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NEW YORK, SEPTEMBER 23, 1876.

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IMPROVED STONE-SAWING MACHINERY.

Since the discovery of the bort carbon, or black diamond, much skill and a vast amount of energy and capital have been expended to render it of practical value to manufacturing industries. It has long been known to scientists as one of the hardest substances in Nature; and it has been, and is still, used by lapidaries in cutting and polishing other precious stones, even the white diamond. It has also given aid to industrial science in improving the diamond drill, and more recently to the mechanic arts, in giving us new cutting tools for use on substances on which iron and steel were useless. But while its value for cutting hard substances, especially stones of various texture and density, has been known and appreciated, its practical utility has been impaired by a difficulty in harnessing it, that is, holding it securely for effective use. A large amount of inventive skill, time, and money has been expended in the attempt to accomplish this, with more or less success; but the attempts were generally entire failures, especially the attempts to saw and work stone. The records of the Patent Office, within the last ten years, show the various modes and appliances to this end; and the invention of Mr. Branch has been one of the most practical successes among all such machines.

The circular saw, taking into consideration its unlimited capacity in sawing lumber, was considered by most inventors as the one to which the diamond could best be applied for sawing stone. Mr. Branch's first patent, dated June 8, 1869, was for the insertion of the diamond into a steel or iron holder made in two parts, with recesses for the diamond, and provided with soft metal cushions for the diamond to rest in. These holders were then dovetailed into the edge of the saw disk, and compressed, by a wedging device, the diamond into the soft metal. This saw was a success so far as the cutting was concerned, but the diamond could not be held securely for practical work, and the project was abandoned. Others have attempted improvements on this by brazing the diamonds into iron or steel holders; but the results were no better. The soft metal cushions would yield to the pressure of the work, and the centrifugal velocity of the saw would throw the diamond away. Some inventors, seeing these apparently unconquerable difficulties, regarded the circular saw as impracticable; and attempts were made to apply the diamond teeth to the sash or reciprocating saw, claiming for it greater capacity in the sawing of large blocks. While this merit may be conceded to a limited extent, the reciprocating saw is not equal to the circular saw, either in quantity or quality of work performed; while the risk of losing the diamond was in no wise lessened, except by the use of a sieve or cage to catch the recreant diamond, so that it might be again reset, to be again, as before, thrown out.

Mr. J. W. Branch, the inventor of the machine herewith illustrated, claims to have achieved the secure holding of the diamond in steel or iron holders, without the dubious aid of soft metals, and his Stone Monarch, as he calls this sawing machine, gives the circular saw the same prominence in relation to the stone-working industry as in that of wood-working.

The peculiar manner of inserting the diamond into holders, and these holders into the saw disks, is fully described in letters patent dated August 31, 1875; and the chief merit

of this invention is the perfect security given to the diamond under any velocity whatever. The diamond holders are simple in construction (Fig. 2), and are furnished either in the saws completed, or in duplicate, so that any that may become faulty, by undue pressure or otherwise, may be renewed or replaced. They can be inserted into the saw by any practical mechanic, if the saw in other respects be perfect, without his having the skill to set the diamond.

The mode of applying water for lubricating the saws in work, and washing away the grit and dirt, is novel, and is peculiar to these machines. The water is conducted through the center of the mandrel into chambers, and through radial orifices, A, in the saw collars on each side of the saw, causing the water to impinge upon the saw blade, and to be, by the centrifugal force, conducted to the cut. This effects three results: 1. Keeping the journals of the mandrel cool. 2. Keeping the saw cool and even in temperature, preventing all undue expansion. 3. Cleansing the saw from all grit and dirt produced in sawing.

The machinery for conveying the stone is perfectly under

without complication; and a large proportion of work required for building can be finished, ready for erection, without the aid of the rubber or hand labor. The saws, moreover, run at the periphery at an average velocity of 10,000 feet per minute, which effects great rapidity and perfection in cutting stone: the difference being due to the variable density of the stone to be cut, varying from 1 to 36 inches per minute, or per 10,000 feet run of the saw. The ordinary freestones and sandstones are sawn by these machines at the rate of from 6 to 36 inches per minute, and marble and limestones at from 3 to 18 inches per minute, or an average from 200 to 800 feet per day, making due allowance for handling of stone.

The manufacturers, Messrs. Branch, Crookes & Co., have on exhibition at the Centennial (section A 16 and 17, saw mill), two of their diamond circular saw stone machines, with the necessary traveling crane and facilities for handling stone. The two machines have 66 and 20 inch saws respectively. The 66 inch saw contains 84 diamonds, and the 20 inch saw 60 diamonds. These machines are kept in operation, practically illustrating what we have already described; and they attract a great deal of attention from visitors to the Exhibition.

Patented to Joseph W. Branch, under dates June 8, 1869, May 27, 1873, and August 31, 1875. For further particulars and for descriptive circulars, address Branch, Crookes & Co., 114 and 116 Vine street, St. Louis, Mo.

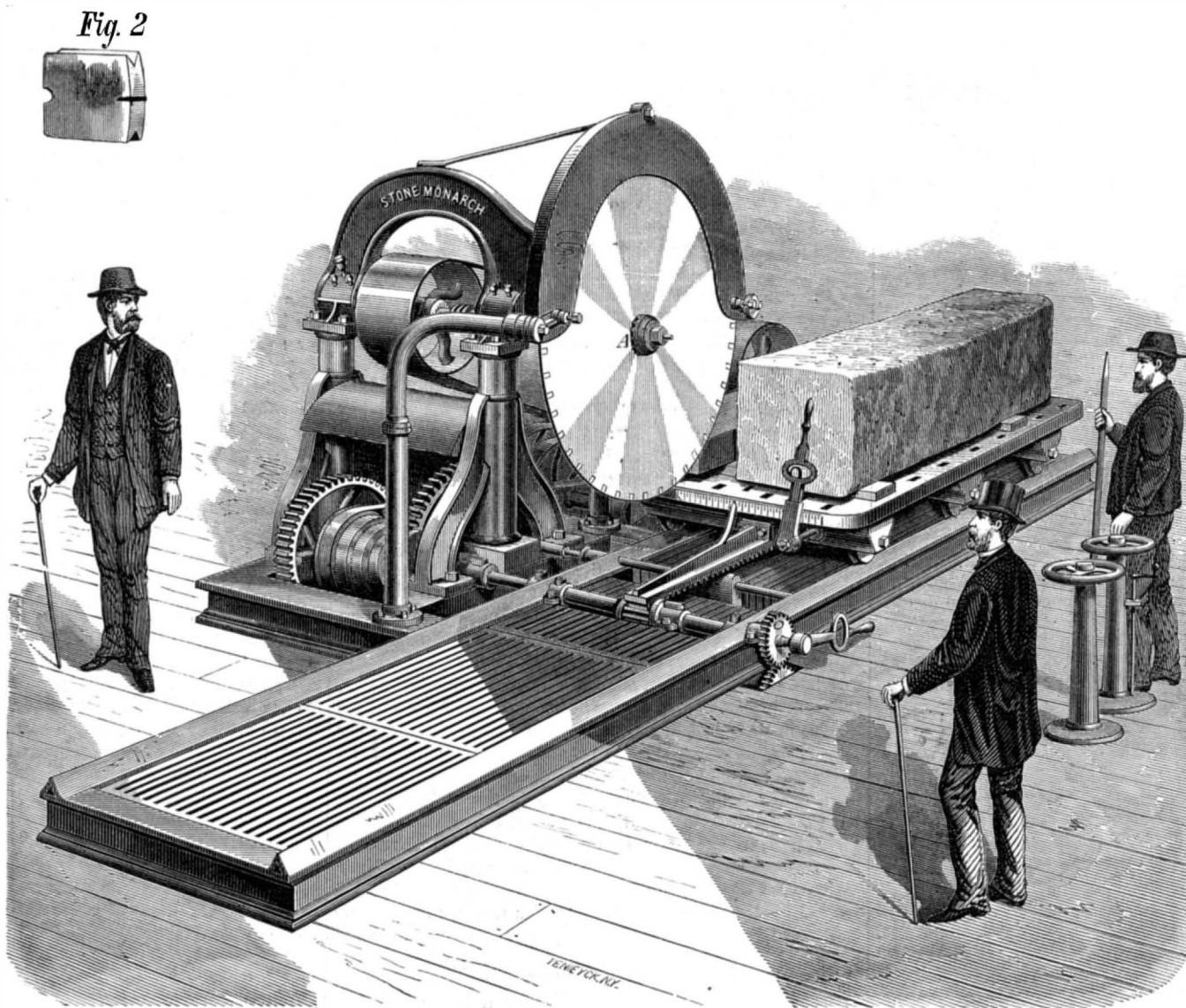
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Melon Sugar.

Andros Island, in the long delta between the rivers Sacramento and San Joaquin, California, belongs to a group of low islands that are submerged at high water, and therefore not fit for culture. But when reclaimed by embankments they are exceptionally productive. Melons are a crop that never fails in this climate, and the factory on Andros Island can get melon juice from a vast area of melon country at small expense for transport. Water melons with white pulp are preferred. They are planted twelve feet apart one way, and the other way six

feet apart. The leaves of the plants cover the ground and kill the weeds before they interfere. Besides, they make an impenetrable mulching, which keeps the soil moist and prevents baking. The melon juice is free from impurities, which make chemistry costly in beet sugar, is much less expensive, and the sirup is delicious. The seeds make oil, and the refuse is good for cattle. Taking account of so many advantages, sugar from melons, though rated at 7 per cent of the weight of the fruit, instead of 8 per cent allowed for beets, costs less to make. The difference may be set down as 5½ cents for melon sugar to 7 cents a pound for beet sugar. In regard to quality, melon sugar is superior. Unless extra care be used, beet sugar is apt to have an unpleasant buggy flavor.

Let it be understood that beets can only succeed in moist, bottom lands. Melons strike deep root, and they grow everywhere on our uplands. No doubt they would thrive luxuriantly in Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland. In the sandy soil of States South, no crop can be more certain, and Baltimore would make a convenient center for supplies of melon sugar works. Our California correspondent states that San Francisco sympathizes with Baltimore, and will keep her advised as to the success of the melon sugar-making industry.—*Baltimore Sun.*



BRANCH'S DIAMOND STONE-SAWING MACHINE

the control of the attendant, and is provided with a simple feeding device, adjustable to accommodate the variable texture or density of the stone to be sawn. The saws are also made adjustable relatively to the depth of cut, either entirely or partially through the block, preserving a straight line at the bottom of the cut, but allowing for moldings, rebates, etc.

The table to carry the stone is placed on a series of rollers set in the carriage, which provides for the easy adjustment of the stone at right angles with the saw, so as to cut off any thickness required. The carriages upon which the table is placed is also provided with rollers, fitted upon parallel V ways, and with a feed rack working upon a feed pinion.

It will be observed that there are no slides, and that the roller bearings and journals are all covered, so that the working parts are not impaired by any accumulation of grit or dirt. The saws are used either over or under the work, but preferably over for sawing large blocks and ashlar, and under for edging, crosscutting, and sawing small dimension stone. This range of use is due to the central application of water; as, by the centrifugal velocity of the saw, the water is always conveyed to the cut. In short, these machines are adapted to meet all the requirements of straight line work,

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TWO PERSONALITIES IN ONE PERSON.

The record books of the medical profession contain not a few reports of patients living double lives: cases in which there is a periodical loss of one phase of mental life and the assumption or resumption of another very different one. For example, an hysterical subject will have a fit, and on coming out of it will be found to have lost all memory of the past. The mental faculties remain unimpaired, but so far as knowledge goes the patient's mind is that of an infant. With more or less delay she will learn to talk, and to read and work, practically beginning life again at the beginning, and sometimes developing a character quite unlike her first one. The physical basis appears to be the same; but the personality is entirely different, with different temperament, different habits, different tastes, and so on.

Matters will continue after this fashion for an indefinite period; and then the patient will go into another fit, emerging just as she was originally. All the life she has lived since the first fit is suddenly wiped out. She can recall none of it; for the time her second life, and it may have lasted years, is annihilated, and the current of her original life flows on as serenely and naturally as if it had never been broken—until another fit sets her back to the end of her second life, which she takes up again in utter unconsciousness of a break in it. And so her existence alternates between two lives entirely distinct and independent of each other, save that the same body serves for both.

Formerly such alternations of consciousness were explained by spiritual or demoniac possession. The body was supposed to be tenanted by two independent spirits; or the patient's soul was from time to time ousted by some other malignant or benevolent soul, as the tempter might indicate. In our more scientific and materialistic days, the spiritual hypothesis has few retainers: the phenomena in question being much more satisfactorily explainable by supposing that the patient's mental life has been carried on wholly or chiefly by one side of her double brain, and that, when the action of that side is arrested by disease, the unused side takes up the intellectual function and continues until another paroxysm shifts the responsibility to the first used side. So the two lives alternate with the alternating functional activity of the two brains: the reason that such lives are always double and never triple or manifold lying in the fact that we have only two independent brain lobes and no more.

The latest case reported of this sort is exceedingly interesting, and peculiar in that there is a loss of continuity in the life only when the state recurs in which the patient's life began. The case is reported at length in the Revue Scientifique, by Professor Azam, of Bordeaux, where the patient lives. The patient is a married woman, now about thirty-four years old, and has been living a double life since she was fourteen years old. For brevity, we will call her first state of consciousness and its repetitions, A, and the second state and repetitions, B.

At first B came on at intervals of days, and lasted for a few hours only. Twice it was absent for three years at a time, from the age of 17½ to 20½, and again from 24 to 27. Latterly she has lived the life of B most of the time, A recurring at intervals of two or three months, and remaining but for a few hours. Formerly the transition occurred during some minutes of unconscious sleep following violent pain in the temples; now it is almost instantaneous. In A, the patient has always been quiescent and somewhat morose in disposition; in B, she has always been bright, gay, and affectionate. In A, she has no memory of events which happen in B; but in B, she has a full recollection of her life in both states—a remarkable peculiarity in her case, as already observed. In B, her distress, on discovering that there have been blanks in her conscious experience, is extreme; but the practical inconvenience of such loss of memory, formerly great, has become less with the predominance of B. On rare occasions on passing out of B, the patient suffers a brief period of agitation and extreme terror, during which her knowledge is somewhat disordered; at other times there is no apparent derangement except such as commonly appears in hysterical patients.

In her passage from B to A (Professor Azam remarks), she does not emerge from a dream, for a dream, however incoherent, is always something. She emerges from nothing. The time elapsed may be an hour, or it may be months, it is all the same to her; an entire section of her conscious life has dropped out. "To compare her existence to a book from which some pages have been torn is not enough. An intelligent reader might fill the blank, but she can have absolutely no notion of anything that happened in her secondary state."

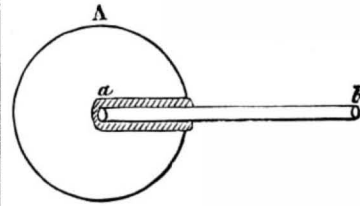
A world of curious problems and complications, social, theological, and other, are suggested by such a case as this. Fancy a person on trial for a crime committed in a previous state of which no recollection remains, with no one aware of the criminal's peculiarity: or a woman to find herself suddenly (to her) surrounded by a family of children, owning her as a mother, yet utterly unknown to her! There is a splendid chance for a sensational novelist. And we should like to hear a convention of clergymen discuss this proposition: Suppose a victim of double consciousness to be a saint in A, and a wretched sinner in B. Her earthly existence terminates in B. Will the two states of consciousness be united by the destruction of the conflicting organs of consciousness? Or will two souls remain, to go to their diverse ways? Again, if there is one, and only one, soul to survive, will it be damned for the sins of B, or saved by the faith that illuminated A?

THERMO-DIFFUSION—A NEW PHYSICAL PHENOMENON

It is a well known fact that gases dilate when heated, unless enclosed in space of invariable volume, in which case the action of the heat is manifested by an augmentation of pressure which increases with the temperature. If the space in which the gas is contained communicates with the air, the heat determines the escape of the gas through the orifice, more or less rapidly, but so that, at a certain instant, if the temperature remain constant, equilibrium will re-establish itself, at which time the pressure of the gas within will be precisely equal to the atmospheric pressure without.

