

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

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A WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PRACTICAL INFORMATION, ART, SCIENCE, MECHANICS, CHEMISTRY, AND MANUFACTURES.

Vol. LVI., No. 3.
[NEW SERIES.]

NEW YORK, JANUARY 15, 1887.

Price 10 Cents.
\$3.00 per Year.

IMPROVED ONE HUNDRED TON FLOATING CRANE.

This crane, which was constructed for the Mersey Dock and Harbor Board by Sir W. G. Armstrong, Mitchell & Co., Limited, of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, has a jib of sufficient rake and height to command the hatches of the largest ocean steamers, and is also adapted for lifting dock gates in and out of place for repair. For this latter purpose it was necessary to provide lifting power for 100 tons, with a projection of about 6 ft. over the side. The extreme rake of the jib is 49 ft., which gives a projection of 22 ft. 6 in. over the outside of the fender timbers when the jib is athwartship, and the weight which can be lifted at this rake is 30 tons. Any load between 30 and 100 tons can, of course, be lifted at an intermediate rake. The crane is mounted on rollers running on a roller path fixed on the top of a circular girder built into the barge, and the steam engine by which the lifting, turning, and "topping" gear is driven is planted on the crane, and revolves with it. To avoid the inconvenience of using an unnecessarily heavy block and chain when lifting moderate loads, the crane is furnished with two purchases, one for loads up to 30 tons, and the other up to 100 tons.

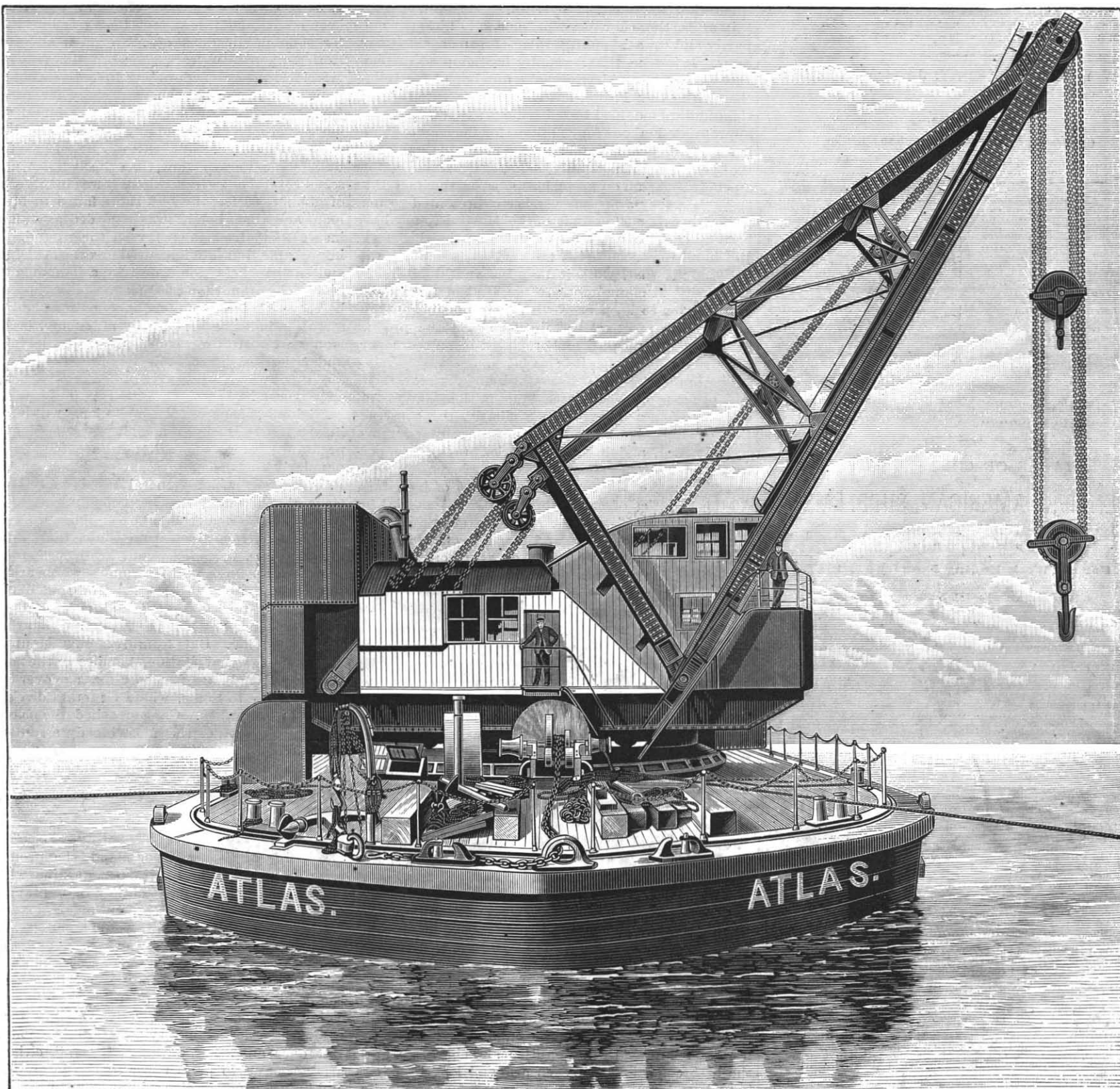
Great attention has been paid to the provision for counterbalancing the load lifted by the crane, so as to avoid change of trim in the vessel as the crane turns and as the weight upon it varies. The plan adopted is a combination of fixed and shifting ballast, so designed as to reduce the weight of the latter to a minimum, and so facilitate its manipulation. Water is used for the shifting ballast, a centrifugal pump driven by an independent engine being provided for pumping it from the front tank to that at the rear, while it returns by gravitation.

The barge upon which the crane is mounted is 130 ft. long and 48 ft. beam, the draught being about 5 ft. 6 in. Twin screws with independent engines are used in order to give greater handiness, and the after body of the barge being of twin form, the screws are well protected from injury when lying alongside a quay or another vessel. The forward part of the barge is strengthened, and a bed is formed on the deck on which a heavy load can be deposited. The speed over the measured mile was a little over five knots per hour. The *London Engineer*, to which we are indebted for our engraving, regards this as the most powerful floating crane in the world.

Electric Lamp.

Dr. Fleming says an incandescent lamp is not only a useful thing, but it has about it many points of great interest in physics. Many persons had the impression that the interior of a glow lamp was a place that was empty of all air particles, but this was not the case; it was as full as it well could be. Maxwell had shown that in a small cube of 1-100,000 of an inch there would be found 100,000,000 molecules of ordinary air, so that in a cubic inch of air there were a number of molecules represented by 100,000,000,000,000. In a Swan lamp when exhausted to one-millionth of an atmosphere, there remained some 400,000,000,000 molecules of air. As it took about ten days to count a million, a simple calculation would show that to count the number of molecules in such a vacuum would take 120,000 years of continual counting.

THE oldest person in France, perhaps in the world, is said to be a woman who lives in the village of Auberville, in Royans. She was born March 16, 1761, and is therefore 125 years old. The authentic record of her birth is to be found in the parish register of St. Just de Clair, in the Department of the Isere.



IMPROVED ONE HUNDRED TON FLOATING CRANE.

Scientific American.

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NEW YORK, SATURDAY, JANUARY 15, 1887.

Contents.

(Illustrated articles are marked with an asterisk.)

