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STEAM PLOWING BY DIRECT TRACTION.

With some modifications in its construction, and which do not impair its usefulness as a hauling engine, the well known road and farm locomotive of Messrs. Aveling & Porter, of Rochester, England, has been successfully applied to direct traction steam plowing.

Although there can probably be no question that the double engine rope system of steam cultivation, as practiced in Great Britain, is more thorough and comprehensive in its application than any form of direct traction steam plowing, yet the large cost of the machinery necessary for working the first named principle, seems to preclude the probability of its general adoption in this country.

The requirements for an expeditious and economical means for tilling the land by steam power are, however, far greater in the United States than in Europe, and in view of the numerous inquiries for steam plows suitable to the wants of our agriculturists, Messrs. Aveling & Porter have, for a long time, given much attention to the subject and, after repeated and careful trials, have adopted, with some alterations, the Fowler balance plow as being the best form of implement to use in conjunction with an engine which has to travel over the land to be plowed.

The difficulties that have presented themselves in the many attempts at direct traction steam plowing have, it is claimed, been overcome by using the balance plow; which, it is stated, avoids the necessity and consequent loss of time in turning the plow at headlands, decreases the liability of breakage, and insures perfect control of the plows both with regard to steerage and depth of furrow. From repeated trials on heavy land, it has been found that an engine, weighing a little more than five tons and working a four furrow balance plow, can accomplish eight acres a day, cutting a furrow from eight to ten inches deep and ten to twelve inches wide. Thrashing, hauling, and a variety of other duties can also be performed by the same machine.

The engine above referred to and illustrated does not materially differ in construction from the Aveling & Porter road and farm locomotive, which gained the first prize given by the Royal Agricultural Society of England, in 1871.

The engines have single cylinders, placed on the forward part of the boiler and surrounded by a steam jacket in direct communication with it. Engines having single cylinders and reversing gear, when connected to the driving axle by means of Aveling's usual gear, have proved themselves to

be thoroughly efficient, more powerful, less complicated, and in every respect better adapted for general traction purposes than engines with double cylinders. They have tender and tank for an ample supply of fuel and water, and a steerage eminently simple and perfect in action. The compensating motion to the driving wheels of Aveling & Porter's engines is of malleable iron, the use of which, although more costly than ordinary cast iron, greatly increases the strength of the working gear. One man only is required for the entire management of the engine. The boiler is horizontal and multitubular, and is a more economical consumer than upright boilers. It is made of "best best" Staffordshire plates, and the fire box is invariably of Lowmoor iron. It is lagged and felted, and proved to a pressure of 200 lbs. to the square inch. The daily expense of working a six horse power Aveling & Porter engine is approximately \$6. The increased cost of using such an engine, in conjunction with the steam plow, would be simply the wages of one additional man.

To this time Messrs. Aveling & Porter have built more than 900 road locomotives, many being successfully in use in the United States and can be seen at work within a few miles of New York.

Mr. G. W. Dick, of Ross, Ohio, who has a six horse power Aveling & Porter engine, writes:

"We have used our engine for almost all possible purposes—on the gravel road, for drawing logs out of the wood, for thrashing grain, and are now hauling pork in the streets of Cincinnati, over a boulder pavement.

"On the macadamized road we draw from Hamilton to Venice, including wagons, 25,000 lbs. of coal in one load—a distance of eleven miles. For logs in the wood, it is unequalled; we detach the engine from the wagon, and roll the tree on to the wagon, an inch at a time if we choose, and hold it there—a feat that horse power will not perform. All who see it at this work are amazed at the power we possess, and say that it seems to be a thing of life.

"We have thrashed nearly 40,000 bushels of grain with it since harvest, and have found no place that we were unable to reach, no matter what the grade or how deep the mud. Its facility for taking itself and thrasher away makes it a great favorite with the farmers, who have been bored with hitching their horses to a heavy steam engine, and spoiling them with the over load. Our greatest gain is in time, moving from place to place. In five minutes after the last sheaf

is through, we are on the road; and we once moved 600 feet and were thrashing again in ten minutes from the time the last sheaf was through at the last place (by a watch held on us by a friend)."

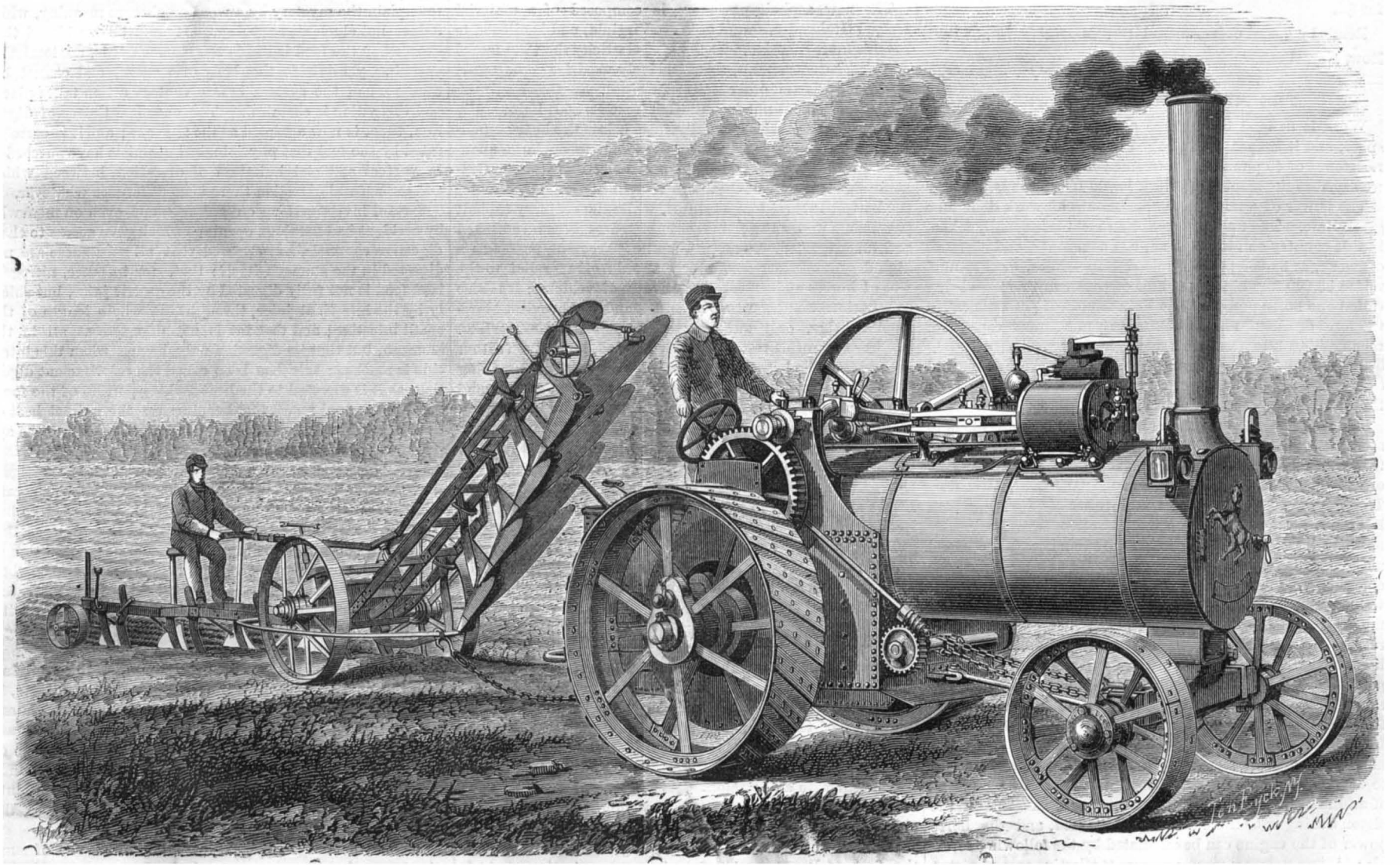
To the tests of these machines, made during the autumn of last year by Professor Thurston, of the Stevens Institute of Technology, we have already alluded in detail. During their progress, with one six horse power engine, the enormous load of 63,400 lbs., made up by a train of ten loaded wagons, was hauled up a long grade of one in nineteen, at the rate of two and a half miles an hour, the wheels showing no signs of slipping.

Messrs. Aveling's engines are often constructed with a steam crane attached to the fore part of the boiler, and at this time two of them are employed at the Vienna Exposition in unloading and removing packages from the trains as they arrive. By simply removing the road wheels and replacing them with ordinary flange wheels, the engine may be converted into a tramway engine.

We are informed that the machine may soon be seen in actual operation, cultivating the land on the Ogden farm, the property of Colonel G. E. Waring, Jr. The agent of Messrs. Aveling & Porter in America is Mr. W. Churchill Oastler, 43 Exchange place, New York city

Iron-Clad Vessels.

The invention of iron plates to protect vessels is far from being of as recent date as is generally supposed. During the 12th century, the Normans covered their ships, from the water line up, with an iron casing, terminating in a ram on the bow. Still earlier they had adopted a system of protecting the upper works with metal shields. In 1534, Peter of Arragon ordered his ships to be iron-plated in order to protect them from the burning missiles then in common use. In 1530, the squadron of André Doria contained a vessel built by the Knights of St. John, which was armored with several thicknesses of iron. At the battle of Lepanto, several ships protected their batteries with bars of iron. For two centuries, no progress seems to have been made. In 1782, at the siege of Gibraltar, an engineer officer constructed six ships, which were the types of the modern iron-clads. They were covered with an armor of hard wood, leather, and bar iron. It is said that they resisted the fire of the forts for a long period, but were finally sunk by red hot shot.



AVELING & PORTER'S ROAD LOCOMOTIVE ADAPTED TO DIRECT TRACTION STEAM PLOWING.

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PUBLISHERS' NOTICE.

All new subscriptions, or renewals of old ones, will be commenced with the new volume, July 5, unless a request to commence at some other date accompanies the order.

The volume from January to July, consisting of twenty-six numbers, may be had in sheets, by mail, at the regular subscription price, namely, \$1.50, or in substantial binding, at the office of publication, for \$3, or by mail, including postage within the States, for \$3.75. The first volume of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN for 1873, in sheets, and a copy of the SCIENCE RECORD, for either 1872 or 1873, will be mailed on receipt of \$3, or a volume of the SCIENCE RECORD for each year and the last or coming six months of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN (optional to the subscriber) will be sent for \$4.50.

Bound volumes of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN from January to July, 1873, and the SCIENCE RECORD, either for 1872 or 1873, will be forwarded by mail or express, free, for \$5. Copies of the SCIENCE RECORD for 1872 and 1873, and the first volume of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN for 1873, bound, will be sent for \$6.50, or delivered at the publication office for \$6.

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THE MEASUREMENT OF POWER.

Work is defined to be force or pressure acting through space, and it is usually expressed in foot pounds. Thus if a resistance of 40 pounds is overcome for a distance of 10 feet, we say that the amount of work is 400 foot pounds.

The power of a machine is the amount of work done in a given time. The unit of time for a machine is usually taken, in this country and in England, as one minute, and the unit of work, as 33,000 pounds raised 1 foot high, or 1 pound raised 33,000 feet high—the unit of power in this case being called one horse power. The French unit of power is called the *force de cheval*, and is equivalent to a power capable of raising 4,500 kilogrammes 1 meter high in a minute, or 32,549 pounds 1 foot high in a minute. Hence the French unit of measure for the power of a machine is about $\frac{2}{3}$ less than the English.

The simplest way to test the power of a steam engine is to see how high it will raise a given weight in a minute, and this is readily accomplished by means of the friction brake, often called the Prony brake, from the name of the inventor. The fly wheel of the engine is covered by a strap, which has a lever attached to it, on which weights are hung. By tightening this strap, the friction between it and the wheel may be made to take all the useful power of the engine, the amount being measured by the number of pounds in the weight and the number of revolutions of the engine per minute. Suppose, for instance, that the engine makes 100 revolutions a minute, and maintains the lever of the brake horizontal when it has a weight of 50 pounds attached at a point that would move a distance of 30 feet in each revolution of the engine, if it were free to revolve. Then the useful work of the engine per minute will be $50 \times 30 \times 100 = 150,000$ foot pounds, which is equal to $150,000 \div 33,000 = 4.5$ horse power. The steam engine indicator can also be used to determine the power exerted by the engine. By means of an indicator diagram, the mean pressure exerted on the piston during one stroke can be ascertained, and the horse power of the engine can be calculated by the following formula: Horse power = mean pressure \times effective area of piston

in inches \times twice length of stroke in feet \times number of revolutions per minute $\div 33,000$.

The indicated horse power will always be greater than the amount determined by the brake, because by the use of the indicator we obtain the total power exerted by the engine, including that necessary to overcome the friction of the moving parts and other prejudicial resistances. The difference between the indicated and effective horse power varies in different machines from 10 to 50 per cent of the whole power exerted by the engine. By throwing off all the work from the engine and taking a friction diagram, the amount of power required to overcome prejudicial resistances can be approximately determined. It must be evident, however, that the test with the brake is the most accurate, as the friction of the moving parts, which increases with the pressure, is greater when the engine is doing useful work.

In practice, the friction brake must be constructed with efficient means for cooling, as a great amount of heat is developed by the friction between the fly wheel and the strap. The most perfect form of brake is that used by the Royal Agricultural Society of England in their tests of portable engines. This is arranged with compensating levers, which ease or tighten on the friction strap automatically, keeping the lever which carries the weight always horizontal. With this form of brake, all the power exerted by the engine is overcome by friction. Cases frequently occur in which it is desirable to measure the amount of power transmitted by a shaft or pulley, and here the friction brake cannot be employed. Recourse must then be had to transmitting dynamometers, which measure the power exerted by registering on a scale the amount of force necessary to keep the pulley from turning on the shaft, or to keep the shaft from turning in its coupling. In the use of a transmitting dynamometer, the pulley is loosened on the shaft, and is clamped to a portion of the dynamometer that is securely fixed, the connection being made by weights, springs, or levers. In transmitting the power, the pulley will turn on the shaft until the tension of the spring or resistance of the weight is equal to the force necessary to drive the machinery; and the amount of this force being registered on a scale, the calculation for the power is made in the same manner as with the friction brake. None of the transmitting dynamometers, in use at present, are free from objections; and they require frequent testing, and very careful application to make the results reliable. For these reasons, the indicator and friction brake are generally employed, when their use is practicable. In a future article, we may have some remarks to make about the importance, to owners and users of steam power, of frequent and accurate tests.

