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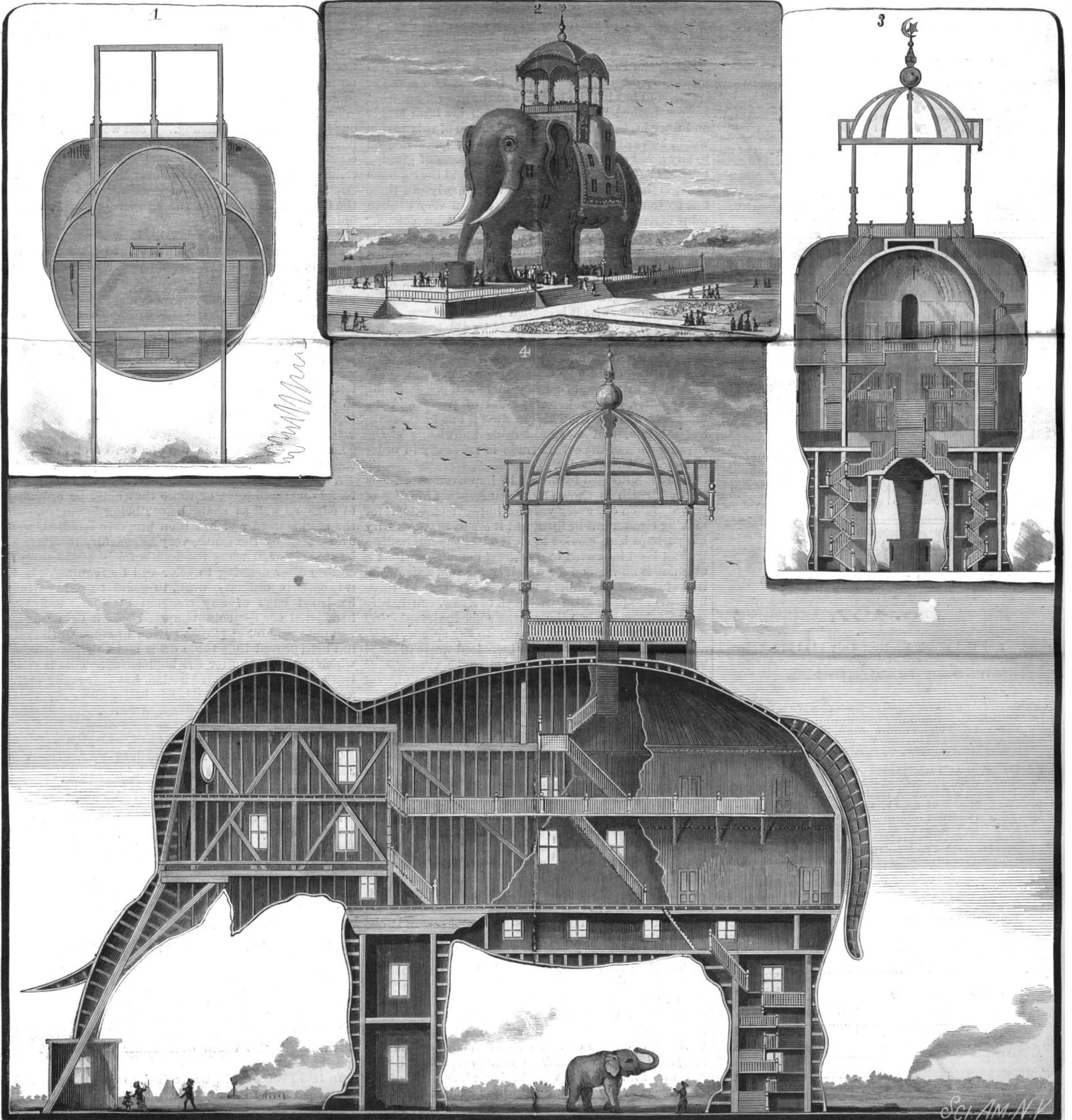
THE COLOSSAL ELEPHANT OF CONEY ISLAND.

The reputation that the American people have long had of always doing everything on the grandest possible scale, has received lately a very substantial confirmation in the two monuments that have recently been bestowed upon this country. The Washington Monument and the statue of Liberty are the greatest works of art in height and magnitude that have been raised by the hands of man since the Tower of Babel. In addition to these there is a third monument, facetiously styled the eighth wonder of the world, that has recently been raised in the neighborhood of New

York, that for one reason deserves to be named in the same connection with the foregoing, namely, on account of its size. The Colossal Elephant at Coney Island has not been favored with much serious public attention, owing to the fact principally that it is not an artistic work, and secondly, because it is the project and property of a stock company, whose unexalted aim was to rear a structure that would serve, not so much to elevate the public mind artistically, nor to stand as a monument to some of our noted forefathers, but rather to abstract the unwary dime from the inquisitive sight-seer. This fact, and the grotesque nature and enorm-

ous size of the colossus, has deprived it, up to this time, of much consideration, but this should not deter us from inquiring how a building of such unique design and original construction was called into being.

It was designed and built under the personal supervision of the architect, Mr. J. Mason Kirby, of Atlantic City, N. J. It was first intended to make it a hotel, but later this idea was abandoned, and it was decided to construct the interior with the purpose of using it as an auditorium for concerts, etc., while the platform on the top, or the howdah, as it is termed, would serve as
(Continued on page 21.)



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NEW YORK, SATURDAY, JULY 11, 1885.

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COTTON GINNING IMPROVEMENTS NEEDED.

There are now in the United States between twelve and thirteen million cotton spindles, the property invested amounts to hundreds of millions of dollars, and the product each year runs nearly into billions. Seven-eighths of the cotton spindles of the country are subject to all the inaccuracies incident to the original cotton gin of Whitney, and the other eighth is only exempt from these troubles by reason of their using the Sea Island cotton, which is longer and finer than the Upland or short staple varieties.

The competition between the various cotton spinning and weaving concerns demands the greatest production with the least waste. Curiously, cotton has grown steadily worse in quality ever since the war. Many causes have operated to produce this result, but it is principally due to the constantly diminishing acreage of the individual planters, who, instead of raising five hundred to two thousand bales each, now put into the market anywhere from three bales upward, fifty to one hundred bales being considered a large output. With our larger cotton spinning establishments, some of which work two or three hundred bales of cotton per week, the large number of different growings of cotton leads to peculiar results in the mill, which are shown by diminished production, owing to the mutilated and varying length of the fiber.

The ginning of cotton is apparently a very simple affair, but in reality it is not, and old ginnery hands are in demand at exceptionally high wages all through the cotton growing States. An additional difficulty results from the changing in many mills making finer sheetings and shirtings, to numbers finer than they had previously been spinning. This has called for a longer staple, and has led the planters to the growing of what is now termed "fine cottons," which are both longer and finer in their length. The culture of this cotton would be vastly more profitable could it be carried on to any great extent; but the usual process of ginning the Sea Island is very slow and tedious, and the common saw gin is entirely inadequate to properly gin these fine cottons. There seems, then, to be a very evident want of new ginning machinery for the "fine cotton," which necessitates a different application of mechanism from anything now in the market. The new gin must treat a longer fiber of cotton or "lint" than the saw gin is capable of handling, for in the latter the fiber must not be of a length much to exceed the distance between two saws, otherwise it is carried lengthwise across the breast of the gin and is mutilated by the teeth of the saw. Something which will obviate this difficulty would find a very large market at almost any price within reason. "Lint" coming from such a gin would find ready sale at considerably increased prices among the spinners, for the better grades of yarns and the finer classes of goods. This question is one for mechanical solution, and a considerable knowledge of the requirements of the cotton trade is necessary in order to handle it successfully.

There is a decided tendency to improvement in this respect, which is shown by the increasing number of patents taken out every year for improved methods for making cleaner lint or fiber, but it seems that quantity has perhaps been carried too far; while the mechanism has not been improved to any great amount, so that a machine is now called for which shall avoid the mutilation of these small fibers, which, when two or three hundred are pressed on the teeth of a saw, can hardly escape injury. When these fibers come to the spinning mills, the injury works decidedly to the spinner's disadvantage, in the very largely increased waste of these mutilated fibers and in a lack of strength, evenness, or regularity in the thread after it has been spun, and the trouble only ends when the cloth is finished.

Cotton may be materially injured by running the gin either too fast or too slow, but very little injury from the latter cause has ever been found when the cotton has been carefully examined after ginning. Most of it shows very clearly the harm that arises from crowding the gin, or attempting to do more than can properly be done by a gin of a certain number of saws. Another cause, and one of those to which attention should be most directed, is attempting to gin the cotton when it has been taken from the field before it is completely matured or when a considerable amount of moisture is present, so that it is damp to the touch; very great injury frequently comes from cotton which has been ginned in this condition.

The question of the proper ginning of cotton is one which is now before the cotton world. Some of the largest dealers have recently taken this matter in hand with a view of eliciting all the information possible. This question was considered so important some years since that very extensive trials were made in England and in India with a view to ascertain not only what different gins could do, but what they did do in regular working, in charge of those who attended to the ginning of different cottons from year to year, and a vast amount of information was obtained; but much of the machinery which was used in those trials, ten to thirteen years since, is now obsolete, which shows some activity in this direction. But American spinners and planters are now interested to obtain information re-

garding what is being done to-day, and are waiting for the appearance of an improved gin. This is a question for mechanics and inventors to solve, and there is without doubt a very large sale for a cotton gin which can accomplish a reasonable amount of output with the minimum amount of injury to the individual fibers, so that the spinner shall obtain cotton of greater value, greater strength in the manufactured product, and less waste and consequent loss in its manipulation.

EDGING BY FORGING.

In a forging shop recently the smith was dressing some cold chisels and some lathe tools. It was noticed that, by the help of his assistant, after drawing the tool to an edge, he cut off the very edges before hardening and tempering the tool. After observation showed that he had left an edge thickness of not less than one-sixteenth of an inch, somewhat more. The smith was an old workman, verging on being an old man; so he was asked the "reason why." In answer he took a bar of tool steel, heated and forged it, and made a chisel point. Then he hardened it, as usual, in clean water, scoured it, and drew it to a pigeon blue temper. A slight tap with a hammer drove the edge off as though it had been glass. He explained that good, high steel could not be hardened and tempered when drawn to a thin edge: that there was not material enough left in a fine edge to sustain an edge after hardening and maintain an edge after tempering. His plan was to harden and temper the solid metal and grind to an edge. Possibly his method was adapted only to "high" steel; and yet it is indisputable that when tools are forged to edge and hardened they frequently crumble until they have been ground and worn far below the forged edge.

There are steels that will take a cutting edge without fire and water hardening. Wood working tools, as plane irons, can be hammered to temper without ever touching water; but usually tool steel is amenable to treatment for cutting purposes only by fire and water. Sometimes it is necessary to dress tools to shape by the file, and in that case the tempering must be the finishing.

An instance may be related. It was necessary to make some miniature bobbins to hold flattened gilt wire to be spun around a core of silk thread, producing a gold yarn or thread for embroidery and braiding purposes. The bobbins were made of boxwood, and were so small that three of them would not weigh an ounce. They were run with great rapidity and needed to be exactly balanced, as they revolved around a central spindle. The tools for finishing these bobbins were of necessity made to accurate gauge, and after hardening and tempering could not be touched except to "finger stone" them to a polished edge. These tools were heated in the usual way, but instead of being plunged in water, were pushed through a cake of common beeswax on the top of a can of oil in which they were cooled. They required no tempering.

A mixture of beeswax and hard soap is handy for tempering small tools, or those that must be brought to edge as well as shape before being tempered. If the steel is good and has been properly handled, not overheated by the smith, very satisfactory results can be secured even when the tool is fairly edged down; and no after drawing to color will be required. But it is best, in ordinary work, to grind back from the hardened edge of any common machinist tool. A hammered edge—"cold tempered"—is a delusion; it will not stand for anything. Even in stone drilling it has been proved that those drills and chisels are best which are ground after the hammering. This is contrary to the old fashioned notion, but it is really fact; a ground and polished edge is better than any that can be given by hammer, fire, and water.

PROFESSOR FLEMING JENKIN, LL.D., F.R.S.

The announcement of the death of Prof. Fleming Jenkin, of the University of Edinburgh, which took place on the 12th ult., has been received with profound regret by the entire scientific world.

Prof. Jenkin was but little over 52 years of age, and was in the very prime of his power. His education was obtained chiefly on the Continent, his degree of Master of Arts being awarded to him by the University of Genoa in 1850. For several years after his graduation he was employed in locomotive and constructive engineering, but at a comparatively early age he became deeply interested in submarine cables and general telegraphy, a department in which he afterward achieved such signal distinction. He was connected with the laying of the first American cable, with various European and Asiatic cables, and almost his last professional work was done as one of the joint engineers to the Mackey-Bennett Cable Co. He was retained by the Government as professional adviser in testing the cables taken over under the Postal Telegraphs Act.

In 1865 Prof. Jenkin was called to the Chair of Engineering in University College, London, and three years later he was appointed to a similar chair at the University of Edinburgh. As a teacher he met with the same success which had attended his engineering

practice, and the high standard of professional education which he disclosed at his inaugural address was fully maintained during the seventeen years of his connection with the University. He was the joint patentee with Sir William Thomson of several valuable improvements in apparatus for submarine telegraphy; being likewise the sole patentee of a number of ingenious engineering inventions, and was much consulted in regard to cases of disputed patents.

Under the encouragement and advice of Sir William Thomson, Prof. Jenkin began to write on scientific subjects so early as 1859, and many of his contributions possess a permanent value. His paper on "The Application of Graphic Methods to the Determination of the Efficiency of Machinery," in 1880, secured the Keith Prize of the Royal Society, and was thoroughly original. He was also the author of an excellent manual on electricity and magnetism, and wrote a history of bridges for the Encyclopædia Britannica. Many of his contributions on miscellaneous topics also attracted marked attention, and showed unmistakably the master's hand.

LIFE-SAVING FIRE APPLIANCES IN NEW YORK.