Table listing various articles such as Alloys, Ant-eater, Asparagus, Boiler, steam, improved, Books and publications, Business and personal, Chimneys, Comfort and style too, Crane, floating, 100-ton, improved, Dam, Eolypoke, the, Disinfection by heat, Duluth, what about?, Engine, runaway of, remarkable, Explosion, planing mill, Fish story, a scientific, Fluid, mixing of, Gas burner, incandescent, new, Gauge, water, for steam boilers, Gold, how exported, Heat, expansion of, Hydraulic jack patent, Incandescent burner of Dr. Auer, Invention, agricultural, Inventions, engineering, Inventions, index of, Inventions, miscellaneous, Inventors, encouraging, Inventors, important to, Labrador, Ladder, step, folding, Lamp, electric, Man and the wild animal, Monument, Grant, design for a, Rechter's, Notes and queries, Oil cup, improved, Pendulum, moving, photography, Photographic notes, Picture frame attachment, Porcupine ant-eater, the, Prizes, industrial, French, Promotion by seniority, Pulverizer and plow, combined, Punching and shearing machine, large, Puzzle, a, Ray, green, the, Snow melting apparatus, Spring and dust guard for watch cases, improved, Talcum filter, Toys, science in, Twin screw torpedo cruiser Destructor, Spanish, trial of, Varnish, creeping of, War and invention, Welding by electricity.

TABLE OF CONTENTS OF

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT No. 578.

For the Week Ending January 15, 1887.

Price 10 cents. For sale by all newsdealers.

Table listing sections I. ELECTRICITY, II. ENGINEERING, III. GEOLOGY, IV. MEDICINE, V. METALLURGY, VI. MISCELLANEOUS, VII. PHOTOGRAPHY, VIII. PHYSICS, IX. TECHNOLOGY, with page numbers.

WAR AND INVENTION.

In view of the possibility—not to say strong probability—of war between two or more of the great European powers, it is desirable to note the immediate effect of such a war upon American interests. Its influence upon grain, stocks, petroleum, cotton, and manufactures will be, or has already been, discussed by the daily newspapers; but its importance to American inventors would be very great, and they will naturally be alert to take advantage of every opportunity if war should come. At first glance, a superficial thinker might imagine that war would interest a limited circle of inventors, those who deal with arms, ammunition, projectiles, great guns, armor, warships, torpedoes, and similar weapons or defensive devices; but this would be taking a narrow view of the field open to the fertile inventor. Indeed, it is impossible, in the limits of a single article, to particularize and discuss the great array of devices with which the inventor could profitably deal just before and during a great war. It will be necessary, therefore, to treat the subject of war inventions under classified heads, and extend this article over more than one issue.

Of course, as the primary object of war is to overpower the enemy, and as that result is reached by killing or disabling men and by destroying fortifications, ships, railroads, and other important public property, the first place in war invention is properly given to engines of war, their equipment and their auxiliary attachments. Then would naturally follow the defensive class of inventions—forts, armor, floating batteries, and guns, carriages, and shields for harbor protection. But connected with these in operation, though not necessarily a part of them, are a thousand and one devices in almost every channel of inventive research; and doubtless it will be necessary to do little more than to suggest them, or to imply their want, to induce hundreds of active minds to follow up the suggestion to a practical and profitable result.

In arms, there is a pressing demand—hitherto only partly and unsatisfactorily filled—for magazine small arms. It is true that Germany has adopted the converted Mauser, and has armed a number of her troops therewith; that France has also manufactured several thousands of modified breech loaders; that Austria has appropriated about four millions for the conversion of her present breech loader into a magazine gun; and that Great Britain is only deterred from expending an enormous sum on magazine guns by the fact that no satisfactory arm has yet been presented to her, although a few thousands of the Martini-Henry have been altered to carry seven cartridges in the stock. But in all these countries, military experts unhesitatingly admit that, while it may be, and doubtless is, a necessity to manufacture some kind of a magazine gun in order to keep pace with their possible antagonists, it is a practical certainty that all the present issues will be recalled and replaced by a more perfect weapon as soon as it is invented.

The improvement of heavy ordnance, armor, shells and other projectiles, fuses, ammunition, and fortifications, offers a wide field. Similarly, the construction of ships, both armor-clads, fast cruisers, rams, torpedo craft, and floating batteries, presents opportunities for novel designs and valuable invention, such as could make the fortunes of scores of inventors. All the varieties of mechanical contrivance needed for driving and working ships, pumping, steering, lighting, handling shot, shell, and torpedoes, and loading and pointing the heavy guns—all these openings for inventive talent are made more accessible to inventors by the outbreak of a war.

Of course, attention is centered on explosive substances. While new combinations may be worked out to produce greater explosive effect with more certainty of safety to the operator, there are numerous improvements possible in our mode of treating those explosives already known. A great deal is yet uncertain as to the proper kind of charge of gunpowder for both ordnance and small arms. It is claimed that even in field pieces a considerable quantity of powder is blown out of the gun unconsumed, and therefore wasted. There are many experiments needed to determine the proper size of grain and quality of powder used, and also the weight of charge for given weights of projectile, diameters and lengths of barrel. For small arms the test under water seems to present the most uniform and otherwise most satisfactory conditions. A tank strongly built, 12 feet long, 2 feet wide, and 3 feet deep, would enable a careful experimenter to make innumerable comparisons, such as: With a given charge of powder, to determine the weight of ball that will have the greatest range; with a given ball, to determine the most effective weight of powder; with given charge and ball, to compare the range of different rifles; to compare different lengths of bore in the same rifle, varying the powder charge both in quantity and character until the best conditions for each arm and length of bore have been learned. These are only a few of the important tests that may be made.

The comfort and health of soldiers and sailors have

become among the most important conditions of military and naval success. The healthy, well fed, and well clothed man will be effective at the end of a campaign, while the same amount of labor and hardship might kill or disable three men whose welfare had been neglected. Consequently, improved food and clothing will be readily adopted by military authorities. It is not to be expected that any one will try to invent or discover a food like Zucchi's mysterious liquid, to sustain life without other sustenance; and the mere preservation of food is already brought to high perfection; but it is not impossible that a condensed, but palatable, food, of great nutritive value in proportion to its weight and bulk, would be acceptable to a war-making power for use on forced marches, especially now that promptness and speed are so important, and that the rapid moving of great bodies of men has been rendered so difficult by the necessity of moving their supplies with them. Equipments and accouterments are also susceptible of improvement. In the first two years of the civil war thirty-five patents were granted for inventions connected with the slinging of accouterments alone, but a great advance on those ideas is still possible.

It is a well known fact that inventions for preserving the health of the soldiers and sailors in war time have not kept pace with the devices for killing and wounding them. The application of sanitary laws to camps and ships may profitably be studied. The demand for all the articles needed in hospitals and on the field for the treatment of the wounded and the sick would be enormously increased by a general European war. Ambulances, stretchers, tourniquets, bandages, splints, surgical instruments, disinfectants, anesthetics, and artificial limbs are a few of the subjects deserving attention.

The limited, yet important, use of the balloon during the Franco-Prussian war, 1870-71, showed that much might be expected of this machine in future wars. It is true that little progress toward perfection has been made, and the balloon to-day is but little better than in the days of Montgolfier and Pilatre de Rozier, about 100 years ago; but this fact is all the more reason for encouraging inventive genius to devote itself to the balloon, especially for use in war. In the Franco-Prussian war it was found that balloons could be penetrated by bullets at a height of 3,000 to 3,600 feet; but the escape of gas from one bullet hole was so slow that the balloon might descend several miles from where it was hit. At a height of about 8,000 feet the best shots failed to hit the balloon, and that height was regarded as sufficient to insure safety from an enemy on the ground. It is not improbable that late improved firearms, machineguns, and shell rockets would destroy a balloon, even at a higher elevation than 8,000 feet; and anyhow it would be easy to invent counter balloons for attacking observation balloons sent up by an enemy, or shell balloons sent up to drop enormous projectiles into camps and cities. Some such devices are sure to be used in any great war if they give a reasonable promise of effectiveness.