THE COMING PAVEMENT.

Recently there has been laid down on Fifth avenue, at its intersection with Broadway in this city (24th street), a trial specimen of the new Grahamite asphalt pavement. The example in question covers the street for half a block, and is placed just where it will receive the severest tests, from the wheels of omnibuses, ice carts, and throngs of vehicles of all sorts. If the new pavement can stand the racket here, no other test will be required. So enormous is the travel in this part of the city that the cross-walks, made of thick granite slabs, are soon grooved with ruts, cut by the wheels of heavy vehicles.

The new asphalt pavement is composed of a material termed Grahamite, found in West Virginia, and is alleged to possess more cohesion, tenacity, and elasticity than the famed *Val de Travers* asphalt, so extensively used for paving purposes in Paris and other European cities.

Grahamite does not fuse until it reaches 800° Fah., while the ordinary asphalts generally fuse below the heat of boiling water. The higher fusing point is due to the large quantity of asphaltene which the Grahamite contains. The Grahamite pavement will therefore remain hard and firm under the hottest natural temperatures, while the ordinary asphalt pavements under the same circumstances became softened and disintegrated. The Grahamite pavement possesses a high degree of elasticity, which affords great relief to the feet of horses and prevents the wear of vehicles; it is also so tenacious and hard that it will stand the heaviest blows from a sledge, only suffering compression at the surface. We have seen this test repeatedly applied, and have further noticed that the heaviest vehicles roll over it without making the slightest impression. It presents an even surface and forms, in every outward respect, a most admirable pavement. If the example now under trial shall prove, on the lapse of time, to be as really good as it now is, we have no doubt that our citizens will be glad to give it a general introduction. Wood pavements are a failure, and granite blocks are dreadful to travel upon. It may be that Grahamite is the coming pavement.

The pavement question deeply concerns every city and town in the land; and if anybody wants a subject to study upon, with a view to devising improvements, here is a grand one.

LETTERS FROM COMMISSIONER THURSTON.

Among the select number of scientific experts appointed by the President to examine and report upon the different departments of the Great Exposition was Professor R. H. Thurston, of the Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken, N. J. On the eve of his departure, we requested him, if time permitted, to favor the readers of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN with an occasional letter, giving an outline view of the most interesting matters that might come under his observation, and he kindly consented to do so.

We have the pleasure of presenting in another column the first of Professor Thurston's communications, which

contains a variety of interesting matter, including an account of preceding expositions, indicating also some of the points to which his attention will be specially directed during the present World's Fair at Vienna.

In all that relates to practical science, especially the mechanical branches, Professor Thurston is eminently qualified as a judge and observer. He will enjoy the best opportunities for obtaining information, and his letters will have a peculiar value.

THE DIGESTIVE APPARATUS.

In a former article, we described the digestive channel from the mouth to the stomach. We will now trace the metamorphosis of the food into living tissue, which takes place after the food has reached its proper receptacle, the stomach.

The main agent in this process is the gastric juice, of which a healthy human stomach secretes not less than about 70 ounces ($4\frac{3}{8}$ pints) every day. As the muscles are those portions of the body most subject to waste, every motion of a limb requiring a consumption of fibrin, a large portion of gastric juice is consumed in making fibrin for muscular repair; it has been ascertained that, in average muscular action, the consumption of fibrin is about 60 grains per day, requiring nearly 60 ounces of gastric juice for the formation of new substance to replace it. The food, after reaching the stomach, forms a kind of pulpy mass, subject to an intermittent slow rotation by the alternate contraction of the fibers of the exterior muscular coat; in this, the respiratory movements assist greatly. If the contents contain too much liquid, a large portion of this is directly absorbed, by endosmose of the coats of the stomach, and enters the circulation at once, so that the mass remaining may have the consistency proper for the performance of this rotatory motion. The exterior portions of this pulpy mass, which have undergone complete treatment by passage and friction along the interior coat of the stomach, ooze out into the intestines through a valve (called the *pyloric*) in a semi-fluid state, apparently homogeneous, called *chyme*. Its formation requires from one to four hours, while the muscular movement of the intestine propels it forward to the duodenum, where it is mixed with the pancreatic juice secreted by the pancreas, the enteric juice secreted by Brunner's glands, and the bile secreted by the liver.

Several erroneous theories formerly prevailed in regard to the digestive power of the stomach. One was that digestion was simply a mechanical operation, and that the food was ground up fine; but this was disproved by inclosing meat in small hollow silver balls, full of holes, attaching them to a string, and causing them to be swallowed by a dog; when, after a few hours, they were withdrawn, the meat was found fully digested, which could not be due to any grinding power, as it was fully protected against this. The other theory was that digestion was due to nervous agency, because it was much interfered with when the pneumogastric nerve was divided; but then it was proved that this simply paralyzed the motion of the stomach, and prevented the rotation and expulsion of the food, while the secretion of gastric juice and its action on the food was in no way interfered with. A third theory was that the food was vitalized in the stomach; that is, by means of some mysterious change, it was made to share in the vitality of that organ; but such a theory is highly unscientific, and nothing more or less than an attempt to explain the mystery by a word of obscure meaning, while it does not elucidate anything. It must be considered that even when the food is inside the stomach it is, anatomically speaking, yet outside the body or system, and cannot become part of the system before contact action takes place; and this action is chemical. The chemical theory of digestion, then, is now accepted as the true one; and it is corroborated by the fact that physiological chemists have succeeded in perfect artificial imitation of digestion, between which and the natural digestion there is no difference whatever.

Careful investigations on animals, and even on men who by accident had fistulous openings which gave access to their digestive channels, have proved that all substances are not digested in the stomach itself: that, for instance, nitrogenized food is not fully digested by the gastric juice, but chiefly by the intestinal juice, through the whole length of the small intestine; and that fat is not digested at all in the stomach, but that its digestion only begins when this intestine is reached; this has been called the calorific digestion, as it is directed to the heat-making portion of the food, and has for final result the keeping up the animal heat of the body. The length of this portion of the digestive apparatus is about 20 feet, and its surface some 3,500 square inches, being much greater than those portions of the digestive channel devoted to nutrition. The latest view in regard to the calorific digestion is that of M. Bernard, who has published experimental evidence proving that the digestion of fats consists simply in bringing them into the condition of an emulsion, by means of the pancreatic juice; and so they enter into the circulation of the blood and, while there, are in a continuous state of slow combustion, combining with the free oxygen which the blood has absorbed in the lungs, and is always carrying through the system.

The emulsion of the fats with the pancreatic juice, mixing with the chyme from the stomach and other ingredients, is absorbed by the ends of the lacteals, called *villi*, which are delicate tubes with which the interior of the intestines are lined, and which convey the metamorphosed substances of the food, now called *chyle*, through the mesenteric glands into the lacteal tube, which discharges the chyle upward into the veins just before they discharge their blood into the lungs.

The functions of the lacteals and *villi*, which are of such minuteness that in every square inch there are some 10,000

of them, are coincident with the operation of the lymphatics. We have here two separate systems, the lacteal and lymphatic, which ramify from the intestines all over the body, and of which the anatomical and physiological actions and relations are at present an important subject of investigation for modern biologists, and not yet fully understood.

It is evident from the preceding that the blood vessels, which have received the material from the digestive apparatus, contain two distinct liquids, the original venous blood and the chyle; this mixture makes its way through the portal vein to the liver, which is a double structure, of which one function is to cause this mixture to undergo an enormous change, consisting in the formation of young blood cells, and the other is the economizing of the mineral ingredients of the disintegrated blood cells, which are also eliminated by the liver and of which iron is the principal ingredient.

The above outline may serve to give the general reader an idea of the highly elaborate complexity of the diverse operations belonging to the mysterious process by which foreign organisms are changed into the living tissues of our bodies, which tissues, by interstitial repair, take the place of the old ones; they do this so thoroughly that we may safely assert that, in the course of only a few years, not a single material atom is left of those of which the body originally was made up. In order to comprehend the truth of this, we have only to consider that the average amount of solid food required for each human being is 800 lbs. per year, of drink 1,500 lbs. and of oxygen, consumed from the air, 800 lbs., a total of 3,100 lbs., surpassing the weight of the body more than 20 times. The most wonderful fact to contemplate is that, with all this continual change of the material of which our bodies consist, we do not lose our identity.

MORDANTS FOR ANILINE COLORS.

While aniline dyes are remarkable for the ease with which they attach themselves to animal fiber, whether silk or wool, they are difficult to fix upon cottons and vegetable fiber in general. For this purpose albumen, the bichromates and other mordants have been used or recommended. The number of such mordants is not a small one; but the important question at present is which can be employed to the greatest advantage, and which will produce the most beautiful and cheapest colors. This cannot be answered by a series of experiments conducted on a small scale, but only by operating upon large quantities and in a practical workshop. The dye in fine colors will not usually have an opportunity to decide which is the most suitable mordant for cottons. In this question, the value of the bath after the operation and its capability of being turned to account must be considered, and in all calculations, its value must be deducted from the total cost of the materials employed.

To discuss at this time all the different methods employed in fixing aniline colors would lead us too far; almost all have been superseded by the methods in which tannin is employed. This is especially adapted to fuchsins and iodine green. Both of these dyes produce, with tannin, brilliant colored compounds which are totally insoluble, so that tannin most completely fulfils the ends required of a mordant. Tannin is, however, quite expensive, and hence we must seek some substitute which either renders the use of tannin entirely unnecessary or at least makes a saving in its use. The substances previously suggested, such as oleic acid or stearic acid, do not sufficiently fulfil the requirements, and it seems probable that a substitute for tannin, which shall entirely replace it, will be difficult to find. A long series of experiments on a large scale have led to the conviction that tannin, either pure or in sumach, is, in the mean time, still indispensable.

A German, named Austerlitz, has recently observed that a considerable saving of tannin can be effected by combining it with glue before using it, so as to employ both glue and tannin simultaneously as mordant. Under these circumstances, much less tannin is required to produce a given shade with fuchsin, iodine green or any other aniline color; in fact, the same results may be obtained with half the quantity of tannin required when no glue is used. Austerlitz says: "I have established this by a series of experiments on a small scale using weighed quantities of tannin with varying quantities of glue. A piece of cotton goods was first mordanted in a bath of tannic acid, and then cut in two, one half being drawn through a weak solution of glue or gelatin, the other immersed directly in a dye bath of known concentration at a given temperature. The half which had been through the glue bath was then dyed in a bath of precisely the same sort, and the two samples compared. The cotton on which glue had been employed was far more thoroughly dyed and of a deeper shade. It was also proved that the tannic acid bath might be much weaker, if followed by a glue bath, than when used alone. The amount of tannin saved in this way is not small.

By gradually diluting one of the tannin solutions and continuing the series of parallel experiments with tannin and glue and with tannin alone, a point is finally reached where both methods produce the same shade. When this point is arrived at, a comparison of the concentration of the two tannin baths will show how much is saved. This quantity, of course, depends greatly upon the quality of the tannin, so that experiments have not given a result which can be expressed in figures. Samples from different sources gave different results, so that in some cases more was saved by the glue bath, in others, less."

The cause of these phenomena have not yet been ascertained but it is probable that a compound of tannin and glue is formed, which has an action upon aniline different from that of tannin alone.

FISH CULTURE BY FARMERS.

Why should not farmers and others raise fish for the market and for their domestic uses, as well as cattle, fowls or any other living stock? For so staple and healthy an article of food, it seems as absurd to be dependent upon chance capture in a wild state as it would be to rely for our poultry upon the fortune of the hunter or for our vegetable supply upon the finding of suitable esculents in localities in which a knowledge of botany may tell us they ought to grow. The efforts of the fish commissioners in this and other parts of the country, in stocking the waters with the spawn of valuable species of fish, will undoubtedly largely increase the numbers of the finny denizens of our rivers and streams; but the labor of securing an abundant and readily obtainable supply is thus only begun, and it seems to us that it may be continued by every dweller in the rural districts having the simple facilities requisite for the construction and maintenance of suitable fish receptacles.

Artificial incubation and the stocking of private ponds are of course no novel idea. History tells us of the vast sums expended for such purposes during the decline of the Roman empire; and pisciculture, especially in the monasteries, seems to have flourished through the middle ages. The success which has attended all modern efforts in a similar direction, even in the propagation of the trout and other delicate species, leaves little doubt but that, at a very moderate outlay of time and money, every farmer could provide himself with a well stocked pond, which he would find a constant source of valuable remuneration.

Dr. J. H. Slack, the New Jersey Commissioner of Fisheries, writes to the *Tribune* a letter containing many useful hints relating to this subject. Referring to the preparation of the ponds, he says that two points must not be overlooked: proper proportions of the banks and freedom from surface water. For the former, with ordinary loam, the following proportions will be found correct: Let the base of the tank equal three times its height, and let the width of the top equal the height. Thus, if the tank be 10 feet high the base should be 30 feet and the width at the top 10 feet. The sluices and overflow should be made of stone laid in cement. Wood, it is stated, will rot very rapidly and prove of no value. The services of a competent engineer may be employed to advantage, and the money expended for such supervision will save much trouble and vexation. Surface water is a fertile source of trouble, as it carries with it brush and leaves, which clog the screens, allowing the contents to overflow and permitting the escape of the fishes. In most cases, a series of ditches, entirely surrounding the ponds, will carry off the surface water, a gate being placed at the head of the ponds with an opening only allowing as much water to enter as can be readily conducted away. At the sluice gates screens of wire gauze must be placed to prevent the egress of the fish. These should be made of galvanized wire if of large mesh, and of copper if fine. A screen of coarser mesh, placed a few inches up stream from the fish screen, will arrest much of the floating trash and prevent clogging. This second screen, called the leaf screen, should be placed at an angle of about 60° that a greater surface may be exposed to the water.

