensity of the intellectual feat; every one will admit that it borders upon the miraculous, and as was remarked by one of his antagonists, M. Lequesne, such a mind never did exist, and, perhaps, never will again.

**An Elevated Railroad.**

In Chili, a branch of the Copiapo Railroad, between Pabellon and Chanarcille, passes over the Atacama Mountains at an elevation higher than any other railroad in the world. On the 3d of August, part of this railroad was opened, and a locomotive ascended to the terminus, at an elevation of 4,440 feet above the level of the sea. This altitude is about 1,000 feet greater than the highest point of the Vienna and Trieste Railroad in the Austrian Alps. The highest elevation on the railroad which passes through the Blue Ridge in Virginia is 2,700 feet, one thousand seven hundred and forty feet less than the highest point on the Copiapo Railroad.

A cotemporary states that glycerine is employed to moisten yellow sugar, in order to increase its weight and deceive purchasers. This method of cheating customers would have the very opposite tendency in this city, where glycerine is much dearer, by the weight, than sugar.



## Science and Art.

## Shooting Stars.—Meteors.

Various brilliant bodies have been frequently observed shooting through the heavens with a terrible velocity, creating alarm in the minds of the ignorant, and exciting the wonder of the learned as to their mysterious origin. The midnight traveler, far from the abodes of men, is sometimes startled with one of these bright lights fleeting for an instant athwart their horizon, then as suddenly disappearing, leaving the darkness yet more profound. These meteors, as they are called, are far from being uncommon, or confined to any locality—they are seen in every part of our globe. Under the name of "shooting stars" they are witnessed in clear evenings during every month of the year, but in this latitude they are more numerous during the month of August. They have the appearance of celestial rockets rushing along (as has been measured) at the awful velocity of 59,400 miles per hour. They are strange messengers of the skies, and no satisfactory theory has yet been propounded respecting their nature and source.

There are other meteors of a very different character from the shooting stars, which have the appearance of being incandescent solid bodies of various colors rushing with a less, but still a great velocity, through our atmosphere. Some of these are of considerable magnitude, and in their passage leave a long trail of light behind; a few have been observed to burst into pieces, with a loud report, and then disappear. Men of scientific attainments do not agree regarding their origin, but quite a number entertain the opinion that they have been projected from the volcanoes of the moon. In various parts of the globe what are called "meteoric stones" have been found. These are so different in their composition from any other stones found on the surface of the earth, that it is not difficult to conclude they may have been shot from some celestial cannon, like the craters of the moon. This was the opinion of La Place, and is now entertained by our countryman, Prof. J. Lawrence Smith, of Louisville, Ky. He has analyzed several of these meteoric stones, obtained from different localities, and they appear to be of the same composition, thus pointing to a common origin. In nature, form, and appearance they are foreigners to the stones and rocks among which they have been found; they are mostly composed of nickeliferous iron, with a very thin oxyd on the surface. Their component parts are, iron, 82.39; nickel, 15.02; cobalt, .43; copper, .09; phosphorus, .16; silica, .46; sulphur, .08; magnesia, .24; chlorine, .02. Some of the nickel and iron were combined with the phosphorus, forming schreibersite. One of these meteor stones, found at Knoxville, Tenn., was so hard that it was difficult to cut with a fine saw, and it was very white in appearance, owing to the presence of so much nickel. It is supposed that these were projected during some great eruption in the moon, and being driven far beyond the sphere of our satellites' attraction, may have been revolving in paths of their own for thousands of years, until drawn within the influence of the earth, there at last to find a resting place. This is mere theory, to be sure; but to Dr. Smith, who believes in it, he can enjoy a quiet chuckle at having pounded a part of old Luna in his mortar, and dissolved a fragment of her body in his alembic. This theory is the most plausible of any yet presented, but the subject deserves further investigation.