All kinds of successful signal plans will be required in war time. During our civil war the Signal Corps performed work whose importance has never been popularly known or appreciated. Thus, at Allatoona Pass, in 1864, when General Hood swung back upon General Sherman's line of communication between Nashville, Sherman's base of supplies, and Atlanta, his headquarters, there is no doubt that, but for the Signal Corps, the pass would have been taken and held in such force that Sherman's whole army might have been unable to carry it. The Confederates held every road to the north, and there was a mere corporal's guard at the pass, upon which they were rapidly moving. But from Kenesaw Mount to the next Union signal station, 15 miles to the northwest, the little signal flags flashed a message over the heads of the enemy to Rome, where General Corse's brigade was waiting orders. Corse reached the pass just in time to repel one of the most bloody assaults of the war, and Sherman's communications were saved. Thus the importance of accurate and improved signal work has been demonstrated.

(To be continued.)

PROMOTION BY SENIORITY.

Whether or no an officer should be promoted because of seniority or merit is a question which just now is attracting some attention in military circles; and justly, too, for, in the present attempt at reorganization of army and navy, it would seem essential that some reward be offered for efficiency and diligence. The necessity was long ago seen for offering to the men in the ranks of the army some inducement for the exhibition of zeal and soldierly qualities, and a law was passed making it possible for merit, regardless of length of service, to obtain a commission. But once an officer, nothing will avail, either in the army or navy, to press merit to the front. Capacity and industry may receive acknowledgment by detached and special service, just as favoritism or influence often brings a staff appointment; but when the service

is performed, the officer returns to his old place, and waits to get from time what faithfulness has failed to secure.

Those familiar with the military or naval station will scarcely fail to have been struck with the relative difference in the capacity and performance of the various officers. One devotes all his spare time to the study of some special department of the art of war; let it be small arms, heavy guns, torpedoes, powder, propulsion of ships, construction of forts, or the like. Another, and perhaps his superior officer, does not do anything save what is actually required of him in the discharge of his duties. He cannot find the road to diligence himself, nor is willing to take it when it is pointed out by others. But if his commission antedates the commissions of those who do work, he is secure. Let him devote a modicum of time to his studies—just enough to pass a possible or pending examination for promotion—and they cannot hope to pass him.

The annals of the civil war clearly illustrate how pernicious is this system of promotion by priority. Regular officers, of high rank too, were constantly found incapable of important command. They were slow and often stupid, neither progressive nor alert; their chief ambition and occupation was to see that the ordinary routine of discipline was maintained, wholly forgetful that this was but secondary, and not the main object of keeping men afloat and ships afloat in time of war.

They could let an enemy escape or neglect to follow up an advantage, and lay themselves down to rest with ardent satisfaction that at least good order and military discipline was being observed throughout their commands; that aboard their ships the daily routine of detail and assignment was working smoothly, or in their camps that the proper disposition and alignment of tents was rigidly enforced.

There is another side, however, to this question of promotion by seniority, and one that should not be overlooked in its discussion. There are evils and abuses in the system of promotion by preference quite as menacing, perhaps, as those which inhere in that of promotion by seniority. They are caused by favoritism and political influence. It is surely less disheartening to an officer, less demoralizing to a corps, to see merit go unrewarded than to witness incapacity go forward through the pressure of political "backing," or because of the whim or favoritism of a commanding officer. In the navy, because of the technicality of the duty, favoritism could perhaps do little to press incapables into important positions. It might serve to give them easy and pleasant posts, and that much it does at present; but in the army, promotion by seniority being displaced, influence and favoritism might, up to a certain point, lead to gross injustice, while yet its effects would scarcely be discernible, save to those immediately interested. As an example of this, a second lieutenant in the army might be jumped over the heads of several files of more efficient officers, and made a first lieutenant, without such change materially endangering the proper ordering of a company or of the regiment of which it formed a part. But should an incapable naval lieutenant be promoted to a position where he was called upon to exercise the functions of navigating or executive officer, his incapacity would be at once apparent, might imperil the safety of his ship, and could not, therefore, be endured.

It would seem as if some means might be found of promoting, and thus encouraging, the efficient and faithful and industrious officer, whether in the army or navy, and, at the same time, maintaining a safeguard against unjust discrimination. Then, even the boy who is at Annapolis or West Point, and who to-day has little to look forward to, might, if possessed of soldierly qualities, ambition, and ability, be enabled, before his hair has turned white with age, to make a name for himself, and there would be nothing left for indolent officers, whether old or young, but to apply themselves to their profession or leave it.

MAN AND THE WILD ANIMAL.

Those who have carefully observed the management of wild animals in menageries, zoological gardens, and in the pens of the animal dealers, must, at times, have been astonished at the ease with which hired men, comparatively unarmed, subdue beasts which we have been taught yield only to the blazing rifle, and fight gamely until death. A lion escapes from his cage, and crouches at the darkened end of the menagerie. Remembering the stories we have read of the ferocity of this beast and of the terrible scenes at the lion hunt, we can imagine only one mode of action. The keepers should arm themselves with rifles, hide behind barriers, and open a rapid fire upon him. To our surprise, they don't do this. They simply wheel a great cage up to him, fall upon him with clubs, and thrash away until he enters it.

A few weeks ago, an anaconda 17 feet long broke away while being carried across a public park in New York city. With vivid pictures of the exploits of this reptile in the Amazon waters before our eyes, we expect to see him fall upon the nearest human

being, in fold him in his coils, and crush him to a jelly. Surely, it will take armed and resolute men to capture him! No; on the contrary, this is not required; and it must have been with a feeling akin to disappointment that those who had read of the ferocity of the anaconda saw one man, armed only with a blanket, advance and seize him by the throat, while two others, also unarmed, grasp his tail, and then the trio, still holding on, carry him through the streets and thrust him back into the den whence he had been taken.

Not long since, the writer saw Mr. Thomson, a dealer in live animals, open a box containing an anaconda, quite as long as this one, take the reptile by the throat, and calmly examine his mouth, opened though it was in rage, to look for cancerous humors. Then from adjoining shelves he took python after python, each about 10 feet long, and examined them in like manner. Only last week, at the place of another dealer (Reiche), a big, powerful Syrian bear, a type known for its ferocity, was subdued without the firing of a shot. The bear broke through iron bars half an inch thick, and, standing up with his back against a cage of monkeys, thrust his terrible paws threateningly toward three keepers gathered about him. He didn't have a chance to use them, however, for he was belabored with clubs until glad to get back again into his cage. On a pedestal near the gate of the Cincinnati Zoological Gardens, there recently stood the stuffed figure of a donkey which, when alive, withstood the attack of a lion and beat him off. The lion, it seems, had broken out of his cage and escaped to a wood near by. On a grassy hillock adjoining, a donkey lay stretched in placid slumber—a slumber that was rudely disturbed by the lion, who, in a few bounds, was upon him. When the donkey felt the great mass of flesh descend upon him as if from the clouds, he was stunned and indignant, but not frightened, perhaps because he had never read any of the wonderful stories about the lion. He quickly recovered from the blow, and, rising, shot out both hind feet at the same time, and caught the lion squarely in the forehead. Badly hurt, the lion skulked off, and later the donkey died of the wound he received at the onset.

PHOTOGRAPHIC NOTES.

Development of Dry Plate Lantern Slides.—Plates having a sensitometer register of 12 or 13 are mostly used for making lantern slides, and it is generally advised that they be developed with the ferrous oxalate, or more commonly called iron developer, if clear high lights and a warm brown color is desired.

The use of the pyro developer is now so general for negatives that it affords a great convenience to the amateur in case it can also be employed for the development of transparencies.

It is only within a recent period that it has been recommended for this purpose, one method being the use of dry pyro in connection with sulphite and carbonate of soda.

From some experiments we have lately made, we have ascertained that it is possible to obtain lantern transparencies of superior merit very easily and quickly by using Beach's sulphurous acid pyro and potash solutions.

We repeat the formula as heretofore published:

No. 1.—PYRO SOLUTION.

Sulphite soda chem. pure..... 4 oz.
Warm distilled water..... 4 oz.

When cool to 70° Fah., add:

Sulphurous acid..... 3/4 oz.