The officers of the New York Fire Department seem fully to realize the heavy responsibility devolving upon them in a great city, where buildings of ten and twelve stories are not at all uncommon, where apartment houses of even fifteen and sixteen stories are permitted, and where hundreds of people are daily crowded together in one building, and subject, in case of fire, to the same horrible fate. It is true that of late they have been somewhat aided by the loud demand for fireproof buildings, which has forced landlords and contractors to pay some attention to at least the appearance of safety; but in many cases this has been but a pretense in deference to the popular outcry, while in others, with the most honest intentions, the effort has failed. There is, of necessity, so much of combustible material, even in the so-called fireproof structures, that no substitute has yet been found to take the place of civic precautions.

In view of these unavoidable dangers, the department has been giving particular attention to its life-saving corps, and the resulting proficiency in this direction is very creditable. But in this effort, though they have done so much in perfecting the appliances for safety and rescue, their success, after all, depends in a large measure upon the coolness and bravery of the men who have the apparatus in charge. Their victory has been a moral rather than a mechanical one, for the members of the corps have distinguished themselves by their courage in facing appalling dangers, sometimes for the privilege, often for but the bare chance, of saving human life. The desirable spirit of emulation which has been created among them has been materially fostered by the generous public sentiment which is always ready to appreciate and to applaud a brave action. The expression of this appreciation, in the hands of one or two of our public spirited citizens, has taken the practical form of medals of honor, given under such circumstances that any man might covet their possession.

One of these, the Bennett medal for 1884, was recently presented to Foreman John Binns for his bravery in rescuing a lad, under particularly trying circumstances, at the burning of the St. George apartment house. Another, the Stephenson medal for 1885, was awarded at the same time to Foreman David Connor for having the best drilled and disciplined company. The presentation was made at Washington Square by Mayor Grace, and was made the occasion for an entertaining display by the life-saving corps, some of the French officers from the Isere and La Flore being among the spectators.

A five story apartment house, facing on the square, was selected as the theater of action. The corps displayed admirable ease and rapidity of motion in scaling the building, passing from window to window, and descending on the ropes, carrying a "rescued" comrade. Single descents from roof to pavement were made in a quarter of a minute, a very fair speed for vertical open air traveling. In ascending the ladders, some delay was noticeable from the unavoidable slipping of the feet off the rounds. This, perhaps, might have been avoided had the men worn leather stockings or moccasins instead of stiff soled boots. The method of firing a life-line over the building was also successfully shown. Similar experiments at the Palisades, it will be remembered, were illustrated in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN for May 23.

Though probably of less value, the part of the display which excited the most decided interest was the practical illustration of the use of the life blanket. The jump from the second story window, made by one of the corps, was comparatively a simple operation, but when made from the third story was a less enviable feat. The force generated by a body of perhaps 160 pounds weight falling through this distance is not inconsiderable, and the stretched canvas, though held by a score or more of stout, strong men, yielded almost to the point of touching the ground. A part of the performance which, presumably, is not ordinarily given,

was the rebound, which sent the jumper up into the air almost to the second story again before his role was completed. The effect was quite amusing, for the figure bounding through the air in a sitting posture had a decided resemblance to "Uncle Jonathan traveling by telegraph," which used to be shown in the children's zootrope.

This easy dexterity, however, means hard work. The strong muscles and steady head result but from constant practice, and their successful proficiency comes only from daily and persevering effort.

AN ACCELERATING CARTRIDGE.

Among the very recent inventions is that of A. S. Lyman, the veteran inventor, of this city, of what may be termed an accelerating cartridge. It consists of an ordinary cartridge shell firmly packed with powder meal, through the center of which is a longitudinal perforation, as shown in the cut. Powder meal is used



in order to compact the explosive into a single piece or block, and prevent the nearly instantaneous ignition which takes place with granulated powder.

When this new cartridge is fired, the ignition begins within the walls of the perforation, slowly at first owing to the small surface exposed to fire producing a low gas pressure, by which the ball is started; but as ignition proceeds the perforation enlarges with increasing ratio, the charge burns with augmented rapidity, and the gas pressure steadily rises, expending nearly its whole effect upon the ball.

The few experiments thus far made with this novel invention have yielded remarkable results, and they indicate a coming revolution in the range and penetration of projectiles. From a small smooth bore gun, 4 feet in length, five-sixteenths inch bore, with a powder charge of nine-tenths of an ounce, made in the new form, a projectile 9 inches long, weighing 3½ ounces, has been driven into a target composed of 9 plates of boiler iron, each one-fourth inch thick.

Eight of the plates were pierced, the forward end of the projectile then curved upward, boring up within the body of the ninth plate, and making an aggregate penetration of iron by the projectile of over four inches. It is estimated by the patentee that with a three inch gun and 40 pounds of powder a projectile may be sent through a solid iron armor plate three feet thick. Should these expectations be realized by actual experiment, it would seem as if, in the naval battles of the future, the elements of light vessels, great speed, and rapid firing qualities would become prominent.

As to land defenses and military operations in general, radical changes would necessarily follow from the introduction of small arms and artillery having the extraordinary ranges and power which this new invention promises.

Car Builders Discussing Car Couplers.

At the recent annual convention of the Master Car Builders' Association, held at Old Point Comfort, Va., the question of automatic freight car couplers came up for the usual amount of discussion. There were ninety-four members present, representing railroads running nearly half a million cars, besides several railroad commissioners from the different States, who were seeking information to guide them in recommending legislation on the subject. Notwithstanding the Massachusetts law, and the tests made in Boston last fall, to promote the adoption of a uniform automatic freight car coupler, the inherent difficulties of the subject are such that but slow progress is being made toward the end sought, and any legislation by other States in the same direction seems to be of at least doubtful expediency until there can be some uniformity of opinion as to what action should be taken. The provisions of the law of New York State are different in that they apply only to new cars, as follows:

"After July 1, 1886, no couplers shall be placed upon any new freight car to be built or purchased for use, in whole or in part, upon any steam railroad in this State, unless the same can be coupled or uncoupled automatically, without the necessity of having a person guide the link, lift the pin by hand, or go between the ends of the cars."

It was urged at the convention that, to enforce the adoption of automatic couplers by legislative enactment, before some uniformity of action could be practically determined upon, would create such confusion that the danger to trainmen would be increased instead of diminished. Representatives of the Fitchburg, the Chicago and Alton, and the Lake Shore spoke favorably, though tentatively, in favor of automatic couplers they had been introducing, though the latter company had "not been going very fast," but were nevertheless "anxious to end the hazardous business of coupling with link and pin." The whole subject was finally referred to the Executive Committee, "with power to arrange for and conduct a public trial at some central point, to employ one or more experts, and to request the co-operation of the railroad companies in making trials and in furnishing the funds for

conducting the same, the Executive Committee to make report of the results and to make recommendations at the next meeting of the Association."

Although the difficulties are so great in the way of selecting the best automatic coupler, it is to be noted that the most of the leading lines are gradually adopting one or another style of such coupler; there can be little doubt, however, that the movement would be general and the progress of the change rapid if all were agreed as to what was the most desirable coupler to adopt. In SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT, No. 459, will be found illustrations and description of eight styles of automatic couplers, from among those which have thus far seemed to meet with most favor.

Typhoid Fever at Plymouth.

The following interesting account of the outbreak, progress, and cause of the dreadful fever scourge, which has abated only at intervals since last March, in a small mining town in Pennsylvania, we find in the July issue of the *Herald of Health*, published in this city. It is from the able pen of the editor, Dr. M. L. Holbrook, and teaches a lesson which should be a warning to people in many localities:

The town of Plymouth is situated favorably for health, being on a dry hillside, well exposed to wind and sun, on the banks of the famous Susquehanna River. But good air and sunshine are not always sufficient to secure good health. Like most towns of its size, it has no system of sewerage, and many of the vaults or closets are very imperfectly constructed. Every year, when the winter breaks up and the snow melts, a large amount of decaying matter which has been thrown out during the winter by the housekeepers is deposited on the ground, and pollutes both water, soil, and air. Most of the wells are shallow, owing to the peculiar geological formation of the region. These wells are generally abandoned, the houses being supplied with water by the water supply company of the place. This water is gathered into reservoirs from mountain springs and from an artesian well. It is ordinarily excellent, but liable to be polluted during freshets by surface water, which carries whatever filth it gathers from the soil in its course to the streams.

Plymouth has long suffered with typhoid fever, more or less; but between April 10, this year, and June 1 there have been over 1,000 cases. The origin of the outbreak has been investigated as carefully as could be, and, no doubt, correctly. None of those families suffered from the disease who used well water or river water, though neither were of the best quality; it was only those who used the reservoir water that contracted it. It was found that the reservoirs of mountain spring water had been polluted. It happened as follows: Between two of the reservoirs there was a farm with a house, 60 feet from a deep, narrow gully, through which a mountain stream passed to the reservoir. A farm hand employed here was taken with typhoid fever early in January, and owing to imprudence had a serious relapse, so that he was ill most of the winter. So long as the ground was frozen no harm occurred; but in March there was a thaw, and the drainage from the vault where the excrement from this sick man was thrown was washed into the stream in the gully, and soon made its way into the reservoir below. The epidemic began 13 days after the water in this reservoir was used.

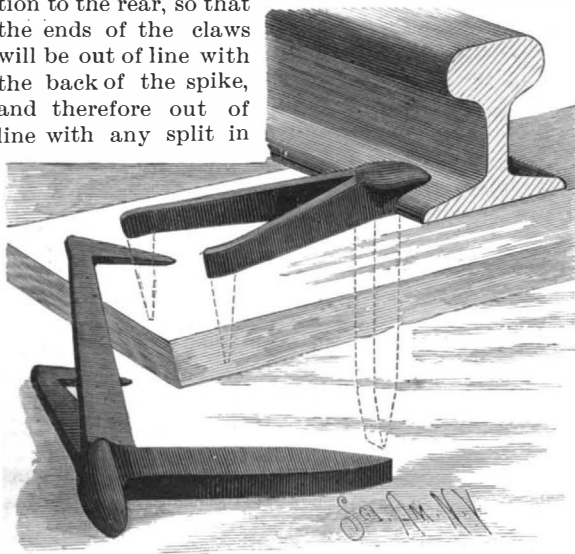
The lesson we learn from this case is, that pure water is of the greatest importance; that even pure water may become fouled without its being known to the consumer, and that those persons who have charge of patients ill with such a dangerous disease as typhoid fever may cause a great many deaths by being careless as to the disposal of the excrement. It also teaches us another lesson concerning water supply companies, and the little care they seem to give the matter of constantly watching the sources from which their water is obtained, and doing all in their power not only to prevent contamination, but to purify water which has been fouled. It suggests, too, an entire change in the method of disposing of human excrement, and the desirability of having it composted and turned into a fertilizer rather than allowing it to accumulate for months and years and breed corruption. Most of all, it proves the necessity of enlightenment on the matter of household sanitation, the danger of ignorance on these subjects, and the thoughtlessness of the majority of human beings.

The question may be asked, How was it possible for so small an amount of poison to contaminate so large a quantity of water? This is easily explained if we accept the germ theory of disease. Each germ is a seed which, under favorable conditions, multiplies rapidly. A few germs in a congenial soil become millions in a few days. In this case, the water from the melted snow carried with the germs much soluble matter into the reservoir, and this served as a food on which the germs fed and multiplied, just as weeds do in a rich garden soil.

YOUNG ostriches are warmed out of their shells by incubators in California, and manifest great astonishment when they discover they are not in an African desert. They have not yet become accustomed to being born on this continent.

RAILROAD SPIKE.

The spike herewith shown is more securely held to the tie than the old form, and consequently holds the rail more firmly; it corrects that insecure hold of the old spike caused by the splitting of the tie by the shank. To accomplish this the spike is made with two claws or anchoring arms suitably pointed to enter the sleeper, and arranged not only to extend outwardly from the rear of the shank, but also laterally in relation to the rear, so that the ends of the claws will be out of line with the back of the spike, and therefore out of line with any split in



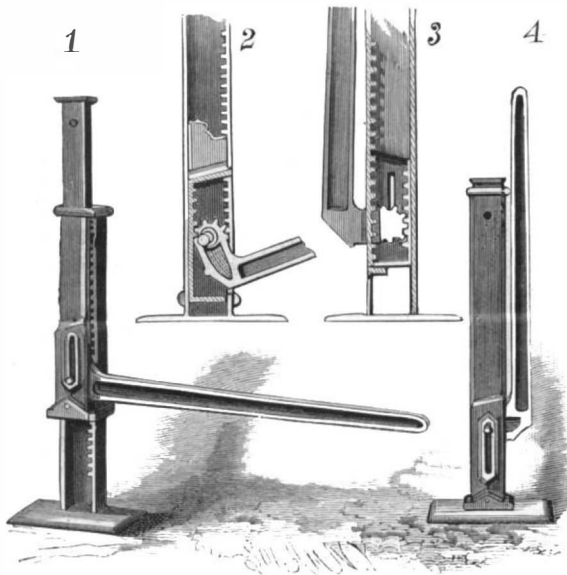
MORFORD'S RAILROAD SPIKE.

the tie which may be produced in driving. This will firmly anchor the spike, and securely hold the head on the rail in event of any looseness of the shank in its hole owing to the splitting of the wood. Such construction of the spike also provides far greater resistance to the lateral pressure of the rails and to any drawing action of the spikes. The engraving clearly shows, in the perspective view of the detached spike, the form of the shank, head, and diverging braces, and in the other view the position of the spike when applied to the tie and rail, the dotted lines representing the shank and sharpened points of the arms.

This invention has been patented by Mr. Abraham O. Morford, of Port Chester, N. Y.

IMPROVED LIFTING JACK.