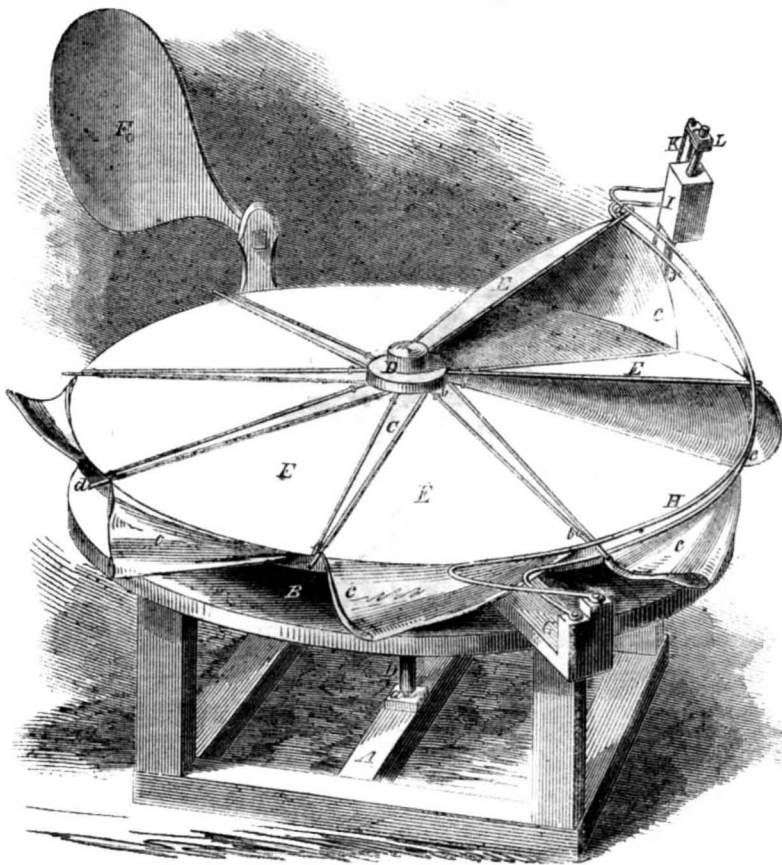
In olden times, the ignorant peasantry regarded meteors as a sign of death to conspicuous persons, such as chiefs and kings; but now they are beheld without such feelings, but not without wonder. Their mysterious origin imparts to their appearance a deep and impressive interest.

## Philadelphia Steam Fire Engine.

A very neat and compact steam fire engine belonging to Hope Hose Company of Philadelphia, was exhibited at the Merchants' Exchange, this city, on the afternoon of the 19th inst. It has a tubular upright boiler, steam cylinders of 8-inch bore and 12-inch stroke, and pumps of the same length of stroke but only 5-inch bore. From the time of kindling the fire until an inch and a half stream was thrown 120 feet high, only 12 minutes elapsed. As the real efficiency of such fire extin-

guishers depends principally upon the lightness of the boiler and its capacity to raise steam, this engine appeared to meet these conditions fully. It is owned by the members of the Hope Company, a fine body of spirited young men who deserve great credit for their enterprise. They have taught our New York firemen a very useful lesson, and we understand that a large volunteer company is about to be formed for the purchase of such an engine, our citizens being determined not to be outdone.

## RUGGLES' WINDMILL.



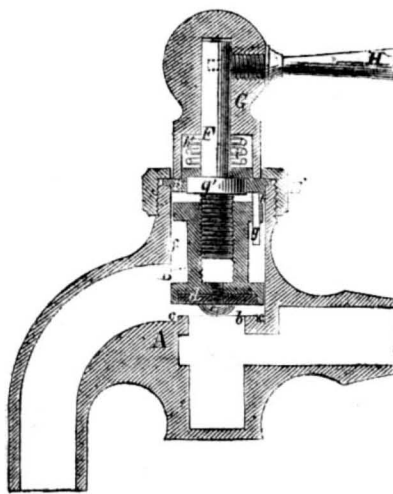
Even in the primitive ages of the world the force of the wind was applied as a motive power, and for thousands of years the inventive genius of man has been employed to discover how best to employ this costless power. One of the latest—the invention of S. W. Ruggles, of Fitchburg, Mass.—is the subject of the accompanying illustration, and its great merits are that it "holds" the wind so long as it can give out any power, offers little resistance, and can be placed on the roof of any building.