And finally:

Pyrogallol..... 1 oz.

No. 2.—POTASH SOLUTION.

A. Carbonate of potash chem. pure..... 3 oz.
Water..... 4 oz.
B. Sulphite soda chem. pure..... 3 oz.
Water..... 4 oz.

(437 grains to each ounce of salt.)

Combine A and B in one solution.

To develop four 3 1/4 x 4 lantern slide plates at one time, place them in a 6 1/2 x 8 1/2 developing tray, then prepare a developer as follows: 3 ounces of water and 40 minims of No. 1 and 80 minims of No. 2; flow it over the plates.

In the course of three or four minutes development will commence and the image will appear very slowly. Continue the development until the shadows look quite black, otherwise the plates will fix out too thin. In case the development hangs back, a few drops of the potash solution should be added.

If the exposure is correct, a clear, crisp, blackish brown transparency will result. The method we employed was to place the printing frame holding the sensitive plate in contact with the negative, at a distance of two feet from the flame of a one-inch wick of a kerosene lamp, making an exposure of from 25 to 40 seconds, according to the density of the negative. No staining of the plate appeared, which indicated that as long as sufficient sulphite of soda is employed, the pyro stain will be prevented; no after clearing solution of citric acid or alum was used. Several plates may be developed successively in the same solution. After a slight washing, the developed plate is fixed in a

saturated solution of fresh hypo, then washed in changing water for one hour and dried. After mounting, it is then ready to be shown in the lantern. The process as a whole is exceedingly simple, and affords a pleasant and profitable amusement for long winter evenings.

The Holyoke Dam.

In a recent number of the *Transactions* of the American Society of Civil Engineers, an elaborate illustrated paper is given by Mr. Clemens Herschell, a member, on the work done for preserving the dam at Holyoke, Mass., in 1885. The dam belongs to the Holyoke Water Power Company. The second and present dam at Holyoke, that succeeded the first construction, which gave way in 1848, was begun and finished a year later. The length is 1,017 ft., or one-fifth of a mile. At the end are abutments of heavy masonry, between which the dam is composed of heavy timbers, which are built up so as to present on the upper side a surface of plank at an angle of 21 degrees 45 minutes to the water. The timbers, which cross the river transversely, are supported by other timbers at right angles, arranged in 170 sections, 6 ft. apart. The ends of these sloping timbers are spiked to the solid rock at the bottom of the river with 1 1/4 in. iron bolts, and 4,000,000 ft. of timber are contained in the structure, which, being under water, is protected from decay.

Gravel was filled in and pounded down at the foot of dam, which is protected also by concrete. The open spaces were packed solidly with stone to the height of 10 ft. The height of dam vertically is 30 ft. The sloped top is planked to a thickness of 18 in., in three layers of 6 in., all spiked and bound together. The rolling top or combing was covered with sheets of hoiler plate extending the whole length of dam. The graveling on the bed of river begins 70 ft. above the dam, and is carried over 30 ft. of the sloping surface, which is 92 ft. in length from the foot to the crest.

A section of the structure shows the transverse and sloping timbers, and the filling of stone, and a description is given of the experiences of 1849 to 1868, and of the damaging effect of the falling water over the dam, which reached 12 1/2 ft. in 1862. The fall of such a volume of water for 30 ft. naturally cut a seam in the layers of rock, and the falling over of logs of timber and ice did serious damage to the foundation and structure of the face of dam. It was found on inspection that the ledge had been washed out in places to a considerable depth, and caused the dam to be seriously undermined and the timbers to give way. To remedy these defects, an apron was built on the down stream in section exceeding the old dam. It was built of round logs laid up in perpendicular bins, 6 ft. square, and filled up to the top with stone, and covered at the sloped top with maple, beech, and other hard wood planks, 6 in. thick. The lower courses were built afloat, and in sections 150 ft. long, fitted to the irregular bottom of the river, and sunk by loading with stone. The effect of the apron has been to prevent further undermining action next the heel of the dam, though a new pool was formed below the dam.

The author goes on to describe the breaks in the crest of dam and the cribs used for repairing them. These cribs were sunk so as to inclose the breaks in the plank covering of dams, and consisted of boxes without top or bottom, the under side cut off on a level to fit the back of dam. Sketches of the large 40 ft. by 45 ft. crib used in 1884 to cover a hole in the dam are given. These are framed together with upright and horizontal pieces planked over.

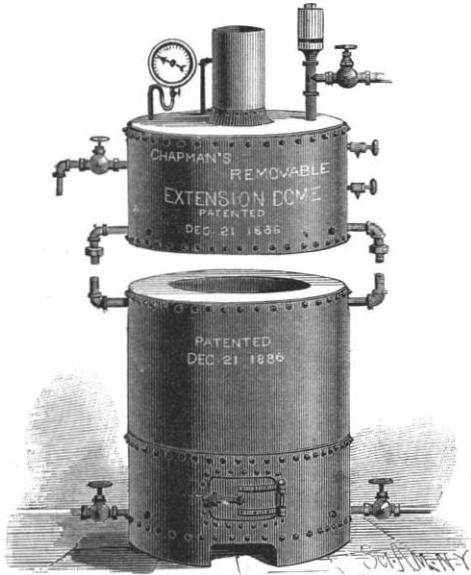
The author describes other plans to meet breaks in the dam covering by subcutaneous injection of gravel, and the use of coffer dams to reach the crest of dam, by which means a length of a hundred feet, 20 ft. wide, could be laid dry. Drawings of the coffer dams used, a design for a stone dam, and several photographic views illustrate the work.

The Green Ray.

The green ray is a flash of emerald colored light, said to be observed sometimes for a second or half a second at the moment the sun's disk disappears below the horizon, and just when one sees only a very small segment of its surface. Tourists in Egypt and the Red Sea testify to the phenomenon. Some consider it objective, and others believe it to be subjective. According to a letter of M. De Maubeuge to M. Mascart, the well known French physicist, the phenomenon has been several times observed in the Red Sea at the rising of the sun. M. De Maubeuge particularly noticed it, he states, in October, and the first impression of his eye and that of his assistant was a beautiful emerald green. He has also seen it at sunrises behind mountains elevated from 1 deg. to 2 deg. above the horizon. These observations tend to prove that it is an objective phenomenon. He has also observed it at the setting of the sun. There was not the least cloud between the orb and spectator, and the air was pure, but humid. The same phenomenon has not been observed by him from the moon, Venus, or any star, although he has often looked for it in the tropics.

IMPROVED STEAM BOILER.

The upper ends of the flues of vertical boilers, as commonly constructed, are exposed to hot steam upon one side and the heat of the fire upon the other, and the flue sheet is similarly subjected to the action of steam and fire. The result is that the flues become leaky, and are eventually destroyed. In the boiler here illustrated, and which is the invention of Mr. Wm. J. Chapman, of 97 Forest Street, Rutland, Vt., the upper ends and the flues are continuously submerged in water. The body of the boiler is formed with a recessed