As regards stocking the tanks, it can hardly be expected that every farmer can enter into the careful operations of trout culture, but there are plenty of other varieties of fish suitable for food which may be easily and profitably reared. The ordinary cat fish (*pimelodus*) will thrive and breed in almost stagnant water, and is hardy and enduring. The female takes care of her young, which, for some weeks after they are hatched, follow her about as chickens do a hen. For large ponds, through which a gentle current can be made to flow, the best fish for the south is the southern bass (*grystes salmoides*). It has a variety of names and is known also as the yellow and black bass, trout, chub, and growler. The adult fish is of a greenish brown color with a bluish black spot upon the gill, the young having in place of the spot from two to four longitudinal bars; the back fin is spinous and high, and the tail is similar to that of the trout. Besides the above two varieties mentioned as examples, there are scores equally valuable as food, some indigenous to northern, others to southern waters, which will probably suggest themselves to our readers interested in the subject.

The temperature of the water in the tank is an important matter, as fishes respire not water but air mingled with water. At the temperature of 50°, six cubic inches of air are contained in each gallon of aerated water, while at 212° none is present. With a supply of 1,000 gallons per minute at a temperature of 50°, fish could be maintained in a tank of about 8,000 cubic feet sufficient for a small village.

If the pond be well supplied with aquatic insects and plants, the fishes will need no food; but generally overstocking is the case and hence a certain quantity is required. Any kind of animal food, cooked or uncooked, is suitable; the entrails of fowls, lights of beef, oxen and hogs, if thrown in in small pieces, will be eaten with avidity. Curd or "smear kase" should only be given with animal food, being apt to cause disease. For the small fry of trout, the larvae of the common mosquito are stated to form excellent nutriment, a better utilization, by the way, of that tormenting insect than the Yankee project of capturing them in large quantities and using their bodies as manure. It is estimated that about two barrels of rain water will be required for each thousand fry, the insects being strained out from time to time as fast as they are developed, and thrown into the trout pond.

A SHOWER of frogs, which darkened the air and covered the ground for a long distance, is the reported result of a recent rain storm at Kansas city, Mo.

THE RECENT ARCTIC EXPEDITION.

Secretary Robeson's report of the official investigation regarding the Polar expedition, based upon the testimony of the survivors rescued from the ice floe, has at length been given to the public. As far as the record of the voyage extends, the account is substantially the same as that already published in detail in our columns. Considerable information, however, has been elicited regarding incidental topics and that bearing upon the mysterious portion of the recital, notably the death of Captain Hall; while that relating to the separation of ship and crew is of especial importance and interest.

The circumstances attending the decease of the commander are fully detailed, and as far as possible the statements of the witnesses reconciled and carefully compared. From all the testimony, the examining officials are inclined to reject the poisoning theory, so eagerly grasped by sensational journals, and arrive at the unanimous opinion that the death was due to natural causes. This view is qualified by the statement that none of the survivors are capable of giving an accurate account of Captain Hall's symptoms, nor of his last illness, and consequently the true state of the case must remain indefinite until the return of the *Polaris*. There seems little doubt but that the breaking adrift of the ship was purely the result of accident. The vessel was suddenly beset by a tremendous pressure of ice, which was driven against her from the southward, throwing her on her beam ends. To ease her, the provisions, stores, etc., were being removed when, during the darkness of the night and in a fierce gale, she parted her hawsers and disappeared. The sighting of the *Polaris* on the next day and her non-response to the signals of the abandoned crew, even when, from the distance intervening, they must have been clearly seen, are carefully considered. It is believed that, from a dispassionate point of view, the apparent indifference of those aboard must be ascribed to both inability and caution. The vessel had been so roughly handled the night before that both captain and crew might readily believe she would be lost; hence the removal of articles to the floe was attempted. Then when she broke adrift, her steam pipes, valves and connection were solid; and she was for hours without steam, unmanageable amid the floating ice. Moreover she was leaking badly and totally destitute of boats, so that it appears to have been the duty of the commander, Buddington, to get her in a place of safety, such as was the shelter of Northumberland Island, as speedily as possible. Furthermore, he knew that the ice party had boats and consequently could have believed their safety assured; and at all events, whatever his doubts might have been, a severe gale decided the question, driving the ice floe out of sight of ship and land. From this array of considerations, the final judgment is reached that the entire circumstances of the separation were accidental and unavoidable.

The *Polaris*, it is stated, had a broken stem and was leaky. She had plenty of provisions but not much coal, and probably remained in winter quarters at Northumberland Island. There is a difference of opinion as to whether she will be able to reach Upernavik or Disco under sail if she gets free this season, and it is believed that she will need assistance to escape from the ice.

The scientific results of the expedition are better than first imagined. The records of the astronomical, meteorological, magnetical, tidal and other departments are extremely full, and extensive collections of objects of natural history have been made. Specimens of drift wood were picked up near the shores of Newman's Bay, in which walnut, ash, and pine were recognized. The dip of the needle amounted to 45° and its duration to 96°, being less than at Port Foulke and Rensselaer Harbor, as given by Drs. Kane and Hayes. Auroras were frequent but not brilliant, consisting sometimes of one arch and sometimes of several. Streamers were quite rare and shooting stars almost constantly visible. The average of the rise and fall of the tide was about 5½ feet, and the greatest depth of water noted 100 fathoms. The existence of a constant current southward was also noted, its rapidity varying with the season and locality. The winter temperature was found much milder than was anticipated, the minimum being 58° below zero in January, though March proved to be the coldest month.

The open polar sea of Kane and Hayes was found to be a sound of considerable extent, and, it is believed, communicates with Francis Joseph Sound, and thus defines the northern limit of Greenland. Its length was not ascertained.

Pursuant to the recommendations of the investigating committee, the Secretary of the Navy has completed the purchase of the sealing steamer *Tigress*, the vessel which rescued the party on the ice field, and has ordered her prompt fitting out for a voyage in search of the *Polaris*. The *Tigress* is constructed especially for encountering the heavy ice of the arctic regions, and will be equipped in the most thorough manner so as to be ready for sea by the early part of July. She will be commanded by Commander James A. Greer, a well known officer of the navy. The *Juniata*, another naval vessel, has been got in readiness with the greatest rapidity and has sailed for Disco to carry supplies of coal and provisions for the *Tigress*, and also to seek information regarding the *Polaris*. The ship was fitted out at the navy yard in Brooklyn, and is heavily sheathed with iron. It is expected that she will return during the autumn, bringing the latest news and leaving the *Tigress* to penetrate to Northumberland Island.

"THE PIG IRONISTS IN COUNCIL" is the heading of a report, in the New York *Herald*, of the proceedings of a convention of gentlemen engaged in the iron trade, lately assembled at Cleveland, O. Rather a scaly sort of irony, that.

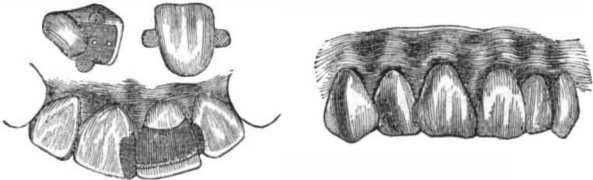
[Dental Cosmos.]

A Device in Dentistry.

The insertion of a porcelain tooth without a plate or clasps, and where no root remains, and where the remaining teeth are firm in their sockets, may be considered permanent when inserted as here illustrated. About two years ago an operation somewhat of this character was described in the *Dental Cosmos* by Dr. B. J. Bing, then practicing in Paris, now in London.

A patient who disliked the wearing of a plate, and desired something different, presented, when the operation now to be described was decided upon and performed. After forming appropriate cavities in the proximate surfaces of the teeth next the space left from the loss of the natural tooth, an impression was taken and a plain porcelain tooth selected, fitted to the parts and backed with gold, a portion of the backing extending from each side about one and a half lines, for insertion into the cavities prepared for them in the adjoining teeth. A small gold plate was then formed to fit upon the gum, covering as much of it as would embrace the neck of the natural tooth were it in position. The backing when riveted to the porcelain was then adapted to the position in which it was to be placed; and while the whole rested on the small plate upon the gum, the backing and plate were so secured by a cement that they could be removed intact, and, after the usual preparation, soldered. The surface of the extended sides of the backing was roughened, so that the gold would better secure them when filled into every part.

This being done, a thin piece of rubber coffer dam was placed on the adjoining teeth and over the gum upon which the porcelain, with the gold attachments, was to rest. The rubber occupies but little space, and, when ligated to the teeth adjoining, so presses up the gum that its thickness is more than compensated for. The porcelain, with its attachments, was then placed in position, and secured firmly by the solid impactation of small pieces of light cohesive gold foil around that portion of the plate extending into the cavities.



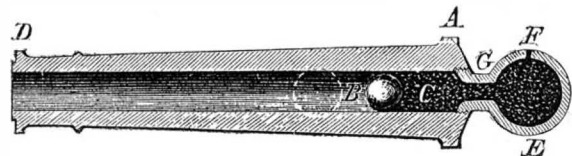
The parts when in position appear as here illustrated, the gold backing and fillings showing plainly on the palatine surface, while on the labial no gold is exposed to view, excepting a small portion of the filling in the lateral incisor. The porcelain and gold attachments as prepared for insertion are also shown. It will be seen that the cavity in the central incisor was formed to the cutting edge of the tooth. This was done to gain access to both sides of the plate extended into the cavity, which could not otherwise be done unless a portion of the labial surface were cut away, which would have been objectionable in consequence of the exposure of gold. In the lateral incisor this was deemed necessary, because, being smaller than the other, it was thought best not to cut it away in the same manner. It was so arranged, however, that though the filling can be seen, it is not conspicuous.

A Curiosity of Old Times.

In the *Mechanic's Magazine* of January, 1824, we find the following curious communication:

PROPOSAL FOR INCREASING THE STRENGTH OF GUNPOWDER.

A D is a longitudinal section of a great gun; C, the cartridge; B, the ball; E, a hollow metal sphere, similar to a



bombshell or hand grenade, with a hollow neck or tube, G, which screws into the breech of the gun; F, the touch hole.

The design is that the ignited powder in the shell shall throw a quantity of flame suddenly into the gun, and explode every grain of the cartridge powder. It is not, however, meant that preventing any of the powder from being blown out unignited is to give the additional force; on the contrary, it is certain that the expansive power of explosive mixtures is as the quantity of flame suddenly formed by them, particularly in confined situations, where the flame is supplied with matter from the combustible substance itself only. In proof of this, let flame be communicated to the powder of a charged gun, by firing a pistol containing powder only into its touch hole, and the result will be found to be, that the momentum of the ball from the gun will be much greater than if the same quantity of powder as that fired from the pistol had been added to the cartridge in the gun, and the whole exploded in the customary manner. This I ascertained by experiment nearly ten years since. The thing is now put beyond all manner of doubt, from the discharge of guns being effected by detonating copper caps. Sportsmen, using the same, declare that a less quantity of powder produces an equal effect to a greater quantity without these caps. It may be necessary to add, that trials are indispensable to ascertain the maximum of the size of the shell, E, and of the quantity of powder it should contain to be safe and most efficient.

Query.—Might not the guns of forts be constructed so as to slide backwards and forwards on fixed but centered carriages, by which much fatigue would be avoided by the men? Chatham.

J. H. PASLEY.

THE MECHANICAL PIGEON.

To attain dexterity in the shooting of birds upon the wing, it has been the practice of sportsmen to make use of live pigeons, which are placed in suitable cages, from which, by a string, they are liberated at the desired moment, to be needlessly shot down by the gunner. The great cruelty of this sport has led to the invention of what is termed the mechanical pigeon, the construction and operation of which is illustrated in the accompanying engravings.

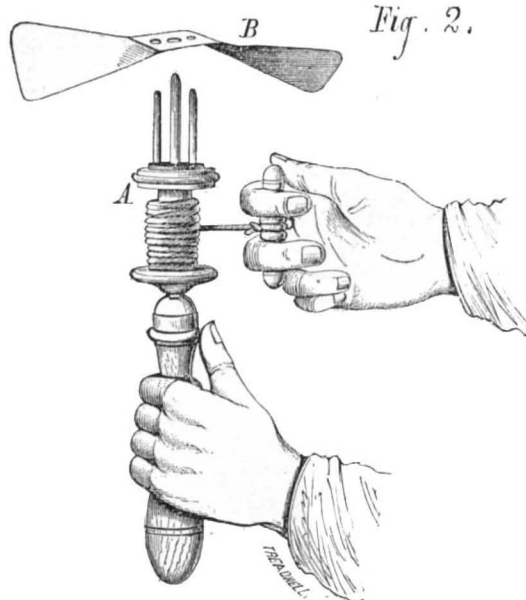


The mechanical pigeon consists of a thin strip of sheet iron, six inches or more in length, having wings bent somewhat like the blades of a screw propeller, as shown at D, Fig. 1. When rapid rotation is given to this propeller, it rises high in the air, the wings are seen to flicker or vibrate, and its whole appearance resembles a flying bird.

To effect the aerial flight of the mechanical pigeon, two methods are employed. One of these, shown in Fig. 2, consists of a spool, A, mounted on a handle, the spool being turned with great rapidity by the application of force to the cord, as shown. Upon the forks of the spool the pigeon is centered, and, when a proper rotating velocity is communicated, away it sails into the air, like a bird upon the wing.

A self-acting spool for setting off the pigeon is shown in Fig. 1. This consists of a barrel, A, containing a strong spring, which is liberated at the proper instant, by means of the cord and trigger, B. The power of the spring, when the cord is pulled, gives instantaneous rotation to the forks, and sends the "pigeon" into the air, in the manner previously described. This spring spool is attached to a ball and socket head arranged upon a spike which is set in the ground wherever desired. The cord leads to the position occupied by the sportsmen, which may be at some distance from the machine, as shown in Fig. 3.

When the trigger is pulled, the mechanical pigeon flies and



the sportsman fires, thus enjoying the best of gunnery practice without cruelty to innocent birds. If a shot strikes the

mechanical pigeon, its direction is changed, and it falls to the ground. This contrivance has become an extensive article of sporting merchandize.—*Science Record* for 1873.