Figures 1 and 4 are perspective views, and Figs. 2 and 3 are sectional elevations having the side removed to show the interior of a lifting jack recently patented by Mr. M. H. Ingalls, of North Granville, N. Y. A rack is formed on the inner surface of one of the side flanges of the standard. A flanged plate having a short rack formed on the lower part of the inner surface of one of the flanges slides between the flanges of the standard; a pinion formed on the end of the arm of an angular



INGALLS' IMPROVED LIFTING JACK.

lever engages with this rack. A part of this pinion is so made that it can engage with the rack on the standard. In one side of the arm of the lever is a groove containing a slide, from which a pin projects through a vertical slot in the lower part of the sliding plate, which is held to slide on the standard by two bands, one secured to the top of the standard and surrounding the plate, and the other secured to the bottom of the plate and surrounding the standard.

When the lever is swung up, as shown in Figs. 3 and 4, a smooth or straight edge part of the pinion faces the rack in the standard, thus permitting the plate to be raised until its top rests against the body to be lifted. The lever is then swung down, when the pinion engages with both racks, the standard rack forming a fulcrum and the plate being raised; the slide then moves to the bottom of the groove. Fig. 1, and locks the parts in place. To lower the plate, the pin projecting from the slide through the vertical slot is raised, when the lever can be swung up to bring the

straight edge part of the pinion opposite the standard rack. The jack thus constructed is easy to handle, strong and durable.

Card Board Enamel.

Take one pound of parchment cuttings, one-quarter pound of isinglass, and one-quarter pound of gum arabic in four gallons of water; boil in an iron kettle until the solution is reduced to twelve quarts; it is then removed from the fire and strained. The solution is divided into three parts of four quarts each; to the first portion is added six pounds of white lead, ground fine in water, to the second portion is added eight pounds of white lead, and to the third is added six pounds of white lead. The sheets of paper or card board are stretched out upon flat boards, and brushed over with a thin coat of the first mixture with an ordinary painter's brush; the paper is then hung up to dry for twenty-four hours. After this the paper is ready to receive a coat of the second mixture, and again hung up to dry for twenty-four hours; the paper is again treated in the same way with the third mixture, and dried for twenty-four hours. After this it receives a high gloss, which is obtained by laying the work face downward on a highly polished steel plate, and then passing both with great pressure between a pair of powerful rollers.

RAILROAD GATE.

This railroad gate—patented by Mr. Francis L. Bair, of East York, Pa.—is so constructed as to be opened by the wheels of the engine of an advancing train, and to close automatically after the passing of the train. To the ends of two of the ties, which are extended beyond the rails, are attached bearings for a central shaft carrying the plates or frames, *a*, forming the gate, which will be opened and closed by the rocking of the shaft. At the middle part of the shaft is a crank projecting in the plane of the frames; a bar, *c*, is pivoted to this crank, and also to cranks formed in shafts, *d*, journaled in bearings attached to bars secured to the ties, parallel with and at a little distance from the inner sides of the rails. Upon the ends of the shafts, *d*, are shorter cranks to which are pivoted bars, *b*, placed close to the inner sides of the rails, so that they will be in the paths of the flanges of the engine and car wheels. The ends of these bars are carried by cranks on the ends of shafts placed as shown in the engraving. The ends of the bars are beveled so that when struck by the engine wheels they will be pushed forward and downward, turning the shafts and causing the center bar, *c*, to open the gate. These bars are of such length that the gate will be opened before the engine can reach it, and that at least one pair of wheels will be always upon the bars until the entire train has passed. The gate is closed—raised—by the elasticity of springs attached to the cranks of the shafts, *d*, as shown in both figures.

The Way Incandescent Lamps are Made and the Air Exhausted.

"The way that incandescent lamps are made is very simple," an electrician said recently. "There are different ways of preparing the filaments, which are shaped, carbonized, and treated at a white heat. They are then placed in platinum holders, which are embedded in glass, and next go into the hands of the glass blower. The glass bulbs have round openings at the bottoms and little tubes at the tops. The little tubes all connect with a big tube. This is called a fork, and resembles a cluster of blackberries. Two or three dozen bulbs may be on a fork. The glass blower places filaments in each bulb at the bottom, and welds the glass about the platinum holders to the edges of the opening. Then the air is drawn from the bulbs.

"The open end of the big tube is attached to an air pump, which has forty pounds of mercury at its top. As the mercury drops it carries all the air with it, and vacuums are created in the bulbs. The operator then takes a Bunsen burner, and directs its flame against the little tubes close to the bulbs. This closes the bulbs, which are then removed from the big tube. The glass blower finishes them off. The exhausting of the air from so many lamps at once makes the cost small. The bulbs can be made by any ordinary glass blower, but it requires a man of intelligence to make the filaments."—*Electrical Review*.

Common Soap.

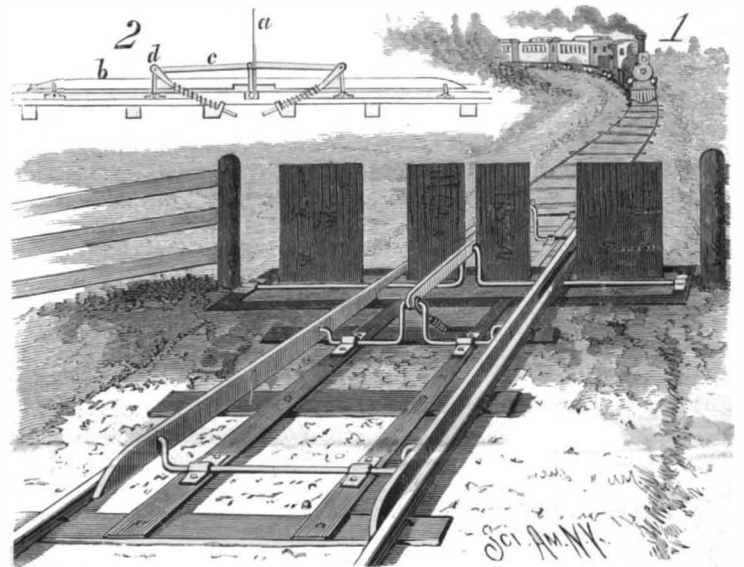
Manufacturers doing a large business have kettles holding several thousand pounds. The ingredients of ordinary family soap are, primarily, grease or tallow, rosin, soda ash, and salt. They are boiled for a couple of days, and then allowed to cool for about three days. The soap is then pumped from near the bottom of the kettle—this is because the soap in the bottom cools

more quickly than at the top—and into a crutcher, nearly like a milk churn, where it is mixed thoroughly. In this crutcher most of the adulteration commonly used in soap is introduced. Among the materials put into the soap are marble dust, glucose, sal soda, which is not used so much to cheapen the soap as to improve its appearance, flour, and starch. From the crutcher the soap is run into boxes called frames, and is cut into bars when it becomes hard. It takes about two weeks from the time the material is put in the kettle to the time the bars are placed in boxes ready for the market. One-third of the weight of a bar of soap when boxed is water.

This will dry out in course of time, leaving a three pound bar weighing only two pounds. Rosin is used in almost all soap, but is absolutely without use except to make the cost less to the manufacturers. This is also true of all the ingredients in soap, except the fatty substance and the ash. Yet the wastefulness of the persons who do washing makes it an absolute saving to the consumer to have three-quarters of it adulteration.—*Laundry Gazette*.

BALANCED SLIDE VALVE.

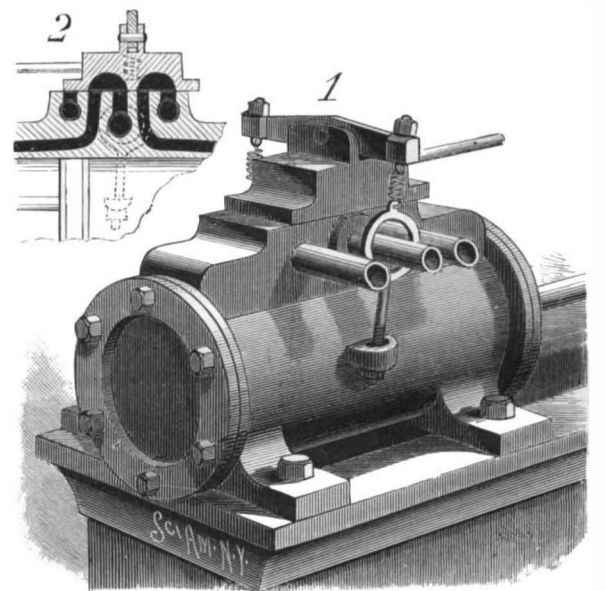
The valve has two cavities in its face, arranged one in advance of the other, which as the valve is reciprocated alternately open the steam and exhaust passages leading from the opposite ends of the cylinder. The valve seat has five ports—a central port connecting with a steam pipe or inlet, one port at each side of the central one, and an exhaust port at each end. As



BAIR'S RAILROAD GATE.

the valve is moved backward and forward over these ports, the cavities in it will distribute steam to, and exhaust it from, opposite ends of the cylinder alternately; the routes of the live and exhaust steam during any position of the valve will be understood from Fig. 2, a longitudinal section through the cylinder and valve. The valve may be operated by an eccentric set as in ordinary engines.

The valve requires no steam chest, and is held to its seat by spiral springs arranged on opposite sides of the valve and connected at one end to the ends of a cross-bar pivoted at, and extending across, the center of the valve; the other end of each spring has an adjusting screw bolt connecting with the sides of the cylinder, as shown in Fig. 1. By this construction the valve



WETHERILL'S BALANCED SLIDE VALVE.

may be balanced, or nearly balanced, against varying steam pressure, and as there is no chest to conceal the valve, its condition as to tightness may always be seen.

This invention has been patented by Mr. C. P. Wetherill, of Woodville, Miss.

THE EXPOSITION AT BUDAPESTH.

About forty years ago, the first exposition was opened in Hungary, and it was found an excellent means for improving the industries of the country. In 1872, 1876, and 1879, smaller expositions were opened in towns in the several provinces, and as these were all successful, a plan for a large exposition for the entire country, to be held at the capital, Budapesth, was matured. The buildings were erected in a part of the city park.

As shown in the annexed cut taken from the *Illustrirte Zeitung*, a large wooden portal leads into the enclosure containing the buildings. The Industrial Hall, which was erected as a permanent structure, and not for this exposition only, is surmounted by a large and elegant dome. The metal, glass, clay, and porcelain industries, the textile branches, furniture, the graphic arts, sugar manufacture, and chemical industries are exhibited in this building; 127,937 persons are now occupied, in Hungary, in the manufacture of leather, and this branch of industry was well represented; 30 per cent of the cultivated lands of Hungary are woodlands, kept in order by a small army of foresters and huntsmen. Their appliances and tools, different kinds of woods, etc., were also exhibited.

Torpedo Boats.

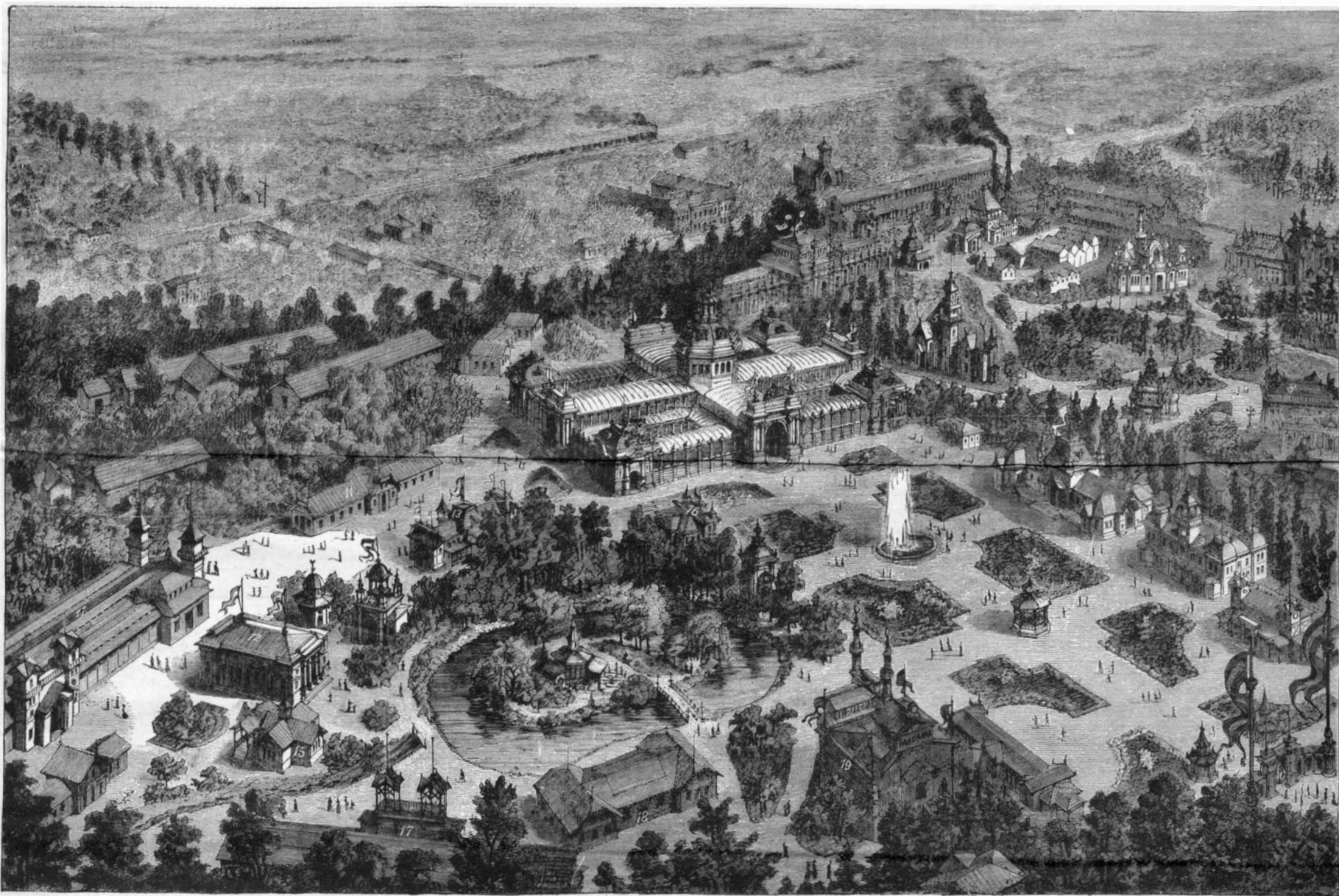
A new classification of torpedo boats has been adopted in the French Navy: First, torpedo cruisers, with a displacement of from 1,240 to 1,260 tons; second, torpedo dispatch boats, of from 320 to 380 tons; third, sea going torpedo boats, of 50 tons and over; fourth, coast defense torpedo boats, which are divided into two classes, those of 50 tons and those of 25 tons. In addition to these are the vedettes, torpedo boats which have less than 25 tons, but which, it is expected, will be of great service in the way of protecting the coast in the event of war. The *Illustration* of May 24 gives a sketch of the Bombe, belonging to the second class, which has just been constructed at Havre by a private firm, which has built two similar vessels for the Ottoman Government. The French will soon possess eight torpedo cruisers similar to the Bombe—the Coulevrine, the Dague, the Dragonne, the Fleche, the Lance, the Salve, and the Sainte-Barbe. The Bombe is built entirely of steel, is 30 meters long, her greatest breadth of beam being 6 meters 60 c. She is driven by 2 engines, steams about 18 knots an hour, and is provided with electric lights and all the latest improvements for firing torpedoes.