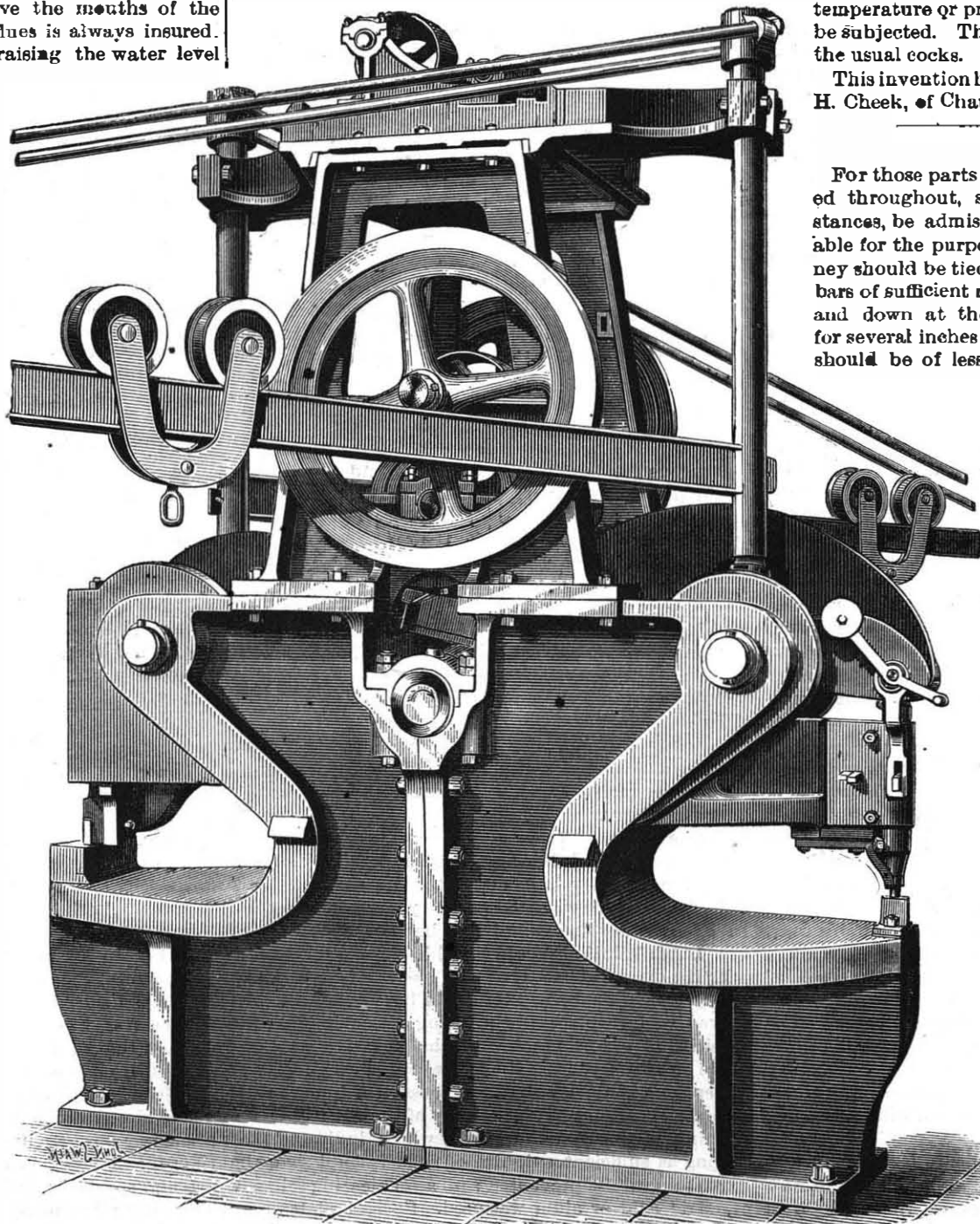


CHAPMAN'S IMPROVED STEAM BOILER.

head, surrounding which is an annular space provided with outlet pipes. Resting upon the head is a chamber of the same diameter as the boiler, and within which is a hollow cone. The internal diameter of the base of the cone is the same as that of the recessed head, and the cone and head together form a smoke chamber, in which are received the products of combustion passing through the flues. In the side of the chamber, near the bottom, are inserted tubes that connect with the tubes in the body of the boiler. These tubes establish communication between the upper part of the body and the lower part of the chamber. As the water level is maintained above the mouths of the tubes, the submerging of the flues is always insured. The chamber, in addition to raising the water level so that the flues are protected, provides efficient steam room, increases the heating surface, and utilizes the heat of the flues, which would otherwise pass directly to the smoke pipe and be lost. Whenever necessary, the chamber can be readily removed.

LARGE PUNCHING AND SHEARING MACHINE.

Owing to the great breadth, as well as length, of steel plates which ship-builders can now procure, and which it has been found most advantageous in many ways to adopt—particularly in the plating of large vessels—a necessity has arisen for punching and shearing machines with gaps of a depth not hitherto thought of. The machine which we now illustrate has to punch and shear $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. steel plates, but the power required to do that is not the only element which renders necessary so large and heavy a machine. The depth of the gap, more than anything else, regulates the size and weight of such a tool; and as the gaps on the above machine are 42 in. deep, admitting of punching holes in the center of a plate 7 ft. wide, some idea may be formed of the proportions of the machine. Messrs. James Bennie & Co., says *The Engineer*, have just completed two of these for Messrs. Harland & Wolff's extensive ship yard at Belfast, and one of them has



LARGE PUNCHING AND SHEARING MACHINE.

been at work for some weeks past. One peculiar feature in the arrangement is the design adopted for the cranes. In a machine of this kind, of course cranes are requisite with jibs having range enough to deal with plates up to 27 ft. length, and strong enough to carry upward of two tons at the point of the jib safely. But hitherto, with the "cam and lever" type of machine, now so greatly preferred by ship platers, it has been difficult to get cranes with freedom to swing in all positions without coming in the way of the driving belt. This difficulty has been overcome in the machine under notice by carrying the strap over guide pulleys on a framing up over the ordinary driving pulleys, and at such height as clears the cranes altogether. The latter are thus free to slew in all directions, without being interfered with by the driving belt.

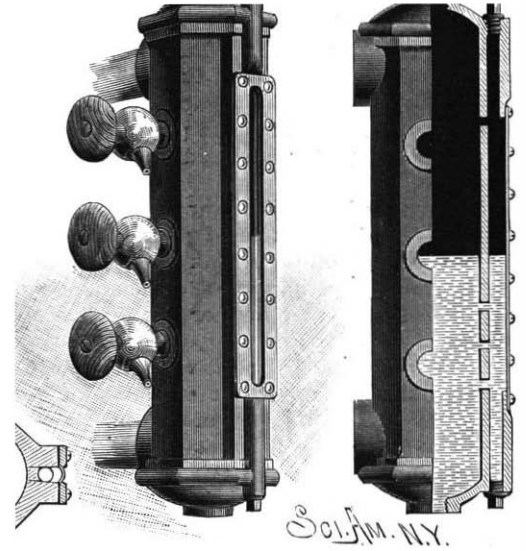
The design will be readily understood from the illustration, although, to save space, the cranes are shown with the jibs cut off short. It is well known that, for obvious reasons, it is a bad practice to carry the upper end of a crane post up to the roof of the building for support there. By the above arrangement the framing carrying the guide pulleys is made to form a substantial support for the top end of the crane post, and thus the machine becomes self-contained, and might be placed in any outside shed or building.

Alloys.

In a recent lecture, Professor Austen Roberts mentioned that the union of copper and antimony by fusion produces a violet alloy when the proportions are so arranged that there is 51 per cent of copper and 49 per cent of antimony in the mixture. This alloy was well known to the early chemists, but, unfortunately, it is brittle and difficult to work, so that its beautiful color can hardly be utilized in art. The addition of a small quantity of tin to copper hardens it, and converts it, from a physical and mechanical point of view, into a different metal. The addition of zinc and a certain amount of lead to tin and copper confers upon the metal copper the property of receiving, when exposed to the atmosphere, varying shades of deep velvety brown, characteristic of the bronze which has from remote antiquity been used for artistic purposes.

WATER GAUGE FOR STEAM BOILERS.

The body of the gauge consists of a hollow metallic shell closed at the ends, and made with side openings near the top and bottom, and having projecting flanges that form connections with the steam and water space of the boiler. A narrow chamber is formed in the gauge by a partition that is perforated near its top and bottom, to permit the entrance of steam and water, and equalize the pressure which preserves the equilibrium of the water, and also checks its agitation. The front of this chamber is provided with a slight



CHEEK'S WATER GAUGE FOR STEAM BOILERS.

opening, covered with a plate of mica, through which the height of the water can be seen. The mica is held in place by a flat metallic frame, secured to the body of the gauge by screws, and is swelled outwardly so as to present a convex surface, as shown in the cross sectional view, so that the water may be seen by the attendant when in a position at an angle to the gauge. Openings in the opposite ends of the chamber are closed by screw plugs, which can be removed when it is necessary to clear the chamber or clean the mica. The advantages attending the use of mica in this situation are manifest as compared with glass, there being no danger of fracture resulting from fluctuations of temperature or pressure to which the gauges may be subjected. The gauge may be provided with the usual cocks.