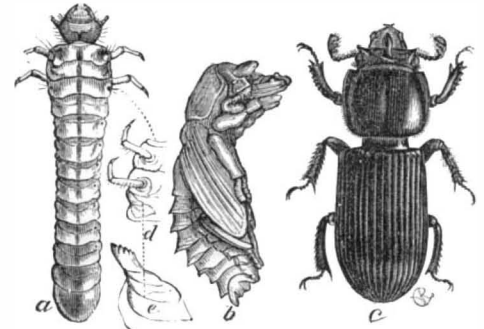
[From the Fourth Annual Report of Charles V. Riley, State Entomologist of Missouri.]

THE COMMON BEETLE.

Many an one will doubtless recognize, in the insect illustrated herewith, the bug with which he or she, as a child, was wont to play at "oxen," the curved horn on the head forming such an inviting projection on which to hitch, by means of a thread, small chips and other diminutive objects, to be dragged by the rather awkward beast of burden. Every pioneer in this Western country, as he rolled over huge decayed logs, in the work of clearing his land to make it ready for the plow, must have become familiar with this highly polished coal-black beetle. Every woodsman who has split or grubbed an old stump will be likely to recognize in this horned bug an old acquaintance. Every entomologist who has dug into or pulled to pieces old rotting stumps, in search for other treasures, must time and again have seen this lazy, clumsy *passalus* tumbling down with the loose and crumbling dust and excreta of its own making, and expressing its disapproval of such summary disturbance, in the plainest manner, by emitting a peculiar half hissing, half creaking noise. And though met with at almost every step in his forest rambles,

Where wild birds sing beneath the leafy bowers,

the inquisitive student has no doubt found himself repeatedly examining specimens, not only to admire the elegance and beauty of form, but to ascertain the means by which the peculiar noise is produced. A sufficiently careful examination



The Horned Passalus—*Passalus cornutus*, Fabr. (Coleoptera, Lucanidae.)

will end in the knowledge that it is caused by the rubbing of the rather horny terminal joints of the abdomen, known as the *pygidium*, against the inside of the hard wing covers.

This insect cannot be considered injurious in any sense of the word, and might with propriety be introduced in the section of "Beneficial Insects." It is never found in sound or green wood, but invariably in that which is decaying, and it very materially assists and hastens the reduction of stumps which might otherwise remain treble the length of time, to occupy valuable ground and serve as an eye sore to the careful farmer in wooded countries. Unseen and unheard it carries on incessantly the good work of converting useless timber into mold which enriches the soil; and this has been its office in all the past ages of its existence. A decaying, moist condition of the wood is necessary to its development, and it will be found most common on low moist ground, and in oak, hickory, and sweet gum logs or stumps.

Common as is this beetle, its larva and pupa are rarely seen, and seem to be unknown even to most entomologists, while no good figures of them have been published.

The larva, *a*, is of a very exceptional character, being the only one in this country which possesses but four well developed legs, for though many butterflies in the imago state have the front pair functionally impotent, no other insect than our *passalus* exhibits a similar feature in the larva state. Indeed the only other larvæ in the whole class of insects which are similarly characterized are those belonging to the same genus in other parts of the world. The third pair of legs really exists, however, in a rudimentary state, as shown at *d*. This larva is of a bluish white color with the anterior joints broader and flatter than the rest. It transforms in the fall of the year, within the wood it inhabits, to a whitish pupa, *b*, in which the front pair of legs is thrown forward under the head, and the horns of the future beetle show plainly on its top. The pupa lasts but about a fortnight, when, throwing off the pupa garb, it becomes a perfect beetle. At first the parts are all beautifully white and delicate; then the head, thorax, and limbs gradually become amber brown, and lastly the wing covers assume this color. The whole body then deepens very gradually so that many days elapse before the coal black color is acquired; and in the month of August the beetle is as often found brown as black. As larvæ only half grown are found in company with those that are full grown, they require at least two years to mature.

Progress of Plated Ware Manufactures

By many the plated goods are preferred, not only on account of the difference in cost, but because the design and appearance of the goods are nearly identical with the solid ware. The Meriden Britannia Company confine their attention mainly to the manufacture of nickel silver and white metal silver plated goods. The company was established in 1852, at West Meriden, Conn., where they now occupy five acres of ground, and have eight factories, the largest of which is seven hundred feet long, presenting an imposing appearance. The capital invested is more than \$2,000,000 and the capacity of the works about \$4,000,000 year! The company employ 700 men.



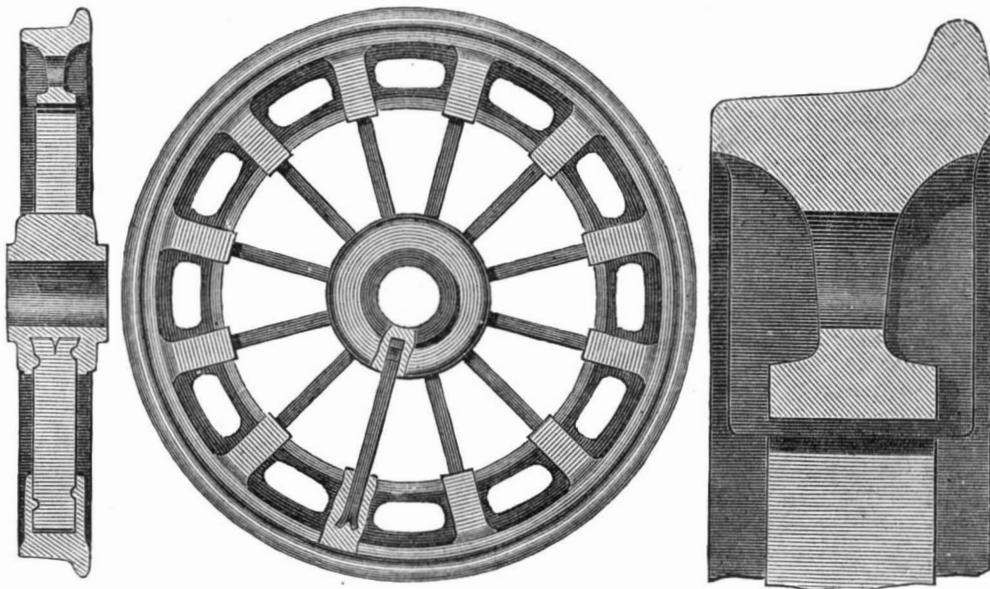
VIENNA EXPOSITION.
NOTES FROM THE VIENNA EXPOSITION.

LEATHER MANUFACTURES.

The display of leather and leather goods at the exposition is very large, and many countries are represented. Turkey has a fine representation of leather articles in great variety, also Austria, France, and the German states. The American display is small; but the exhibition of hand and machine sewed boots and shoes, from Lynn, Mass., is declared to be the best of anything of the kind in the exposition.

LUDWIG'S RAILWAY WHEELS.

We illustrate, herewith, a somewhat novel construction of chilled cast iron railway wheels with wrought iron spokes, of which a pair are exhibited at Vienna from C. I. Bergmann's foundry and iron works, of Graz, Styria. These wheels, which have been designed and patented by Mr. Ludwig, the manager of the above works, are intended as substitutes for the chilled cast iron disk wheels in use to some extent on Austrian and German railways, and their construction will be readily understood from our engravings. The rim is cast in a chill, and from its form it can, without risk, be cast of harder iron than is usually employed. The rim and boss are connected by wrought iron spokes, as shown, and the wheel is stated to be capable of being broken only with great difficulty. One hundred and sixty pairs of these wheels have already been running about a year on the Graz-Kofacher railway, and they are stated to have given good results. We are indebted to *Engineering* for the illustration.



LUDWIG'S RAILWAY WHEELS.

NEW COMPOUND ENGINE.

Messrs. Edward Field and F. M. Cotton, of Chandos Chambers, Adelphi, London, England, exhibit a model of a direct expansion compound engine, of which we give an illustration from *Engineering*. The arrangement consists essentially of a high pressure cylinder placed within the low pressure cylinder, and moving backwards and forwards upon a fixed piston; the annular space around this high pressure cylinder is always filled with steam direct from the boiler, which passes into the cylinder through the ports on the lower side, the admission being regulated by the piston valves shown in the engraving. By means of these valves, also, the steam from the smaller cylinder enters the low pressure cylinder, while at the end of each stroke a small quantity of steam passes from the annular reservoir into the low pressure cylinder, to serve as a cushion and to move the valves. Piston valves, on the top of the low pressure cylinder, regulate the communication between it and the exhaust.

In the section, A is the high pressure cylinder, the flange and covers of which serve as a piston to the low pressure cylinder, B; the fixed piston is shown at C', and D is the annular high pressure steam chamber or reservoir in direct communication with the boiler by the pipe, D', surrounding the cylinder, A, and moving with it. The piston valves belonging to this cylinder are shown at E E', and are connected by a spindle, I⁴ I⁵. They work in cylindrical passages bored out of the lugs, N N', and cushions, M, are introduced as shown to receive the blow from the valves at the end of each stroke. The valves for opening and closing the exhaust of the low pressure cylinder are shown at I I': they are also connected by a spindle, and cushions similar to those just mentioned are provided at I⁴ I⁵, for the cushioned valves, I² I³, to strike against. The exhaust opening is shown at K'. At each end of the low pressure cylinder is formed a small groove, L and L', which admits steam from the annular chamber into the low pressure cylinder at the end of each stroke, for the purpose of throwing over the valves, E E', and of forming

a cushion for the moving high pressure cylinder. Small spindles, I, M and M', are provided, the former at the end of the exhaust valve chest, and the latter at each end of the low pressure cylinder, in a line with the center of the valves, E E', in order to move the latter if necessary.

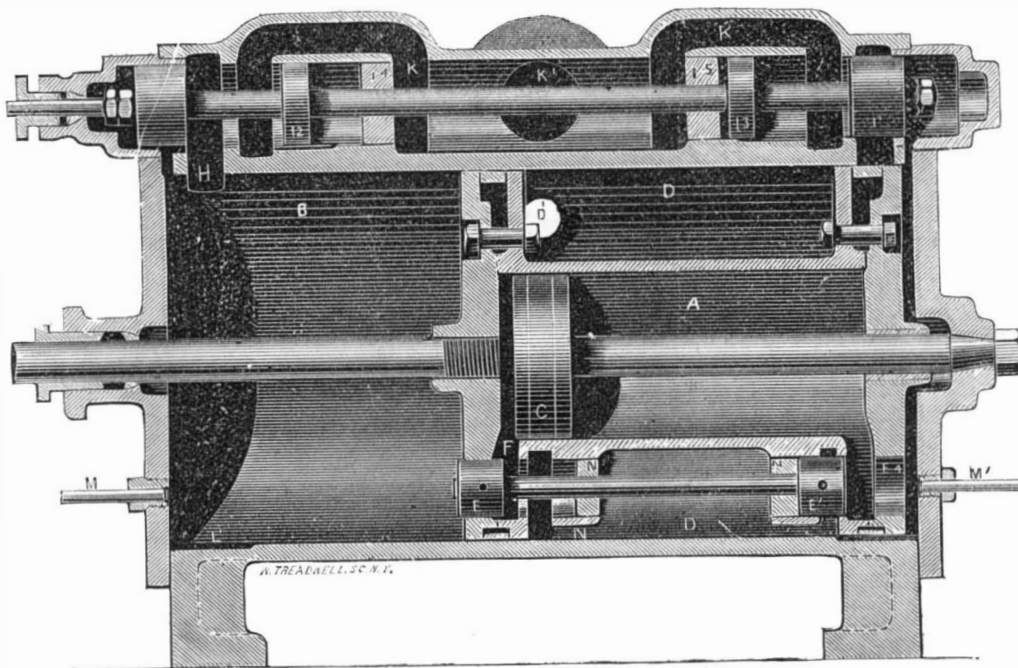
Taking the position of the high pressure cylinder at the end of its stroke, as shown in the section, it will be seen that the valves, E E', are thrown forward, so that steam from the annular chamber is admitted through the port, F, to the forward side of the fixed piston, C; at the same time the motion of the valve, E', has opened the exhaust port of the cylinder, A, the steam from which passes into the low pressure cylinder. But before this takes place it is necessary to move the valves, E E', which is effected as follows: The cylinder, A, in coming to the end of its stroke, passes over the small grooves, L, before mentioned, and admits steam from the annular chamber, D, which, passing into the small space in the low pressure cylinder, behind the end of the high pressure cylinder, acts at once upon the back of the valve, I', which it throws over, opening the communication between the low pressure cylinder and the exhaust, and also upon the valves, E E', which are moved into the position shown in the section, Fig. 1. The steam from the chamber then passing into the cylinder, A, and that from the same cylinder being exhausted into B, both act simultaneously in the same direction.

The arrangement just described and illustrated is adapted especially for working pumps direct, and steam is admitted into the high pressure cylinder during the whole of its stroke. By a modification, however, the engine may be connected to a crank shaft, and any desired degree of expansion

obtained. The proportion between the cylinders is five to one.

THE GREAT RUSSIAN NAVAL GUN.

In the matter of great guns and other ordnance, it seems to be admitted that the Russians take the palm at Vienna. The great Russian naval gun is one of the largest breech-loaders ever made. It weighs forty tons, and cost sixty-seven thousand dollars. It is made entirely of cast steel. The bore is 12 inches, and the core is composed of a solid tube, 29 inches in diameter at breech, tapering towards the muzzle, the tube being reinforced by steel rings shrunk upon it and upon each other, four layers of rings being used; the entire diameter of the gun at the powder chamber being a little more than 4 feet 9 inches. In the rifling there are thirty-six



FIELD & COTTON'S COMPOUND STEAM ENGINE.

grooves. The charge of powder is 113 lbs., the expected initial velocity of projectile 1,398 feet per second. The gun has not yet been fired. It is designed for service on the war ship Peter the Great.

It is proposed to turn our Alaska possessions to account as penal settlements

Interesting Electrical Experiments.

At a recent soiree of the Royal Society, Mr. Willoughby Smith's discovery of the effect of light upon the resistance of selenium was illustrated experimentally by Mr. Latimer Clark. A piece of selenium was inclosed in a test tube connected at each end to platinum wires, and the tube was placed in a box with a sliding cover so as to admit any desired quantity of light. The resistance was balanced on a Wheatstone bridge, and with the aid of a Thomson galvanometer; the movement of the spot of light of course would follow any variation in the resistance of the selenium. With the box closed, the resistance of the selenium remained constant; but immediately the box was opened, the light index upon the scale began to move.