Large squadrons have this year been commissioned

sufficient to keep a straight course. But perhaps its greatest fault is that it can only be worked from a fixed point, as it requires a special engine, and that, therefore, the hostile ship must *come to it*. For these reasons it is probable that the best attainable controllable torpedo is not to be found in the Brennan. The Brennan is thus described: the torpedo is ejected from the fort by means of a steam engine, at a velocity estimated at 50 miles an hour. There are within the machine two coils of wire wound on spindles, each connected with the shafting of a screw propeller. The ends of these wires are made fast to drums on the steam engine within the fort, and as the wires are unwound from the reels in the torpedo on to those on the engine, the screws are set revolving, and the weapon propelled forward. The steering is effected by hauling harder on one side or other of the wires, so as to make the respective screw revolve faster. Lights screened from the front are placed to show to those on the fort the position of the torpedo."

One of the Evils of Natural Gas.

The legal papers in a nuisance suit against the Penn Fuel Gas Company, the largest natural gas company of this locality, will be filed to-morrow by M. Wood



THE BUILDINGS IN THE EXHIBITION AT BUDAPESTH.

1. Industrial Hall. 2. Large Machinery Hall. 3. International Machinery Hall. 4. Oriental Pavilion. 5. Forestry Pavilion. 6. Pavilion of the City of Budapesth. 7. King's Pavilion. 8. Art Building. 9. Directors' Building. 10. Main Entrance. 11. Agricultural Halls. 12. Building of the Secretary of the Treasury. 13. Wine Producers' Building. 14. Building for Horses. 15. Department of Worship and Education. 16. Model Hotel. 17. Building for Educational Appliances. 18. Building for Home Industries. 19. Panorama.

The pavilion of hygiene contained plans and models of schools, hospitals, etc., and samples of the different mineral waters of Hungary.

As Hungary is a great agricultural country, its products and the machines and tools for tilling the land, etc., were well represented in Agricultural Hall.

Eleven buildings were provided for the exhibition of animals, which number is by no means too large, as we will see when we take into consideration the fact that there are in Hungary 1,819,508 horses, 3,597,543 cows and oxen, 9,252,133 sheep, and 236,352 goats. In the latter part of May a special exhibition of sheep took place, in which 2,012 animals were exhibited, which is a greater number than was ever collected for a similar purpose heretofore.

Russian Torpedo Boats.

The Russian naval maneuvers will take place this year in the Baltic about the end of this month. There will be five flotillas of sixteen torpedo boats each, in all eighty boats. The squadron of ironclads will take up positions partly in Cronstadt Roads and partly before the entry to the coast Archipelago of Finland. The Peter the Great and the frigate Dimitri Donskoi will cruise near the port of Reval.

for the Russian naval exercises, in which the whole torpedo boat fleet will take part. The latter, to the number of eighty, will be divided into five smaller flotillas of 16 boats each. They are to cruise along the north shore of the Gulf of Finland, and will be commanded by Admirals Pilkin and Kuprianoff. The rest of the torpedo boats will remain at Cronstadt. The ironclads will take up positions from Cronstadt along the coast, and the naval maneuvers, which have just begun, will extend as far as Bjorkesund.

The *Army and Navy Gazette* says: "Within the past few days all the daily papers have contained glowing accounts of the results obtained by the newly invented Brennan torpedo, official trials of which were recently made at Sheerness. These reports will cause amusement to the initiated; but as they seem to be issued with some authority, and mention that sums ranging in amount from £10,000 to \$100,000 are to be paid for the invention, it is perhaps as well that it should be pointed out that this weapon is not altogether faultless, and that certain of the statements made about it are erroneous. It has never run 50 miles an hour. It has never been run among shipping in the sense that it has been steered in and out and around them. In fact, we doubt if it can be steered more than just

ward, attorney for William Metcalf and other residents of Cliff and Fulton Streets. For several weeks this gas company has been blowing off its surplus gas on the hill overlooking the Union Depot. At night the gas is lit, and the roaring, together with the light and heat, has so annoyed the neighboring residents that they will ask the courts to declare it a nuisance. They say that they cannot sleep, and the glare from the light is intolerable. The company answers that it must have an escape for the gas.—*Phila. Press.*

Indelible Stamping Ink.

For an indelible stamping ink, M. E. Johanson, of St. Petersburg, gives the following for marking textile materials by a stamp: 22 parts of carbonate of soda are dissolved in 85 parts of glycerine, and triturated with 20 parts gum arabic; in a small flask are dissolved 11 parts of nitrate of silver in 20 parts of officinal water of ammonia. The two solutions are then mixed and heated to boiling. After the liquid has acquired a dark color, 10 parts of Venetian turpentine are stirred into it. The quantity of glycerine may be varied to suit the size of the letters. After stamping expose to the fire, or apply a hot iron.

Mineral Products of the United States in 1884.

The second report on "The Mineral Resources of the United States," by Albert Williams, Jr., Chief of the Division of Mining Statistics and Technology, United States Geological Survey, is now in press, and will be issued shortly. This report is for the calendar years 1883 and 1884, and contains detailed statistics for these periods, and also for preceding years, together with much descriptive and technical matter. The following are the totals of the production of the more important mineral substances in 1884:

	Quantity.	Value.
Pig iron, long tons, spot value.....	4,097,868	\$73,761,624
Silver, troy ounces, coining value.....	37,744,605	48,800,000
Gold troy ounces, coining value.....	1,489,949	30,800,000
Copper, pounds, value at New York city (a).....	145,221,934	17,789,687
Lead, short tons, value at New York city.....	139,897	10,537,042
Zinc, short tons, value at New York city.....	38,544	3,422,707
Quicksilver, flasks, value at San Francisco.....	31,913	936,327
Nickel, pounds, value at Philadelphia (b).....	64,550	48,412
Aluminum, troy ounces, value at Philadelphia.....	1,800	1,350
Platinum, troy ounces, value crude at New York city.....	150	450
Total.....		186,097,599

a Including copper made from imported pyrites.
b Including nickel in copper nickel alloy.

NON-METALLIC MINERAL PRODUCTS OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1884 (SPOT VALUES).

	Quantity.	Value.
Bituminous coal, brown coal, lignite, and anthracite mined elsewhere than in Pennsylvania..... long tons (a).....	73,730,539	\$77,417,066
Pennsylvania anthracite..... do (b).....	33,175,756	66,351,512
Petroleum..... barrels.....	24,089,758	20,476,294
Building stone.....		19,000,000
Lime..... barrels.....	37,000,000	18,500,000
Salt..... do.....	6,514,937	4,197,734
Cement..... do.....	4,900,000	3,720,000
South Carolina phosphate rock, long tons (c).....	431,779	2,374,784
Limestone for iron flux..... do.....	3,401,930	1,700,965
Mineral waters..... gallons sold.....	68,720,936	1,665,490
Natural gas.....		1,460,000
Zinc white..... short tons.....	13,000	910,000
Concentrated borax..... pounds.....	7,000,000	490,000
New Jersey marls..... short tons.....	875,000	437,500
Mica..... pounds.....	147,410	368,525
Pyrites..... long tons.....	35,000	175,000
Gold quartz souvenirs, jewelry, etc.....		140,000
Manganese ore..... long tons.....	10,000	120,000
Crude barytes..... do.....	25,000	100,000
Ocher..... do.....	7,000	84,000
Precious stones.....		82,975
Bromine..... pounds.....	281,000	67,464
Feldspar..... long tons.....	10,900	55,112
Chrome iron ore..... do.....	2,000	35,000
Asbestos..... short tons.....	1,0	30,000
Slate ground as a pigment..... long tons.....	2,000	20,000
Sulphur..... short tons.....	500	12,000
Asphaltum..... do.....	3,000	10,500
Cobalt oxide..... pounds.....	2,000	5,100
Total.....		\$220,007,021

a The commercial product, that is, the amount marketed, was only 66,875,772 tons, worth \$70,219,561. b The commercial product, that is, the amount marketed, was only 30,718,293 tons, worth \$61,436,586. c Year ending May 31.

RESUME OF THE VALUES OF THE METALLIC AND NON-METALLIC MINERAL SUBSTANCES PRODUCED IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1884.

Metals.....	\$186,097,599
Mineral substances named in the foregoing table.....	220,007,021
	\$406,104,620

Fire clay, kaolin, potter's clay, common brick clay, terra cotta, building sand, glass sand, limestone used as flux in lead smelting, limestone in glass making, iron ore used as flux in lead smelting, marls (other than New Jersey), gypsum, tin ore, antimony, iridosmine, mill-buhrstone and stone for making grindstones, novaculite, corundum, lithographic stone, talc, and soapstone, quartz, fluorspar, nitrate of soda, carbonate of soda, sulphate of soda, native alum, ozocerite, mineral soap, strontia, infusorial earth and tripoli, pumice stone, sienna, umber, etc., certainly not less than..... 7,000,000

Grand total..... \$413,104,620

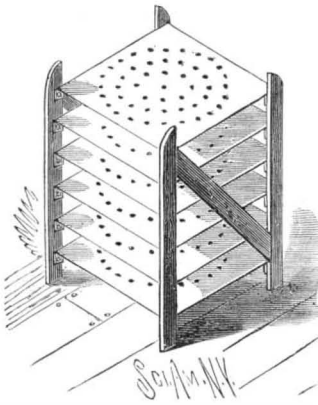
Asphaltum.

As a building material, says a contemporary, asphaltum is fast growing in popular favor, and is used principally as a prevention against damp cellar walls and mason work under ground, water tight cellar floors, coating for rain water cisterns, covering for underground vaults, etc. Its efficiency is fairly proved upon the first trial if applied properly. It has no equal for the purpose we have named, and needs only fairly to be introduced to make its own lasting reputation for reliability. The usual method of applying it is as follows: Reduce to a semi-liquid state, in an iron pot as large as can conveniently be obtained, over a good fire, sufficient asphalt to about two-thirds fill it. Use caution that the flame does not rise over the top of the pot to ignite the asphalt. Have the wall as nearly dry as possible and the joints somewhat rough—not smooth pointed—to admit of the asphalt penetrating the pores and securing a hold. Cover the wall with the asphalt, applied with a long handled brush, while the material is hot, and brush it in well. The asphalt will cool readily when applied to the cold surface of the wall. It is all-sufficient if the masonwork is thoroughly covered, for a coating 1/2 inch thick is as perfect a protection as a thicker one. On the roofs of vaults, tops of cisterns, or the like, where a settlement is likely to occur and produce rupture, mix a little air-slaked lime or clean, fine sand with the sand while hot. This will tend to preserve its proper elasticity, and destroy its brittleness and liability to fracture. For vault coverings, or floors to cellars, basements,

etc., the coating should be about 1/2 inch thick, and thoroughly worked into the joints and smoothed with a trowel. A barrel of asphalt as found in the market, heated and applied to vertical brick walls as we have described, will ordinarily cover about 250 square feet of surface, and in point of cost compare favorably with other methods of damp proofing, and produces better and more lasting results.

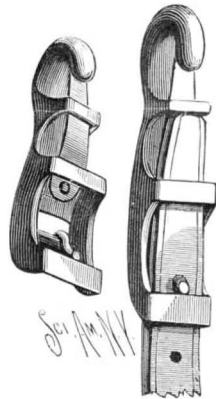
PIE AND CAKE RACK.

The pie and cake rack shown in the engraving consists of shelves made with or without perforations, and supported by a frame of upright and bracing slats. The frame is made of four corner upright wood slats united at three sides of the rack by diagonal braces, leaving one side of the rack open to allow access to the shelves, which are about ten inches square, and made of tin or sheet metal of suitable stiffness to support the pies and cakes. The edges of the metal sheets are doubled against the main bodies of the sheets, thus forming four stiffening lips or flanges; at the corners are formed lugs, by bending the ends of the edges at right angles to the plates, by which the shelves are nailed or screwed to the uprights. This rack will be found very useful to housekeepers and others when baking, as the pies may be transferred at once from the baking plates to the shelves, where they will be held in small space, thus saving much room. This invention has been patented by Mrs. Lydia A. Rowe and Mr. D. S. Rowe; particulars can be obtained by addressing the former, 121 Clifton St., Springfield, Ohio.



IMPROVED SNAP HOOK.