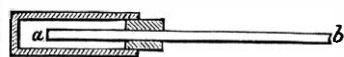
This is easily verified in the following manner: In a block of any porous body (Fig. 1), plaster, for example, a cylindrical cavity is made, in which is introduced and fastened the extremity of an open tube, a b. The outer end of the tube communicates with a manometer. On the block being heated, equilibrium of pressure will be maintained

Fig. 1.



constant, the mercury remaining at a level in the branches of the instrument. A modification of this experiment may be made by substituting for the plaster block a vase of porous earth, such as is used in many galvanic batteries (Fig. 2), which is closed by a pierced cork, through which passes the tube, a b, connecting with the manometer; or instead of

Fig. 2.



using the cork, the tube may be sealed in position by a little plaster. The vessel may remain empty or be filled with pulverulent material; and whatever the form of the apparatus, the results above described will always be the same, provided dry material be always used.

If, however, on the contrary, the material be moist, a new phenomenon presents itself, which, as La Nature states, M. Merget, of Lyons, has recently discovered, and to which he gives the name of "thermo-diffusion." This apparatus is the same as already described, with the difference, however, that the porous vase or block is previously saturated with any volatile liquid. If the device is then submitted to the action of heat, the manometer at once indicates a difference of interior pressure, the augmentation of which depends on the volatility of the liquid, and the temperature reached. By employing a thermo-diffuser, 4½ inches long by 1½ inches in diameter, the interior pressure at the limit of dark red heat has been caused to attain that of 3 atmospheres, or 45 lbs. per square inch. This exists as long as the liquid is not entirely evaporated, but ceases as soon as the evaporation is complete, the mercury at once returning to a level in the manometer, regardless of the temperature present. The conditions described as occurring in the dry vase then resume.

This novel phenomenon may be exhibited in still another way (Fig. 3). The manometer being disconnected from the

Fig. 3.



tube, the end of the latter is plunged in water. As soon as heat is applied, bubbles of gas are disengaged more or less rapidly. This disengagement is ultimately connected with the evaporation of the liquid, and is uniform as long as the evaporation continues regularly, but stops as soon as the latter terminates. M. Merget indicates, as follows, the conditions which determine variation in quantity of the gas given off. For similar thermo-diffusers, unequally moistened, the volume of gas disengaged varies with the proportion of water absorbed; and for different thermo-diffusers, wet to saturation, the volumes obtained have varied around an average of about 40 times the volume of the apparatus employed. The velocity of disengagement, which augments as the heat increases, depends on the extent of thermo-diffusive surface, and varies in like manner. It has reached several hundred cubic inches per minute with large porous battery vases.

M. Merget has likewise established that, in thermo-diffusion, it is the moist porous periphery which is the necessary condition of the phenomenon, and not the difference in hygrometric states of the gases. Two saturated thermo-diffusers were placed under entirely dissimilar conditions, one being located in a thoroughly dry exterior atmosphere, and a wet sponge being placed in the interior of the apparatus, the other having highly heated quicklime within, so that in such a case its interior air might be completely dry. Both, being submitted to a feeble calorific radiation, gave sensibly the same disengagement of gas. If the state of dryness or humidity were the cause of the observed phenomenon, it necessarily would follow in the experiment that the currents of gas would be in inverse direction, which was not the case. Still, even with this fact of the porous vase being a prime necessity established, we are yet without a satisfactory explanation of the discovery. It can only be pointed out that the circumstances may play an important part in certain natural phenomena. After studying the gaseous exchanges between vegetation and the atmosphere, M. Merget concludes that a plant should be regarded as a moist and porous system, possessing the thermo-diffusive activity proper to all similar systems under elevation of temperature.

The leaves of aquatic plants, from this point of view, have considerable activity, and the quantity of gas introduced in the plant may reach 30 cubic inches per minute. A leaf having a long petiole (that of the nuphar, for exam-

ple) was placed in air, while the free extremity of the petiole was placed considerably beneath the surface of water in a test tube. The apparatus being submitted to solar rays, nearly pure atmospheric air passed rapidly under the tube. This took place as if the leaf were a natural thermo-diffuser; and the phenomenon is purely physical in character. The respiration of animals may also be a similar phenomenon; but this has not been sufficiently demonstrated to warrant an affirmative assertion.

The facts of M. Merget's discovery are interesting both from a physical point of view, and in that they tend to explain effects of which the causes are as yet undetermined. They go to show, besides, the mutual interdependence of sciences, the domains of which formerly appeared absolutely distinct.

PRACTICAL INFORMATION FOR PRACTICAL MEN.

The leading article of the *Journal of the Franklin Institute* for August begins with the positive assertion that the general idea that practical information, useful to a practical man, can be made interesting or instructive to the ordinary reader is an altogether erroneous one. And after a six-page amplification of this discouraging thesis, based on the half century's experience of the *Journal*, the writer closes with the sweeping remark that there is an incompatibility, now and for all time, between practical and popular information.

Bearing in mind the warning of an American humorist: "Don't never prophesy unless you know": we would not venture to contradict the *Journal* with regard to the possibilities of "all time," but for the time that now is, we do not hesitate to say that there is no such incompatibility. And further, an expression of thirty years in trying to meet the popular demand for practical information has given us an abiding conviction that, as in the past, so in the future, in a yearly increasing degree, practical information useful to practical men will more and more be desired by intelligent readers; and the success of periodicals devoted to Science and the arts will hinge more and more—as scientific thinking increasingly prevails—upon their presenting promptly, clearly, and sensibly the very information which the *Journal* asserts to be so essentially unpopular, that is to say, practical information really and truly considered. The impossibility of making attractive to the general reader the stuff which the *Journal* describes as alone worthy of that title, we should not think of doubting. The *Journal* has sufficiently demonstrated that it cannot be done. We doubt whether it could be done even for the ludicrously limited class of men to whom the *Journal* would apply the term practical; in its own words, a few specialists, each of whom "must have acquired, in the course of his practice in some particular direction of knowledge, enough to have compelled him to have learned its 'science,' regularly and methodically, to have investigated by his reasoning faculties and founded himself upon principles and not on half-comprehended facts."

The definition is not very grammatical nor very clear; but we gather from it, and from subsequent remarks, that the practical man must not only be a specialist in scientific investigation, but one so furnished with all that has been accomplished in his particular department that no information can be practical to him unless it is wholly original and presented along with the most thorough and elaborate reasoning and formulæ that may be required for its support and demonstration. "It is the progress and advance of the arts and sciences, not the arts and sciences themselves, that the practical man needs information about;" and the method approved for the presentation of such additions to "practical" knowledge is the driest and most elaborate possible, albeit the investigation is "tedious," the discussion "recondite," and the concluding results "unintelligible, almost incomprehensible, to any others than practical men in an extremely limited kind of practice."

It is not surprising that the *Journal* finds an incompatibility between such information and popularity: but it is surprising to find an editor of intelligence coolly assuming that such information exhausts the limits of the practical, and that no man deserves to be called practical who does not delight in it. The position is sufficiently absurd to be grotesque.

WORKMEN AND THEIR INSTRUCTORS.

A hammer and a chisel are two very simple tools, and surely it seems there can be no great mystery in the use of two such implements; but a foreign language, or the groundwork of a whole science, can be learned in far less time than it takes to learn to chip a piece of metal an inch long so smoothly upon its surface that the chipping marks cannot be felt. The reason for this difference is simple, and lies in the fact the language or science has teachers who are masters of their subjects, and who make those studies the work of a lifetime; whereas the mechanic has as a rule to work out the whole problem for himself. It is as ridiculous for a man whose ten or fifteen years' experience has included the principles of construction, mathematics, mechanical drawing, etc., to assume to teach that intricate knowledge of manipulation necessary to make an expert workman as it would be for a workman who had spent his leisure time in reading books of science for instruction to attempt to instruct the scientific world; and this would have been made apparent long ago but for the lack of education so common to expert workmen, and but that, so soon as an expert workman attains the knowledge of his trade, and the skill in the use of language which enables him to enter the arena of debate or tuition, he ceases to be a workman and becomes too often a stranger to the workmen's interests. Such a faint concep-

tion of the real value of an unusually expert workman is possessed by employers that, if he possess such a qualification only, his sphere of usefulness is limited to his practice, and he would search the wide world in vain for a means of giving to others the benefits of his skill by imparting to them the minutiae of movements, processes, forms, time, speed, etc., which, combined, form that skill which is best known as manual dexterity. There never has been nor can there ever be a piece of expert workmanship done that was not governed by distinct principles and laws; and the misfortune is that they are to a very great extent unwritten laws. Volumes are written for the edification of the workmen that had better far never have had existence. Can the workman do aught but smile at the statement, given under assumed authority, to the effect that tools for cutting wood can be much harder than for cutting iron, or, to state it better, "tools for cutting wood are harder than those usually employed for cutting iron"? And what are we to think of the advice that "the better way to make a scraper" (for flat surfaces) "is to form it like a Venetian stiletto or a beech nut"?

Not long ago, a statement went the rounds of the mechanical press to the effect that a certain French mechanic had discovered a method of reducing the diameters of the tires of locomotive wheels by a process of partial immersion in water: whereas such was the practice twenty-five years ago, and it has been in common use ever since: principles governing the process, together with its application to wheel tires, having been published, together with an illustration, months before in the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*. Instances of this kind are so numerous that it would take a volume to recite them, nor would the recital bring us any nearer to a solution of the question of how best to impart manual dexterity by means of instruction. Our knowledge of practical mechanics, as commonly applied in our machine shops, is crude in the extreme, and will continue to be so until we have placed within reach of the workman all the intricate knowledge that goes to the very bottom of expert workmanship, which information can only be obtained by practical experiment, made by men chosen by reason of their mechanical skill, under the directions of teachers capable of explaining and formulating the principles and rules governing the practice of the skillful artisan.

BORN SCIENTISTS.

The importance of the innate tastes of an individual being considered in determining the choice of a trade or profession is well shown in Mr. Francis Galton's recent work on the antecedents of English men of science, a volume prepared as a sequel to the treatise on "Hereditary Genius" already reviewed in these columns. Mr. Galton adopted the excellent plan of a well chosen series of questions, which every scientist was requested to answer and return to the sender. One hundred and eighty scientific men were thus questioned, and the replies which most appeal to the thoughtful are those relative to prevalent tastes. We should expect to find a taste for mechanics among the physicists, and such is the case: the same among the mechanicians and engineers. The underlying cause of scientific research may be traced in the repeated mention of the possession of a "desire to know facts," curiously coupled in some cases with a strong repugnance to works of fiction. More interesting, however, is the schedule of influences and motives which urged the various individuals to follow scientific pursuits. Out of 191 people, innate taste for their calling influenced 59; fortunate accidents (generally showing innate taste), 11; indirect opportunities and indirect motives, 19; professional influences to exertion, 24; encouragement of scientific inclinations at home, 34; influence and encouragement of friends, 20; of teachers, 13; travel in distant regions, 8; residual influences, unclassified, 3. The large plurality in favor of innate taste is striking. Now take the various callings: Out of 26 cases of physicists and mathematicians, 12 had an innate taste, 1 no natural taste at all and 7 are doubtful. Of 11 chemists, the taste of 5 was innate, 1 not, and 5 doubtful; of 8 geologists, 7 innate, 1 doubtful; of 24 zoölogists, 17 innate, 3 not, 4 doubtful; of 10 botanists, 8 innate, 1 not, 1 doubtful; of 7 medical men, 2 innate, 4 not, 1 doubtful; of 6 statisticians, 3 innate, 1 not, 2 doubtful; of 5 mechanicians, 2 innate, 3 doubtful.

It is clear from this that a strong and inborn taste for science is both a prevailing and an enduring peculiarity of the persons considered. A fair estimate for Mr. Galton's deductions is that out of every ten men of science, six were naturally gifted with a strong taste for scientific pursuits. Not one person in ten, taken indiscriminately, possessing such an instinct, it follows that its presence must add five fold to the chance of scientific success.

The possession of a special taste for any pursuit is therefore a gift of Nature not to be slighted, and it is in fact something to be seriously studied and its development advanced.

EDUCATED FARMERS.

If we were asked to point out any especial fact as denoting beyond all others our rapid progression in knowledge and in civilization, we should select the strong tendency everywhere manifest to abolish empiricism in all pursuits of life. It is not very long ago that the physician administered his remedies blindly, and knew less of the functions of the heart than does his modern descendant of the spleen and gall bladder. Meteorology, most fickle of all sciences, based as it is on the most changeable of all things, the weather, has within a very few years made marvelous strides; and we are certainly advancing to a point when it will be

as easy to foretell the rain and storm of tomorrow as to remember the fine weather of yesterday. Even cookery is no longer to be the science in which inaccurately compounded ingredients, under constantly varying conditions, are supposed by some pleasant fiction to yield invariable results for has not a college been endowed, to educate our future *chefs de cuisine*? Thumb rules in every trade are now scouted by intelligent working men. The world has shaped itself into a gigantic point of interrogation; "why" is the question of the hour, and faith in things earthly is confined only to those who, like the deluded partisans of Keely and others of his ilk, mistake ignorance of that which is possible for belief in that which is not.

Of all the sciences, none within recent years has so quickly emancipated itself from the fogs of empirical conjecture as that of agriculture. Up to the end of the last century even, people believed that air, water, oil, and salts were the sources of plant nutrition. Wallerius, Bergmon, Palissy, Davy, De Saussure, and Sprengel contributed discovery after discovery, investigation after investigation, but their work was scattered and little known outside their laboratories. It was reserved for the genius of Liebig to unite all these fragments of truth; but it was not until 1840 that he produced his great work "Chemistry in its Application to Agriculture and Physiology," and thus gathered in concrete form the materials which are the basis of a now great and rapidly growing science. It is hard to realize that agricultural chemistry has found its application for but 26 years, so clearly are its benefits before us in tangible form. But on the other hand, this only serves to indicate to us how vast must be the results yet to come, when agriculture, through the instrumentality of its knowledge, shall have become in its turn as exact as its sister sciences, and as susceptible of being taught and learnt in the same manner as they. And to attain this much desired end, our schools and colleges, under the guidance of far-seeing men, are doing splendid work.

The youngest of our universities, Cornell, established an agricultural department three years ago, under the charge of Professor Roberts, the farm consisting of 150 acres, in not over good condition. Upon this tract of land the whole science of raising crops, as well as the business of managing a farm, is taught with a thoroughness which we doubt has ever been exceeded. Eighteen square rods of clover, for instance, are set apart for eighteen different modes of treatment with fertilizers. In the experiments with corn, three rows of each kind, or of each mode of manuring, or of the different modes of management in other respects, extend across the field. There are also experimental strips of oats and wheat; and thus every method of cultivation of all the farm products incident to our climate is practised directly before the student, who is required personally to perform the labor necessary in connection therewith. The results of the experiments are carefully recorded and stored away until sufficient shall have been gathered, over a number of seasons, to justify the determining of accurate averages.

Besides this, the students are taught a complete system of accounts. Every hour of labor hired, every product of farm sold, is minutely registered. The food which live stock consumes is recorded on one side and balanced yearly by the market value estimated by a skilled butcher. So that, in this way, the gains or losses, not only of the farm as a whole, but of every branch, are known with the utmost accuracy. Every student is required to become proficient in this account keeping. Each keeps his books separately, and determines estimated values; and as he may sell his own labor to the farm, outside the time required of him, which is but two hours and a half for two days of the week, he is directly interested in the task. Besides the farm, there is a garden of six acres, conducted under the same admirable system; and in addition, lectures on practical agriculture are given four times weekly by Professor Roberts. The *Country Gentleman*, to which we are indebted for these facts, states that the number of agricultural students is still too small, so that there seems to be abundant opportunity for all who may desire to acquire a thorough and most valuable education. Certain it is that such instruction is most urgently needed in this country. It has become too much the fashion for young men to crowd into the great cities, and there to eke out lives behind desks and counters which should be spent in developing the vast resources of the thousands of square miles wherein the richest soil on earth awaits the plowshare. In the Centennial Exposition are exhibited actual glass-enclosed sections of prairie soil with the black unctuous loam extending downwards far below the reach of the deepest furrow. Go look at that superb exhibit in Agricultural Hall, and think of the possibilities which educated farmers cultivating such land might accomplish. Think of it, stalwart young men, who meditate coming into the city after the present harvest is garnered, to find work where there is none to be had. Expend your labor and means at Cornell, Amherst, Dartmouth, and other like colleges, and obtain such an education as we have described then; "go West," pre-empt your land, and start on the high road to independence and ultimate fortune.