Another very interesting experiment was shown by Mr. Tisley, to prove the effect of magnetism upon ordinary electrolytic action. Water being decomposed in the ordinary manner, the gases were at once set free; but on connecting the electrodes of the battery with an electro-magnet, the gases commenced to revolve around the magnetic poles. A small bath was placed over the magnet, the bath itself forming one electrode and a plate, in the acidulated water of the bath, the other electrode. When the coil was magnetized, the evolved gases immediately commenced to revolve round the center plate at considerable speed.

Electrical Transmission by Cables.

As the first application of current to a cable is to charge it, it is evident that, before any employable electricity can issue from the further end, the corresponding charge must be completed. We may therefore assume that the time required by a wave to charge a cable, and the retardation on the time required for a wave passing from one end to the other to reach a given amplitude, are identical. Mr. Varley is of opinion that the electric current commences flowing out of one end of a cable at the very instant that contact is made with the battery at the other end, but that it is a considerable time before it reaches an appreciable strength; that it then goes on augmenting in strength, never absolutely attaining its maximum force. This may be so; but whatever the nature of electricity may be, it is difficult to imagine the total absence of inertia to its propagation. It is more probable that the velocity of electricity is the same in all conductors, whether submarine or overhead, or in any other form, and that it is very great, but that the resistance and induction of the circuit combine to prevent the wave reaching an appreciable strength

for some time after it has commenced to flow out. This is a question, however, which can never be settled experimentally, because we can only recognize the issuing wave after it has attained strength enough to perform some mechanical effect.—*Robert Sabine, C. E., in the Telegraphic Journal.*

Scientific Immortality.

No doubt, says F. Papillon, there is no contradiction in conceiving of a perfect equilibrium between assimilation and disassimilation, such that the system would be maintained in immortal health. In any case, no one has yet even gained a glimpse of the modes of realizing such an equilibrium, and death continues, till further orders, a fixed law of Fate. Still, though immortality for a complete organism seems chimerical, perhaps it is not the same with the immortality of a separate organ in the sense we now explain. We have already alluded to the experiments of M. Paul Bert on animal grafting. He has proved that, on the head of a rat, certain organs of the same animal—as the tail, for instance—may be grafted. And this physiologist asks himself the question whether it would not be possible, when a rat, provided with such an appendage, draws near the close of his existence, to remove the appendage from him, and transplant it to a young animal, which, in his turn, would be deprived of the ornament in the same way in his old age in favor of some specimen of a new generation, and so on in succession. This tail, transplanted in regular course to young animals, and imbibing at each transference blood full of vitality, perpetually renewed, yet ever remaining the same, would thus escape death. The experiment, delicate and difficult, as we well see, was yet undertaken by M. Bert, but circumstances did not allow it to be prolonged for any long time, and the fact of the perpetuity of an organ, periodically rejuvenated, remains to be demonstrated.

THE Great Eastern finished laying the new cable on June 27.

THE GREAT EXPOSITION.—LETTER FROM UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER PROFESSOR R. H. THURSTON.

NUMBER I.

At sea, latitude 53° 3' N., longitude 36° 17' W.: That is to say, at very nearly the half way point in the great circle course which has been taken by our "skipper" in running from New York to Glasgow, after clearing the Newfoundland coast.

June 1, 1873.

We are *en route* to Vienna in great haste, and yet in a somewhat roundabout course. The object to be attained is to learn as much as possible of the industries of the world, as illustrated at the great *Welt-Ausstellung*. This route has been chosen with the intention of obtaining a glimpse at some of the principal establishments which have produced the marvels of the exposition, and to learn something of the methods adopted and facilities possessed by British and continental manufacturers, and thus to learn how to imitate as well as what to copy from them. We shall find much to learn, undoubtedly, and as certainly shall be able to find many points in which our Yankee practice excels that of our friendly rivals across the Atlantic. Our time is limited, yet we hope to be able to acquire a valuable stock of interesting and valuable information before the equinoctial gales shall meet us on our return.

These great international exhibitions are becoming, as they should be, most powerful agents in the work of advancing civilization. Bringing together all nations in generous emulation, they lay before them the fruits of the labor of man in every part of the globe, presenting to each the *chefs d'œuvre* in art, of every country, the national productions of every clime, and every variety of manufactures from the whole civilized world.

The Vienna exhibition is the last of a series, of which the British exhibition of 1851 was the first.

In 1851, the whole world was at peace; even the threatenings of the storm, which so soon after burst upon the Crimea, had not attracted attention. There had been, for some time previous, exhibitions of British products, at more or less regular intervals, which had gradually increased in magnitude and importance, until their managers finally concluded to attempt the experiment of a "World's Fair." The experiment was quite successful, and it was, for several years, referred to as a display, marvelous in extent and wonderful for its varied attractions. America competed successfully with Europe, although her distance and the novelty of the scheme, as well as the comparatively short time allowed for preparation after its announcement, prevented as full contributions as would otherwise have been made.

Other "World's Fairs," including that in the Crystal Palace at New York, were attempted during succeeding years; but the next really important and truly international exhibition was also held at London. This was in 1862.

The area occupied was something more than half a million square feet, and the exhibition was a very successful one. The United States were quite well represented and our exhibitors had little cause to complain in the distribution of awards.

Five years later came the Paris exposition, in some sense the greatest triumph ever achieved by the late Emperor of the French. It can never be known how far Napoleon III. was influenced, in proposing this great plan, by a desire to acquire "victories of peace" for himself and for the French people, and how far by the necessity which he undoubtedly felt, even then, of taking every possible method of distracting the attention of his people from the schemes of domestic enemies, and from the work in which they were evidently actively engaged—that of fomenting internal dissensions. Bismark, the shrewdest and most skillful statesman and diplomat living, was quietly but not unsuspectingly perfecting his plans for the humiliation of France and the "unification" of Germany, and for the creation of a new empire; and the French Emperor could not but be fully aware that France would require perfect unity and all her strength to command success in what he must have known to be an irrepressible conflict.

Thus the Paris exposition preceded the French and German war of 1870, as the World's Fair, at London, in 1851, preceded the war of the Crimea of 1854.

It was a wonderful display of the manufactures and productions of the world. It covered an area of a million and a half square feet, and every civilized country on the face of the globe was well represented, while even the most distant islands of the Pacific and the most barbarous tribes visited by either missionary or trader, in the "utmost parts of the earth," contributed rude weapons or yet ruder domestic utensils and industrial implements.

America distinguished herself at Paris as she had never done before. The American section was not remarkable for its extent, but our most important manufactures and productions were well represented, and our exhibition of labor-saving machinery, of machine tools, and of those apparently minor yet really important "notions," which so largely constitute the details of our material civilization, was far more remarkable in variety and in excellence than could have been expected, even by ourselves. The juries acknowledged the preëminence of Yankee ingenuity by the large proportion of awards made to American exhibitors. This exhibition was attended by an officially delegated commission, appointed by the United States Government to report upon the progress of foreign and domestic industry as there presented. The result of the labors of that commission was the production of a valuable series of papers, which were afterward published by the State Department, and which embody a vast amount of precisely such information as the American

people most needed and most desired. The report of Dr. F. A. P. Barnard, upon the machinery and processes which it was his province to examine, is, of itself, a large volume, and contains matter of great value and material which can nowhere else be obtained. The reports of Commissioners Hewitt, Beckwith and others were also of great value, and embodied new and important information relating to their several departments.

The "Grand Exposition of 1867" was Napoleon's last success. The well laid plans of the Prussians were aided by the increasing discontent of the French people, and, in a desperate endeavor to save his shaking throne, the Emperor, while still unprepared, declared war with Prussia. Then the world saw what had seldom, if ever, been seen before. The country from which came the declaration of war was invaded by a better prepared enemy. The war was as short, sharp and decisive as the Austro-Prussian war, which had so lately preceded it, and the victories of the first Napoleon were again avenged, in the misfortunes which accompanied the downfall of the second empire. It has been remarked, and probably with truth, that the weakness of the French and the strength of the Germans were well exhibited in their respective sections in the exhibition of 1867, and that the result of the inevitable war could have been, indeed was, predicted by the careful observer who made even a cursory comparison of their relative exhibits in the arts of both war and peace. As has been well shown by the events of our own late civil war, supremacy in pure science and in the arts of peace gives as great advantage in the contest as superiority in purely military sciences and arts.

The Paris exposition of 1867 revealed, also, to their British, as well as to their French competitors, the fact that the thorough system of technical training which had, for so many years, been kept in operation by the far sighted Teutons was, at last, yielding a splendid return. Even Great Britain was evidently threatened with the loss of her leadership as a manufacturing nation; and the lesson was promptly read, for immediately there arose a powerful movement, in which the great engineer J. Scott Russell took a prominent part, for the establishment, in Great Britain, of technical schools, and for a change of the existing standard curriculum that should enable the student to readily and effectively apply the principles which he had been taught to the useful and telling work of every day life. The Germans have, however, a quarter of a century the lead, and whether British supremacy in manufactures is to be maintained on the Eastern continent remains a doubtful question.

Our own people, while teaching others, were also themselves taught many useful lessons at Paris, the most important being that which the British were so ready to learn. We had already taken some steps in the right direction, and since that time technical, that is to say, in the best sense, practical education has become a subject of paramount interest in the United States. Our venerable institutions of learning are modifying their courses of instruction, in deference to the general demand, and are founding chairs of mechanical and civil engineering, and of applied sciences, while wealthy citizens, in almost every State, are exhibiting a noble patriotism and a real benevolence in applying some portion of their superabundant treasure in the foundation of new technical schools. We owe much, both directly and indirectly, to the Paris exposition of 1867.

Now another international exposition, on a still larger scale, is just taking shape, and the *Welt-Ausstellung* at Vienna, in 1873, promises, in spite of the delays and unfortunate accidents which have attended its opening, to be a far more extensive and complete exhibition of the *matériel* of civilization, from all parts of the world, than was even that of Paris in 1867.

The area assigned for the purposes of the exhibition is over eight millions of square feet, five times that covered by that of the Exposition of 1867. The immense buildings, which have been so well described in earlier issues of the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*, were designed by John Scott Russell, the projector and designer, with Brunel, of that marine monster the Great Eastern. They are not specially remarkable, excepting, always, the colossal dome which rises above the *Industrie-Pallast*, to the height of 250 feet and with a diameter of 118 yards. Of the exhibition itself we shall have much to say when we reach Vienna. Its opening has been attended with unfortunate accidents and delays, and our own department has been particularly unfortunate; but it is to be hoped that all difficulties have arisen at the beginning, and that all will now work smoothly and pleasantly to the end; and that, unlike the great exhibitions which have preceded it, this *Ausstellung* may not be followed by a less peaceful strife among nations.

We have taken passage for Glasgow for our little party, on a steamer which, only a half dozen years ago, was admired as the latest and best on the line. A ship 390 feet long, 33 feet wide, and of 20 feet draft of water, displacing over 3,000 tons and driven by engines of the power of more than 800 horses, was considered then a wonder only excelled by the Great Eastern. Her speed, 10 knots an hour in smooth water, was thought very satisfactory; and accomplishing this with 35 or 40 tons of coal per day was thought an equally successful attempt at economy of fuel. Other steamers, larger and faster, were, even then, afloat, but their success was generally deemed somewhat problematical.

To-day the "crack ship" of the line stands before the public much as did the one just described a few years ago, but how great the change! Her length is over 360 feet, her breadth of beam more than 40 feet, and ship and cargo together, ready for sea, weigh over 6,000 tons. She is driven by compound engines of 1,000 or 1,500 horse power, at a speed of 14 knots, about 16½ statute miles, per hour, and yet con-

sumes but 50 or 55 tons of coal per day. The ship first described cost about \$350,000, the last is worth something over a half million. Larger vessels than even the last are already building and some are afloat in the transatlantic trade, and it seems not at all improbable that the Great Eastern, whose dimensions, if memory serves, are 680 feet long, 80 feet beam, and nearly 30,000 tons displacement, will, before many years, be looked upon as a ship of not at all remarkable size. Even now we think her a slow craft, for she only steams 12 knots at best.

Contrasting these leviathans with John Fitch's steamboat, which was the first to make regular trips, 80 years ago, on the Delaware, a little craft of sixty tons, which paddled along in smooth water between Philadelphia and Trenton at the rate of six miles an hour, and with John Stevens' or with Robert Fulton's boats of a little later date, we can hardly conceive what will be the size, shape, or structure that shall be conjured up when, a century hence, some later Vanderbilt shall paraphrase Longfellow:

"Build me swift, O worthy master,
Staunch and strong, a goodly vessel,
That shall laugh at all disaster,
And with wave and whirlwind wrestle."

R. H. T.

Street Nomenclature.

One of our correspondents, writing from London, says: New Yorkers have substantial reason for exercising their powers of brag over their less fortunate neighbors in the English metropolis in some respects. A stranger in London is continually put to his wits' end not only by the different names given to what is substantially a single street, but by the very obscure manner in which the name of the street is indicated. Starting for a walk in "Leadenhall street," he will not have proceeded far ere a dingy sign on a dingy wall says "Cornhill;" and almost before he comprehends how that can be, another sign tells him that he is in "Poultry," and, without his knowing how, he gets out of Poultry into "Cheapside," and presently the dingy sign says "Newgate street," and next it says "Skinner street." After Skinner street comes "Holborn Hill," and "Holborn," and "High Holborn," and then "Oxford street"—most respectable in length—and after that "Uxbridge Road" and "New Road." And these twelve different names are applied to one long though not very straight street. And so "Marylebone" and "Euston" and "Pentonville" and "City" and "Grand Junction" roads are the several names of another single street. Nor are these exceptions. Go where you will in London, you will find streets that are long enough and bustling enough, but you might grow gray before you could master a knowledge of their names, and then find your lesson but half learned. Woe to him who seeks to thread the mazes of London by night! He cannot, by any device other than dependence upon such chance information, determine the name of the street in which he walks. The street names, dingy by daylight, are now utterly invisible. Could our New Yorkers appreciate the advantage which they enjoy of street names so placed as to be distinctly visible by night as by day, they might derive from it—as a Londoner would say—"no end" of satisfaction.