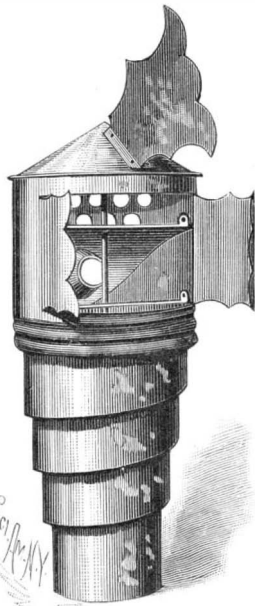
This snap hook may be applied to straps without stitching, thus effecting a saving in leather stock and enabling any person to attach a snap hook to a strap in a very short time. The hook and spring tongue are of the ordinary construction, but the spring is protected by a cross piece, so that it cannot be accidentally pressed down to release the object held in the hook. At the back end of the snap hook is a buckle to receive the strap and in front of the buckle is a loop or keeper to hold the end of the strap. The tongue of the buckle is placed upon a rod held in the frame below and somewhat in front of the cross piece of the buckle. The loop or keeper being in a line with the buckle plate, the strap will be straight and smooth when attached.



This invention has been patented by Mr. Dennis W. Palmer, of Detroit, Maine.

CHIMNEY COWL.

The engraving shows a chimney cowl or cap which is very effective in preventing draughts from blowing down the chimney, and in keeping out rain and snow, while it increases and regulates the draught. The lower part consists of a series of tubes of different diameters formed with inclined edges and secured together one above the other by clips, the smallest being at the bottom to enter the chimney. The tubes are so held by the clips as to form passages to permit any draughts or currents of air that may blow down the cowl to pass out without entering or materially obstructing the draught of the chimney. Held in cross pieces in the center of the tubes is a standard, upon the upper end of which is placed a revolving top, at one side of which is a large opening which is always kept to leeward by a vane secured to the dome, and side wings attached to the casing, one at each side of the opening. Opposite the opening is formed a series of holes through the casing, and below these is secured a funnel, the inner end of which passes through an opening in a curved deflecting plate secured



inside of the cap, so that air entering the funnel will be directed through the cap to the large opening, and air entering the holes will be directed, by the upper surface of the curved plate, also to the opening. At the base of the dome is a horizontal plate, and secured in a diagonal position above the opening is a plate which acts to direct the air downward to the opening.

This invention has been patented by Mr. Ira G. Lane, of 207 E. 64th St., New York city.

Color Blindness.

Color blindness, like other defects of vision, affects people in different degrees of intensity, and, like myopia, or short sight, it is frequently hereditary. It often becomes more pronounced in after life, or when the near point of vision begins to recede.

Among the more highly educated of all nationalities the average number of color blind is 4 per cent, an average in excess of that of all other classes. A man may have a good eye for form and outline, and yet be partially or wholly color blind. To select an instance from among many is difficult, but one impresses me more than the rest—that of Wyatt, the sculptor, who at the outset of his career was known as a remarkably good draughtsman. He naturally took to painting, but, as his pictures were observed to present curious incongruities of color, that involved him in grievous difficulties, he with much reluctance was obliged to abandon the brush for the chisel. He was altogether unable to comprehend the nature of his defect—indeed, refused to believe that he was color blind. So of men who have attained to eminence in the world of letters, and whose writings unmistakably betray evidences of a meager color vocabulary. A striking example of this occurred in the person of Angus B. Reach.

He was unable to recognize a difference in color between the leaf, the flower, and the fruit of plants and trees. His want of perception of color was wholly unknown to and unrecognized by himself, until we sat together at the table of a Paris restaurant. He, wishing to finish his letter to the "Chronicle" newspaper, requested the waiter to bring him some ink. As it often happens, under similar circumstances, the ink was brought in a wineglass. Reach became absorbed in his subject, while I, seated opposite to him, observed him alternately dipping his pen into his claret glass and into the ink glass. I frequently checked him, but presently to my surprise he took up the ink glass and was about to drink, when I remonstrated, and he then said he could see no difference between the color of the ink and the wine. On subsequently testing him I discovered that he was completely color blind.

Homer certainly labored under a physical defect of vision, and this fully explains the limited use of the terms he employed to express his sense of color, and to which Mr. Gladstone has drawn attention.—*Jour. of Science.*

Cotton and its Machinery.

The fly shuttle, or "picking peg," was invented in 1738, by John Kay, and the drop box by Robert Kay, in 1760. A machine for spinning by rollers was invented by John Wyatt, and patented by Louis Paul, in 1738. In 1769, Arkwright patented his water frame. James Hargreaves invented his spinning jenny in 1770; while a few years after, Samuel Crompton united the principles of Hargreave's jenny and Arkwright's water frame, and gave to the world the mule spinning frame.

It was about 1790 when the improved steam engine of James Watt was successfully applied to cotton machinery. The power loom was invented by Dr. Cartwright in 1785. The headstock was placed in the center of the mule by Wright, while Richard Roberts about 1825 achieved an enormous step in advance by his invention of the self-acting mule. The Jacquard loom was invented by Jacquard, of Lyons, in 1801. The dead spindle was of American origin in 1831. The combing machine for cotton was invented by Heilmann, of Mulhouse, in 1846—adapted from his wool combing machine. The Whitney cotton gin was patented in 1794, which set aside the labor of two hundred and ninety-nine men out of every three hundred, in separating the seeds from cotton.

The first we hear tell of cotton being exported to England from the United States was in 1770, when three bags from New York, four bags from Virginia and Maryland, three barrels from North Carolina, and three bags from Georgia were received in the port of Liverpool. In 1784, eight bags of cotton were imported into Liverpool from the United States, and a blundering custom house official detained them, as he was confident they had not been grown in America. They were consigned to the firm of William Rathbone & Son, who for several months were unable to find buyers; but eventually disposed of them to the Strutts, of Derby. The cotton imported into England from America in 1883 was 3,222,000 bales of four hundred pounds each.—*Wade's Fiber.*

To disguise the odor of iodoform, Mr. P. E. Smith, of Pinckneyville, Ill., states (*Nat. Drug.*) that the best oil of lavender will almost if not entirely disguise the odor of iodoform.

THE COLOSSAL ELEPHANT OF CONEY ISLAND.

(Continued from first page).

an observatory. The elephant is constructed of wood throughout, and is covered with sheet tin. The total length from the trough to the back part of the hind legs is 150 feet. The platform of the howdah is 88 feet from the ground, and the total height to top of crescent on flag pole is 150 feet. The height from ground to body, when standing immediately underneath, is 24 feet. The legs are 18 feet in diameter, and the two hind legs are provided with circular stairways leading to and from the rooms above.

The first room reached in passing up the stairs is termed the stomach room, and is dignified with this title, not because it is provided with the wherewithal to cheer the inner man, but owing to its special location in the body of the beast. The different rooms in the animal are likewise christened after their particular location, as the thigh room, brain room, hip room, etc. The grand hall, or auditorium, is reached upon ascending the stairs, and this is found to be very spacious and airy, the ceiling being very high and slightly dome shaped. A gallery passes all around the hall. At the further end of it a flight of steps leads to what forms, in fact, a continuation of the main hall, only on a higher plane. The main hall is 80 feet long and 32 feet wide, while the upper part of the main hall is 36 feet long and triangular in shape. There are 34 rooms in the structure in all, which are located principally between the walls of the hall and the outer walls of the structure. Most of them are quite small, and are very extraordinary in shape, their walls conforming to the shape without of that particular section of the colossus. The eyes, which form the windows of two of these rooms, are 4 feet in diameter. The tusks are 36 feet long and 5 feet 8 inches in diameter.

In laying the foundation of the structure the builders met with some difficulty, owing to the instability of the soil, it being simply a sandy beach. Piles were driven to a great depth, and a solid platform was raised on top of the piles and secured firmly thereon. A second platform, which was designed to bear the direct weight of the colossus was constructed above this, and was supported on vertical timbers strengthened by inclined braces reaching to the platform, with a view of resisting great lateral as well as vertical strains.

After the foundations were completed, work was commenced upon the visible portion of the building, the legs being the first point of attack. Yellow pine posts 12 x 16 inches were first raised above the platform, and being bolted to the flooring beneath were made self-supporting. Two posts 42 feet long were thus raised in each leg, and 12 smaller timbers placed in a circle so as to inclose the main posts were also bolted to the platform in a similar manner to form the outer wall of the leg. These timbers were joined at the top by connecting beams.

Cranes were mounted on the platforms thus formed, to which the material was raised as the work progressed. The difficulties increased, however, with the work, and it became necessary to secure the services of the most skilled workmen. Not only was this so on account of the dizzy height that the structure attained, but to the necessity of conforming the construction to the peculiar emergencies that arose, it being requisite to form nearly all the parts on the spot under the immediate personal supervision of the architect. The weight of the structure is carried, as may be seen by the engraving, by five supports, the four legs and the trunk.

Commencing at what is now the flooring of the main hall, trusses were raised on each side and at the two ends of the hall, and these trusses (the bottom chords corresponding with the floor and the top chords with the ceiling of the hall) constitute the principal support of the ribs. It will be seen from this that what might be termed an immense box girder was formed, the ends of which are supported by the front and hind legs respectively.

The ribs weigh directly upon the upper chords at the four corners, but at other points the ribs bear away from the chords, owing to the enlargement or the body under the howdah. At these points it was necessary to extend the vertical and horizontal members of each truss from the wall and ceiling until they intersected with ribs. In addition to this, an arched rib corresponding to the backbone is carried from the main support of the hind legs to the neck of the monster, where it bears indirectly upon the vertical support of the front legs. The ribs in the body of the colossus are 40 in number, and each consists of six sections bolted firmly together. As they serve to give consistency and rigidity to the whole structure, they form an important element in its construction. They are about seven inches in width, and are placed two feet apart, measuring from center to center. The head framing is similar in general construction to that of the body, and is supported by the trunk and forward supports of the front legs. It is provided with twelve ribs. Great difficulty was experienced in raising the ears and adjusting them in position in the head. This was principally due to their enormous weight, some six tons each, and the great height to which they had to be

raised and the difficulty of securing such an enormous mass securely to the drums which had been prepared to receive them in each side of the head. In addition to being bolted firmly in position at these points, iron rods were extended from the main trusses within through the ears at two points below the drum. The ears are some 34 feet long by 20 feet wide.

The architect depends upon the enormous weight of the elephant and upon iron rods that pass from the trusses above, through the legs, and connect with the foundation platform, to hold the colossus in its position. He has kindly furnished us with a few statistics that may be of interest. The colossus, he informs us, weighs about 100,000 tons. It contains 1,500,000 square feet of timber, and 700 kegs of nails were consumed in its construction. In addition to this, 7 tons of bolts were disposed of, and it required 35,000 square feet of tin to cover its surface. In size it compares favorably with many of the large hotels and other structures in its neighborhood, and some idea of its magnitude may be had by comparing it with Jumbo, which is drawn in scale by its side, and which would find plenty of room for a promenade within one of the legs of the colossus.

The Fastest British Cruiser.

The fastest cruiser is the Mercury, and we are right, says *Iron*, in saying that she is the fastest full-sized ship afloat. The vessel has attained an average speed of over 18½ knots, or 21·275 miles, an hour, and thus surpasses by half a knot the Chilean ram cruiser Esmeralda (18 knots) and the French cruiser Milan (also 18 knots, launched in 1884), as well as the Phaeton and the Iris, the latter her sister ship, but launched a year before her (in 1877). As the Mercury is 300 feet long and 46 feet in breadth, with a draught of water of 22 feet, this is an exceedingly high speed for so large a vessel. She and the Iris thus stand unrivaled as regards speed by any vessel of their size; the Esmeralda being only 277 feet in length, while the French vessel has a length of 303 feet, but a beam of only 33 feet. An authority on these matters says of the English cruisers that they are the first of a new type designed for high speed as the pre-eminent requisite. All other requirements have been subordinated to this important element. They present a beautifully sharp bow and long, exceptionally clean run, and are altogether admirable specimens of a design for a swift and lightly sparred vessel. They are special screw dispatch ships, and are unarmored, of course; the Mercury, which is to join Admiral Hornby's squadron, has an armament of 10 64-pounders. She is built of steel, and in proportion to her tonnage has been one of the most costly vessels afloat. Her hull and machinery cost altogether somewhere about £199,000, almost \$1,000,000, or within £10,000 or £15,000 of the Iris, which has been said to be as costly per ton as the ironclad Inflexible. Notwithstanding what has been written and stated to the contrary, the above statement shows that England still stands in the front rank as regards naval construction. Those who affirm the contrary should at least take the trouble of scanning the official navy lists of other maritime powers, when they will find—to their astonishment, probably—how rashly they have made assertions they are unable to substantiate.

Black Enamel for Iron Goods.

For the last few years, says the *Genie Civil*, it has been sought by different processes and various material, to protect iron and give it a brilliant black coating. These attempts have not been very successful; the coating being generally not sufficiently elastic, and peeling off too rapidly under the influences of changes of temperature. M. Puscher, of Nuremberg, has described a very simple process whereby he claims to cover iron and any other metals with a black coating similar to enamel, and very much more equal in thickness and regularly distributed, as it is not laid upon the metal with a brush or any similar tool. M. Puscher places in a vase about 18 inches high sufficient finely powdered coal to cover the bottom of the vessel to a depth of about ¼ inch; and over this at a height of about one inch, is placed a grating which carries the objects to be treated. The vessel is then covered and luted down tightly, and placed upon a brisk fire. The vessel is at once filled with steam, which soon evaporates and is then charged with bituminous vapor. The firing is maintained for about half an hour, so that the bottom of the vessel is kept at dull red heat; after which it is removed, and when cool opened. The remainder of the coal is found in the form of coke; and the objects placed upon the grating, which have been at a fairly high temperature for a considerable time, are found to be covered with a black coating having all the appearances of enamel, but of extreme tenacity and a considerable degree of elasticity. Objects thus treated may be bent and exposed to great variations of temperature, without in the least affecting the coating deposited on their surfaces. It is, in fact, a simple process for stove blacking iron goods, and possesses the advantages and drawbacks of this method of treating metallic surfaces. In any case it is a cheaper and, on the whole, more effective process than dipping, which is so largely practiced with cheap iron articles.