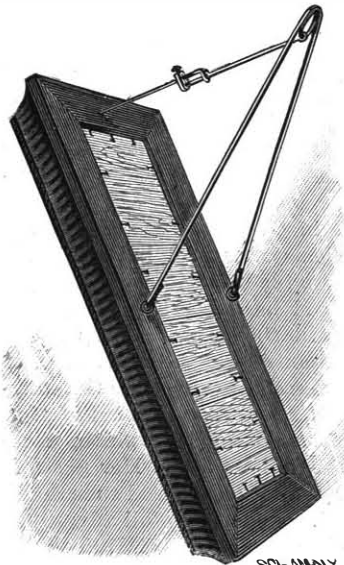
This invention has been patented by Mr. Thomas H. Cheek, of Chattanooga, Tenn.

Chimneys.

For those parts of a chimney which are supported throughout, stone may, under some circumstances, be admissible, but brick is always preferable for the purpose. The abutments of a chimney should be tied into the walls by wrought iron bars of sufficient number and strength, turned up and down at the ends, and built into the jambs for several inches on each side. No part of a flue should be of less thickness than half a brick, or $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches. Where slabs of stone or slate are placed level with a floor before the opening of a chimney, they should invariably be laid in sound mortar, cement, or other incombustible and non-conducting substance, and it should be at a distance of not less than $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches from the joists, flooring, or any other woodwork. A chimney built only up to the roof and stopping at that point is always dangerous. Every chimney in a house should be perfectly distinct and separate from every other chimney, from the hearth to the external opening. Chimneys may safely be built in stacks, but they should on no account have any connection within the stacks. Brickwork around flues should not be less than $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches thick in any part. By the Code Napoleon it was not permitted to build a chimney against the wall of an adjoining house without isolating it by an intermediate wall of sufficient thickness to prevent heat passing to the neighboring premises.—*The Architect*.

PICTURE FRAME ATTACHMENT.

This simple and efficient device is for suspending picture frames and mirrors at a fixed angle against the wall. The ends of the holding wire are bent into the form of hooks,



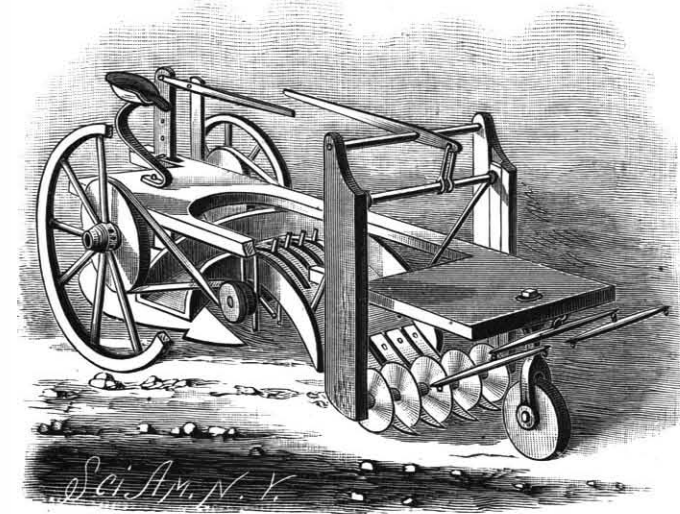
which engage with screw eyes inserted in the back of the frame. The middle of the wire is bent to form a spiral loop, upon which is received an eye formed on the end of a wire, provided at its free end with a slide having a set screw. Through a hole in the slide passes a wire having a loop bent at right angles at one end, and encircling the main wire. The

opposite end of the wire is pointed, so that it will retain its position when brought into engagement with the back of the frame. In order not to injure the frame, the pointed end may be replaced by a rubber pad to bear against the frame. It is evident that by means of this device, the frame may be placed at any desired inclination in regard to the surface against which it rests.

This invention has been patented by Messrs. M. A. Gerber & E. J. Nicholas, of Lost Creek, Pa.

COMBINED PULVERIZER AND PLOW.

This combined pulverizer and plow is so designed as to cut the furrow slices into strips, pulverize them, and then turn them under. The forward end of the frame



EVANS' COMBINED PULVERIZER AND PLOW.

is supported by a wheel, and the rear part is attached to the axle of the driving wheels. To the opposite side of the forward part of the frame are attached wide standards, in the inner sides of which are vertical grooves, in which slide bars carrying the ends of a shaft upon which are placed loose circular colters which, as the machine is drawn forward, cut the furrow slice into narrow strips. Between the lower parts of the colters are placed the points of narrow, slightly curved plows, whose shanks are attached to the forward end of an arched trough, so that the narrow strips of the slice will pass through the trough and fall in front of the turn plow, which can be adjusted so as to govern the depth to which it enters the ground. By means of a suitably arranged lever, the forward end of the trough, the narrow plows, and the circular colters can be raised by one movement. The arched middle part of the trough has slots formed in it in line with the plows, to receive the fingers attached to a cylinder revolved by endless bands passing around pulleys on the drive wheels. These fingers move much faster than the strips of the furrow slice through the trough, so that they will tear in pieces and pulverize the strips. With this construction the furrow slice will be cut into strips, pulverized, and deposited in front of the plow, which will then turn it under. This invention has been patented by Mr. Daniel W. Evans, of Sherman, Ohio.

SOMEBODY has compared the world to a beehive. The empty comb represents the possibilities of life, which may be filled with honey or stuffed with bee bread; and as in gathering honey the bee uses the sting as a spatula, and mingles a portion of its sting poison with the sweet for the sake of preserving it, so the wealth which the human bee accumulates lasts all the better when deposited little at a time at an expense of much care and labor.

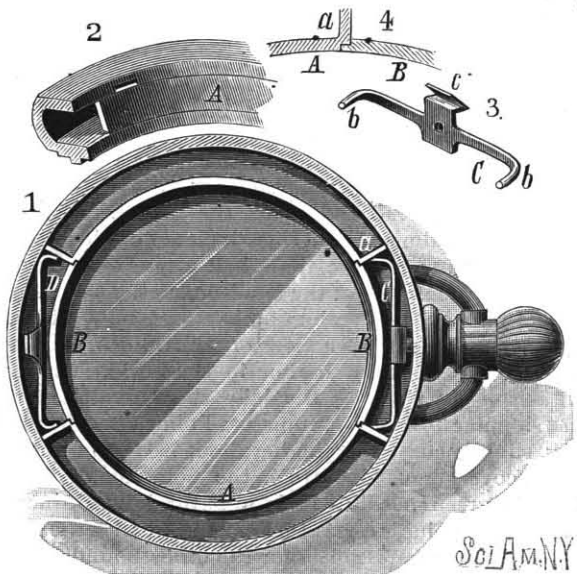
Creeping of Varnish.

We often meet with this trouble, especially in light colored gears, where oil has been used in the colors, and in almost every case where oil and varnish are combined in the varnish and color. One way to get over the difficulty is to give the job two coats of the true color, and then a light coat of pure varnish without any in; but when you cannot take the time for that, and are compelled to have your varnish and color strong, you can adopt the following two plans, which we have found have answered the purpose. As creeping is caused principally by sweating, which throws off from it instead of attracting to it, we must try and get rid of that false tack, which is nothing but a thin crust of oil held in its place by the other ingredients in the color, just as gold sizing standing over night exposed to sulphur from the stove will have a thin coating of sulphur; and although you might lay the gold on, and to all appearance it would be all right, yet if you attempted to wash it off, you would find it would leave solidly.