Crystallized Glycerin.

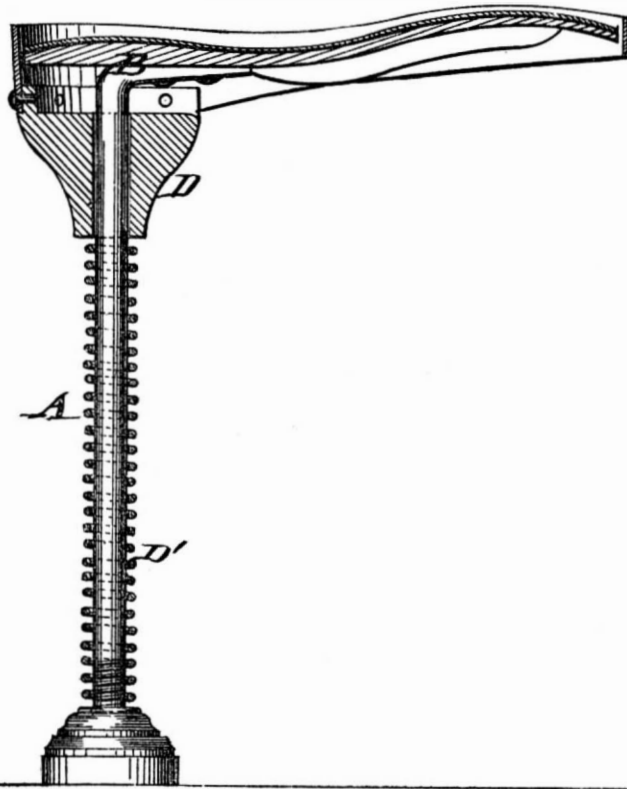
Dr. Armstrong, recently exhibited, at a meeting of the Chemical Society, London, a specimen of pure crystallized glycerin. The solidification took place while the glycerin was being agitated on a railroad journey in cold weather last winter. Dr. Odling mentioned the curious fact that hydrocyanic or prussic acid is an excellent test for the purity of glycerin, the slightest admixture of any foreign substance causing the glycerin to turn yellow in a short time if a little hydrocyanic acid be stirred into the liquid.

IMPROVED APPARATUS FOR LINING INSOLES OF BOOTS.

Mr. Charles Monahan, of St. John, N. B., proposes to apply the linings of boots and shoes in a quick and perfect manner by an improved machine, which we illustrate herewith.

There is an upright post, to the top part of which the last, B, is securely attached. A metallic guard, C, extends around the last, and is attached to a support, D, that slides on the upright stand. The support, D, and guard, C, are forced in upward direction, to project above the last, by a strong spiral spring, D'. The pasted lining is placed bottom upward on the last, and prevented from sticking to the boot by the guard, while the boot is drawn over the last. The guard is kept in position by its spring until the boot is in position to be pressed on the last. The boot forces the guard down, and presses the lining firmly on the insole of the sole, so that it sticks to the same in an even manner. The boot is then taken off, a new lining placed on the last, and the next boot brought down. This invention was patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency, July 4, 1876.

road of 47 miles is easy, there only being about two miles of up grade from the mines to Spanish Fork city. The rest of the way is down the cañon on an incline averaging 66 feet to the mile. The highest altitude on the road is the summit of the cañon, which is about 7,750 feet above the level of the



APPARATUS FOR LINING INSOLES OF BOOTS.

Powder for Producing Ozone.

"In order to produce artificial ozone, Mr. Lender makes use of equal parts of peroxide of manganese, permanganate of potassium, and oxalic acid. When this mixture is placed in contact with water, ozone is quickly generated. For a room of medium size, two teaspoonfuls of this powder, placed in a dish and occasionally diluted with water, would be sufficient. The ozone develops itself; it disinfects the surrounding air without producing cough."

The attention of the writer was called to the above article as it appeared in the Philadelphia Medical and Surgical Journal, under date of May 20, 1876. For the purpose intended, it is certainly one of the best of the published formulæ, but, on account of the danger attending its manipulation, should be used with extreme caution. A prescription with these proportions was taken to an apothecary, who inadvertently used a mortar in mixing it, with the result of an immediate explosion, which would have been attended with disastrous consequences except for the smallness of the quantity employed.

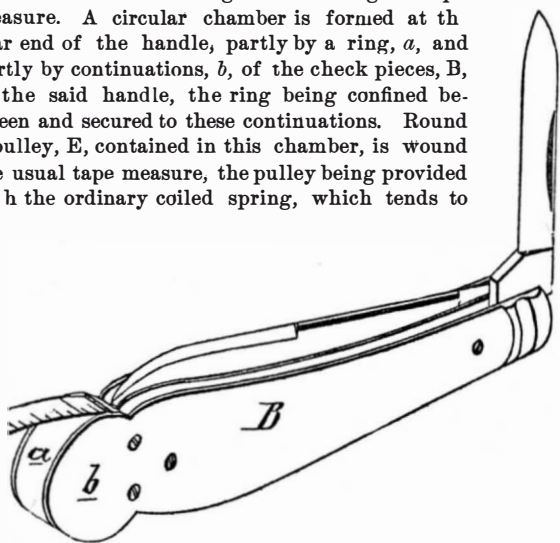
In mixing these ingredients, trituration should not be used at all, but they should be cautiously mixed with a spatula in small quantities; and even then, if they should have been reduced to a fine powder, they cannot be mixed without danger, as the mixture is liable to explode at the moment of contact.

Apothecaries who are not deficient in knowledge are sometimes deficient in caution, and articles published in reliable journals are copied and used without hesitation, and the compounder or dispenser is brought into unlooked-for and unexpected difficulties.

The above article is written solely with a view of placing druggists and physicians on their guard in using or dispensing a dangerous compound.—John L. Davis, in American Journal of Pharmacy.

COMBINED KNIFE AND TAPE LINE.

Mr. Glover S. Hastings, of Unionville, Conn., has patented (July 27, 1875), a combined pocket knife and tape measure, so constructed that the handle of the pocket knives made available as a casing for containing the tape measure. A circular chamber is formed at the rear end of the handle, partly by a ring, a, and partly by continuations, b, of the check pieces, B, of the said handle, the ring being confined between and secured to these continuations. Round a pulley, E, contained in this chamber, is wound the usual tape measure, the pulley being provided with the ordinary coiled spring, which tends to



maintain the graduated tape within the chamber in a manner too well known to need description.

New Coal Fields in Utah.

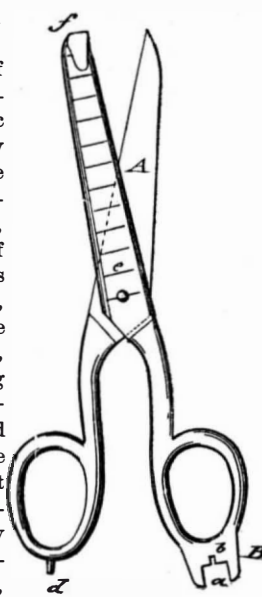
Professor J. E. Clayton has returned from an extended visit to the coal fields in Wasatch county, Utah, and gives us some interesting and valuable information in relation thereto: "The coal mines are the first of the extensive series that stretch south through San Pete county. They are situated in Pleasant Valley, and are reached by going 40 miles due east from Spanish Fork station up the cañon to the summit, and thence south seven miles to the south end of the valley, making a total distance of about 105 miles from Salt Lake city, 58 of which are by rail. The wagon

sea. Pleasant Valley is at the head waters of Price's river, which ultimately flows into the Colorado, and is about four or five miles long by two or three in width. At its lower end, numerous cañons put into the valley; and at the base of the hills around these, the coal shows in a semicircle west and east around the valley for six or eight miles. Two, and in some places three, beds show one above the other; the principal one, the Hutchings, being 32 feet in thickness and lying horizontally on the east side of the valley and trending to the south east. The region is cretaceous sandstone, and the Hutchings shows a foot wall of light gray sandstone with a yellowish gray sandstone roof. In the neighborhood is but very little shale, there being no shale seams whatever in the coal bed. No iron is visible, although higher up in the mountains is seen ferruginous sandstone, which, however, indicates nothing permanent. About one half of the bed of coal is of an excellent coking variety, the specimens we saw, though made in a primitive manner, being equal to the best imported. The coal beds are at an altitude of about 7,550 feet.

The surrounding hills have fine pine timber in sufficient quantity for local purposes, while an abundance of water is close by. Considerable importance can be attached to these coal fields for their accessibility, their great extent, and the coking qualities of their product.—Salt Lake Weekly Miner.

NEW COMBINATION TOOL FOR SEWING MACHINES.

We illustrate herewith an ingenious arrangement of all the tools, used in the care and adjustment of sewing machines, in a single implement. It is the invention of Clara A. Rogers, of New Orleans, La., and was patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency, July 11, 1876. The tools combined are a scissors, wrench, needle straightening device, throat plate mover, screwdriver, and measure. One of the handle parts of the scissors is provided with an extension, B, that has a square recess, a, for the purpose of serving as a wrench, the stocks of the scissors serving as handles. The recess, a, is further provided with a short and narrow slot, b, which serves for the purpose of straightening bent needles. The other scissors handle has an extension pin, d, by which the throat plate of the machine, whether of glass or metal, may be readily moved without the use of a separate tool. One or both stocks of the scissors may be graduated to form an inch or other measure, e, which is very handy, as the scissors are at any moment available; and the end of the broader stock is made tapering to form a screwdriver. The whole forms an exceedingly convenient and useful tool.



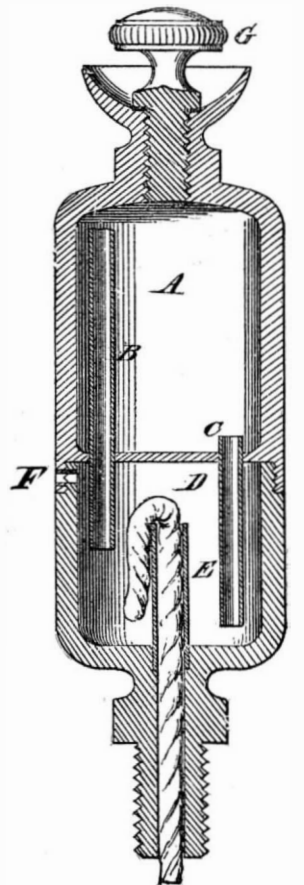
SILVER discoveries have been made in the vicinity of Arthur's Landing, on the north shore of Lake Superior, about 200 miles northeast of Duluth. A miner dropped down upon some crumbled quartz containing native silver. The rock is expected to yield \$3,500 or \$5,000 per tun

What a British Centennial Judge Thinks of Us.

The London Times, of August 14, gives unusual prominence to a letter written by an English judge at the Centennial, which the Philadelphia Ledger copies, and of which it also gives the substance in an editorial as follows. Captain Galton, the judge, says that he saw enough there to convince him that American manufactures had been making remarkable strides during the past twenty years. Captain Galton is one of the engineers appointed by the British Board of Trade to survey railways and other public works before they are opened for public traffic; and he was a British judge in the group of railway appliances, and immediately upon his return home he penned this letter. He had previously visited this country twenty years ago, and during the interval we all know that American manufacturing progress has been remarkable. He speaks of the great advance in our industries as shown by the growth in the amount of coal mined, and says that our higher wages, compared with England, are counterbalanced by the use of machinery to an extent much exceeding that generally in use in England. Observing the substitution of steel for iron rails on our railways, he candidly remarks that the new rails are almost all made in the United States, and that it is not probable that England will be called upon much longer to supply us with rails. He goes further, and, speaking of general manufactures, says England can no longer expect to get a market for her manufactures in the United States, but she must be prepared to find our manufacturers competing with her in every market to which they have access. Mr. Galton bluntly tells the Times that England should appreciate her true position in this matter, and he closes by urging all Englishmen to visit Philadelphia, where they can see the development of American industry, and meet the leading manufacturers as well as the most prominent Americans of all classes.

A NEW OIL CUP.

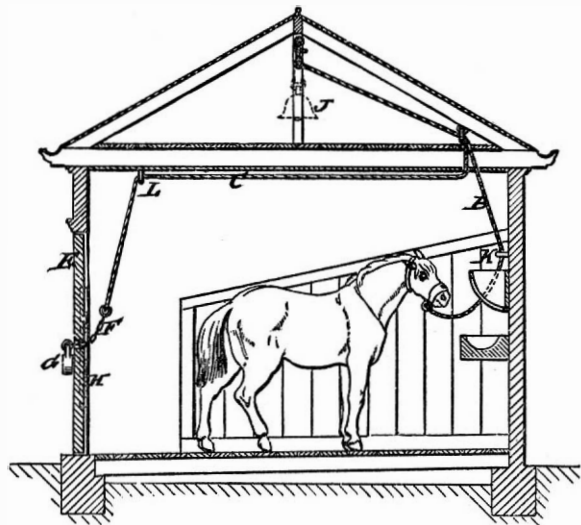
Mr. Ezra B. High, of Reading, Pa., has patented (July 4, 1876) through the Scientific American Patent Agency a novel improvement in oil cups, which we illustrate herewith. The object is to furnish a constant and uniform supply of oil to the bearing at all times. The cup is made in two parts, A, D, which are screwed together. The upper part, or reservoir, A, receives a screw plug, G, so fitted as to be airtight. The lower part or distributing chamber, D, is made with a perforated screw stem, to be screwed into the journal or shaft box, and in the upper end of the perforation of which is secured a small tube, E, to receive the siphon wick by which the oil is carried to the journal to be lubricated. In the bottom of the reservoir, A, are secured two tubes, B, C. The upper end of the tube, B, rises nearly to the top of the reservoir, A, and its lower end extends down into the distributing chamber, D, so far as to be below the end of the tube, E. The upper end of the tube, C, rises a little above the bottom, a', of the reservoir, A, so that any sediment that may be in the oil will settle upon the bottom of said reservoir, and cannot flow through the tube, C, into the distributing chamber, D. The lower end of the tube, C, may be bent up into such a position that a plug may be inserted in it through the air hole or vent, F, to prevent the oil from flowing down through the tube, C, when the reservoir, A, is being filled. With this construction the oil will flow down through the tube, C, into the distributing chamber, D, until the lower end of the tube, A, is covered, which will prevent the entrance of any more air into the reservoir, A, and will stop the flow of the oil until enough oil has been carried out by the siphon wick to again uncover the lower end of the tube, B, and allow air to again pass up through the tube, B. In this way the oil will be kept at about the same level in the distributing chamber, D, so that the siphon wick may carry it out in a uniform quantity. Air, to supply the place of the distributed oil, enters through the vent, F.



As at present worked, the gold and silver mines of Japan do not appear to be of much value. Iron ore is abundant and the mines are rich. Magnetic ore in sand and lump is most commonly used. Lead is extracted in many provinces, but in a faulty manner and in small quantities. Some of the ores are very rich. Tin is reported to be found in two localities, and the quicksilver mines are not worked

IMPROVED CONSTRUCTION OF STABLES.

Mr. Frank M. Dixon, of Jefferson City, Mo., has recently invented a contrivance for hitching a horse and fastening a stable door in such a manner that the horse will be freed and the stable door opened in case of fire in the stable, and a contrivance for sounding an alarm at the same time. The engraving shows a transverse section of a stable having the improved appliances. A cord, of cotton or other combusti-



ble material, is stretched along the space above the stable, from side to side, to which the halter of the horse is attached, A cord, C, holds the door, E, shut—say, by a chain, F, and a padlock, G—and the door has a spring, H (dotted line), to throw it open when the cord is released. There is another cord, extending along the space above the stable, from side to side, and connected to an alarm bell, J, and also having the halter and the door cord attached; so that when the cords are burned off by fire, the door will spring open, the horse will be released for escape, and the alarm bell will sound. The halter will pass down from the space above, where it is attached to the cord through guides, K, and the door cord will pass along through suitable guides. The invention was patented on July 18, 1876.

The United States Patent Association.