The Sun Cholera Mixture.

"More than forty years ago," says the *New York Journal of Commerce*, "when it was found that prevention for the Asiatic cholera was easier than cure, the learned doctors of both hemispheres drew up a prescription, which was published (for working people) in the *New York Sun*, and took the name of 'The Sun Cholera Mixture.' Our contemporary never lent its name to a better article. We have seen it in constant use for nearly two score years, and found it to be the best remedy for looseness of the bowels ever yet devised. It is to be commended for several reasons. It is not to be mixed with liquor, and therefore will not be used as an alcoholic beverage. Its ingredients are well known among all the common people, and it will have no prejudice to combat; each of the materials is in equal proportion to the others, and it may therefore be compounded without professional skill; and as the dose is so very small, it may be carried in a tiny phial in the waistcoat pocket, and be always at hand. It is: Tinct. opii, capsici, rhei co., menth. pip., campho.

Mix the above in equal parts; dose, ten to thirty drops. In plain terms, take equal parts tincture of opium, red pepper, rhubarb, peppermint, and camphor, and mix them for use. In case of diarrhoea, take a dose of ten or twenty drops in three or four teaspoonfuls of water. No one who has this by him and takes it in time will ever have the cholera. We commend it to our Western friends, and hope that the receipt will be widely published. Even when no cholera is anticipated, it is an excellent remedy for ordinary summer complaint."

We can fully endorse the remarks of the editor of the *Journal of Commerce* in reference to the excellence of the above remedy. Many years ago, when the office of the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* was in the *Sun* newspaper building, Fulton street, the cholera prevailed to an alarming extent; this remedy was then employed at the *Sun* office for treatment of compositors, pressmen, carriers, newsboys, or whoever happened to be attacked with the disease in the neighborhood, and the number of cases was quite large. The remedy was always used with success if administered in time, and we then formed a high opinion of its value. It is now well known among the druggists here and, by most of them, kept on sale.

A NEW acid, termed acid of alorcine, has been extracted from aloë by M. Weselsky.

Correspondence.

On the Bodies Associated with Biela's Comet.
To the Editor of the Scientific American:

Did the different bodies moving nearly in the orbit of Biela's comet (1826 I) enter the solar system as a single mass, or as a cometary group? The former alternative has been hitherto assumed. The latter, however, may perhaps be found at least equally probable.

The hypothesis of a primitive cluster was proposed, with some hesitation, in *Nature*, May 1, 1873. Let us now consider, somewhat more in detail, the principal facts by which it is supported.

1. It has been shown by M. Hoek, of Utrecht, that certain comets, which have approached the sun singly, existed as cometary systems in the interstellar spaces. Meteors and aerolites are also believed to have sometimes entered the terrestrial atmosphere as clusters. There is, therefore, nothing improbable in supposing the bodies of the Biela group to have been distinct and separate masses before their orbits were changed into ellipses.

2. As there seem to be at least three comets and two meteor clouds now moving in orbits nearly identical, it is highly probable that their united masses would have formed too conspicuous an object to have entirely escaped observation.

3. Was the first comet of 1818, as suggested by Dr. Weiss, connected in its origin with that of Biela, and, if so, can any previous return be identified? The computed elements of the comets, 1772, 1818 I, and 1826 I, are as follows:

Perihelion passage.	1/2 of perihelion.	Ascending node.	Inclination.	Perihelion distance.	Perihelion velocity.	Direction of motion.	Date of discovery.	Discoverer.	Duration of visibility.
1772, Feb. 8	97°21'	263°24'	17°39'	0.9118	0.6769	D	1772, Mar. 8	Montaigne	3 wks
1818, Feb. 7	95°57'	250°47'	20°27'	0.7332	1.0000	D	1813, Feb. 23	Pons	4 days
1826, Mar. 18	109°45'	251°28'	18°33'	0.9025	0.7466	D	1826, Feb. 27	Biela	8 wks

The elements of the first are by Gauss, and were obtained by direct calculation, without any assumption in regard to the period. The observations, however, as well as those of 1818 I, were very imperfect, and hence the elements are liable to considerable uncertainty. The resemblance is so striking as to render it highly probable that the comet of 1818 is intimately related to that of Biela. It is also probable that the comet of 1772, which has been regarded as a former return of Biela's, is really identical with that of 1818. The two dates of perihelion passage correspond to a mean period of 2,400 days. The question may be decided by calculating the perturbations between 1772 and 1806.

4. The comet whose discovery on the 2d of December, 1872, is due to Klinkerfues and Pogson, may be regarded as still another member of the same family. Its perihelion passage occurred nearly three months after the time predicted for that of Biela—a lengthening of the period which it is impossible to explain by any known disturbing cause.

5. When several bodies with slightly different periods revolve in orbits nearly coincident, collisions must sometimes occur between the various members of the group. If Biela's comet overtook, or was overtaken by, another of the same cluster in 1845, their separation after partial impact may have been the phenomenon observed at that epoch. The meteoric showers derived from this zone are the following: 1798, December 7th; 1830, December 7th; 1838, December 5th—7th; 1850, November 29th; 1872, November 27th. These dates appear to indicate the existence of two meteor clouds; the first, third, and fifth showers having been derived from the one, the second and fourth, from the other. The division of the comet may have resulted from its collision with one of these meteoric masses.

6. If we trace back the positions of Jupiter and Biela's comet, we shall find that they were in the vicinity of each other about September, 1734. This is the most recent date, previous to the apparition of 1772, at which they could have been in close proximity. That the members of this cometary cluster were at that time thrown into their present orbits seems probable from the fact that they have not yet become widely separated, as must have been the case if they had made a considerable number of revolutions. It is also worthy of remark that the earliest observed star shower derived from this source occurred less than 80 years since; whereas the meteors connected with the comets 1866 I and 1862 III may be traced back to the nineteenth century of our era.

Bloomington, Ind. DANIEL KIRKWOOD.

Professor Haeckel on Embryology.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

In your issue of June 7, 1873, is a criticism upon Professor Haeckel's investigations concerning the embryology of man. Your correspondent, in his article, says, "certain theories" of Professor Haeckel's; while the Professor, in his article, uses the words "the following facts," etc. It is evident that J. L. has not a right understanding of the Professor's ideas, or, if understanding them, has an utter want of toleration. The Professor says nothing of "forming quorums, or nominating committees." But in a clear and concise manner, he sets forth the results of his investigations. J. L. may be very witty or keenly sarcastic when he speaks of "monkeys and winged individuals clothed with hair or feathers as the case may be," etc. But if he will look at the works of creation, he will find that the immutable laws of Nature invariably grow hair or feathers where "circumstances demand it." But there are exceptions to all rules, and in some cases there is a demand for common sense which Nature has failed to supply.

There must be evidence before belief, and there must be scientific investigation into the unknown, theory, before facts

can be established. It does not follow that scientists do not acknowledge the Supreme Being because they do not use His name in every other line they write. The scientific man sees certain actions of the elements around him, which action begins in the yet invisible; and, as it emerges to the vision, it takes the form of man or monkey, according to the combination of the element producing the form visible. In the investigation, the scientist finds that everything in Nature works harmoniously. And because he will not deny what he can see, and look for the cause of causes, which he might do *ad infinitum*, J. L. flies to the rescue of theology, evidently thinking that of more importance than a right understanding of the laws of creation, through which knowledge, only, can we ever have a correct understanding of our being and our Creator. If every scientific investigator on the globe were to acknowledge God as the prime cause of all created things, it would not strengthen their deductions in the least, or give the facts any firmer foundation.

The cell theory has been under investigation for fifty years, by learned men of all countries; and such investigation has established the fact that all matter is made up of cells or atoms. In the last few numbers of your paper, it has been conclusively shown by our honored Agassiz that the cell theory is correct.

One glance through a good microscope ought to convince the most skeptical. It is possible that J. L. might become an unreasonable person should he look through the microscope and see what the investigations of fifty years have brought to light. I have read of an instance where a person (I suppose "reasonable") refused to look through a telescope, lest he should see what he had denied to be true. The same spirit has followed the scientific investigator from Galileo down to the present day. All matter is governed by immutable law, and every created form is of necessity formed to suit the circumstances of the thing created; different combinations of the elements producing different forms. J. L. claims that, "if the same elements which form the monkey and plants combine to form man, we should look for the original reasoning power in them." It is claimed by some that man is an epitome of the universe. I should infer from that that all the elements are combined in man. A want of the same combination makes the monkey. The very laws of combination forbid the reasoning man to look for complete reasoning faculties in anything below him; but, in proportion as the elements which make the reasoning faculties are combined with the other elements, these reasoning faculties are observed. There are born human beings that have less reason than monkeys. As all matter is made up from the elements, it is self evident that every form is a combination of certain elements. I have no doubt that the chemist will be able, in the future, to show why such a difference exists between a Daniel Webster and the idiot Emerson, and why the same elements should produce a man or a monkey. In the chemical laboratory, the chemist finds that the same combinations invariably produce the same whole. Common alcohol is composed of C₄ H₆ O₂, while C₄ H₄ O₄ produces acetic acid. Thus an exchange of two parts, between H and O, makes a different body.

I fail to see, in J. L.'s letter, one word of argument, supported by fact, against the facts of Professor Haeckel. In this age of reason, railing at men of science or the expression of thought only serves to bring contempt upon him who indulges in it. J. L.'s article has failed to show even a microscopical proof against the article of Professor Haeckel.

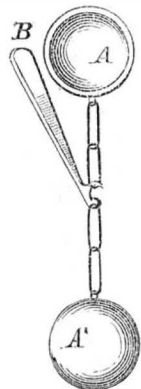
Bridgeport, Conn. A. M. W.

Deep Sea Soundings.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

In your issue of May 31, you describe an invention for deep sea sounding without a rope, made by the brother and nephew of the late Professor Morse, and you add the following remark: "This sounding instrument requires no line, and is, we believe, the first of the kind ever invented."

In 1833, the writer invented and made an instrument, for deep sea sounding, to operate without a line. It consisted of two metallic balls, the one, A, hollow, the other, A', solid. They were each provided with a few links; and to those of the solid ball a lever, B, was attached by which the two balls were readily connected or disconnected. When connected and descending in the water, the long, thin, and broad end of the lever, B, would be raised to a position that would keep the balls connected; but when the solid ball reached the bottom, the lever would fall and disconnect the upper ball, which would return to the surface. The depth would be determined by the time required for the ball to sink and return to the surface. It was my belief that the apparatus would descend at a uniform rate of speed after the first yard or two, and that the light ball would return in like manner. It would only be necessary to know how much time is required for an hundred feet, to know how much would be required for a thousand or ten thousand feet. I experimented with the instrument, so far as I could in a country place, to determine this theory, which I believe to be correct. The invention was noticed at the time by a local paper, the York (Pa.) *Gazette*.



Springfield, Ill.

THE yearly meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, under the presidency of Mr. Joule, takes place at Bradford, England, on the 17th of September next. The American Association, Joseph Lovefield, President, meets at Portland, Maine, August 26th.

SUCCESSFUL LAYING OF THE FIFTH ATLANTIC CABLE.

The submergence of the fifth telegraph cable under the Atlantic ocean was begun on Monday, the 16th of June, 1873, by the departure of the Great Eastern from the coast of Ireland, for Heart's Content, Newfoundland, which port she reached June 27, paying out the cable over her stern as she proceeded. Only eleven days were occupied, during which seventeen hundred nautical miles of telegraph cable were laid. This is rapid work. The experience gained within the past few years in the construction and of laying submarine cables and the facilities afforded by novel machinery, relieves the business of all substantial difficulties. Telegraph cables can now be laid under the ocean with apparently as much ease and certainty as land lines can be erected.

Eleven days is not a long trip for a passenger steamer in crossing the ocean.

The success of the Great Eastern suggests the possibility of providing our ocean steamers with means of constant telegraph communication with the land throughout their voyages. From day to day, during the recent passage of the Great Eastern, the public was supplied with intelligence of the ship's progress, and this while she steamed along as rapidly as many of the Atlantic steamers are accustomed to do. Is it beyond a reasonable probability that some ingenious inventor will yet discover a method of making an extremely light but strong cable, which any vessel may easily carry and unreel or take up as she sails? We commend the subject to those who are desirous of obtaining fame and fortune by the exercise of their mental comet-seekers in this direction.

The first Atlantic cable was laid down by the British war ship Agamemnon and the American ship Niagara in 1858. Each vessel took on board one half of the cable, sailed to mid-ocean, spliced ends, and departed, one for Ireland, one for Newfoundland. The cable was successfully laid, but its construction was defective, and it ceased operation after a few messages had been exchanged.

The second cable was laid by the Great Eastern in 1865; but before the voyage was completed, the cable broke and was lost.

The third cable was laid in 1866 by the Great Eastern with success, and the second cable was, by the same vessel, also picked up and completed.

The fourth or French cable, from Brest in France to Newfoundland, was laid in 1869 by the Great Eastern.

The fifth cable, as already stated, is the one just put down. The cable consists of seven fine copper wires, insulated in gutta percha covered with jute yarn, and sheathed with wire and hemp, which is passed through Clark's silica compound, an excellent preservative.

The Hartford Steam Boiler Inspection and Insurance Company.

The Hartford Steam Boiler Inspection and Insurance Company makes the following report of its inspections in the month of May, 1873:

During the month, 1,044 visits of inspection were made, and 2,165 boilers examined, 2,024 externally and 910 internally; 210 were tested by hydraulic pressure. The number of defects discovered in all was 973, of which 210 were regarded as dangerous. The defects in detail were as follows:

Furnaces in bad condition, 38—4 dangerous; fractured plates, 68—37 dangerous; burned plates, 51—14 dangerous; blistered plates, 174—32 dangerous; deposit of sediment, 161—18 dangerous; incrustation and scale, 141—19 dangerous; external corrosion, 63—13 dangerous; internal corrosion, 28—13 dangerous; internal grooving, 33—4 dangerous; water gages defective, 28—4 dangerous; blow-out defective, 12—4 dangerous; safety valves overloaded, 21—16 dangerous; pressure gages defective, 167—13 dangerous; boiler without gages, 1—dangerous; deficiency of water, 11—6 dangerous; braces and stays broken, 46—14 dangerous; boilers condemned as unsafe to use, 10; mud drum condemned, 1.