The oil in the color acts in conjunction with the varnish just the same; the oil, being lighter in body than the varnish, rises to the surface, and, although seemingly hard, has that false gloss and tack which must be taken away before you can proceed. Where you cannot with safety rub it off, without running the risk of marring the looks of the job, take castile soap, and, instead of rubbing it, wash it. It is best, if you can, to take each part separate, except when you are varnishing, which in that case involves the washing of the whole job at once. You should always wipe off with a medium damp chamois skin, one not too dry, so as to retain enough dampness to insure safety. Even after you have gone through the above, if, after all your trouble, you still find places that have probably been missed or slighted in the washing, and detect the creeping, just throw a little pure water into your varnish, stir up thoroughly, and proceed just as you would if you had no trouble. Sometimes the creeping will occur in spots, and can, in striping, be stopped by breathing heavily upon the place, running over it at once with the stripe.—*Carriage Monthly.*

IMPROVED SPRING AND DUST GUARD FOR WATCH CASES.

The object of this invention, which has been patented by Mr. Robert L. Stufft, of Scottdale, Pa., is to provide for watch cases a dust guard which may be readily applied and removed, and which will support the lifting and catch springs. The strips, A, forming the side pieces of the guard, are of sufficient width to fit into the band of the case, and their ends, a, are bent outward and fitted into the space in the central part of the watch case body. Between the ends are fitted the curved strips, B, which complete the metallic circle around the movement. In the chamber opposite the pendant is fitted a flat spring, C, having its ends, b, turned backward and resting against the ends, a, of the strips, A. Upon the middle of the spring is formed a catch, c, which engages with the rim of the cover. This spring is acted on by the push pin in the usual way. In the chamber in the opposite side of the case is a flat spring, D, provided with a curved arm which engages the shoulder of the case cover. The springs are light, easily applied, and readily replaced in case of breakage, it being only necessary to remove one of the curved strips, B, to gain access to the chamber. The sections of the dust guard, being closely fitted and pressed into place between the flanges of the center ring of the case, afford a strong protection, and add to the stiffness and strength of that part of the case. The sections can be removed by inserting an edged tool in a small opening arranged as shown in Fig. 2.



STUFFT'S IMPROVED SPRING AND DUST GUARD FOR WATCH CASES.

FOLDING STEP LADDER.

The accompanying cut represents a folding step ladder, opened and closed, made of hard wood and ingeniously bolted and braced in such a manner as to form a strong, complete, useful, and handy ladder.

When folded it occupies a space of only four inches, so that it may be put in the pantry or behind any door where it will be out of the way, and yet be within convenient reach, thus saving the trouble of searching the cellar and garret, and perhaps finding the ladder in the yard in a condition unfit to be brought in the house. This compactness is of advantage to dealers, owing to the small amount of space occupied and the low cost of transportation. When used by painters, it can

RUSSELL'S FOLDING STEP LADDER.

easily be carried under the arm, and for use as an article of household furniture it can be converted into a very neat hall rack.

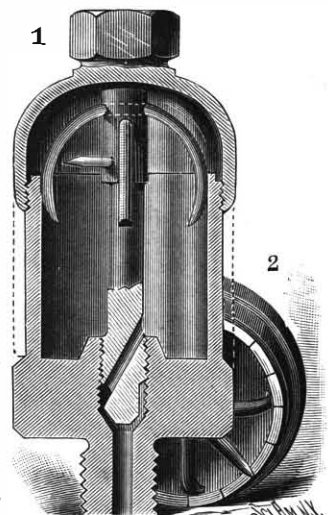
This invention has been patented by Mr. H. C. Russell, of 240 Robert Street, Toronto, Canada.

IMPROVED OIL CUP.

This oil cup may be applied to the journal bearings and moving parts of machinery, but is especially adapted to the lubrication of the rod and wrist pin connections of locomotive and other engines. It can be easily adjusted to regulate the feed of oil. The body of the cup is chambered to receive the oil, and has a neck by which it may be attached to the bearing. At the bottom of a central hole in the base is a tapering seat, below which is a passage through which the oil flows. The hole is threaded to receive the lower end of a spindle, which is beveled to fit the seat. The upper end of the spindle is steadied by bent arms or elastic wires, which bear against the inner part of the body.

The end of the spindle has an oblique passage which communicates with the oil chamber and with the hole, the threads on the spindle below the opening being cut away, to allow the oil to escape freely. Fixed to the spindle is an index finger, or pointer, which indicates on a graduated scale, on top of the oil cup body, the extent of opening of the spindle at the seat. A recess around the bottom of the chamber forms a pocket to hold sediment and prevent its passage to the parts to be oiled. When the cup is used on a wrist pin, it is provided with a screw cap fitting air tight, the bodily swing of the cup then insuring proper feed of the oil. When the cup is used on stationary bearings, it is fitted with a slip cap or cover, having a vent hole to insure flow of the lubricant. It is obvious that the cap can be removed to replenish the oil or clean the cup without altering the adjustment of the spindle, while the index finger and scale provide for almost instantly resetting the spindle to continue the same feed of oil, should the spindle be removed for any purpose.

This invention has been patented by Mr. Herman A. Todd, of Evanston, Wyoming.



A SCIENTIFIC FISH STORY.—An Italian has discovered that fishes are fond of music. To one Signor Garetto the honor of the discovery is said to be due; and recently, with a party of friends, he is said to have tried the experiment on Lake Geneva, which proved quite successful. Musical notes, especially those produced by the human voice, attracted the fishes in great numbers around the boat. Fishermen should try the experiment.

Trial of the Spanish Twin Screw Torpedo Cruiser Destructor.

The development of high-speed vessels is one of the features of naval architecture of the present day. This development is due to improvements in the system of construction of hull, improvements in forms of vessels, improvements in forms of propellers, and, more than these, in the development of the locomotive type of boiler for marine purposes and in the increased speed at which engines are now run. The most recent development of this combination has been made in the Destructor.

She was projected by Admiral Pezuela, who was then the Spanish Minister of Marine, who requested several British shipbuilders to submit a design of a sea-going vessel of about 350 tons displacement, with as high a speed as could be obtained. Messrs. Thomson's design was accepted, on account of the high speed promised. The vessel has since been built, and was put through her first official trial successfully. The conditions of trial proposed by the builders, and accepted by the Spanish Government, were that she was first to be run three times upon the measured mile, then to run at full speed for three consecutive hours; after this she was again to be run three times upon the measured mile. From the results of the mile runs the speeds upon the three hours' run were to be determined.

This severe trial was successfully carried out on Dec. 13, in the presence of a commission of Spanish naval officers appointed by the Minister of Marine. The following were the members of the commission: Commodore Casariego, Commodore Montojo, Captains Villamil, Romero, Elduayen, and Goitia. The vessel was tried at the Admiralty knot, at Wemyss Bay, Firth of Clyde, and afterward ran out to sea about thirty-five knots. The results of the whole day's running show that the Destructor attained a mean speed of 22.65 knots (a little over 26 miles) per hour continuously for four hours, including the time occupied in running the mile. The weights carried on this trial were equivalent to having the vessel's armament of one 9 centimeter gun, four 6 pounder rapid firing, and two 47 millimeter Hotchkiss revolving cannon, with all ammunition complete, five torpedo tubes, and ten torpedoes; the crew and their provisions and effects, all spare gear, tools, and fresh water for machinery; the vessel complete in all respects for sea, and with sufficient coal on board to carry her at 11½ knots for 1,800 knots.