A is a frame on which is a table, B, that may represent a roof, and above this is a low circular conical piece, C, which has a central shaft, D, passed through its center that to support it, is stepped into a bearing, a, in the framing of the roof or other convenient spot. Attached to this cone, C, by hinges or links, b, are a number of triangular frames, E, of canvas and wire, having their ends formed also of canvas, c, properly cut, so that when E is lifted up it forms a perfect bag to hold the wind. The ends of the wires or rods, d, project beyond the periphery of the cone, and pass between the inclined guides, H, the lower ends of which are attached to a piece, G, on the other end of which is placed the steering fan, F, that keeps the guides, H, always in such position that the buckets, E, will always be opened in the proper direction to receive the full force of the wind. The upper ends of the guides are secured in a block, I, that slides up and down a rod, L, and is operated from the inside of the mill by the cord, K, in order that the incline may be made more or less, to get exactly that amount of power by opening the buckets more or less, according to the velocity of the wind, which is best to do the required work. As the wind fills the buckets, it rotates the wheel, and keeps it continually bringing the buckets to the guides by which they are opened, and when out of the plane in which the force of the wind is effec-

tive, they drop down and offer little or no resistance. When it is not required that the mill should be worked, the block, I, can be lowered to the level of G, and the projections, d, pass through them without elevating and opening the buckets.

This excellent wind-wheel was patented by the inventor, Dec. 16, 1856, and from him any further particulars can be obtained.

## Macdonald's Valve Cock.



The object of this invention is to dispense with the use of packing around the stem of the valve, and still have the cock perfectly steam and water-tight, equally so as if packing were used and applied in the best possible manner around the stem. Our engraving is a section of one of these cocks, which we will now describe.

A represents the body of the cock, which is of the usual form, b is the valve seat, surmounted by a rebate, c, so as to give it an elevated position. B is the valve, the lower end of which is faced with a rubber, leather,

or metallic disk, d, secured by a screw, e, and capable of bearing on the seat, b, when the valve is closed. The valve, B, works vertically in its socket, f, and is retained in a perfectly vertical position by a pendant guide, g, which fits in a recess or notch, h, in the side of the valve, this guide being attached to a cap, D, which is fitted by grinding snugly into the top of the socket, f, and is secured therein by a screw cap, E, which is screwed over the top of the socket, f. F is the valve stem, the lower part of which has a screw thread formed on it, which works in a female screw in the valve, B. The stem, F, is provided with a collar, g', which is snugly ground into the under side of the cap, D. The stem, F, extends up through the cap, D, and passes into a head, G, in the lower part of which a chamber, h', is formed, to receive a spring, i, which is placed on or around the stem, the lower end of the spring bearing on the cap, D, and the upper end bearing against the head, G. H is the handle, which is screwed laterally into the head, G, the end of the handle fitting into the upper part of the stem.

From the above description it will be seen that the valve stem, F, is kept in proper position in the head, G, by the end of the handle, H, and that all the working parts are kept together and secured in proper place by the screw cap, E; the spring, i, keeps the collar, g', snugly in the cap, D.

By this invention the valve stem is kept perfectly steam and water-tight. The trouble, therefore, attending the packing of the stem is avoided, it being always in proper working order; and the difficulty occasioned by the bursting of the packing cap in frosty weather, when the invention is used as a water cock, is also avoided.

It is the invention of J. C. Macdonald, and was patented by him September 14th, 1858. Messrs. Gibson & Macdonald, of No. 200 Vine street, Cincinnati, Ohio, will be happy to furnish any further information.



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