This society meet on September 7, 1876, at the Franklin Institute, Philadelphia, Pa., for the purpose of suggesting means for the improvement of the patent system and the formation of an international association for promoting uniformity of patent laws in all countries. Among the members present were Hon. J. M. Thacher, ex-United States Patent Commissioner; Professor Hedrick, of the United States Patent Office; W. C. Dodge, of Washington, and John S. Perry, of Albany, N. Y., President of the Association.

President Perry called the meeting to order, and read an address, in which he took as subjects of consideration: First, the importance of the patent system in general; and, second, that of the United States in particular, viewed both in respect to the development of original invention and as inciting inventors to persevere in the perfecting of their plans. He showed the benefits which have arisen from the patent system by a review of the condition of Europe before the patent law was recognized. So long as the laws of property were neither recognized nor properly defined, there could be little incentive to invention or the pushing forward of appliances for the better comfort of mankind. Often an individual, like Roger Bacon, would be on the eve of an invention, and often for that matter did invent; but, well knowing that his rights would be unrecognized, he failed to make it public. Indeed it is well known that several inventions and discoveries of great value, which have since been re-invented, were really made, but suffered to die with the inventor or discoverer from this cause. The first trace of patent law is, he thought, to be found in the reigns of Henry III. and Edward IV., of England, in the thirteenth and fifteenth centuries, about which periods the services of the villains or serfs gradually became less onerous and uncertain.

He furthermore said: "Patents are sometimes characterized as monopolies and even as vicious monopolies. With equal reason might the possession of wealth honestly acquired be denounced as a trespass upon the rights of others. To take money unlawfully is called stealing; to appropriate an invention is not by some considered very dishonorable. The public seem to have lost sight of the fact that the inventor has taken nothing which it had before; that he has from his own brain brought into existence and perfected, at his own cost of labor and money, a production as new to the world, and perhaps as useful, as the gold which the miner brings forth from the hidden recesses of the mountains. The most bitter opposition the patent system meets is from the agriculturists, and they of all men are the most benefited by its provisions. With the high cost for labor that has existed during the past twelve years, the business of farming could not have been carried on without the improved machinery that inventors and progressive manufacturers have provided.

"The importance of the patent system in general is shown in that a vast number of articles have been through its instrumentality added to the means of human happiness, of which the latter must otherwise from necessity have been deprived. In reference to the importance of the patent system in the United States, the speaker argued that the history of patent protection is almost coincident with our existence as an independent nation. The law of patents, as it now stands in the United States, rests on the statutes of

February 21, 1783, and April 7, 1800. These statutes have been modified several times, yet our patent law as it now stands is far from being perfect, and it is in the hope of aiding in correcting its errors, and in giving it a wider scope, that the United States Association has been formed."

REMARKS: These views are in the main sound, although tinged with a few misconceptions. Patents, the chairman assumes, are not monopolies, but inherent rights. The poor miner, who controls the gold that his industry brings from the rocks, is just as much of a monopolist, he tells us, as the wealthy patentee, who compels every poor woman to pay him forty dollars royalty, for the privilege of earning her living by means of his patent sewing machine. Such reasoning, Mr. Chairman, will not do. The people know better. They know by actual daily experience that patents are monopolies, some of them of the most oppressive kind; and no sugar-coating by any Patent Association will alter the fact. It is because patents are monopolies of the vicious kind, that they are valuable, and in such great demand. Of what account would a patent be, if the patentee were not clothed with authority over his fellow creatures to enforce his private demands, in respect to his patent? Of none whatever.

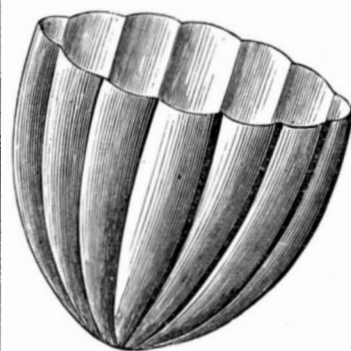
According to President Perry, the miner who first discovered gold in the Rocky Mountains was the natural patentee of the entire range, as respects the precious metal. He takes nothing that the public had before; on the other hand, by his discovery, he contributes to the general supply of gold. Therefore, no one but the discoverer, or the favored few whom he permits, ought to be allowed to work at gold mining on the premises. This is poor logic for the United States Patent Association to promulgate.

Patents, as we have stated, are pure monopolies. They are only tolerated and granted for reasons of public policy. They are issued solely as rewards: for the mere purpose of stimulating people to discover, invent, and study out new forms of industry. The general weal is promoted by increasing the number and variety of industrial arts, which all the people may freely and equally enjoy. Instead of rewarding the inventor by paying him a sum in cash from the collected taxes in the treasury, the government gives him a patent, or, in other words, makes him his own tax gatherer; and authorizes him to compel the people, by force if necessary, to satisfy his demands.

The redeeming feature of our patent monopoly system is that it effects its object, it brings out new improvements, and is limited to a brief period. Our patents run for seventeen years—a short time in the life of a nation; the inventions then become public property, and everybody may enjoy them, free from the annoying whip and spur of any wealthy private corporation or patent holder. Great as are the inconveniences of our patent system, the benefits are amazing, and greatly exceed the drawbacks. So long as this continues to be the case, the patent laws will stand.

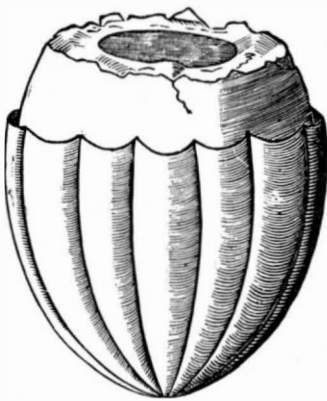
A PAPER EGG CUP.

Here is a new application of that all-useful commodity, paper, to the purposes of table furniture. Mr. R. M. Washburn, of Burlington, Iowa, has patented a paper egg cup, which, besides being a really ingenious idea, is based on sound theory, inasmuch as paper is a non-conductor of heat; it is elastic, so that one cup will hold securely an egg of any size; and it is molded in corrugated form, so that there is always a



circulation of air between the egg and its vessel, which is represented in our engravings as empty in Fig. 1, and holding an egg in Fig. 2. The same cups may be used over and over again, or may be thrown away after each meal, their cheapness allowing of this latter disposition. They are handy for picnic parties or for persons traveling, and as novelties for hotels, restaurants, and even private houses. The material may be paper, muslin, or almost any fabric. Tinted of different colors, the cups would be quite ornamental; or they might serve as a medium for advertising, so that the person using them may have food for digestion mentally as well as physically. The invention is one likely to be remunerative. It is just such cheap and simple devices which, now-a-days, are most in demand, and produce the largest profit. Those desiring to negotiate for the right to manufacture can obtain further particulars by addressing the inventor as above.

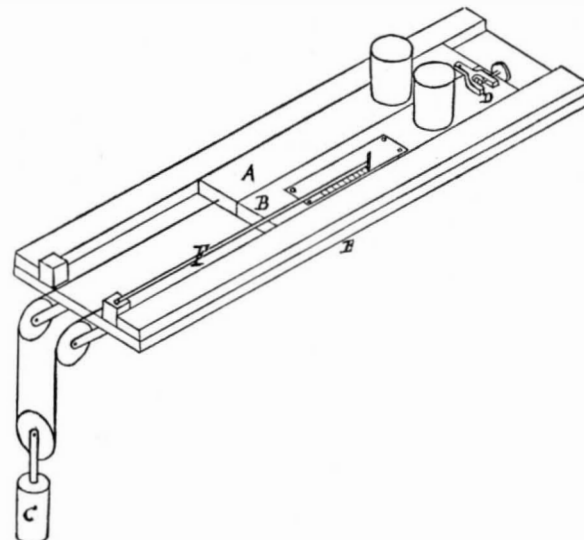
Fig. 2.



A SIMPLE DIVIDING MACHINE.

Among the exhibits of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, at the Exposition, is a novel instrument devised by the professor of physics, to be used as a dividing machine for graduating scales of equal parts. It can be

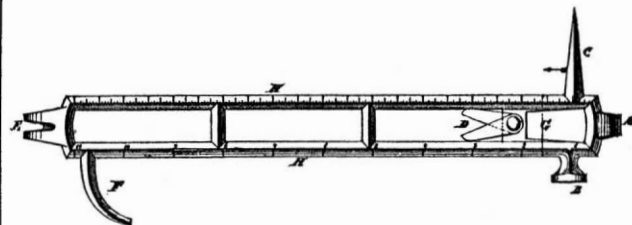
constructed for a trifling outlay by any one who understands the use of tools, and by its aid scales can be laid down with considerable accuracy. It consists of two strips of wood, A, B, which slide in a wooden frame, E. The ends of a cord are fastened to these strips, the cord being fastened, as shown in the engraving, to the weight, C, which is heavy enough to slide the strips along the frame. The slips can, however, be kept in any desired position, by placing weights upon them.



At the upper extremities of the slips is a fork-shaped piece of metal which is secured to the strip, A, by a pin, on which it can turn; and a pin on the strip, B, engages the fork, allowing a certain amount of play, which can be varied at pleasure by the adjusting screw, as shown in the engraving. An arm, F, is attached to the frame by a pin, and has a pencil at the end, this being the marker for constructing the scale on a piece of paper which is fastened to the strip, B. To show the action of the instrument, suppose the adjusting screw is turned so that the play of the fork is $\frac{1}{100}$ of an inch. A piece of paper is secured to the strip, B, and a mark made upon it with the pencil. The weight is then lifted from the strip, B, when it will be slipped along a distance equal to the play of the fork, or $\frac{1}{100}$ of an inch, and a second mark is made with the pencil. Then the weight is replaced on the strip, B, and that on the strip, A, is removed, when B will be slipped along until it is square with B, a stop preventing the fork from turning back any further. The weight is replaced on A, the other removed from B, a third mark made, and so on, alternately moving each strip through the required distance, until a sufficient number of divisions is obtained. R. H. B.

NEW COMBINATION TOOL.

Mr. Lester Beach, of Derby, Conn., is the inventor of a novel and ingenious combination tool, an engraving of which is presented herewith. The body of the tool consists of two parallel bars, connected at their ends, and at suitable distances apart between said ends by crossbars, so as to



make the tool light and at the same time strong. Upon one end of the tool is formed a screwdriver, A, near which is a hammer head, B; and upon the other edge is an ice pick, C. To one of the crossbars are attached two small steel plates, D, arranged at an angle, so that they may be used as a knife sharpener. Upon the other end of the tool is formed a notched claw, E, for pulling tacks and for lifting stove covers. Upon the edge, diagonally opposite the ice pick, C, is formed a curved finger, F, which may be used as a poker and as a pot lifter. At one end the space, G, is made slightly tapering, and the inner edges of the side bars are flattened, to adapt said space to be used as a wrench for turning various sized nuts. Upon the side bars of the tool are formed division marks of inches and parts of an inch, to adapt the tool to be used as a rule, H. Patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency, August 1, 1876.

The East River Bridge.

Chief Engineer Roebling now intends to hoist a carrier rope of $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter, instead of $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches, as originally intended, between the towers of the East river bridge. The increased weight will prevent the carrier rope from being hauled across by the traveler ropes now in place; and it will have to be carried across the river in a scow and hauled taut between the towers, as was done in the case of the first traveler rope. Two $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches carrier ropes will be placed in position; and then the cradle and foot bridge ropes will be hung on them by pulleys. The carrier ropes are of chrome steel wire, and will weigh about 22,000 lbs.

A Statue of Lafayette.

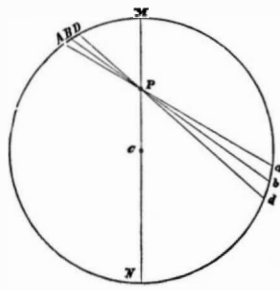
The French republic has recently sent, as a gift to the citizens of New York, a bronze statue of Lafayette, the renowned soldier whose zeal in the cause of republicanism brought him to this country 99 years ago, and enlisted him in the army which achieved our independence. The statue has been erected in Union Square, looking down Broadway; and it was unveiled on September 6, with appropriate ceremonies.

Correspondence.

The Weight of a Body Inside a Hollow Sphere.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

I am surprised at the half knowledge shown by your correspondents in their discussion of the attraction of a hollow sphere on a body within it. Can any one name a scientific man of repute who has repudiated it, or the demonstration of it, which is to be found in "Newton's Principia"? If Mr. Whitmore chooses to represent the mass which exerts the attraction on the body, P (see the illustration on page 84), by the cup-shaped fragment, B E F G C B, his position is undoubtedly correct; but the calculation of the attraction becomes so troublesome that we may well ask for a simpler way. Newton's theorem furnishes this.



In a thin shell, whose section is the circle at A M a N A, let a body, P, be found; draw through P in any direction the line, B P b, and revolve around it the line, A P a, which makes with it the small angle, A P B: the resulting circles, shown in section at A D, a d, will have the areas $\pi (A B)^2$, $\pi (d b)^2$, and the masses $= \pi m t (A B)^2$, $\pi m t (d b)^2$, where t = the

thickness of the shell, and m = the quantity of matter in the unit of volume: the attractions on P will equal these masses divided by the squares of the distances from P, namely, P B, P b, and multiplied by a constant, f ; thus: Attraction

$$\text{at } B : \text{attraction at } b :: \frac{2\pi m t f (A B)^2}{(P B)^2} : \frac{2\pi m t f (d b)^2}{(P b)^2} :: \frac{(A B)^2}{(P B)^2} : \frac{(d b)^2}{(P b)^2}$$

But from the similarity of the very acute angled triangles, A B P, d b P, we have A B : B P :: d b : P b.

$\therefore \frac{(A B)^2}{(P B)^2} = \frac{(d b)^2}{(P b)^2}$, and therefore attraction at B = attraction at b. That is, the body, P, will not move in either direction along the line, B P p; and as this line may be drawn in any direction whatever in the shell, the body at P will not move in any direction, and will therefore be in equilibrium at every point. To prove this for thick shells or hollow spheres, it is only necessary to conceive them as made up of an indefinite number of thin ones.

Professor Olmsted has been placed in apparent contradiction with this truth because it was forgotten by the writers who quoted from him that the attraction of gravitation varies inversely as the square of the distance. Thus, if the body be lowered half way to the center, it would be attracted by a mass equivalent to one eighth of the original sphere; but as the distance between the body and the center of the sphere is only one half of what it was before,

the attraction will equal $\frac{1}{8} \div \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$: or in general, if the

force at the surface of a sphere, of radius r , be represented by 1, and the portion lost in descending a distance, d , by x , we have: $1 : 1 - x :: \frac{r^3}{r^2} : \frac{(r-d)^3}{(r-d)^2} \therefore 1 : 1 - x :: r : r - d$.

$\therefore 1 - x = 1 - \frac{d}{r}$ or $x = \frac{d}{r}$; that is, a body lowered toward the center of the earth would lose in weight and proportion to its distance downward, as Olmsted says.

Your correspondent further confounds attraction with weight when he says: "Guided by this theorem, we should expect a hollow sphere to balance if suspended from any possible point within the void." Not at all. The confusion comes from not distinguishing between the attraction between the earth and the portions of the shell on opposite sides of the point of support, and the almost infinitesimal attraction between these portions and any body at this point.

The theorem is in fact not to be proven experimentally, but is an inevitable consequence of the grand, often verified, never disproved law that every body attracts every other with a force directly as the product of its mass, and inversely as the square of the distance between them, that is, $f = \frac{m m'}{d^2}$.

It should perhaps be added that the demonstration above given, as Newton himself pointed out, is only true when each shell is homogeneous, though neighboring shells may vary in density to any extent. In the case of the earth, the curious result is found that the center of the earth is so much denser than the part near the surface that the force of attraction increases at first on descending; and so Professor Airy's clock, in the mine 1,250 feet deep, gained 274 seconds daily.

Malone, N. Y.