Correspondence.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

In your article on the Herreshoff yacht Stiletto, you state that there are now building by Yarrow two torpedo boats expected to run 24 knots an hour. Taking the figures of the Stiletto, 6½ feet pitch, with 450 turns of screw per minute, it does not need much calculation to show that with an allowance of 10 per cent slip (which is ample) the Stiletto is capable of doing much better than is claimed for the Yarrow boats. Please make a calculation, and see if on the above basis the Stiletto should not have a speed of 29½ statute miles an hour. In nautical miles the reduction would be as 60 nautical is to 69½ statute miles.

J. B. H.

New York, June 18, 1885.

[The slip amounts to 20 per cent. With the above figures this gives a speed of 26½ miles per hour.]

Fertilization of Red Clover by Bees.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

I notice a correspondent of your paper says that honey bees do not fertilize red clover blossoms. They are often very busy working on red clover, especially the Cyprians and Italians, and why do they not fertilize it? They may get honey too far from the base of the tube, while the bumble bee's tongue reaches to the base. If the scarcity of bumble bees accounts for the lack of seed on the first crop of clover, why not cultivate and domesticate the bumble bee, and winter them so as to have enough of them to fertilize the first crop? It would certainly be advantageous to the hay, also seed the ground by shattering.

We need not cultivate bumble bees if we could find some other insect that would answer the purpose, and one that would combine some other points of usefulness would be preferable, but clover seed in first crop is a prize worth some labor to secure, is it not?

[A valued correspondent, who is an experienced agriculturist, to whom the foregoing was submitted, gives the following reply: Italian bees and some other varieties of honey bees gather some honey from red clover blossoms, when the secretion of honey is profuse, but no race of bees has yet been introduced or produced having a tongue of sufficient length to exhaust the honey secretion from red clover blossoms. The honey gathered from red clover is of superior quality and very fine color.]

The fact that not more than one-fifth of the first crop of red clover blossoms contains seed seems to prove that honey bees do not fertilize that variety of flora.

This failure probably results from the insufficient length of the ligula in honey bees to properly deposit the fecundating pollen.

May it not, in a measure, be due to some singularity of the form of the pistils which may only be entered by the longer and stronger ligula of the bumble bee?

It would also appear that the fertilization of red clover blossoms is chiefly, if not wholly, performed by bumble bees.

Darwin, in his "Origin of Species," alluding to this fact, says: "We may infer as highly probable that were the whole genus of humble bees to become extinct or very rare in England, the hearts-ease and red clover—which they fertilize by carrying pollen from flower to flower—would become very rare or wholly disappear."

The cultivation of red clover was not successful in Australia until after the importation of bumble bees to that country.

In suggesting the cultivation and domestication of the bumble bee, in order that a sufficient number may be present in time to fertilize the first crop of red clover, the correspondent introduces a subject full of interest and stings, particularly stings. He also apparently overlooks the fact that the bumble bee belongs to the solitary species, and, as is the case with the wasp, ordinarily only the queen survives the winter.

The partial domestication of the bumble bee, even to the extent of furnishing warm winter quarters and the stimulation of early breeding, would be attended with such difficulty that economy would suggest that the matter be left entirely to nature.]

Clearing of Water Mains by Chemicals.

At Leipzig, last year, the pipes experimented upon were those conveying water from the pumping station to the town reservoir. This main is about 15½ inches in diameter, and 2 miles 1,444 yards long; and the incrustation was from one-half to 1 inch thick, and in some places still thicker. The operations lasted more than nine weeks; and during that period, at intervals, the pipe was filled with dilute hydrochloric acid eight times, with soda solution three times, and with a solution of chloride of lime once (being washed out thoroughly with water, between the successive applications). It is stated that the incrustation was entirely removed; the practical effect of the cleaning being indicated by pressure gauge—a decrease of from 1·8 to 2 atmospheres pressure at the pumps.

H. M. S. BENBOW.

The Benbow, built at the Thames Ironworks, Blackwall, and recently launched, is a ship to which special interest naturally attaches at the present time, because she is perhaps the most remarkable vessel of the new citadel type representing the ships termed the Admiral class, being all named after celebrated admirals—that is, the Howe, the Anson, the Collingwood, the Camperdown, the Rodney, and the Benbow. The Benbow differs from the others in carrying in each of her barbette towers one 110 ton breech loading gun instead of two smaller pieces. It is this fact that constitutes her most notable feature. The 110 ton breech loading gun ordered from Elswick is 43 ft. 6 in. long; its caliber is 16.75 in. It fires a charge of 900 lb. and a projectile weighing 1,800 lb., with a muzzle velocity of 2,020 ft. per second, giving a muzzle energy of 61,200 foot tons, with a calculated perforation of 30.5 in. of wrought iron, and an energy per ton of gun of 513 tons. These figures will be found to imply that it will be the most powerful gun in the world at present, Krupp's 119 ton gun having only 46,061 foot tons calculated muzzle energy. The Benbow is also interesting as being built by contract, for at the present moment it is very important to learn the relative advantages and disadvantages of building by contract and in the royal shipyards. The Benbow is of the mastless type, having only a pole with a top for two machine guns. She has compound armor in a belt about 8 ft. wide and 18 in. maximum thickness along her water line amidships, with a 3 in. steel deck at the top of the armor, and a horizontal armored deck fore and aft of her citadel. She is 330 ft. long and 68.5 ft. wide. Her displacement will be over 10,000 tons, perhaps running up to 10,500 tons. She has 9,000 horse power, and her speed is hoped to be 16 knots. Her barbettes are protected by 14 in. of compound or steel faced armor built at an angle, as shown. Her armament is as follows:

On her hurricane deck she carries eight quick-firing Hotchkiss 6 pounder guns and four Nordenfelt machine guns, probably four barreled 1 in. Nordenfelts in small projecting towers. On her battery deck are ten broadside 6 in. new type guns, those at the fore and aft ends of the battery training round so as to fire if need be through ports made for firing directly fore or aft. There are also on this deck four quick-firing guns and six machine guns, four in towers and two carrying shields on their carriages. In her barbette towers are the two 110 ton guns. There are also four smaller five barreled Nordenfelt machine guns, 4.5 in bore. Her top is designed to carry two machine guns. Torpedoes can be discharged ahead, astern, and abeam.

The guns on the barbette towers are of course much exposed, but the gun detachment is down below a steel circular 3 in. revolving deck. The gun is loaded by running back and lowering the breech. The type to which this vessel belongs is one which we need hardly say has been the subject of long and bitter attack by Sir Edward Reed. At present this line of criticism meets with approval from some of the best

vessels may be capsized by destruction of unarmored parts, as has been shown at the Admiralty by model experiments. But the adversaries of the citadel type urge that water is liable to enter and interfere with speed. On the other hand, such a vessel as the Admiral Duperre has her men so entirely exposed that it may be questioned if she could keep a man at any of her guns under the fire of quick guns and machine guns

Some officers believe that the effect of quick fire is at present overrated. It appears probable that the construction of our ships may be so far affected by quick fire as to cause a thin belt of armor to be extended at the waterline to turn off the great mass of quick fire which may be assumed to fall on it more or less obliquely. As to ramming powers, the Benbow has a spur strengthened with a horizontal flange, and her bows are stiffened with her horizontal armor deck. With her twin screws she ought to be fairly handy.—*The Engineer.*

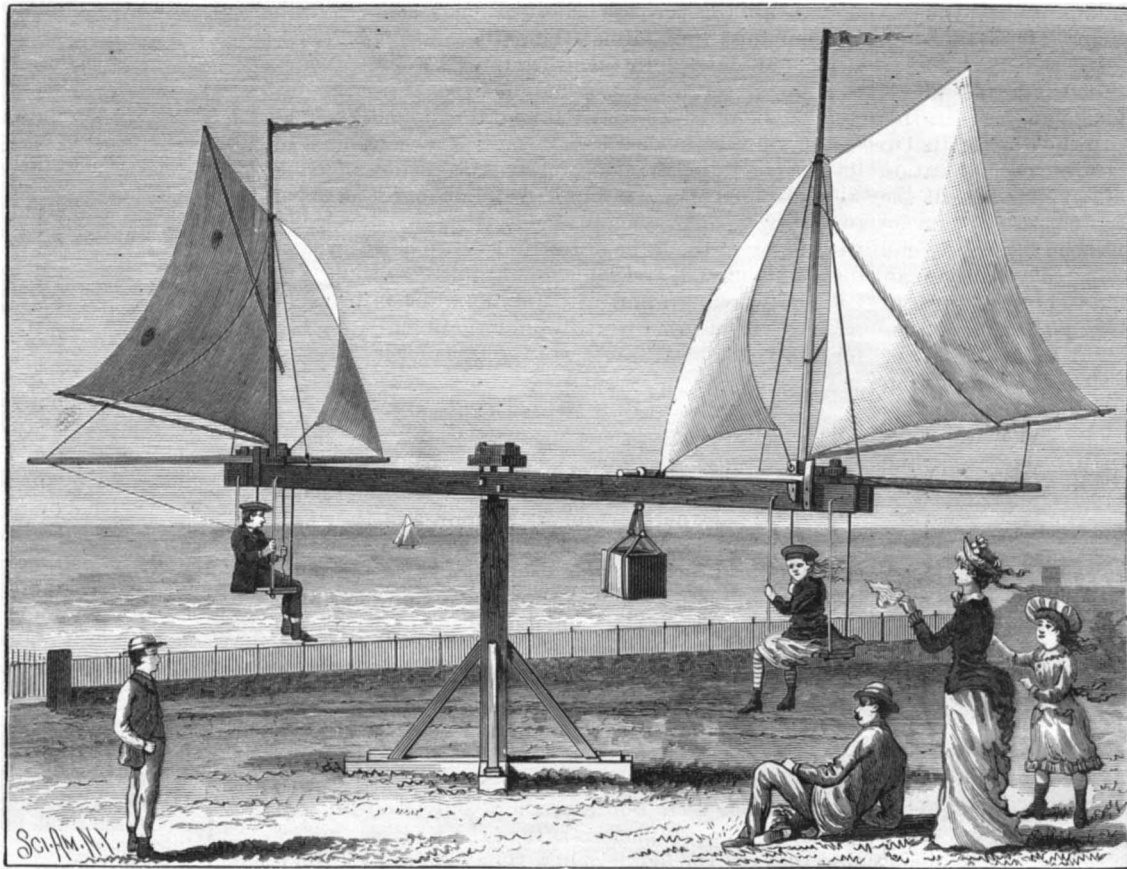
SAIL RIGGED MERRY-GO-ROUND.

Our engraving shows a merry-go-round consisting of a braced standard upon the top of which is centrally pivoted a beam provided at either end with a mast and sails, and with a seat suspended by four ropes. The standard is a post six or eight inches square, and of the desired height, resting upon crossed timbers, the ends of which may be

pegged to the ground or which may be made of a length sufficient to prevent tipping over; four braces support the standard. The main beam is composed of two timbers about eight inches wide and one and a half or two inches thick and of any desired length—twenty or twenty-five feet would answer admirably.

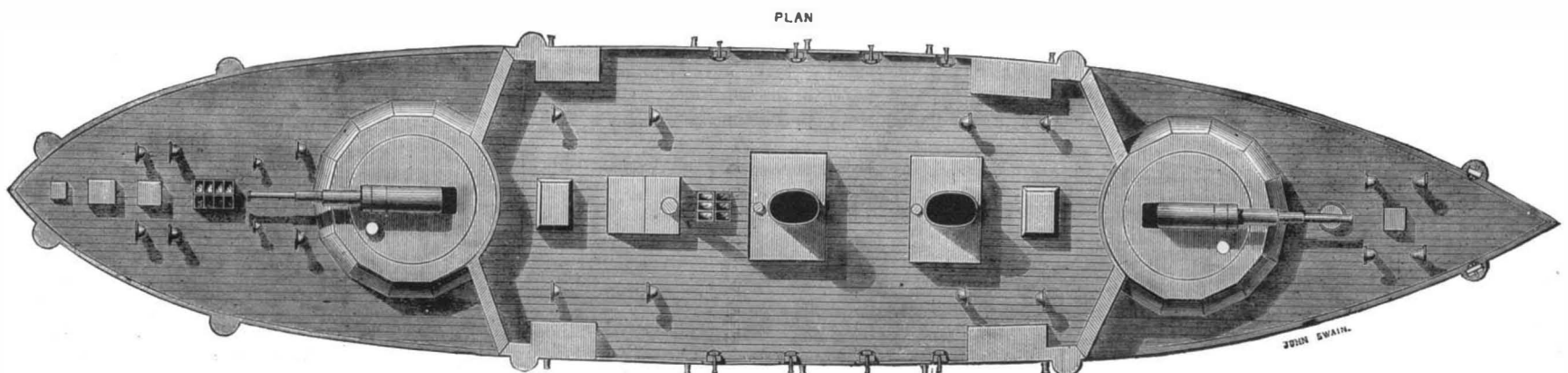
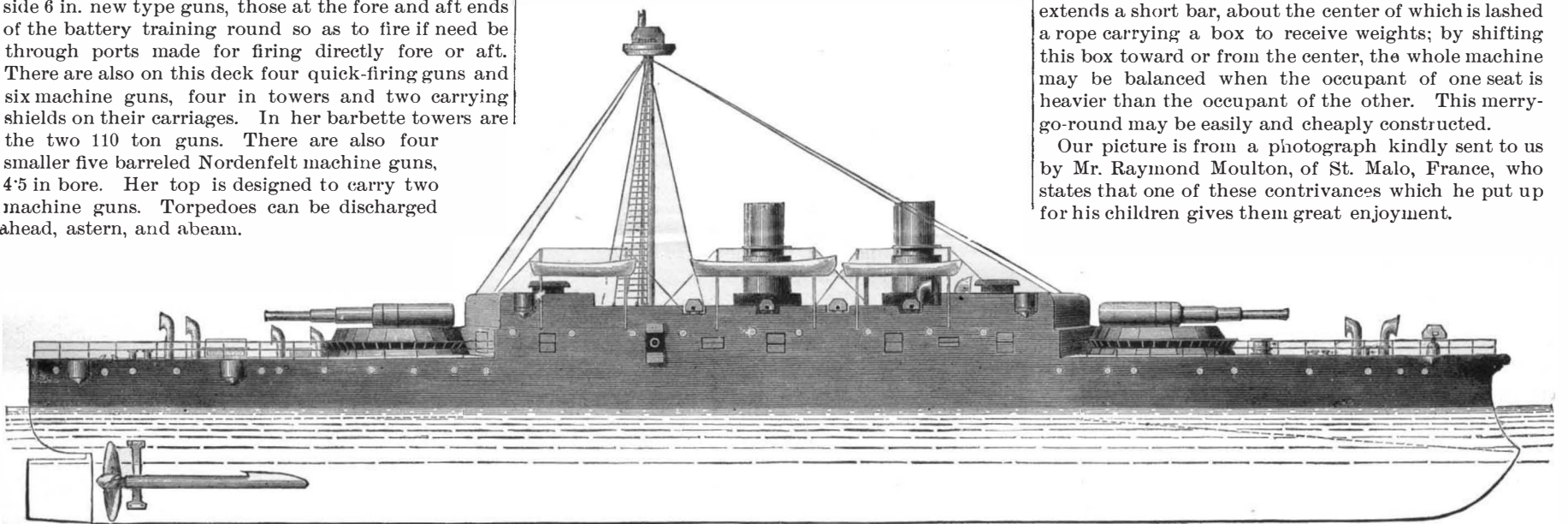
These two pieces are separated by blocks at the ends and center and bolted together, so as to form a square box without top or bottom. Upon the upper side of the center of the beam are two blocks of wood held by two bolts; the under block carries a socket which rests upon the end of a long pivot bar projecting from the top of the standard; of course this bar is long enough to permit the beam to swing clear of the standard. Across the slot formed by the timbers of the main beam extends a short bar, about the center of which is lashed a rope carrying a box to receive weights; by shifting this box toward or from the center, the whole machine may be balanced when the occupant of one seat is heavier than the occupant of the other. This merry-go-round may be easily and cheaply constructed.