Hiram Powers.

The most celebrated of contemporary American artists, Hiram Powers, died at his residence in Florence, Italy, on June 27, aged 68. He was a native of Woodstock, Vt.; and, believing in his own ability as an artist, he quitted a mechanical trade and obtained an appointment at a museum at Cincinnati, where he remained seven years. By the liberality of Mr. Nicholas Longworth, he was enabled to travel to Florence to study; and his career there was first signalized by the production of his statue of "Eve," a work which at once placed him in the front ranks of the world's genius. His "Greek Slave," exhibited at the London Exhibition of 1851, is probably the best known of his works, not only for beauty of expression, but for the vivid animation with which the marble was endowed. His productions are numerous, and have been eagerly sought for by the art patrons and amateurs of both worlds.

Mr. Powers was also an ingenious inventor. Among other devices produced by him was a sculptor's file, in which were arranged, between the serrated cutting edges, holes through which the marble dust could pass away so as not to clog up the tool.

A COLORADO paper gives a very graphic account of the descent of Clear Creek, through the cañon, with its cliffs two to three thousand feet high, by a couple of boys in an open boat. They are reported to have made a distance of one hundred and forty miles in two hours' time, shooting over falls and rapids of from ten to sixty feet in height, finally bringing up safe on a sand bar, with the boat half full of water.

IMPROVED PORTABLE DUMPING CAR.

Our illustration represents a recently invented portable dumping car, which possesses the advantages of simplicity, capacity, and ready facility of transportation. It is adapted to carrying earth from excavations, or for the building of embankments, or any similar purpose necessitating the carriage of material from one locality to another.

The containing portion is constructed to hold one cubic yard of earth, and is pivoted, by central lugs upon its ends, to the slotted metal extremities of the bolsters, A. Attached to either end of the receptacle is a segmental shaped bar or plate, BB, which passes through a guide, C, on the bolster, and is secured therein, holding the car in an upright position by means of a pin. The bolsters are attached to the quadrilateral frame, which is supported upon trucks, and has handles formed upon the ends of its two longitudinal bars. Suitable metal braces, D D, extending from the cross piece to the bolsters, are provided to insure strong construction. The trucks are designed to carry the device over ordinary portable rails which may be laid down wherever desired.

In using the apparatus, a large number of cars may be coupled together, by the hooks shown, and drawn by a single horse, their light construction and small weight enabling a great quantity of material to be thus transported. From any point on the route the car may be lifted from its track, by hand, by the aid of the handles, and thus carried bodily to any required locality. To dump the load, it is only necessary to withdraw the pins which confine the curved bars, B, when the body is readily pushed over on its pivots to either side of the track into the position shown by the dotted lines. The lower portion of the receptacle, when thus turned, rests against and is supported by one side of the bolsters.

Patented April 15, 1873. For further particulars address the inventor, Mr. Henry J. Peters, Box 253, Quebec, Canada.

THE TANITE COMPANY'S EMERY GRINDER "E."

This is claimed to be the largest, heaviest, and most solid emery grinder yet put on the market, which, while running such large wheels, attains proper speed without jar or tremor. The special advantage due to the use of large wheels is illustrated in the engraving, which shows wheels 24 inches in diameter, with a stove rest across the side of one of them. This use of a long rest across the side of a wheel of large diameter enables the workman to accurately edge on square large plates or long bars. The rest arms, the reversibility of which is shown in the engraving, allow of the rests having unusual variation in height.

The feature which especially distinguishes the Tanite Company's emery grinder "E," from others is that the frame, instead of being composed of one solid casting, consists of two side frames, strongly arched, and connected by heavy iron bolts. This allows of the machine's being constructed of any desired width. The grinder is made in various forms—to carry one wheel, centerhung, two wheels overhung, five or more large wheels hung between boxes, and also with side frames set four feet apart, wheels so separated that two men can use the same machine at once, handling large stove or other plates without interference. This device is manufactured by the Tanite Company, Stroudsburg, Pa.

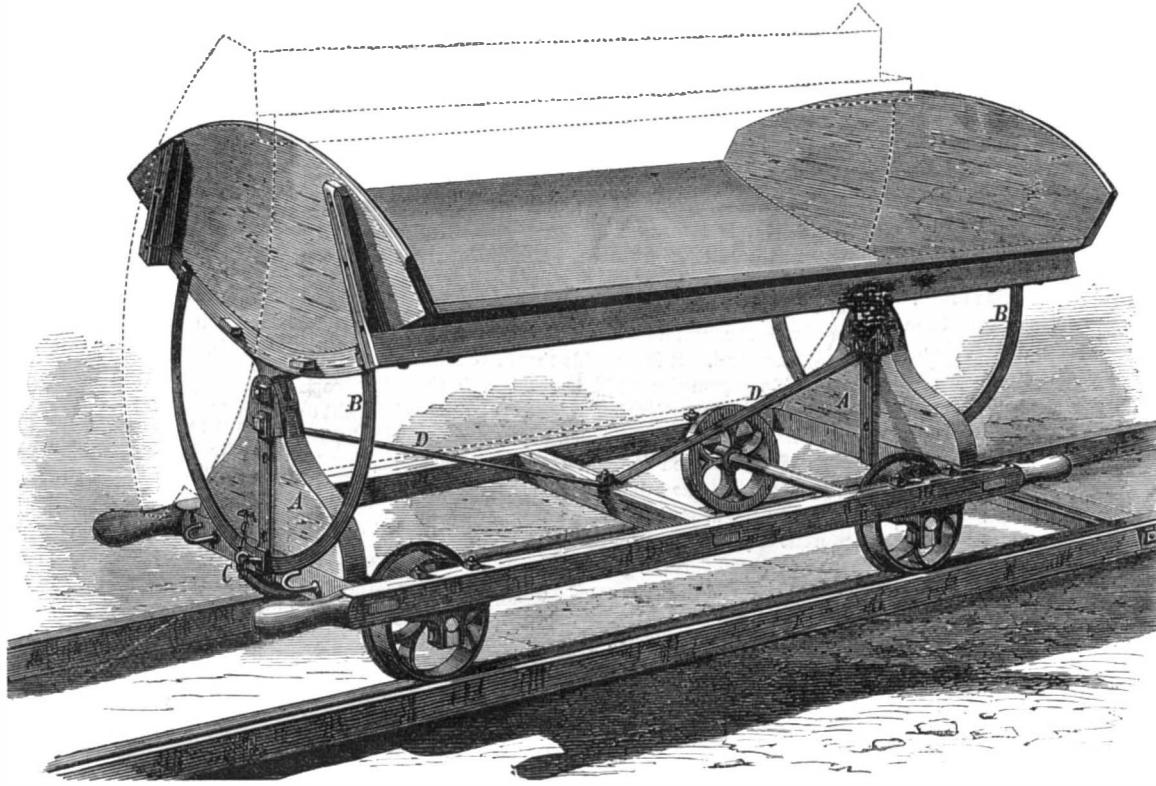
Overhead Telegraph Cables.

One of the things which attract the attention of a New Yorker visiting London is the telegraph cable stretched over the roofs of the houses in many directions. There are few of the single wires which are so common in New York, and none of those street nuisances the telegraph poles. Many wires are packed together with insulating material, and thus formed into a cable; but as the wires are slender (and presumably of copper), and the insulating material is soft, the cable requires support at short distances. To this end a steel sustaining wire is first put up, and from this the cable is suspended.

Experiments with Ice.

If two lumps of ice be pressed together, they will be welded at their points of contact. Faraday having communicated this observation to Tyndall, the latter took a hollow steel cylinder, put in some snow, which he compressed with

a piston fitting tight, and thus obtained a cylinder of transparent ice. In the same way two pieces of solid ice, if subjected to pressure in a mold of any shape, will come out in that precise form. Professor William Thomson explains this by saying that by pressure the points in contact are liquefied, that the water thus produced has rendered latent a portion of the caloric of the surrounding ice, whereby the temperature falls below zero; and that, consequently, as soon as the pressure ceases, this water freezes again. Both M. Helmholtz and Professor Tyndall accept this explanation; only the latter finds it so far insufficient that it does not

**PETERS' PORTABLE DUMPING CAR.**

take into account the air contained in the water. He also describes the following experiment of his: Having put a lump of ice into hot water, he submerged it by pressing it down with another piece of ice. Notwithstanding the all but infinitesimal pressure exercised, the two lumps instantly froze together. Again, it is well known that two floating bodies wetted with water will attract each other. Now, if they be two lumps of ice swimming on hot water, they will join and coalesce at once. When the bridge thus formed

also furnishes a material for the manufacture of cord and various tissues. Attempts made to grow cotton have succeeded, but for some reason have not been continued, the inhabitants preferring to purchase their fabric of this substance from English makers. Wool is probably the staple article of Moorish commerce, amounting to one quarter of the entire export of the country. The best varieties are those of Dar-El-Berda and Rbat, where the French have a monopoly of the industry. Seventy to eighty dollars per 2,200 pounds is the usual selling price of the best wool, of which, with the exception of that used for making the magnificent carpets for which Moorish looms are celebrated and the "haik" or Arab cloak, very little is employed in the country.

Goat skins, under the name of "morocco," are exported all over the world, and serve an innumerable variety of purposes. Within the country, they are employed solely in the manufacture of the peculiar shoes of the people. The skins are sold principally during the months of May and November at from 3 to 6 dollars a dozen, according to size.

Leeches, for medical uses, are largely found in ponds between Tangier and Rbat. They are in color either green or black, the latter selling at six dollars and the former at five dollars per thousand; they are forwarded to the markets in boxes of wet sand, containing five thousand each.

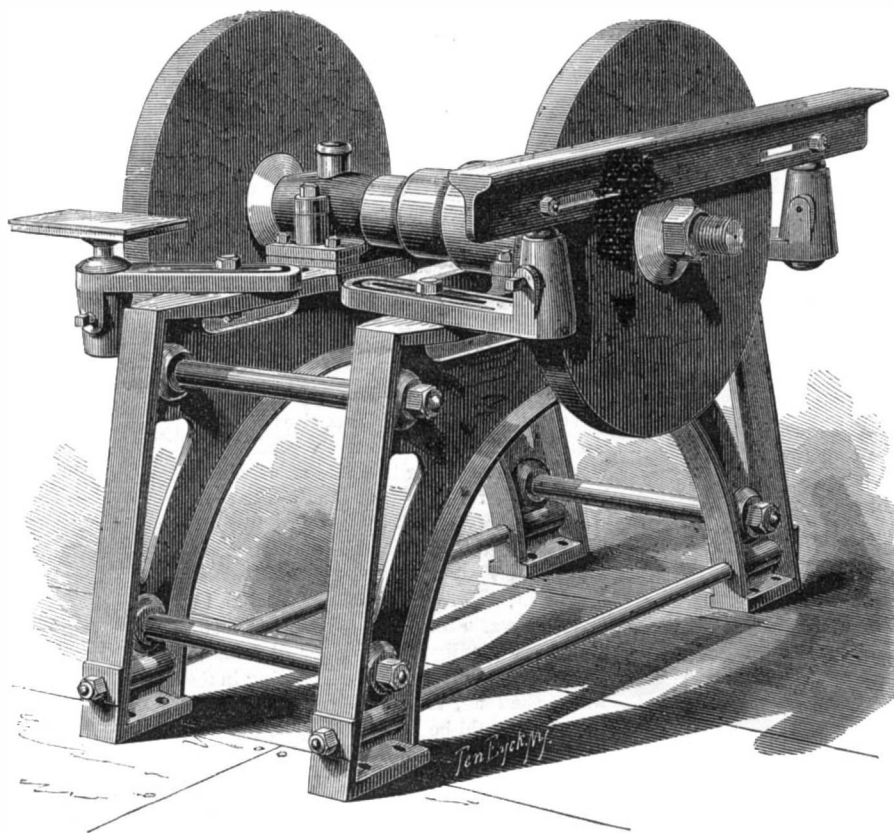
The remainder of the productions of the country include ox hides, wax, honey, and ostrich feathers, about a quarter of a million dollars worth of the latter being yearly sold at Mogador.

The Dead Preserved like Wax.

The Brunetti method for the preservation of the dead consists of several processes: 1. The circulatory system is cleared thoroughly out by washing with cold water till it issues quite clear from the body. This may occupy two to five hours. 2. Alcohol is injected so as to abstract as much water as possible. This occupies about a quarter of an

hour. 3. Ether is then injected to abstract the fatty matters. This occupies two to ten hours. 4. A strong solution of tannin is then injected. This occupies for imbibition two to ten hours. 5. The body is then dried in a current of warm air passed over heated chloride of calcium. This may occupy two to five hours. The body is then perfectly preserved and resists decay. The Italians are said to exhibit specimens which are as hard as stone and retain the shape perfectly and are equal to the best wax models.

A more simple form of preparation for injection, well suited for anatomical purposes, consists of glycerin, 14 parts; soft sugar, 2 parts; nitrate of potash, 1 part. It is found that, after saturation for some days in this solution, the parts become comparatively indestructible, and change neither in size nor figure.