C. K. W.

South American Birds.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

On the eastern shore of the Uruguay river, from Paysandu to Independencia, there is an open rolling country with frequent small ravines, most of which are bordered with a narrow skirt of timber of stunted growth and flowering shrubbery, which makes a fine retreat for the birds, and also frequently shelters the deer, South American tiger, and wild cat, which, however, are not abundant. The hill tops are also crowned with timber of similar growth, making a pleasant shade and resort from the scorching sun. Except on the hill tops and in the ravines, the country is partially covered with tall coarse grass, which makes a fine

cover for quail and partridge. On approaching a ravine, the first thing that attracts your attention is the hum of the humming birds, which are of numerous different varieties, each bird balancing nicely on its wings while it inserts its long slender bill and extracts sustenance from the desert flower. Along the ravines, wild pigeons, similar to ours, are to be found in plenty, and are easily bagged. Next is the small partridge, very much like our northern quail, which are difficult to bag on foot and without a dog, as they will hide in the tall grass; but with a trained dog, the sport is fine. On horseback, you may almost ride over them before they will fly up. They are in flocks generally, yet they do not huddle; and it is difficult to get more than one at a shot. But you may sit on your horse and shoot a whole flock singly, as they seldom fly except they are flushed by a dog. The large partridges, which closely resemble English pheasants, are generally found singly, and the mode of catching these birds is rather peculiar.

They are found amongst the tall grass. The sportsman is mounted (carrying no gun, however) and has his dog trained to the work. He walks his horse slowly along, while the dog hunts about amongst the grass; and when he comes close upon the bird, the latter breaks cover, rises a little above the grass, and flies off on a level. When the bird flies, the sportsman puts his horse to his mettle and follows to the spot where he sees the bird alight (probably a hundred yards), and waits the arrival of the dog, who follows at his top speed and rushes in amongst the grass; and soon again the bird breaks cover and flies as before, but only about half as far. The sportsman and dog follow up as before, and the bird is hunted out again by the dog, and divides the distance again, and drops into the grass, pursued by sportsman and dog, this time closing the race for life. The dog rushes into the grass and directly comes out again with the bird unharmed in his mouth; the sportsman in the meantime dismounts and receives the bird, and disposes of him as he thinks proper. I was once an eye witness of such a race, and was told that these birds never break cover but three times, which seems to me rather strange.

Stratford, Conn.

TRUMAN HOTCHKISS.

The Atmosphere of the Moon.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

The moon is considered, by some astronomers, to have no atmosphere, as you mentioned in a recent issue; and in the article you gave some very plausible reasons for supposing that there may be an atmosphere of some kind on that body.

Heat, as you say, would have a great influence in expanding the air to a great extent, and rendering it so rare that it would extend out from the surface of the moon a great distance, so that its presence could hardly be detected by us. Yet when the moon cooled, the air would be condensed, and then be as dense or denser than our atmosphere, and could be easily detected.

To prove that the detection of the presence of the atmosphere would be difficult when the air was rare, and comparatively easy when the same bulk of air is made to occupy a smaller space, is very simple; for if we take a cubic foot of air or any other gas of the density of our atmosphere, the refraction of a ray of light passing through it would be very evident; but, if the same amount be made to occupy one hundred cubic feet, the refraction would be very much more difficult to detect, for, according to the old rule, "the greater the difference of the densities of the two gases, the greater the refraction, and vice versa."

Covington, Ky.

WILLIAM L. DUDLEY.

The Direct Motion of the Radiometer an Effect of Electricity.

To the Editor of the Scientific American.

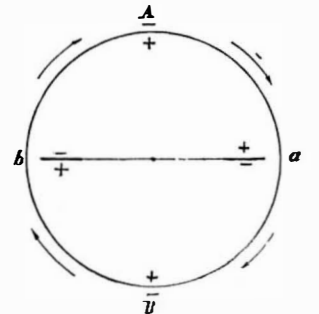
In the communication I sent you a few days ago, upon the radiometer of Professor Crookes, I showed that the exterior of the glass globe was electrified negatively when exposed to luminous or calorific radiations. Having made, since that time, some more experiments, I have discovered new facts which enable me to explain at least some of the motions of this wonderful instrument. The facts are as follows:

I took a strip of mica two diameters (7.8 inches) in length; and having coated one of the sides with lampblack, when it was quite dry I suspended it in a Coulomb's torsion balance, having previously electrified the metallic disk of the balance needle with positive electricity. The blackened side of the mica faced the electrified disk. When the needle had come to rest I allowed the radiations from a large gas flame to fall upon the blackened surface of the mica. Notwithstanding the light was at a considerable distance and had to penetrate the thick glass shade enclosing the balance, the needle was rapidly repelled several degrees, showing that the blackened face was positively electrified under the influence of radiation. I then turned the strip of mica so that the bright side faced the disk and allowed the radiation to fall as before, upon the blackened surface. This time the needle indicated an attraction between the disk and the mica, thus proving that the bright surface was negatively electrified.

To anticipate an objection to the theory of the radiometer which will be suggested by these facts, namely, that these electrical manifestations are too feeble to account for the rapid revolution of the arms, I made the following experiment: I rubbed the globe gently with a brush composed of fine threads of glass; the electricity developed on the globe, acting by induction upon the nearest mica disk, caused a brisk oscillation. I then measured the intensity of the electricity upon the glass globe by means of the proof plan and Böhnenberger's electroscope. There was no indication of

greater intensity in this case than there was when the globe was electrified by the radiations from aluminous or obscure source and tested in the same manner.

From the above facts the following theory necessarily flows as a corollary; The hemisphere, A, being negatively electrified, as we have shown, upon its whole exterior surface, we justly conclude that the interior is positively electrified. The hemisphere, B, is electrified in the same way, but its intensity is different, the charge being less at B than at A.



The mica disk in the position, a, with its blackened side turned towards the radiant source, is electrified positively upon the black and negatively upon the bright surface, as we have proved above. As like electricities repel and unlike attract, the positive electricity at A will repel the arm, and that at B, acting upon the bright face, will attract it, so that it will necessarily rotate in the direction of the arrows, namely, A a B. When the arm has reached b, the direction of the rotation will not be changed, but A will now attract, and B repel, and it will continue to move in the direction B b A. The direct and most usual movement of the arms in Professor Crookes' radiometer is thus explained in the simplest manner.

JOSEPH DELSAUX, S. J.

11 Rue des Recollets, Louvain, Belgium.

[For the Scientific American.]

NOTES ON THE RESISTANCE OF MATERIALS.

The ordinary formulæ and tables in technical works for proportioning the parts of machines and structures are based on the ultimate resistance of the material which is to be employed, accompanied by recommendations that a certain fraction only of the breaking load should be applied in practice. This fraction varies from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{3}$, according to the views of different authorities. It has been found, however, that a material may be strained in such a manner as to become unsafe, by a load that is generally less than half the ultimate resistance, so that some of the best authorities consider that the fraction of the breaking load, or factor of safety, should be chosen with reference to the elastic limit of the material rather than its ultimate resistance. Still more recently, attention has been directed to experiments showing that materials could be ruptured by the repeated application of a comparatively small load. It is obvious that a rule for proportioning a machine, which provides for safety by using only a part of the strain allowed by the theory in which the rule is founded, is at best only a makeshift, and is unsatisfactory on many accounts. If the structures of the materials used in the arts were understood, so that the effect of strains could be accurately noted, it would of course be easy to give rules which would enable the material to be disposed in the most effective and economical manner. The experiments on the effect of repeated strains, referred to above, furnish some facts on which a novel and interesting theory of molecular structure has been based. Although this theory is far from being fully verified by experiment, it is, to say the least, not absolutely contradicted. A good discussion of the subject has recently been given by Professor Spangenberg of Germany, and a translation of the same has been published in this country, from which the following account has been condensed.

What is commonly regarded as a solid is supposed, in the theory referred to, to be made up of a number of atoms and molecules, surrounded by ethereal atmospheres, and grouped in various forms, according to the temperature and nature of external strains. Most readers know that the theory, so far, is in accordance with that generally adopted by scientists. Perhaps it never can be absolutely proved, although it has been shown to be extremely probable. Now it is known that when a mass of metal is melted and poured into a mold where it is rapidly cooled, it tends to crystallize in groups, and this is regarded as the first normal condition. Wrought iron and steel are generally rolled or hammered before use, and this breaks up the crystalline groups and produces a fibrous grain. When a metal is subject to strain, the grouping of the atoms will be changed, and they may return to their former position when the load is removed, or may take new forms, according to the amount of the strain and the rapidity of its recurrence. The effect of repeated strains is to break up the crystalline structure, and induce an amorphous condition. In changing to this state, the strain may act so quickly that all the crystals are not affected, and rupture will occur. The atoms of the body are supposed to have a mutual attraction for each other, and the other atoms attract those of the body and mutually repel each other.

It seems to be settled by experiment as well as theory that, contrary to general notions, the resistance to rupture of a body is less, the more crystalline is its structure, and increases as the amorphous structure is produced. It is supposed that the cohesion between separate crystalline groups is less than the cohesion of molecules forming a crystal.

The experiments given in connection with this theory show conclusively that the number and duration of strains are of quite as much importance as their magnitude. Whether then, the theory on which this action is explained is accepted or not, the facts seem to show the point to which future experiments on the strength of materials should be directed. Possibly the United States testing board may derive some hints from Professor Spangenberg's treatise.

R. H. B.

CHEMICALS AT THE CENTENNIAL.

THE FRENCH EXHIBIT.

The number of exhibitors is about the same as in the German department, but the exhibits taken together are less interesting, we think, than those of Germany. The want of a good French catalogue of their chemicals is severely felt. Beginning with the aniline colors, those of A. Poirrier, Paris, are particularly noticeable, both for quantity and color. One huge mass of *violet de Paris* (dimethylaniline violet) is over 2 feet long and 18 inches wide. Several of the aniline dyes are exhibited in glass fruit dishes, the foot of each dish being wrapped with silk dyed therewith, and exhibiting a striking manner the difference of color which these dyes have when dry or in solution, as most of the reds and violets form green crystals. This seems due to the fact, equally difficult of explanation, that they reflect one color and transmit another, wherefore solution and films are red, thick masses and crystals green or bronze. In addition to several aniline colors, so called, this firm exhibits the new and costly eosine in larger quantity than almost any one else. Also specimens of benzyl chloride and benzoic acid made from the latter, as well as benzyl anilin. This exhibit is unequalled except in the German department, where Bayer & Co. and the Berlin Joint Stock Company compete for the first place. Some large blocks of corallin, anilin red, etc., are exhibited by Guinon's Sons & Co., Lyons, as also orzulin, cochineal, picric acid, and bisulphite of soda. Clauseau exhibits madder root, whole, in powder, and flour, alizarine and purpurine from madder, alcohol from madder, and madder extracts. A. Beslier exhibits the whole plant of *thapsia garganica*. Several parties exhibit dye woods and extracts used in dyeing. Charles Dubois exhibits a number of cyanides and other poisonous salts for use in the navy, probably as wood preservers, including cyanides of lead and copper, sulphocyanides of mercury, copper, and arsenic, chromate and arsenite of mercury, etc.

Solvay & Co. exhibit both here and in the Belgian section a set of substances to illustrate their new ammonia soda process, namely, salt water, crude ammonia liquor, carbonate and bicarbonate of soda. The analyses show the extraordinary purity of the soda obtained in this process. The carbonate of soda contains 99.438 per cent of the pure salt, (Na₂CO₃), 0.21 of common salt (NaCl), 0.0015 of sesquioxide of iron. The bicarbonate is, of course, less pure, containing bicarbonate of ammonia to the amount of 0.42 per cent, which is expelled along with the extra equivalent of carbonic acid, on heating to form the monocarbonate. Photographs of the exterior of the works are shown.

The most interesting pharmaceutical exhibit is that of C. Torchon, Paris, containing a huge block of chloral hydrate, ditto in crystals, a whole guinea pig preserved by the injection of chloral, specimens of hydrosulphide of chloral, metachloral, and alcoholate of chloral. In the same case is a bottle of petroleum said to have been produced synthetically, by the action of carbonic acid and steam on sulphide of iron.

There are, indeed, many soap and candle exhibits, a few carbolic acid exhibits, sulphur in several forms, capsules and pills, insect powder, glue, gelatin, and bone black; but little of real interest to the chemist. Of ultramarine we noticed but two exhibits, those of F. Richter, of Lille, and Guimet, of Lyons. Faure and Kessler's pan apparatus for concentrating sulphuric acid is also to be seen in this section.

THE BELGIAN EXHIBIT.

One of the most interesting objects in the Belgian section is a working drawing (elevation) about 6 feet long, illustrating A. De Hemptinne's new method of making and concentrating sulphuric acid. We think this process has not been tried on a manufacturing scale, but it is attracting more attention at this moment, among practical men, than any other novelty in this important industry. Solvay & Co., Couillet, near Charleroi, have a better exhibit of the ammonia soda process here than in the French section above referred to. The other exhibits are unimportant, excepting the coal tar colors of Max Singer.

THE SWISS EXHIBIT.

Bindschedler & Busch, of Basle, deserve notice for their coal tar products, which include some remarkably large needles of crystallized anhydrous phthalic acid, diphenylamine, artificial alizarine, crystals of anthraquinone, resorcin, toluidine, eosine, and ether of tetrabrom-fluorescene, which latter is the correct scientific designation of the beautiful eosine already mentioned. A manufacturer of coffee substitutes, fig coffee, vanilla coffee, etc., makes quite a display here, as does Hurlimann, who shows artificial Swiss honey. We also noticed several specimens of phosphorus bronze, which are interesting, although not strictly chemical.

HOLLAND.

The Netherlands are poorly represented in this department; even coal tar colors are absent, and soaps, oils, glass, inks, and paints, with one large pyramid of crude sulphate of ammonia, exhaust the list. One case contains a fair show of minerals, including a large mass of malachite, and smaller pieces of amethyst, *lapis lazuli*, and labradorite (locality not given). Von Ketten exhibits a powerful horse-shoe magnet, composed of seven leaves; it is 2½ feet long, weighs 83 lbs., and will lift, he says, 500 lbs. A series of models illustrating in detail the effects of the cattle plague were of particular interest, as showing the care with which this subject has been studied abroad.

SWEDEN.

The land of Berzelius is largely given up to "match-making," if we may judge from the catalogue, where no less than 16 out of the 37 exhibitors deal wholly in safety matches. Norway sends over but five match makers. The well known safety match of the Jönköping's Company occupies a beautiful case, where we find matches, pocket match safes, igniting surfaces, and a new double safety match, which it is said ignites only on the box, and becomes entirely dead instantly the flame is extinguished. In the neighborhood of this famous case are columns covered with matches, with candles, and with asepline, for the preservation of provisions and animal material. Bengtson exhibits some soda and Glauber salts, and Werner some bone oil, in little flasks tastefully suspended to circular rings in tree form. Kimtze & Co. exhibit several water filters, and Almén a variety of medicated gelatin. The celebrated Swedish filter paper, the only paper used in quantitative chemical analysis, is exhibited by the Gryscksbo Factory at Falun. The same firm exhibit writing, drawing, and printing paper, with a copy of Berzelius' commendatory notice of their filter paper. We saw no filter paper elsewhere in the exhibition, but we believe that Germany is now in close competition with Sweden in that line.

AUSTRIA.

We were disappointed to find that Austria had not thought it worth her while to send over anything but soap and candles. Ozokerite, or mineral wax, seems to be the staple production of certain parts of Austria, Galicia more especially, and all the changes are rung on this one substance to the exclusion of more interesting products. F. A. Sarg, Son, & Co., Liesing, near Vienna, have a large white tablet, nearly 20 feet long and perhaps 12 feet high, made of blocks of stearine with a yellow border of wax, and their name and place of business in large letters upon it. This firm exhibits oleomargarin, milly candles, and candles of paraffin and ozokerite, an interesting collection of fatty acids both solid and liquid, glycerin, wax, etc. Another handsome display is that of H. Ujhely & Co., Stockerau, fancy wax in great variety. G. Wagemann exhibits refined mineral wax and petroleum; and Paul Dobel, Boryslaw, Galicia, exhibits the crude ozokerite in its natural state as well as the melted and refined article.

More of a truly chemical nature is the exhibit of anthracene, alizarine, sulphanthraquinone, and its sodium salt, by Przibram & Co., Vienna.

The royal-imperial director of the Idrian mines sends a set of minerals and products such as cinnabar, uranate of sodium, potassium, and ammonia, oxide of uranium, and the like.