Our picture is from a photograph kindly sent to us by Mr. Raymond Moulton, of St. Malo, France, who states that one of these contrivances which he put up for his children gives them great enjoyment.

**SAIL RIGGED MERRY-GO-ROUND.**

known naval officers. On the other hand, others think it has been pushed to unreasonable lengths. Citadel ships leave their ends exposed at the water line. The French barbette class, represented by the Admiral Duperre, have armor along their water line from end to end at the expense of exposing the ship in other places.

At Alexandria no shell that passed into the unarmored part of any of our vessels did serious damage, and until the introduction of quick-firing guns, few officers would, we think, believe that ships could be destroyed by such fire. It is now urged that quick fire may very quickly riddle a vessel along her water line, and so cripple her that she may be rammed. Both classes of

**THE NEW BRITISH WAR STEAMER BENBOW.**

THE PARADISE FISH AND ITS NEST.

BY C. F. HOLDER.

Those who are familiar with the difficulties that attend the transportation of foreign and tropical fish to this latitude will appreciate the fact that two paradise fishes (*Macropodus viridi-auratus*) have been safely brought from India, and are flourishing in an aquarium in the museum room at Fulton Market. They seem perfectly acclimated, and it is hoped that they may be introduced into American waters in the latitude from which they were taken. That they would prove an acquisition, no one could doubt after a contemplation of their movements, and I am indebted to Prof. H. J. Rice for opportunities for examining them.

In its native country the paradise fish has a somewhat unenviable reputation, being pugnacious in the extreme; so much so, indeed, that it is used by the Siamese very much as the Malays use the game cock.

The native name of the fish is plakot, and in every town they can be found kept in glass jars and domesticated to a remarkable degree, the possibilities of which are well shown in the actions of the Fulton Market specimens. The Siamese use the fish principally in fighting, the method being to place them in glass vessels near each other, when they soon become enraged. When fully aroused they are placed together, and the result is attended with all the excitement of the prize ring, the natives betting large sums on the contest.

The following account of the appearance when excited of a variety of this fish reared for fighting purposes, is given by Dr. Cantor:

"When the fish is in a state of quiet, with the fins at rest, the dull colors present nothing remarkable. But if two are brought within sight of each other, or if one sees its own image in a looking-glass, the little creature becomes suddenly excited, the raised fins and the whole body shine with metallic colors of dazzling beauty, while the projected gill membrane, waving like a black frill round the throat, adds something grotesque to the general appearance. In this state of irritation it makes repeated darts at its real or reflected antagonist. But the fish, when out of each other's sight, instantly become quiet. This description of their actions was drawn up in 1840, at Singapore, by a gentleman who had received a present of several from the King of Siam. They were kept singly in glasses of water, fed with the larvæ of mosquitoes, and had thus lived many months. The Siamese are infatuated with combats of these fishes, and sometimes their liberty, and that of their families, is staked on the issue. The license to exhibit fish fights is farmed, and yields a considerable revenue to the crown."

After such a description one would naturally expect to see a fish of a somewhat ferocious aspect, but, on the contrary, the Fulton Market specimens seem to be thoroughly domesticated, and on the best terms of good fellowship. This is probably owing to the fact that the pair are male and female.

They are somber little creatures, calling to mind our pomotis in general shape, though in an instant they seem to transform themselves into an entirely different creature, a paradise fish in the true sense of the word. They are about 3 to 3½ inches in length, of a sober greenish-brown hue, with darker and small spots. When moving along quietly, they look very much like some of the peculiar forms of gold fishes with trilobed tails, and would, perhaps, attract but little attention. If anything occurs to excite them, the change is instantaneous; the dorsal and caudal fins develop into enormous fans, and appear to vibrate with excitement. Each ray springs into an erect position, booming out the living sail, as it were, so that the fish appears to have almost doubled its size.

The secret of this transformation is seen by an examination of the fins. The dorsal and anal fins are alike, and commence in the same relative position, as shown in the accompanying illustration. They extend back for half an inch, retaining the same height, then suddenly enlarge, the rays reaching gracefully away, like plumes, so that they extend beyond the end of the vertebral column an inch or more. Here they seem to join the tail, which is almost twice the width of the fish, also ending in points.

With such an array, the movements of the fish could not be other than graceful. The waving plume-like appendages were constantly in motion, forming graceful curves as the fish darted about, expanding when they remained stationary, and closing when swimming,

affording a continual change of picturesque attitudes to the observers. Every motion of my hand or finger against the glass was quickly noticed, and they would instantly arise to the surface. Professor Rice informed me that they readily fed from his hand, a common trick of the common sunfish. I recently possessed one of the latter that not only took flies from my hand, but would thrust its head out of water as far as the pectoral fins to take them.

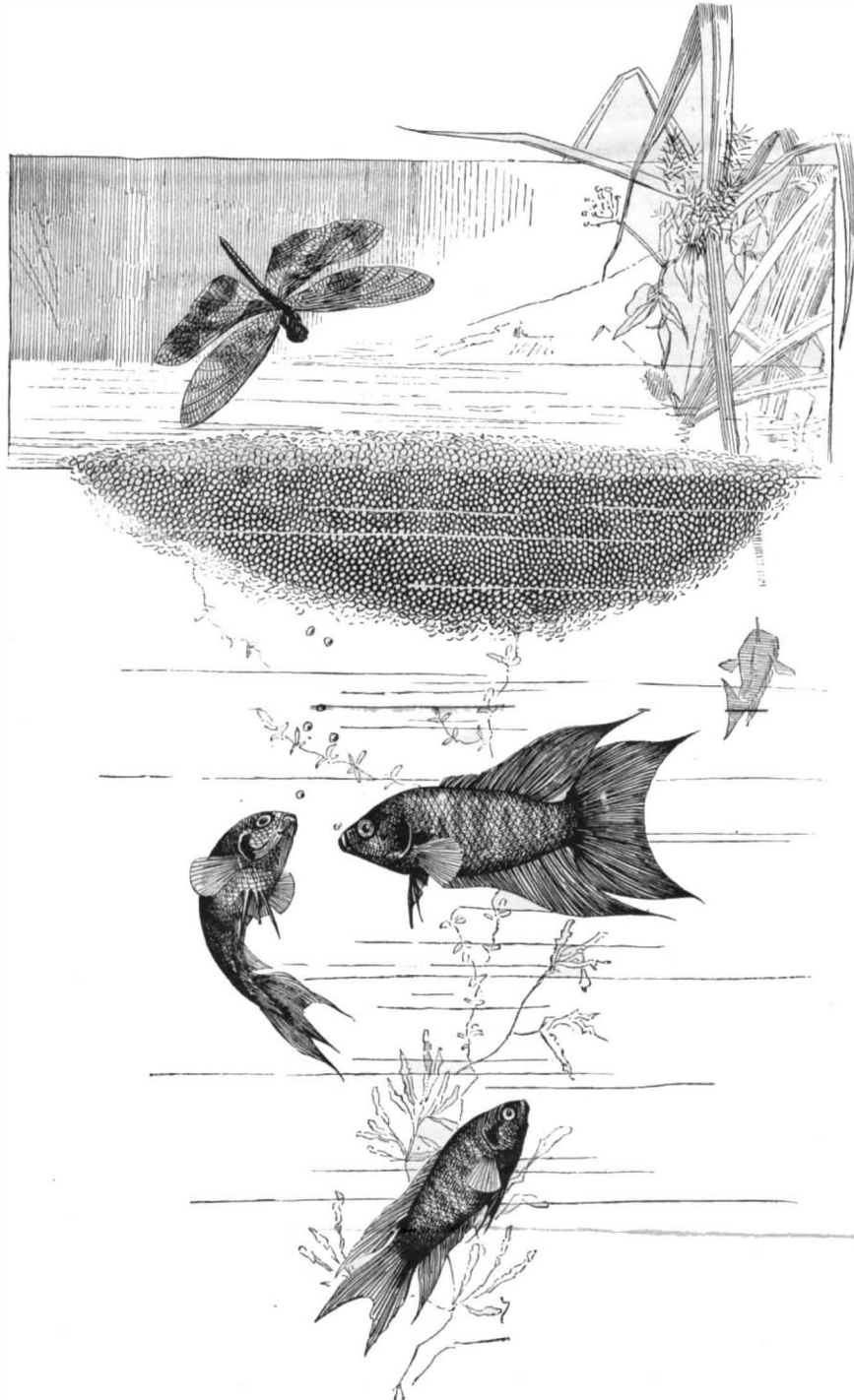
So active are the paradise fishes, alive to every movement, that they present a strange contrast to the clumsy golden carp in the same tank. All the fins become erect in a manner that reminds one of the sudden spreading of the peacock's tail. There was also another curious movement that seemed to quite change the expression of the fish. As soon as they met they remained stationary, face to face, for a moment, each expanding or opening the gill covers, so that they appeared puffed out at quite an angle, exposing the red gills quite plainly from behind. This salute, or whatever it was, was performed four or five times in as many minutes; in fact, every time they met in their

open water, and the mass of bubbles was comparatively small and easily blown apart by the breath. Age would, however, soon render the nest more compact; fungoid growths would seal the bubbles together, and in a short time the nest would be of a consistence to resist the strongest breeze. When the fish had completed his labors, he began to chase the female about, endeavoring to drive her in the direction of the nest, but in this he failed, she probably not being ready for the maternal duties.

In their native streams the female deposits her eggs under or in the mass of bubbles; there they are held until hatched, the young at first feeding from the mucous spittle, if so it may be termed, of which the nest is made. Professor Rice suggested to me that it was possible that there was more architectural ability shown in the structure of the nest than would appear from a casual glance, and that the eggs were not deposited at random in the mass, but found their way into the upper portion, that he thought might be a pseudo air chamber formed by the extreme upper layer of bubbles and the layer resting upon the water.

Whether this is the case will be determined when the eggs are deposited. It would appear more likely that they are deposited at random, and cling wherever they are caught by the bubbles.

A large number of marine fishes deposit their eggs either upon the surface or in position where they ultimately rise, and those of the angler are enclosed in a long gelatinous ribbon; but in the paradise fish we find a decided improvement, as if the fish had learned by experience that if its eggs became separated they would fare badly; hence the bubble nest was extemporized to keep them together at the surface, where, perhaps, in the disguise of a mass of froth, they float about, safe from all predatory enemies.



NEST OF THE PARADISE FISH.

movements up and down the tank. At times they would face each other, and, while retaining the same relative position, move round and round each other, their plume-like fins waving behind and presenting an attractive appearance.

The nest building, which Professor Rice has been fortunate in observing, is carried on, as is the rule with other nest building fishes, entirely by the male. Approaching the surface of the water, he sucks in a mouthful of air with a clicking sound, and descends six or eight inches below, then facing the surface he releases the air in small mucus covered bubbles, that rise to the surface, joining together, adhering, however, very lightly at first. Another mouthful of air is taken and other bubbles added, until finally a platform of these floats rests upon the water, forming a raft, perhaps four or five inches in diameter. Others are then added that tend to lift the upper layer, so that it has a convex surface, or resembles a watch crystal. Bubbles are added until the nest is three or four inches deep, according to circumstances, and undoubtedly it is often larger. In Professor Rice's aquarium the nests were, perhaps, not as complete as they would have been in

quantity of fluid in the stem, still there is not the same amount of nitrogenous fermentable principles as are found in spring and autumn.

If the tree be a hard wooded one, the period of the year at which it is felled does not matter to any great extent. In order to render the wood fit for timber, it must be thoroughly seasoned by slow drying. If the wood is to be used in an exposed position, the moisture with which it naturally comes into contact would be liable with the constituents of the sap to cause decomposition, hence water seasoning is frequently resorted to. A running stream being chosen, the logs of wood are sunk in it for about two or three weeks, after which they are taken out and seasoned by slow drying; in this process all the constituents of the sap are washed away, and fermentation or decomposition is thus prevented. Other means employed to preserve wood which is exposed to moisture from the soil, such as gate posts, telegraph poles, hop poles, and railway sleepers, are: (1) charring the outer surface; (2) painting, using with the paint fine sand, pumice, or finely powdered glass, which has been previously incorporated; (3) immersing and standing in bitumen, tar, or creosote; in either of

The Nature and Treatment of Different Woods.