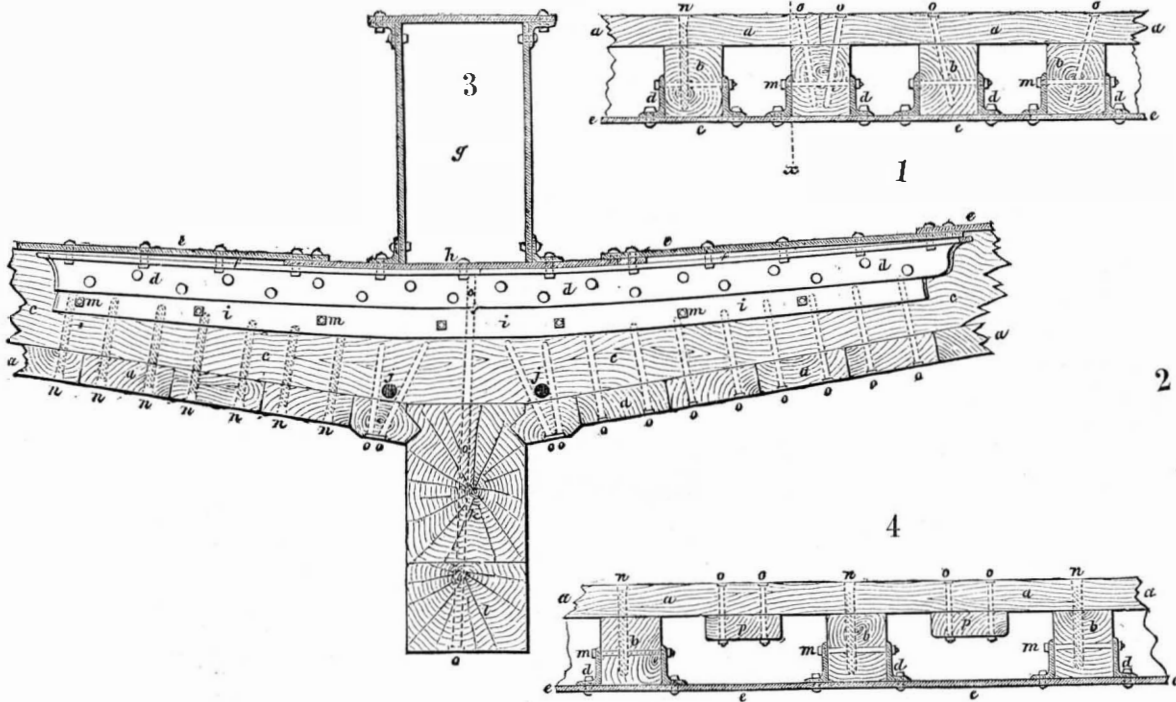
**THE TANITE COMPANY'S EMERY GRINDER "E."**

has melted away, they will again separate, then meet and freeze together again, and so on, as long as there is any ice left. He concludes with mentioning an experiment made by M. Duppa, the upshot of which is that ice may be pressed into any shape—that of a statuette, for instance; a plaster cast may then be taken of it; and when the ice has melted away inside, there remains a hollow mold into which any metal may be poured. Professor Helmholtz replies that the non-conducting property of ice is an objection to the supposition that the caloric set at liberty by pressure can spread into the ice, and that great obscurity still prevails on the question.

The price of nails, by the keg, has lately fallen from \$5.50 to \$4.75.

COMPOSITE SHIP CONSTRUCTION.

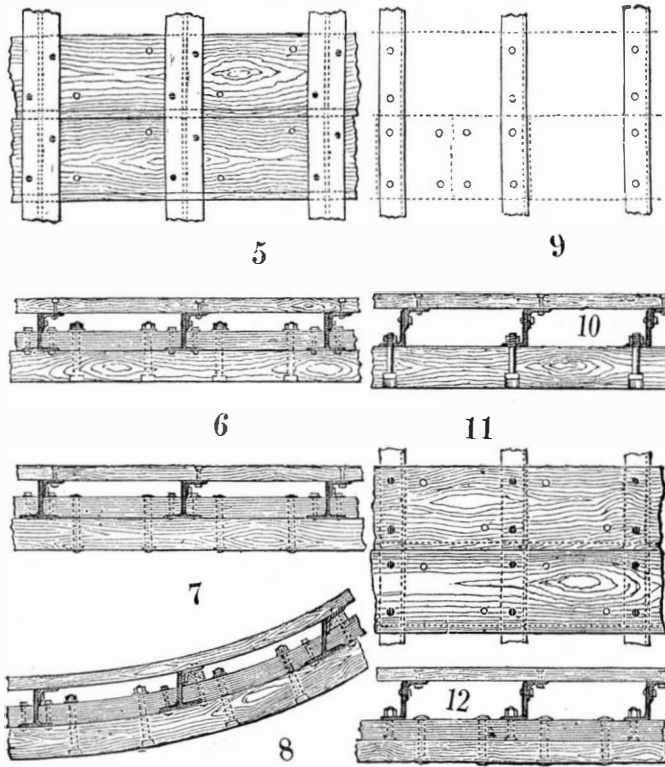
Having already presented a brief outline of the process of iron ship construction, extracted from the pages of Wilson's "Ship Building," recently published by Messrs. John Wiley & Son, of this city, we again revert to the same work for the following interesting particulars regarding the construction of vessels on the composite system. The chief object of this method is to combine the strength of the iron ship with the capacity of being coppered afforded by the wooden vessel. Special attention is required to see that the iron is completely insulated or cut off from electrical communication with the copper used in the structure; and owing to the difference in the expansion of wood and iron by heat, it has been found best to make all pieces which lie fore and aft of wood, and all those resting athwartships, vertically or diagonally, of iron.



McLAIN'S METHOD OF COMPOSITE SHIP BUILDING.

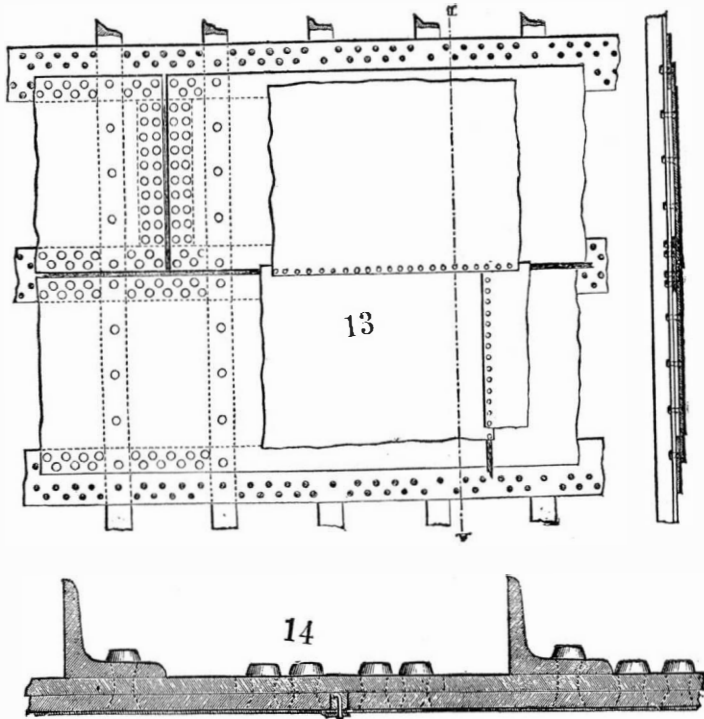
JORDAN'S SYSTEM

of composite ship building is that most generally practiced. The whole outer skin, including keel, stem, sternpost, and



SCOTT'S METHOD OF CONSTRUCTING COMPOSITE SHIPS.

planking is of wood, arranged as in the skin of an ordinary wooden ship, and the framework inside is of iron. The bolts fastening skin and frames together are of galvanized iron, and their outer ends are countersunk in holes of such a depth that the iron bolts can be electrically insulated from the copper sheathing by plugging the holes with pitch or other suitable non-conductor.



DAFT'S CONSTRUCTION AND SHEATHING OF IRON SHIPS.

MCLAIN'S SYSTEM

differs from the foregoing in that the keel, stem, sternpost, frame, and outer plating of the ship are the same as those of an ordinary wooden vessel, but instead of the ceiling or

GRANTHAM'S METHOD OF SHEATHING IRON SHIPS

is as follows: Outside the iron skin are riveted angle iron ribs, the projecting flanges of which are dovetail in section. The inner skin is coated with pitch, and the spaces

between the dovetail flanges are filled by packing and wedging into them short pieces of plank. The outside ribs, with their wooden filling, rise to a short distance above the water line, and the upper edge of the filling is guarded by a longitudinal angle iron. The outer surface of the filling having been payed with pitch, a complete wooden sheathing, about one and a half inches thick, is put on and fastened to the filling pieces with mixed metal nails, which should not pass through those pieces. This is also pitched and afterwards sheathed with copper or mixed metal in the usual way, care being taken to keep the metal sheathing two or three inches from any ex-

posed piece of iron. inside planking being composed of wood, it is constructed of iron, united all round at the bottom and ends of the structure, and made thoroughly water-tight, forming a complete inner skin.

Figs. 1, 2, 3, and 4 are sections of a composite vessel built on this principle. *a a a* is the outer wooden packing, *b* the frame timbers, *c* wooden flooring inserted between the frames, *d* the angle iron frames riveted all round to the outside of the iron ceiling, *e*. Fig. 1 is a horizontal section of broadside, Fig. 2 a vertical section of the same at *x*, Fig. 3 a transverse section of keel, etc., and Fig. 4 a horizontal section of the broadside.

SCOTT'S SYSTEM

consists in making the frames of T iron instead of angle iron, all fore and aft the ship. Being stronger they are consequently spaced further apart. Between the frames are fitted chocks of teak bolted with iron bolts and caulked throughout. Over these chocks and over the frames is wrought the outside planking, which is fastened, as shown in the engravings, Figs. 5 to 8, by brass bolts, which pass through the chocks and planking. With existing appliances, the frames fore and aft are somewhat more difficult to set to the figure of the ship than frames of angle iron; but, on the other hand, the number of frames to be set is less than in the ordinary method of building composite ships. Thus in a vessel 200 feet long, the num-

ber of frames would fewer by at least twenty. Fig. 8 shows the construction in an extreme case, and Figs. 9 to 12, referring to other systems, are added for the purpose of comparison.

DAFT'S METHOD OF SHEATHING IRON SHIPS,

with copper, mixed metal, or zinc, is as follows: The inner layer of the iron skin consists of narrow strips of plate merely wide enough to make lap joints with the outer layer, and to leave a groove, between the edges of each pair of outer plates, about as wide as the plates are thick. Into this groove is placed a filling of teak or ebonite, a compound of india rubber and sulphur. Outside the plating is a layer of tarred felt about one quarter of an inch thick, upon which the sheathing is laid and fastened with sheathing nails of the same metal, driven through the felt into the fillings. Intermediate fastenings are obtained, if required, by inserting ebonite plugs into holes drilled in the iron plates and driving sheathing nails into them.

Fig. 13 shows this arrangement, the black lines being the filled portions between the plates. Fig. 14 is an enlarged section through a sheathing nail.

Fig. 15, 16, and 17 show different sections of a vessel thus sheathed.

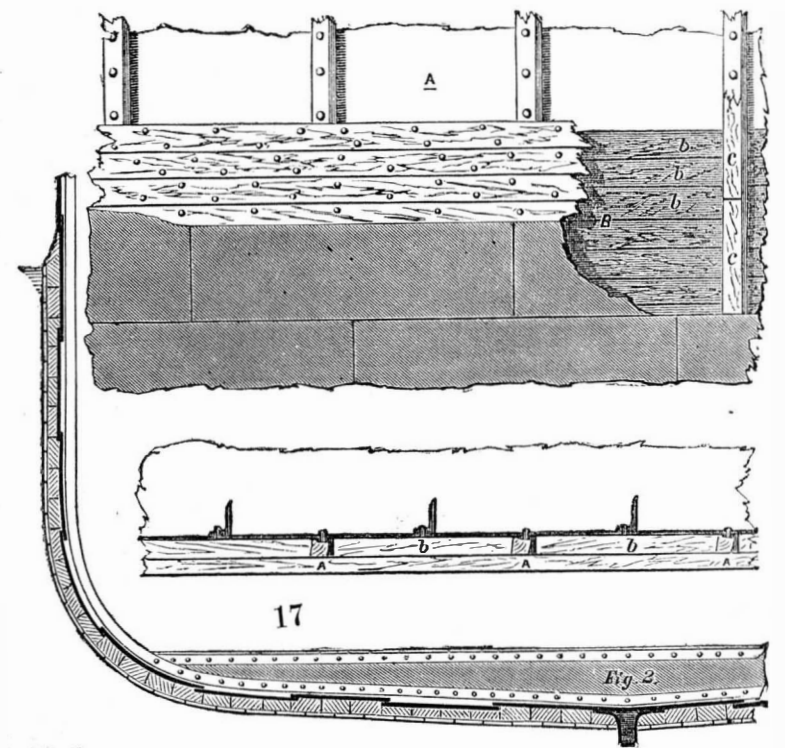
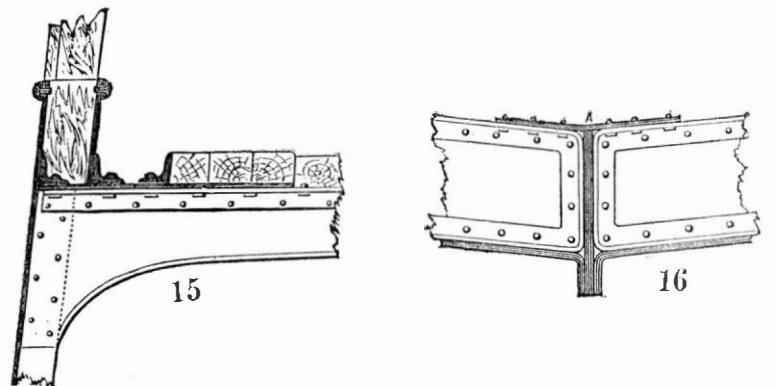
Domestic Economy of Fuel.

Captain Douglas Galton, in an interesting article in the *Journal of the Society of Arts*, calls attention to the need of new inventions in devices for cooking, whereby the great waste of fuel now experienced in the best of our stoves and ranges may be prevented.

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GRANTHAM'S METHOD OF SHEATHING IRON SHIPS.

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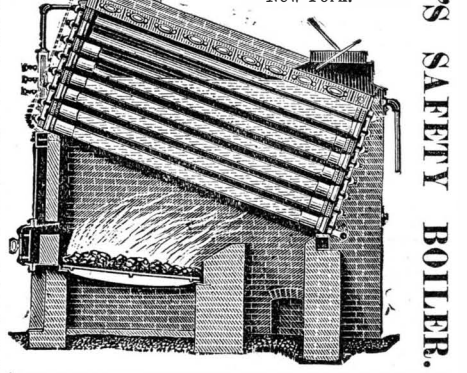
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