Chemical glassware of the latest and best forms is sent by Lenoir & Forster. Small sets of chemical and physical apparatus for national schools comes from A. Kreidl, Prague. The entire collection consists of 76 different articles and reagents, and costs, including packing, 53 Austrian florins (about \$26) in Prague. This complete set, as the circular calls it, seemed to us quite incomplete, and, like most little sets of this kind, almost useless either for the instructor or learner. The general display of Bohemian glass ware, of course, is extremely elegant; but a description of it would out of place here.

In an out-of-the-way corner is a small horizontal case, occupying scarcely two square feet of space, and seldom noticed by the visitors, containing a new kind of confectionery, exhibited by Josef Gobetzky, Essegg. It differs from most articles of this nature in that it contains a tasteless salt of quinine, said to be the tannate. It is probably the same as those made by Rozsnay, in Arad, and described and endorsed by Dr. H. Hager in his *Pharmaceutisches Centralhalle*. The latter analyzed them and found that each lozenge contained 0.97 grain of hydrate of quinine in the form of tannate. The chocolate pastilles contain about 0.93 grain of hydrate of quinine. If they are really all that is claimed for them, tasteless and yet therapeutic, we hope to see them introduced here.

ENGLAND.

Like those of the Austrian section, the English chemicals deserve but brief notice. Soda ash is the staple, and all the possible changes are rung on it, nor are we surprised at this, for this is England's leading industry. Some firms send over chloride of calcium, sulphur, and starch; one firm sends a bust of Linclon made of ozokerite. The Price Candle Company exhibit a large number of photographs of the fatty acids, showing the effect of admixture with varying quantities of other acids or of paraffin. Dr. Siemens exhibits a model of his regenerative gas furnace. Some beautiful iridescent crystals of chlorate of potash are shown by the Greenbank Alkali Company. The finest display of rarer chemicals is that of T. & H. Smith, which, like many others, are not down in the official catalogue. They exhibit a large cake of caffeine, and smaller quantities of codeia, cryptopia, apomorpha, muriate of thebaia, citrate of caffeine, other rare alkaloids, and thebolactic acid, an acid discovered by Messrs. Smith and obtained by them from the mother liquors of morphine. It is possible that it is really nothing but ordinary lactic acid.

Importance of Well Seasoned Timber for Carriage Building.

Lumber for bodies and gearings, including ash and poplar for the former, and hickory for the latter, to be properly seasoned should be nicely piled in the shade, and protected from exposure to wet weather. The cross slats between the boards should not exceed four feet in distance apart, so as to prevent the boards from warping out of their original shape.

Boards, as a general thing, check in at the ends, very often several inches, and sometimes a foot or more. and, of course, the lumber at that part is thereby rendered unfit for use. But to prevent this being a serious difficulty, it is simply necessary to place the end slats as close to the edge of the end as possible. Now, it is very obvious that moisture will be retained at the slats more than on the naked parts of boards; the result is that the boards do not shrink so rapidly at the slats as they do away from them; and consequently the boards remain whole and do not become wavy.

It is said by those who profess to know something about wood that, if you set timber upon one end, it will season quicker than it will if laid down. That is very likely so, and if so it may be caused by the fact that the sap or matter ejected ascends through the pores of wood set upon one end, without any hindrance, while it could not so readily if laid down. It is seen that fibers of the wood are longitudinal connections, and all the substance to be ejected collects between these connections in the pores, running from one end of the wood to the other, and flows out in the same direction. That is why the transverse expansion or swelling of wood is great, while its increase in length is hardly perceptible, when the pores absorb water.

Bodies, to be durable, should have the stuff in them highly seasoned, but not have it cooked too much by suspending it over a stove, so as to deprive it of the requisite substance and render it brittle. Cooking panels, as just described, brings them in such a condition that it is impossible almost to get them solidly glued on the frame without checking them at the ends, and at the same time they are liable to be split in two.

All that panels require after they are thoroughly seasoned, after fastening them to the frame, is to take out the dampness by warming them; and the frame does not need anything more. But proper seasoning is a requisite.

No matter how well developed constructiveness may be in a body maker, or the other faculties that aid him, or how experienced a mechanic he may be, even if he can make bodies without any person being able to discover the trace of a joint, if the stuff is not seasoned before it is put together, the body will not, cannot, stand.—J. W. Daron, in the *Hub*.

THE AMERICAN SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.

A largely attended meeting of this body took place at Saratoga, N. Y., during the week ending September 9, and many papers of value and importance were read. Among the most prominent was one by Mr. Edward Atkinson, of Boston, Mass., on

THE RELATION OF CAPITAL TO ANNUAL PRODUCTION AND SUBSISTENCE.

He commented on the outcry for cheaper transportation by stating that 500 lbs. of meat and grain constitute the full subsistence of an adult man for one year, and it cost to-day but \$1.25 to move a quarter of a ton or 500 lbs. from Chicago to Boston, less than one day's wages of a good mechanic. In this low cost it would be difficult to find evidence of the rapacity of the railway monopolists. So far as the people of Massachusetts eat bakers' bread, it costs them more to move the bread from the bakers' oven to the mouth of the consumer than it does to move the flour from the wheat field to the oven. There are, doubtless, grave defects in our railway system, but the fact must not be ignored that those special corporations, against which the most urgent charges of monopoly have been made, are the ones that do the most service in distributing the largest quantity of product at the least relative cost to the community.

The remainder of Mr. Atkinson's paper, which was too long for publication *in extenso*, was chiefly devoted to the capital and labor question; and it closed with a vigorous attack on the greenback form of money.

Mr. H. R. Hayden read a paper on

LIFE INSURANCE AS A SOCIAL FORCE,

in which he pointed out that a sound system of insurance effects a distribution of the loss which afflicts relatives when premature death occurs, and which averages human life as far as the well-being of the survivors is concerned. He complained of the laws affecting insurance in many of the States, stating that they gave advantages to the dishonest and so destroyed public confidence.

Mr. Nordhoff read a paper on

THE INDUSTRIAL AND SOCIAL CONDITION OF THE SOUTH, a question which can hardly just now be kept clear of politics; and Mr. Nordhoff's essay dealt chiefly with the subject as it shows the difference between republican and democratic misgovernment.

Professor Dwight read a paper on

LEGAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES,

in which he contrasted the position of the lawyer in this country with his *status* in England. In the latter country, the lawyer confines himself to one branch of the profession, and obtains an accurate though limited knowledge; but here the lawyer prepares himself in each department of professional labor, and obtains breadth and comprehensiveness at the cost of precision and accuracy. He furthermore advocated reforms in the system of college examinations, and an increase in the opportunities for students to acquire sound learning and a high sense of professional honor.

CLEANING BRASS INLAID WORK.—Mix tripoli and linseed oil, and dip felt into the preparation. With this polish. If the wood be rosewood or ebony, polish it with finely powdered elder ashes, or make a polishing paste of rotten stone, a pinch of starch, sweet oil, and oxalic acid, mixed with water.

A NEW STEAM ENGINE.

Messrs. Eli James Smith and Benajah Mason, Jr., of North English, Iowa, are the inventors of the novel steam engine herewith illustrated, which was patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency, August 1, 1876. The cylinder consists of two flanged sections, which are bolted to a central partition, C. A valve, *a*, is placed in a slot cut in the head, C, and is pivoted at *b*. D D are pistons, which are placed upon a piston rod, E, the distance between them being a little more than the length of the stroke and the thickness of the central head combined. The valve, *a*, is enlarged above the pivot, *b*, so as to engage with the bosses on the pistons, D D, at the end of every stroke, being moved by each piston in alternation, opening the supply passage, *c*, and the exhaust passage, *d*. The lower end of the valve is continued outside of the cylinder, and formed into a handle at *e*. The cylinder, A, is mounted on suitable supports, and the piston rod, E, is connected with a crank and fly wheel in the ordinary way.

Steam is taken through a pipe, F, and through the open port, forcing the piston away from the central head, the piston remote from the head following, of course, until it strikes the enlarged portion of the valve, throwing the valve over, and allowing the steam to enter on the other side of the central head, forcing the piston toward the end of its stroke. At the same time the lower part of the valve opens the exhaust port, allowing the steam to escape through the passage, *d*. If it is desired to reverse the engine, it is only necessary to move the valve, by means of the handle, *e*, at the proper instant, when steam will be admitted on what was before the exhaust side of the central head. When the engine is made vertical the upper section of the cylinder is made a little larger than the lower one, to compensate for the weight of the pistons.

THE ORIGINAL STEAM STEERING APPARATUS.

It is very rarely that any invention survives a period of half a dozen years without being made the subject of so many improvements and modifications that, in the end, it often happens that little or none of the original device remains. We know of no exception to this rule more remarkable than that of the steam steering apparatus in which steam, for the first time, was used to operate the rudder of a vessel. This machine, in its present form, is practically identical in operation with the first tangible outcome of the inventor's thought. The lapse of 25 years has worked no notable change in its mechanism; and the first apparatus of the kind ever built—an engraving of which as it appears at the Centennial Exposition is given herewith—compares in every way favorably with those of most recent construction, despite the fact that the latter embody mechanical refinements not found in the early model.

The inventor of this device, the importance of which is now recognized the world over, is Mr. Frederick E. Sickels, already one of the most famous of American inventors through his origination of the well known Sickels cut-off. The control of the rudder is secured by operating the valves for the admission of steam to the cylinders by a hand wheel. The rudder is thus compelled to follow the motion of said wheel, which is similar in form and mode of operation to the ordinary helm. Suitable disconnecting and connecting gear is provided, whereby the steam apparatus can be thrown out of action and the helm worked by hand in the usual way.

Apart from its serving as evidence of the non-alteration of the device from its original form, the apparatus at the Exposition is obviously possessed of much historical interest. It was used by negro pilots in the South previous to the war without the slightest failure in its operation; then it was exhibited in the Crystal Palace, in this city, in 1853-4. It was next put aboard the steamer *Augusta*, running between Savannah and Fernandina, on a route extremely difficult of navigation by single engine steamers on account of crooked channels. It was, when thus located, submitted to the severe tests of heavy gales and rough seas, with out any impairment of its efficiency taking place. When the war broke out, the *Augusta* was brought to New York, and the machine was removed and sent to the London International Exhibition of 1862. There it attracted great attention, and a medal was awarded it; and from this time the machine, of which it is the prototype, has gradually been creeping into use.

A model which is exhibited at the Centennial beside the large machine, Mr. Sickels states, is prior in date to any attempt, in books, drawings, or models, to devise a power-steering apparatus. It appears further that Mr.

Sickels first began experimenting upon the subject as early as 1847.

During the present year the invention has been tested by a board of naval officers, and its adoption in the United States naval service strongly recommended. It has already been adopted in the English navy, and is employed on nearly all the British merchant steamers which enter the port of New York. From the owners of these last the inventor receives no royalty, nor do the former in anywise make return for the benefits they enjoy, preferring to avoid

of the time devoted to the examination of the Centennial Exposition, than in making just such studies as this. There are other original machines—notably a model of the first sewing machine made by Saint in the last century, beside Elias Howe's original device—which would form profitable subjects for further examination of the same nature.

A Plea for Inventors.

Of all the mental efforts requiring imaginative construction, none is more difficult than that which is required to develop a new mechanical movement, or originate a new plan-mode or mechanical principle. The faculty of inventing depends more upon natural endowments, or rather instinctive intelligence, than upon education and experience. Experience only serves to familiarize the inventor with the wants or deficiencies in any particular line of industry, and education assists in giving completeness to the conception; but the conception itself is a matter entirely independent of either, and is just as apt to be suggested by an illiterate and inexperienced person as by one who has spent years in studying and investigating the matter: in fact more so, because education and experience are both the results of study and long familiarity with existing devices, so that they, to a certain extent, incapacitate their possessors from looking beyond the boundary of their experience and teaching. Upon the principle that "fools rush in where angels fear to tread," the illiterate inventor will investigate methods and plans which many an experienced artisan or workman would not entertain for a moment, simply because they do not possess that imaginative construction necessary to give the

new creation mental existence, and because their teaching and experience do not include the new idea. Thus many of our most important and most novel inventions have been originated and developed by persons entirely devoid of technical knowledge and experience in the field of mechanics to which their inventions belong. Accident, circumstance, and necessity all contribute to the discovery of new principles. Sometimes, however, we find the skilled and educated mechanic possessed of the inventive faculty, and when this is the case he proves a "world mover." Such was Ericsson, who did more to develop the engine and strengthen the navies of the world than all other inventors combined. Such was Morse, who, with a skill and learning which was admirable in its completeness, adapted and perfected the telegraphic system with such precision and judgment that today it retains the principal features that he gave it. Such were Hoe and Colt, and other inventors whose memories the civilized world hold in reverence.

All patents are not productive, neither are all farms; all men are not rich; all mines are not bonanzas; but if we were to strike a balance sheet we would find that the proportion of the profitable and unprofitable patents correspond in a like ratio with the other profitable and unprofitable enterprises which men undertake.

When we consider the vast number of patented articles in the market, many of which are covered by a number of patents, we will realize that the work of the inventor is very often profitable. There is scarcely an article of human convenience or necessity in the market today, that has not at sometime or other been the subject of a patent, either in whole or in part. The sale of every such article yields the inventor a profit. If we purchase a box of paper collars, a portion of the price goes to the inventor; if we buy a sewing machine, the chances are that we pay a royalty to as many as a dozen or fifteen inventors at once. Indeed the field is so vast and the number of profitable patents so great that it would be far preferable to undertake a recapitulation of those patents which are not profitable than those which are.

The universal sentiment is that genius is its own reward; and in order to give effectiveness to the sentiment, the person who possesses genius in any branch of industry is allowed to set his own price upon the result of his labors. It is therefore but a just recognition of the services of the inventor that he be allowed to provide for his own wants from the benefits which he confers upon the public. The artist who produces a picture of unusual merit can find purchasers for it at a fabulous price. The stage actor who can draw crowded houses can demand and receive for a single performance what would be a year's salary for an ordinary workman; and the lawyer that possesses the faculty of swaying the minds of a jury by his eloquence can demand and receive whatever sum of money he desires for his services; yet the labors of the inventor yield more substantial results, and benefit mankind more than all these combined. He is the sapper and miner who prepares