From a paper read before the Chemists' Assistants' Association, London, by John Woodland, F.L.S., the following interesting and useful facts are gathered. Wood, commences the lecturer, is a hard, permanent, cellular, and vascular structure, formed by plants. The following woods are used when elasticity is required: ash, hazel, hickory, lancewood, and yew. The following are in use when toughness is required, combined with elasticity: beech, elm, hornbeam, oak, and walnut. For durability in dry situations, cedar, chestnut, oak, poplar, and yellow pine are chosen. For coloring purposes, Brazil wood, camwood, logwood, and Nicaragua wood are used to furnish a red, green ebony a green, and fustic a yellow color. For ship building, elm, fir, larch, pine, and teak are used. For piles, as supports for piers or landing stages, etc., alder, beech, elm, oak, and plane are in common use. For house building purposes, the ash, chestnut, fir, oak, pine, and sycamore are much used. When hard woods are required, box, lignum vitæ, and mahogany are serviceable.

Timber is wood which has been prepared from trees or shrubs, so as to be fit and durable for the purpose for which it is selected. When soft or moderately soft wooded trees are to be felled, mid-winter is the best period of the year, on account of their containing the least amount of sap at that time; the next best period being the middle of summer, as, although at this latter period there is a large

which cases the wood is penetrated to the center by the preservative material; (4) the process termed "kyanizing," which is now obsolete, and consisted of impregnating the wood with perchloride of mercury by means of a solution of the salt; (5) a process called "Burnettizing," which has proved so successful at Woolwich, and consists of soaking wood in a solution of zinc chloride made in the proportions of one pound of the chloride to five gallons of water.

A splendid example of the preservative action of salt on wood is seen in the salt mines of Poland and Hungary, the wooden supports in which have existed for ages.

Wood, when exposed to a damp surface and not well ventilated, is often attacked by fungi, commonly called dry rot, the mycelia of which rapidly spread, till in time the hard wood is replaced by a small, powdery looking substance. As this fungus only attacks wood when it is moist, the term "damp rot" is obviously more correct.

Mr. Woodland then enumerated some ordinary woods, together with their sources and what peculiarities they may furnish.

Alder, obtained from *Alnus glutinosa*, Betulaceæ.—Especially adapted for withstanding the action of water, hence is used in connection with cog wheels of mill stones, pumps, drains, piles in water or mud, heels of wooden boots, etc. The best gunpowder is also made from the charcoal furnished by the alder.

Ash, obtained from *Fraxinus excelsior*, Oleaceæ.—This wood is lighter in weight and more elastic than that of the oak, and is less liable to be broken by a cross strain, hence its use for billiard cues, poles, ladders, etc., but being fibrous it is more easily split than the oak. The yule logs of Christmas celebration were formerly furnished by this tree.

Aspen, from *Populus tremula*, Salicaceæ.—The wood is not so good as that furnished by the white poplar, being porous, soft, and white; it is chiefly used for field gates, milk pails, packing cases, etc.

Beech, from *Fagus sylvatica*, Cupuliferæ.—The wood is brittle and hard, but is apt to decay soon; carpenters' plane frames and other tool handles are made with it, and cabinet makers use it for shelves, etc. Next to the oak this is the largest tree growing in England. Of this wood the Greek ship Argo was built, and in ancient times the wine bowls were made of it.

Birch, from *Betula alba*, Betulaceæ.—This is one of the aboriginal trees of our island, as shown by the presence of twigs still retaining their silvery bark which are found in the lower strata or the peat bogs existing in the North of England and around Manchester. The wood known as Norway birch is much used in the Highlands and further south for making wicker hurdles, tying fagots of wood, and thatching straw roofs. It is from the bark of this tree that an oil is yielded from which the peculiar odor of Russia leather is derived.

Brazil wood, obtained from *Cesalpinia crista*, Leguminosæ.—This wood is used for dyeing purposes, the colors obtained being red, rose color, and yellow. **Brazilletto wood** is furnished by *Cesalpinia brasiliensis*, and produces red and orange colors.

Box, from *Buxus sempervirens*, Euphorbiaceæ.—The boxwood of commerce comes from Turkey, Asia Minor, Circassia, Spain, and Portugal. This wood, being very close grained and heavy, is largely used by turners, engravers, and carvers, also for the manufacture of mathematical instruments and articles that will take a high polish; the pure bitter it contains preserves it from the attacks of insects.

Cherry, *Prunus cerasus*, Rosaceæ.—This wood is hard and tough, also light and porous; it is used by turners and engravers, and for constructing pipes.

Chestnut, from *Castanea vesca*, Cupuliferæ.—The timber is chiefly used for beams and rafters of houses, heads and staves of casks, and as protecting gutters for gas pipes, etc., underground. There is one plant growing at Tortworth in Gloucestershire more than 1,100 years old. The diameter at base is 15 feet.

Dogwood, *Cornus sanguinea*, Cornaceæ.—The wood is used for preparing gunpowder charcoal, and, on account of its hardness, for skewers, cogs for wheels, etc.

Ebony, from *Diospyrus ebenus* or *Diospyrus ebenaster*, Ebenaceæ.—The heartwood only of this tree is black, and being very hard, durable, and wear-resisting, its uses are many and various; besides this wood, which is known as "Bastard Ceylon Ebony," we have a black ebony yielded by *Diospyrus melanoxylon*, also a fine variegated wood yielded by another species, namely, *Diospyrus quasita*, which makes handsome furniture. There are also red and green ebony woods.

Elder, from *Sambucus nigra*, Caprifoliaceæ.—This plant while young grows with great rapidity, but when it attains the height of from 20 to 30 feet, its growth is arrested. When young the wood is soft, but when old it becomes almost as hard as boxwood, and in a variety of cases can be substituted for it; butchers' skewers and tops of fishing rods are commonly made of this wood.

Elm, from *Ulmus campestris*, Ulmaceæ.—The wood

is hard, finely grained, and hence not apt to crack. It is used for the keels of vessels and wooden fittings of ships, also for cart wheels and coffins; it attains its maturity at an age varying between seventy and eighty years.

The **Whych Elm**, from *Ulmus montana*, Ulmaceæ, furnishes a wood that is both strong and elastic, hence it is used for spade handles, garden forks, and rake handles. The gnarled wood is largely used by cabinet makers for veneering. Both this and the preceding elms furnish woods which are tough and not readily acted upon by water.

Fir trees belong to the genus *Abies* of the natural order Coniferae; they were formerly called "fire trees" on account of the inflammability of their wood, due to the oleoresin it contains. These trees having a conical shape can thus be told from what are termed "pine trees;" one fir tree (*Abies excelsa*) is the tallest in Europe, its average height being 150 feet. Cf. *Pine*.

Abies excelsa is the Norway spruce, and furnishes the white deal used so much for building purposes. *Abies picea* is the silver fir. The stems of each of these fir trees are largely used for making masts, telegraph poles, signal poles, and building planks, and also for splitting up into matches.

Fustic, obtained from *Morus tinctoria*, Moraceæ.—The wood in chips is largely used as a dyeing agent.

Guaiacum, from *Guaiacum officinale*, Zygophyllaceæ.—This wood (the heartwood of the plant) is commonly called "lignum vitæ" on account of its durability and hardness; it is peculiar, in that the fibers composing it cross each other diagonally, so that cleavage of the wood is difficult. It is much used for making rulers, skittle balls, wheels, and cogs for sugar mills, pulleys, etc.; in parquet flooring, by heating the flat pieces of lignum vitæ, the natural resin exudes and aids in agglutinating it to its neighboring pieces.

Hazel, from *Coryllus avellana*, Cupuliferæ.—The wood is very tough and flexible, and is used in making hurdles, crates, fishing rods, hoops for casks, etc. A forked twig of hazel was reputed to have the power, when held in the hand of a suitable person and pointing to the ground, of a divining rod, by directing the holder to a place underneath which water exists.

Hickory, from *Carya alba*, Juglandaceæ.—The wood is tough and elastic, and will stand prolonged strains; it is used for fishing rods, walking sticks, Canadian paddles, etc.

Hornbeam, from *Carpinus betulus*, Cupuliferæ.—The wood is hard, tough, and white; it will burn like a candle, so with frayed ends will act as a temporary torch. It is chiefly used for the manufacture of agricultural implements and the cogs of mill wheels.

Lancewood, obtained from *Duguetia quitarensis*, Anonaceæ, or according to another authority, *Guatteria virgata*.—This wood is tough and elastic to a very high degree, and being at the same time of light weight it is admirably adapted for making shafts of carriages, bows and arrows, fishing rods, and lances.

Larch, obtained from *Larix Europæa*, Coniferae.—The wood is fit to use for timber when the tree is forty years old; there is a great objection to its use on account of its warping, even after having been seasoned. It was formerly and superstitiously believed that the wood was impenetrable by fire. The American larch, called "hackmatack," is a heavy and cross grained wood.

Lime, obtained from *Tilia Europæa*, Tillaceæ.—This wood, called commonly "linden wood," is used by carvers and turners, owing to its being close grained and smooth.

Mahogany, from *Swietenia mahogoni*, Cedreliaceæ.—This well known wood is sent from Central America and the West Indies. Some trees have been known to produce as much as £1,000 each.

Maple (red), from *Acer rubrum*, Aceraceæ.—A variety of this produces curled maple, so called from the accidental undulation of the fibers; it one of the most ornamental woods known. It is used for furniture making and also for making stocks of rifles and fowling pieces.

Maple (sugar), *Acer saccharinum*, Aceraceæ.—This furnishes the so-called "bird's eye maple," and is highly prized for furniture making.

Mountain Ash, or **Rowan tree**, from *Pyrus aucuparia*, Rosaceæ.—The timber is much used for carriage and cart wheels.

Oak, from *Quercus robur*, Cupuliferæ.—This tree in temperate climates is the largest in size, the longest lived, the hardest and most durable as regards its timber, and most common of trees. The oak which has stalked acorns furnishes the best timber, which possesses great strength, tenacity, and durability. The white American oak, *Quercus alba*, has a reddish timber, which, though more elastic than the English kind, is not so durable. Red oak, *Quercus rubra*, furnishes a deep colored timber, which, being coarser in texture, is not so useful. Oak bark is used for tanning.

Pear, from *Pyrus communis*, Rosaceæ.—The variety furnishing the hard or baking pears has a very hard wood, which is used chiefly for musical instruments, tool handles, etc.

Pine trees belong to a genus called *Pinus*, Coniferae.—The trees can be told from fir trees by being more or less flat at the top, where nearly all the branches congregate. **Scotch Fir**, *Pinus sylvestris*, yields the timber known as Dantzic or Riga fir, and Russian deal. It grows from 60 to 100 feet high, and is fit for timber at the age of 50 or 60 years. The best quality timber is from trees that have grown in cold situations, such timber equaling the oak in duration. *Pinus strobus* furnishes the white pine or deal of the United States; it is called the "Weymouth pine." The wood is used for bowsprits and yards of men of war. *Pinus mitis* and *Pinus palustris* furnish yellow pine or deal. The latter pine will grow in very sterile soils, yet yields a wood which is more compact, stronger, and durable than that obtained from the other species. The least valuable of the pines is the *Pinus taeda*, or "loblolly pine," the timber of which decays on exposure to air. The uses of pine trees are similar to those of fir trees.

Plane, from *Platanus occidentalis*, Platanaceæ.—The wood is a fine grained one, and becomes of a dull red color in the seasoning; it is occasionally used by cabinetmakers, but quickly decays if exposed to the weather.

Poplar, from *Populus alba*, Salicaceæ.—Wood is white, light in weight, and soft; it is not used for any purpose in particular, though that of the Canadian poplar, *Populus monilifera*, is largely used for flooring. One poplar, namely, the balsam poplar, *Populus balsamifera*, in the form of timber, is quickly rotted by water, like the wood of the horse chestnut, hence, to protect the young beds of these trees from moisture, as rain, etc., we find a thick covering of resin present during winter and spring.

Sandalwood, from *Santalum album*, Santalaceæ.—This wood is sent from Malabar and the East Indian Islands. It is used for making small articles of cabinet furniture, and its odor prevents insects or worms attacking it.

Spindle tree, from *Euonymus Europæus*, Celastraceæ.—This wood is hard, white, and finely grained; it is used for musical instruments, netting needles, spindles (hence the name of the tree), and skewers. In France gunpowder charcoal is obtained from it, and the young shoots when charred form a rough drawing pencil.

Teak, or Indian oak, from *Tectona grandis*, Verbenaceæ.—This wood is very strong and durable. It is largely used in ship building.

Tortoise wood, so called from the resemblance of the wood to tortoise shell, is obtained from *Guettarda speciosa*, Rubiaceæ, and the same plant is by some authorities said to yield the striped or zebra wood used by cabinet makers.

Walnut, from *Juglans regia*, Juglandaceæ.—This is now largely in use for furniture. Before the introduction of mahogany this was almost exclusively used for furniture making. It is also used for gun stocks, as it is lighter in proportion to its strength and elasticity than any other wood. Black walnut, from *Juglans nigra*, furnishes a strong and tenacious wood, and when well seasoned is not liable to warp or split; it is also secure from the attacks of insects.

Willows.—The Goat Willow, or Sallow, *Salix caprea*, furnishes the best willow timber; when growing as a coppice plant, it furnishes hoops, poles, and rods for crates. The timber of the willow is white, soft, and light, the best seasoned kinds being very durable. The dwarf willows, *Salix viminalis* and *Salix rubra*, are propagated by cuttings for furnishing osiers or willow shoots, from which hampers, baskets, etc., are made.

Yew, from *Taxus baccata*, Taxaceæ.—The wood is peculiarly hard, smooth, and tough, and was formerly used for making bows; it is beautifully veined and will take a high polish, hence is used by cabinetmakers for veneering purposes; being very hard and durable, it is used for cogs for mill wheels, axles, and also floodgates of rivers, which scarcely ever decay.

Zebra wood. See Tortoise wood.

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