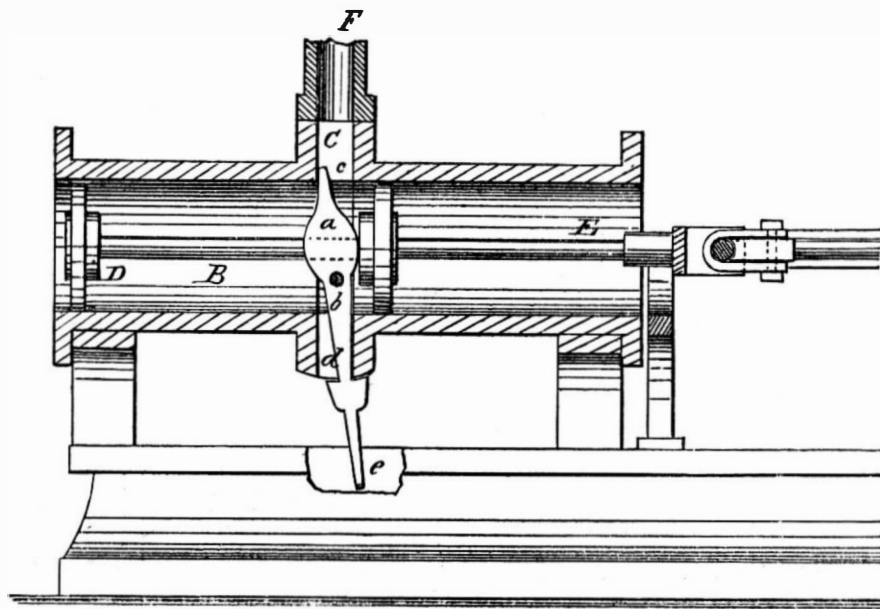
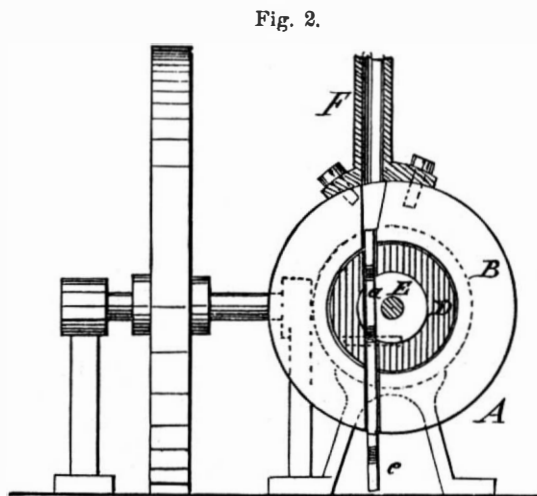
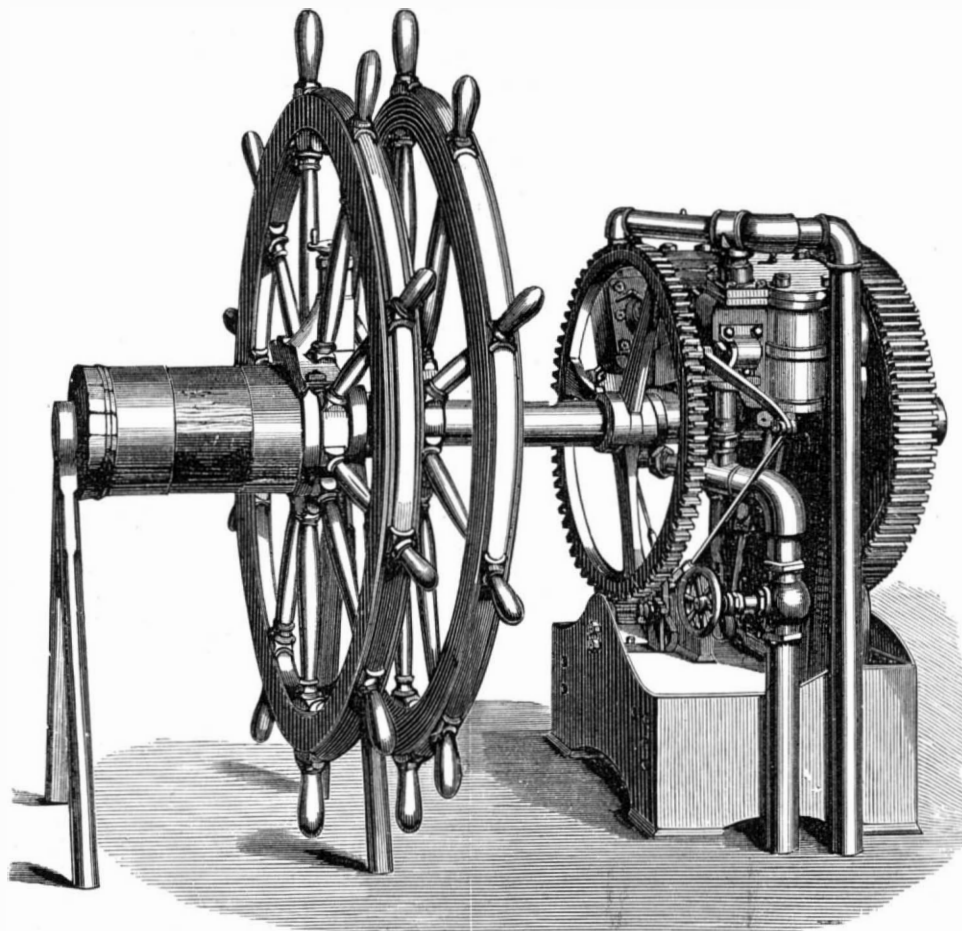


Fig. 1.—SMITH & MASON'S STEAM ENGINE.



doing so by taking advantage of the fact of these vessels being under a foreign flag.

Those visitors to the Centennial, who may make an interesting study of the original machine, will be enabled to judge of the absence of improvements and the perfection of the original model by comparing it with a recently constructed and finely made apparatus of the same description exhibited by the government in the United States building. To the student of the rise and progress of American invention we can suggest no more profitable expenditure, of a part



THE SICKELS STEAM STEERING APPARATUS AT THE EXHIBITION.

the way and overcomes all our mechanical difficulties; in fact, he furnishes us with the honey, while we are the drones in the hive that derive benefit from his labors. Give credit; then, where credit is due. The inventor is the world's benefactor, and as such we take off our hat to him.—*Mining and Scientific Press.*

Oil of Orris Root.

Orris root owes its use during more than two thousand years chiefly to its fragrance, which, curiously enough, does not belong to the living root. Its slight and by no means aromatic smell is first developed into the agreeable perfume after drying, without doubt in consequence of changes of a chemical nature, concerning which at present our knowledge is deficient. When the dried root stock is submitted to distillation with water, eventually there appears upon the water a crystalline odorous matter, which is justly prized in perfumery and is specially prepared by some of the larger distillers. But the yield is very small, only about 1 part per 1000 of the orris root used. The product is of a yellowish brown color, of the consistence of a firm ointment, and possesses the characteristic odor of orris root.

THE HONEY BUZZARD.

The honey buzzard is one of the *falconidae* or hawks, and is known to natural historians both as *falco pernis* (Cuvier) and *falco apivorus* (Linnæus). It is known throughout Europe; and specimens with a wing measurement of 50 inches are on record, but commonly 20 or 23 inches is the extreme width from tip to tip. The head is always gray, and the eyes, as well as the feet, are yellow. The talons, bill, and cere are black. The plumage on the upper portion of the body is brown; beneath, brown and white mingle indistinctly, while the tail, which is long, is marked with transverse ash-colored bars; the toes are only half feathered. In the female the plumage is similar in color, only very decisively spotted.

The honey buzzard breeds in trees; the eggs are two in number, color gray, with obscure spots. An egg collector came across a nest of one of these birds while in pursuit of his hobby at Selborne, England. In the nest he found but one egg, which was much smaller than that of the *falco apivorus*, not so round, and dotted at each end with small red spots, being surrounded in the center with a broad blood-marked zone.

It must not be supposed that the food of these birds is restricted to honey, which only forms its dessert; but they devote attention to small birds, insects, and reptiles, as well as "rats and mice, and such small deer," and have been known, says a writer in the *Young Fancier's Guide*, from the pages of which we select the engraving, to purloin the eggs of other birds.

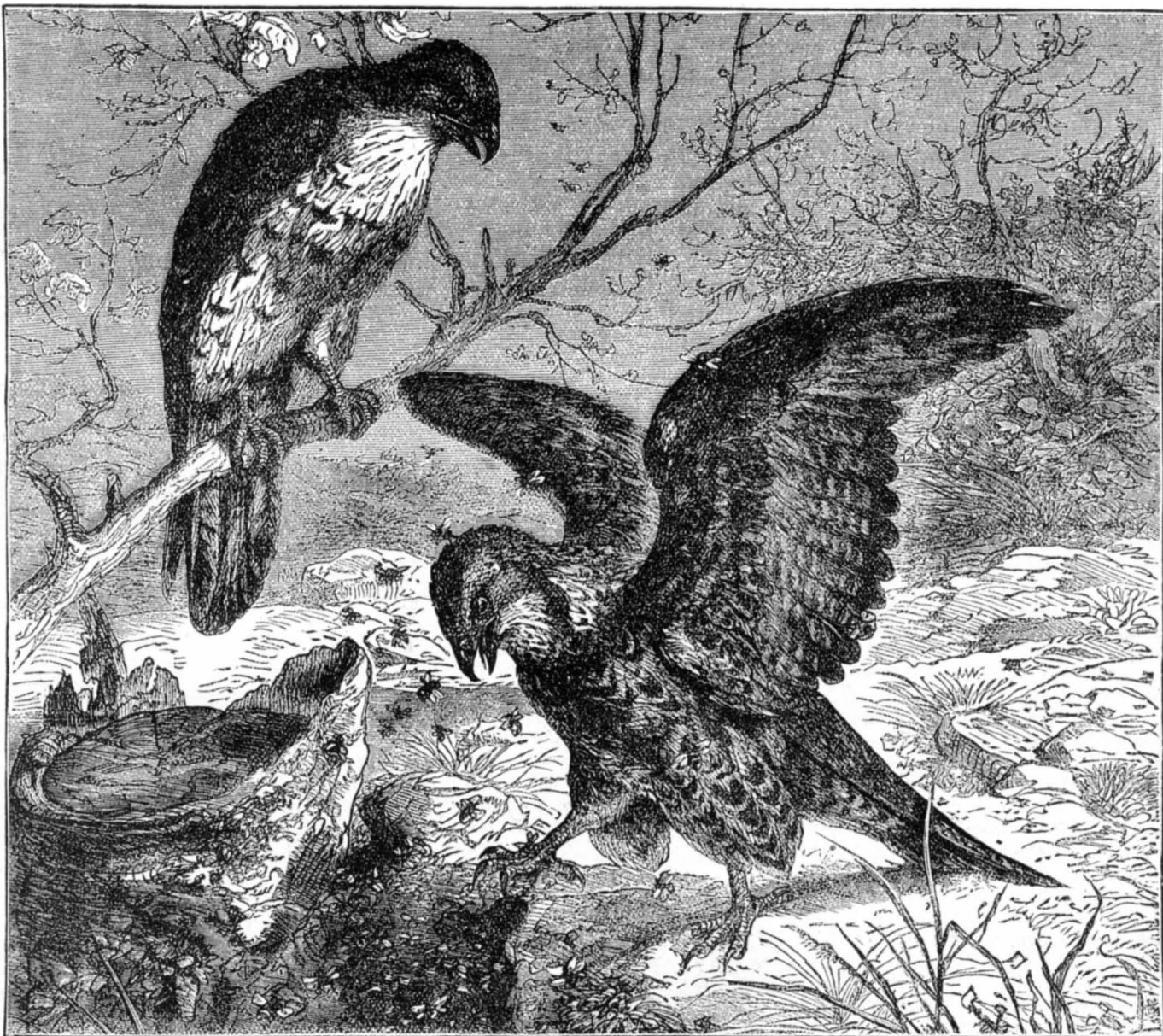
A Curiosity in the Baltimore Record Office.

In the course of the examination of titles in the record office to the ground comprised in Federal Hill Park, which will involve a good deal of labor yet before completion, Mr. Warfield T. Browning (assisting the city examiner, Mr. Hensler) yesterday came upon a deed which excited remark among the persons in the office for some curious matters referred to in it. The paper is a deed of trust in the nature of a will from Dr. John James Giraud, who resided on South street, and owned a part of the Federal Hill ground, conveying all his property to John S. Tyson in trust for the wife, heirs, and legatees, of Dr. Giraud. The deed was executed March 16, 1826, but Dr. Giraud did not die until 1837. Among the legatees was Right Rev. Ambrose Marechal,

Archbishop of Baltimore, for several thousand dollars, and the trustees of the poor of the city and county. Among the bequests are two patents, dated January and April, 1821, to Dr. Giraud for "a discovery in mechanism, consisting of a very simple machine of considerable power, for the use of steamboats and other machinery requiring the application of great power. The patent is termed the handle or cylindrical machine, and the machine carries in itself its fulcrum or point of support." He also bequeaths his right in a discovery of a specific or medicine for the prevention or cure of yellow fever, plague, and malignant and pestilential fevers. The deed says its eminent virtues have been proved by three years of operation and trial by order of the government and medical faculty of Havana. Dr. Giraud's memoir on this subject was published in 1825 by William Wooddy, Baltimore. The specific consists of two liquors, limpid, tasteless, and inodorous; they are neither purgative nor emetic, but recall the secretions through the proper excretories, and the crisis takes place by perspiration, etc.

The composition of the liquors, he says, cannot be discovered by chemical analysis, and their discovery was the result of the study and labors of one third of his lifetime. The government at Havana was to have given him, the deed states, \$120,000 for the discovery; but the commotions in Spain and the death of Governor General Mahy interrupted the negotiations. He says he desires the secret to be sold by the trustees for his heirs to some government, and for that

manner that each of the different parts thereof may be properly proportioned and arranged with reference to the particular function which it is designed to fulfil. When this is done, and the work completed, its useful mission has commenced, and inventive talent or skillful instructors need not be employed upon it, unless it should be to modify or add further improvements. Yet, however complete in itself, or however effectually it may perform its work, it is not endowed with the faculty of self-preservation, and, unless it be properly cared for, will be subject to numberless accidents and injuries, involving not only its own immediate or ultimate destruction, but, in many instances, the loss of life or limb to those employed in its operation. This necessary care requires, not the expert mechanic or professional skill, but simply the exercise of common sense. It is by prompt attention to little things that the maximum efficiency and durability is attained, with properly designed and constructed machinery. When the bearings of shafts and the spindles are not oiled sufficiently, not only does the increased friction require a greater amount of driving power, but the bearings are roughened or destroyed in a proportionate degree. When the caps of journal boxes are left too loose, the journal wobbles, and, if there is gearing attached to the shaft, its teeth are badly worn out of shape; while, if the caps are screwed down too tight, the oil is forced out, the journal heats, and both the shaft and bearing are soon rendered worthless. These matters are of no small moment, and the aggregate loss resulting from inattention to them is very great. It is not confined alone to the machinery of mills and other manufacturing operations, but occurs in a very much greater degree in machinery employed in agriculture. Many a thrasher, horse power, or harvester has been branded of bad construction, and been prematurely disabled, when a few drops of oil, or one or two turns of the wrench, were all that were required to set things to rights. Many other items might be mentioned, in which attention to little details, requiring only an application of ordinary common sense, will guard against great and unnecessary waste of power and damage to machinery; but these are sufficient to illustrate the almost self-evident proposition that, while talent is required to originate, and practical knowledge to construct machinery, its most ef-



HONEY BUZZARDS AND THEIR PREY.

purpose, for the first time, writes down the composition of the recipe. Should any other person, as is not impossible in this age of science and chicanery, be found possessed of the recipe he is to be treated as a fraud, and the trustee is authorized "to prosecute him with all the rigor of the law." The doctor estimated the amount to be realized from the sale of his patents at \$60,000, and directs that out of that sum \$6,000 shall go to the archbishop and \$3,000 to the poor. His sanguine dreams of profit from this source were not realized, however, no government being found to purchase the patent for the specific; and now the missing ingredient is the money that was expected.—*Baltimore Sun.*

The Care of Machinery no Mystery.

The *Mill Stone*, a monthly journal published at Indianapolis, Ind., one of the many good papers printed in the interest of special trades at the West, gives to its readers the following sound advice on the watchful care necessary in operating machinery:

To correctly plan and devise improvements in machinery involves the exercise of a considerable degree of original genius; and to fully develop such improvements, and to bring them into the most practical shape, requires, in addition to this, the application of acquired knowledge of the construction of the machine or mechanical combination, in such

efficient operation, and the profit in its use resulting therefrom, can only be secured by bringing to bear upon its management the plain, ordinary principles derived from every day observation and experience.

Etching on Glass.

M. E. Seigwart has lately given some interesting particulars about etching upon glass. Since fluoric preparations have been produced at reasonable prices, the decoration of glass by their means has steadily made its way. Etched glass is now to be found everywhere, and glass etching runs glass cutting very hard. It is very easy to understand that well etched objects appear actually more beautiful than those which have been cut. The cost of production is cheaper; and since M. Hock, a Viennese chemist, has given us an elaborate work upon the technics of glass etching, the difficulties attending this kind of work have been reduced to a minimum.

As is well known, fluoric acid usually etches smooth, while other fluoric preparations yield a matt surface. The most beautiful ornamentation is obtained when certain parts of the glass surface are rendered matt by means of fluoride of ammonium which has been slightly acidified by means of acetic acid. The matt appearance is not always the same with different kinds of glass, but varies much in beauty;

this effect is governed by the composition of the glass, lead glasses being easily acted upon, and furnishing a very fine matt surface.

Where it is desired to have the surface of the glass not altogether matt, but shining like ice, as in the case of window glass, this may be attained in a simple manner by placing the glass plate in a perfectly horizontal position and covering it with fine groats. Then very dilute fluoric acid is poured upon it. The groats act as a shield, and produce upon the glass raised points.

Several ways exist of etching photographs on glass. A good result may be secured by covering the surface with a solution of gum made sensitive with bichromate of potash, and printing the same under a negative; after the image has been thus produced, it is dusted over with minium or red lead, and the red picture thus obtained is fixed and burnt in in the usual manner. The easily soluble red glass, so obtained, is treated with strong sulphuric acid, when a white matt design is produced, and the picture appears by transmitted light as a positive.—*Photographisches Archiv.*

Power of Wooden Vessels to Withstand Pressure.

We have lately received a communication from a correspondent at Dayton, O., referring to an unfortunate occurrence, which caused the instant death of one man, and the narrow escape of several others. It seems that a number of men, in the employ of a manufacturer of artificial mineral waters, were in the act of charging a quantity of water, contained in a large iron-bound oaken cask, with carbonic acid gas, at a pressure of 130 lbs. to the inch. The cask, without any previous warning, exploded, with the results above stated. The explosion was sufficiently severe to splinter the cask and the three-inch planking over head. That such accidents are not of more frequent occurrence is to be wondered at; and under such circumstances we cannot but consider the employment of such vessels criminal. We have often cautioned persons against employing wooden casks for this and similar purposes; as it is evident from their construction that, under such conditions of pressure, the whole strain must come upon the hoops and binding clamps, which, unless of extreme strength, could not be expected to withstand such strain as they were placed under in the above instance. Besides, such vessels are always of doubtful efficacy for such purposes, for, where they hold liquids under pressure, even provided it were possible to render every joint tight, the liquid would gradually ooze through the pores of the wood; and if it so happened, as in the instance above cited, that the liquids contained a free acid, the metal bindings would speedily become corroded and weakened, thus rendering rupture, in time, certain.

Should personal and public safety be sacrificed to the mere question of economy? And is the incurring of such risks justifiable by the small advantages derived therefrom? Before more of such deplorable accidents as the one here recorded have occurred, it is to be hoped that the proper authorities will take the matter in hand, and prevent further loss of life from such criminal practices.

The World's Age.

Mr. William Chambers, the veteran author and publisher of *Chambers Journal*, contributes to that excellent periodical a summary of some of the many views held by scientists as to the antiquity of our world. The *Quarterly Review* treated the same subject recently, and that most conservative of magazines now admits that the ordinary interpretation of the date of the creation, about 6,000 years ago, is to be set aside as untenable and at variance not only with historic and archaeological research, but with the substantial discoveries of geology. The reviewer quotes the opinion that it is impossible that the earth can have existed many millions of years, as the earth is cooling, if not rapidly, at such a rate as to make such an antiquity impossible; and again, there is reason to believe that the earth's rotation is not so rapid as formerly.

The question as to the date of creation must be considered to refer to our solar system alone. The nearest fixed star or sun outside our system—possibly the center of a similar system—is too far off to enter into the question of the age of our sun and its planets and their satellites, being two hundred millions of millions miles away. Sir Charles Lyell gives the date of the Cambrian formation of rocks as at least two hundred and forty millions years ago; while Mr. Darwin assigns to the world a much greater age even than this. Mr. Adams has essayed to calculate the retardation of the earth by the friction of the tidal waves on the atmosphere; and in conjunction with Professor Tait and Sir William Thomson, he allows 22 seconds per century as the time lost by the slackened speed. Mr. Chambers wisely concludes his article as follows: "We can only say that the theories propounded are eminently suggestive, but nothing more. It is not remarkable that there should be differences of opinion among men of science concerning the dark and stupendous questions of the cosmogony of the world. All we deprecate, in the present state of human knowledge, is rash dogmatizing, one way or another."

The Poughkeepsie Bridge.

Progress is being made in the construction of the bridge across the Hudson river at Poughkeepsie, a work, which, when completed, will increase the facilities of travel between Pennsylvania and New England. The coal traffic alone, it is anticipated, will bring in a large revenue to the bridge, as the freight to Massachusetts and other manufacturing States will be considerably reduced.

The American Bridge Company is to construct the bridge and its approaches, and the materials for the first caisson are

now being delivered. There will be four piers in the river, built on caissons, the foundation of which will be 85 feet below the surface of the water. The piers will be 525 feet apart, and will be built up of masonry to 130 feet above high water mark. The bridge is to have a double railroad track, a wagon roadway, and a way for foot passengers. It is stated that the Erie railway can cross the Hudson by this bridge and enter New York city, making a *détour* of only 10 miles from its present route, which has the disadvantage of landing its passengers in Jersey City.

CHAIN GEAR AND FASTENINGS.

Our extracts this week from Knight's "New Mechanical Dictionary" include a series of engravings relating to chain, together with others showing forms of fastening rope, etc. These will doubtless prove useful to builders, quarrymen, farmers, and others who frequently have occasion to use tackles, for hoisting heavy weights and for many other purposes.

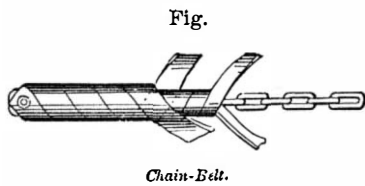
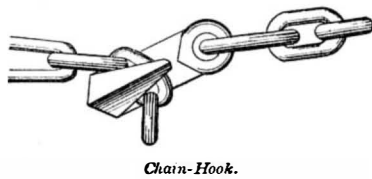


Fig. 1

Fig. 1 shows how a chain, by wrapping it with strips of canvas or leather, may be made into a round belt, whereby power may be transmitted. Fig. 2 is a chain hook which simply clamps one link between two adjacent ones. Fig. 3 shows how chains are fastened by ropes, when, as in the case of a vessel's cable, they are to be subjected to heavy strains. The upper figure is termed a double and the lower a single chain fastening. These hitches are very strong and not liable to slip. Fig. 4 is a chain pulley having pockets or depressions in its periphery, in which lie the links or alternate links of a chain which passes over and

Chain-Belt.

Fig. 2.



Chain-Hook.

Fig. 3.



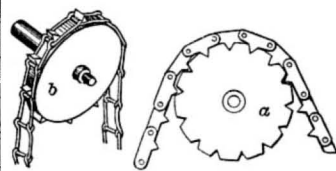
Fig. 4.



Chain-Fastenings.

Chain-Pulley.

Fig. 5.

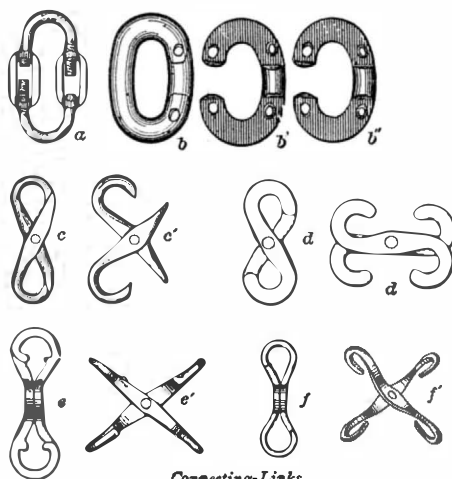


Chain-Wheel.

LINKS

capable of being taken apart and thus becoming a means of uniting the broken ends of a chain. Each half of the link, *a*, has a swivel to which it is connected by a head, the swivel of each part forming a nut for the threaded leg of

Fig. 6.



Connecting-Links.

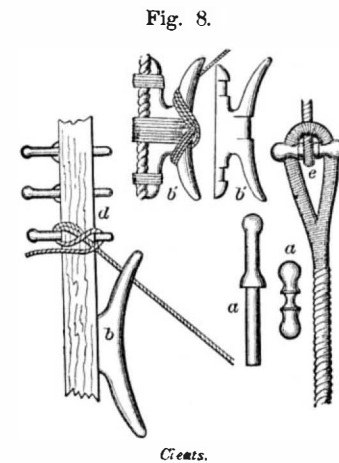
the other portion. The link, *b*, is made of two sections, *b'*

*Published in numbers by Messrs. Hurd & Houghton, New York city.

b', laid upon each other and riveted. The other figures represent various forms, in which the twin swiveling portions form a mousing for each other.

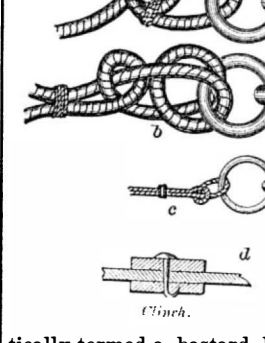
CLEATS.

These are belaying pieces, consisting generally of a bar with two arms fastened to a post or stanchion by a bolt passing through its stem. Those shown at *a*, Fig. 7, are simple belaying pins. *d* is a rope belayed. *b* is a common cleat, lashed in place as shown at *b'*. *e* is a belaying pin or toggle, spliced into the end of a rope to secure an eye upon. Forms of



CLINCHES are shown in Fig. 8. In nautical parlance a clinch is a mode of fastening large ropes to rings, such as anchors, etc. It consists of a half hitch with the end stopped back to its own part by seizings. *a* is a slip clinch; *b* a clinch secured, and *c* a simple clinch. In carpentry a clinch is a fastening, as at *d*, in which the long end of a nail is turned over, and the recurved end caused to enter the material so as to oppose retraction.

LOOPS of different kinds are illustrated in Fig. 9. *a* is the simple sleeve or collar; *b*, *c*, and *d* are modifications of the same. *e* is nautically termed a bastard loop. It is stopped in place with



rope yarns. *f* is a loop used as a fair leader for ropes, etc. *g* is a bend stopped with seizings.

LOOPS



Loops and Loop-Holders.

Gold in America—Its First Discovery by the Pre-Historic Indians.

In a recent speech delivered in the House of Representatives, R. B. Vance, member of Congress from North Carolina, said that the first discovery of gold in the United States was made in Mecklenburg, in that State, in 1820. A correspondent of a North Carolina newspaper corrects this statement, saying that the first gold was found in Cabarrus in 1799, and refers to Wheeler's "History of North Carolina" for evidence.

Old chroniclers give an account of a province called Cofachiqui, which was visited by De Soto's gold-hunting expedition in 1538-40, and which was embraced in what afterward became the States of Florida, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, and, according to Logan, in his history of "Upper Carolina," had its center on the western limits of South Carolina. Its capital and chief town stood upon the tongue of land between the Broad River of Georgia and the Savannah, just opposite the modern district of Abbeville. The Spaniards entered this capital after a two months' march, and found the country ruled by a beautiful Indian queen, Adalla, who entertained the Spanish governor and army with much ceremony. Here they found hatchets formed from an alloy of gold and copper. By this their cupidity was greatly excited, and they concluded that they had found a country abounding in the long coveted precious deposits of gold. And so indeed they had, says Logan (whom we quote freely), but it was neither their good fortune nor their desert to find out the precise spot where gold could be obtained. In less than fifteen miles southeast of the town, on the opposite or Carolina side of the river, lay one of the most extraordinary gold deposits in the world. The Cherokees were well acquainted with the Dorn mine. This is shown by the numerous relics of their handiwork scattered around it, and there can be little doubt that the massive nuggets of its outcropping gold supplied them abundantly with the finer metal of the alloy that so attracted the eyes of the Spaniards. It is no less known, to a few who have inquired into the traditions of the aborigines, that the gold and copper, found in their possession, in the form of solid masses or curious trinkets, by the first white men who visited the country, were obtained from these sources.

The Indian method of smelting these metals was one of the most remarkable devices of savage ingenuity; in practical efficiency the famous blowpipe of Dr. Hare was scarcely superior. Logan tells us that, having first hollowed out

(39) F. M. W. asks: Is there such an instrument as a night glass? A. The night glass (telescope), properly speaking, differs from the day glass only in the dimensions of its objectives and in some cases the use of an eyepiece of lower power.

MINERALS, ETC.—Specimens have been received from the following correspondents, and examined, with the results stated:

T. A. H.—Nos. 1, 2, and 3 are sulphide of iron. No. 4 is sand containing sulphide of iron, oxide of iron, alumina, and clay.—D. S. V.—It is chlorite with felspar, and is of no value.—J. S. M.—The presence of the sand is probably due to the decomposition of certain silicates at the source of the spring, the finely divided silica being brought to the surface by the mechanical force of the water, and there deposited. It is not of sufficient purity to be of value even for glass making.—S. S.—The powder consists principally of sesquioxide of iron, together with a little alumina and sand. We found neither gold nor silver.—P., of Gold Hill, Nevada.—It is a clay containing lime. We do not think it contains any metal in paying quantities. A complete analysis would be required to determine all its constituents.—W. H. W.—It is galena, sulphuret of lead.—J. M.—The very small piece appears to be an artificial product. It contains a considerable percentage of copper.—J. McG.—A complete analysis of the beef did not detect any poisonous matter.—J. F. W.—No. 1 is mica schist. No. 2 is hornblende. No. 3 is chrysoprane-chalcedony, whose color is due to nickel. No. 4 is dolomite, a magnesian limestone. No. 5 is rutile—titanic acid. No. 6 is felspar mica. No. 7 is a variety of basalt. No. 8 is quartz. No. 9 is impure clay. No. 10 is granite. Nos. 11 and 13 are semi-decomposed granite. No. 12 is quartz. No. 14 is flint. No. 15 is clay containing iron. Nos. 16 and 17 are hornblende. No. 18 appears to be a specimen of chlorite, a silicate of magnesia. No. 19 is magnesian limestone.—E. E. Y.—It is a talcose rock containing sulphide of iron, which has gradually suffered partial decomposition; it is not valuable.—J. T.—It is an impure clay containing oxide of iron and sand.—A. W. S.—It contains, or has been in contact while heated with, sand or clay. The scoria consists of silicates of lime, alumina, and iron, together with caustic lime.—S. E. E.—No. 1 is hematite—an iron ore. No. 2 contains oxide of manganese.—No. 3 is hornblende.—R. C.—The yellow body is sulphide of iron. The white, carbonate of lime. The hard dark colored piece appears to be chalcedony. The fourth is a piece of scoria.—Cairo, Ill.—It is impure kaolin, a silicate of alumina.—The two specimens in match box, marked "Alpha" and "Clara," are quartz rock and hematite iron ore.

J. C. R. asks: In what year did the grasshoppers commence their destructive work in this country?—W. Z. R. and others ask: What is haitra, which you mention as a new size for cotton cloth?

COMMUNICATIONS RECEIVED.

The Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN acknowledges, with much pleasure, the receipt of original papers and contributions upon the following subjects:

On the Accumulation of the World. By S. A. On Bevel Gears. By H. E. Also inquiries and answers from the following: W. F. W.—L. W. P.—B. T. K.—P. F.—H. H.—J. B.—W. W. C.—F. M., Jr.—W. D. K.—W. K. P.—M. A. G.—E. G.—P. S. K.

HINTS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Correspondents whose inquiries fail to appear should repeat them. If not then published, they may conclude that, for good reasons, the Editor declines them. The address of the writer should always be given.

Enquiries relating to patents, or to the patentability of inventions, assignments, etc., will not be published here. All such questions, when initials only are given, are thrown into the waste basket, as it would fill half of our paper to print them all; but we generally take pleasure in answering briefly by mail, if the writer's address is given.

Hundreds of inquiries analogous to the following are sent: "Who makes cast iron cannon? Who sells sensitive dry photographic plates? Whose is the best photographic apparatus for outdoor work? Who sells varnishes? Whose is the purest white lead?" All such personal inquiries are printed, as will be observed, in the column of "Business and Personal," which is specially set apart for that purpose, subject to the charge mentioned at the head of that column. Almost any desired information can in this way be expeditiously obtained.

[OFFICIAL]

INDEX OF INVENTIONS FOR WHICH Letters Patent of the United States were Granted in the Week Ending August 22, 1876, AND EACH BEARING THAT DATE.

[Those marked (r) are reissued patents.] A complete copy of any patent in the annexed list, including both the specifications and drawings, will be furnished from this office for one dollar. In ordering, please state the number and date of the patent desired, and remit to Munn & Co., 37 Park Row, New York city.

Table listing inventions and their patent numbers, including items like Barrel stand, Bed bottom spring, Bedstead, Billiard chalk, and many others.

Table listing inventions and their patent numbers, including items like Window screen, SHAWL PIN, FOUNTAIN BIRMS, and many others.

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SCHEDULE OF PATENT FEES. Table listing fees for various patent services such as On each Caveat, On each Trade mark, On filing each application, etc.

THE VALIDITY OF PATENTS. We recommend to every person who is about to purchase a patent, or about to commence the manufacture of any article under a license, to have the patent carefully examined by a competent party, and to have a research made in the Patent Office to see what the condition of the art was when the patent was issued.

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