The machinery of this vessel is of the high-speed torpedo boat type, but is very much larger. There are two sets, each developing 2,000 indicated horse power. They are triple expansion, and have been designed to run at 350 revolutions per minute. The engine room is divided into two separate watertight compartments, each side being protected by a three-quarter inch bulkhead and coal bunkers. The boilers are of the locomotive type, but have several important improvements introduced by the builders. They are four in number, each in a separate watertight compartment. The advantage of this minute subdivision is obvious, not only for purposes of buoyancy, but for subdivision of effects of accident of any kind. These boilers are protected by coal bunkers in the same way as the engines. There is a transverse bunker before the boilers, and before this is a bulkhead 1½ inches thick, which protects the machinery from raking fire. Aft of the engines is a cross bunker, which affords similar protection from aft. The machinery worked very successfully, the boilers showing no sign of priming or leakage. The forced draught was very moderate, being only 2 inches. The results of these trials will be particularly interesting to war-ship engineers at the present time, as attempts have been made by the Admiralty to introduce this type of machinery more generally into war ships, but they have not yet been very successful. It is only by great care and fortunate experience that it is possible to avoid disaster in this type of boiler and engine when worked in groups in large ships.

The vessel had a run of 185 knots, in order to determine her consumption at about 11 knots; and it was determined that with the amount of coal she can carry in her bunkers, she can steam 5,100 knots at 11½ knots per hour. This same quantity of coal will carry her 700 knots at full speed. In addition to the members of the Spanish commission, there were present at the trials Mr. Bakewell and Mr. Bennett, of the Admiralty, Mr. J. R. Thomson, Mr. G. P. Thomson, Mr. Parker, Mr. C. D. Haynes, Mr. Biles, Captain Celies.

This vessel is interesting in many respects. She is not the first high-speed twin-screw vessel built in this country, but she is the second, the first being the Russian torpedo boat Wiborg, of 168 tons displacement, which also was built by Messrs. Thomson. The Destructor's value consists not only in her high speed, but in the fact that she is able to maintain this speed in a seaway. Recently she was taken to sea with the Spanish commission on board, and in a heavy sea she maintained a speed of 22 knots for four hours. The duplication of her machinery is an enormous advantage to her, compared with a single-screw ship. Her turning powers are good, as she has a very large after-rudder, and also an auxiliary bow rudder. She turns a

complete circle in about 1¼ minutes and of less than three times her length. The protection by thick plates of the vital parts will be of value to her if she is ever attacked by machine guns. As it seems to be almost certain that high speed cannot be maintained in a seaway in a vessel of smaller size than this, we may confidently look to the Destructor as the forerunner of a large number of other similar vessels, whose chief characteristic will be their speed at sea. It is to be regretted that this vessel is not the property of our own Admiralty, but we have no doubt that the Grasshopper type, though slower, will, if their machinery is successful, be useful ships of the same type.—*The Engineer.*

COMFORT AND STYLE TOO.

So long as it is the fashion for ladies to wear bustles of the pronounced amplitude now favored by so many of the fair sex, we do not see why the fact may not be taken advantage of to introduce an invention calculated to make it convenient for them frequently to rest

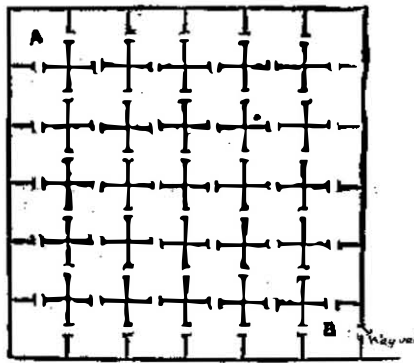


COMBINED STOOL AND BUSTLE.

from the fatigue of long standing or walking. Such, at least, we presume to be the idea of the inventor of the device shown in the accompanying illustration, for which a patent has recently been issued. The transformation the style has effected in the appearance of a lady properly fitted out in walking costume is something really wonderful, and we are not surprised, therefore, that several other inventors have rushed into the same field, with devices which would not otherwise have been thought of.

A PUZZLE.

The following I believe has a solution, but what that solution may be I by no means promise to tell—for a most excellent reason.



The figure represents the plan of a prison with intercommunicating cells (bless the Latin); a prisoner in A is offered his freedom if he can make his way to B after passing once, and once only, through all the 36 cells. How is he to do it?—*Knowledge.*

What About Duluth?

Duluth is a side hill city. There is nothing gentle about the slope. The hill commences at the edge of the lake. Ten minutes' climbing from the docks takes one through the railroad yards, the business section, and into the suburbs. Still there is plenty of hill ahead. You are not much more than half way up when you reach the outer fringe of the handsome residences. But there is no need of going higher just now, for an "about face" presents a view of all Duluth, and at your feet lies the finest harbor in the world. On the left as you stand facing the lake there stretches out that singular formation, Minnesota Point. Seven miles long, slightly curved, averaging about 700 feet in width, with a covering of pine trees, the point looks like a gigantic green needle. It is a natural breakwater. Outside the point is a great lake. Inside, with the ragged shore line of Wisconsin for the other boundary, is a harbor. At your feet on the right, Rice's Point juts out and curves toward the Minnesota Point, making an inner harbor. Away in the distance a headland

from the Wisconsin shore extends into the lake toward the extremity of Minnesota Point. That is Wisconsin Point; and between the two points was formerly the entrance to this harbor, seven miles long and from two to three miles wide.

But Duluth saw an opportunity to improve upon nature. She cut a canal 200 feet wide and 30 feet deep across Minnesota Point a few furlongs out, and now the largest steamships move into the improved harbor between Minnesota and Rice's Points, and take their places at elevator or warehouse or dock, as business requires, while the sailing vessels furl their canvas at the mouth of the canal and in five minutes are towed to their destination. This was a natural harbor, but it was susceptible of considerable improvement. Dredges have worked out slips and basins, piling the gravel within the shore line until the harbor is deep water, and the docks are to a considerable extent of solid earth. The largest lake vessels lie alongside the warehouses and elevators, and all around is a network of railroad tracks. It matters little to Duluth, commercially speaking, if the bill is steep. Her gigantic trade is handled on the water fronts, and such facilities never were surpassed. When the full advantage is taken of what nature has here provided, Duluth will have fifty miles of dock line.—*Coal Trade Journal.*

How Gold is Exported.

The process of shipping gold across the ocean is thus described by the *Boston Commercial Bulletin*:

Each keg contains \$50,000 in clear gold. It is from the Bank of America, at New York, that most of the gold is shipped from that city. The foreign steamships sailing from Boston now carry little or no gold, although the reverse was the case years ago.

The shipments of gold are not generally on the bank's account. At a first glance, persons might well suppose that when the demand arises for gold to send abroad, the shipper would only have to send in his order for his hundreds of thousands to the sub-treasury, where millions of specie are on deposit. But there are sufficient reasons why this plan will not work. The sub-treasury can pay out its coin only to creditors of the government. With the Bank of America the associated banks keep on deposit constantly an enormous sum of gold, sometimes amounting to \$40,000,000. To the members of the bank association the Bank of America issues its own certificates against these deposits, redeemable on demand. So, when there is occasion for making a gold shipment, the coin is prepared for that purpose in the rear office of that bank; here it is bagged and kegged and made ready for shipment.

Kege in which gold is packed—"specie kegs" as they are called—are made of extra hard wood. They must have an extra iron hoop. Specie is not thrown loosely into a keg, nor, upon the other hand, is it carefully wrapped in tissue paper and piled up one coin upon another. The keg serves only as a protection for canvas bags, into which the gold is placed in the ordinary hit and miss fashion of pennies in a man's pocket. Into each bag go \$5,000, and ten bags fill a keg.

In the interests of security, each keg is treated to what is technically known among the shippers as the "red taping" process. At each end of the keg, in the projecting rim of the staves above the head, are bored four holes at equidistant intervals. A piece of red tape is run through these holes, crossing on the head of the keg, and the ends finally meet in the center. At the point of meeting, the tape is sealed to the keg's head by wax bearing the stamp of the shipper.

Gold crosses the ocean very much as does every other kind of freight, without any special looking after. The average rate of insurance is about \$2,000 on a shipment of \$1,000,000. There are shippers who do not insure. Having to ship \$1,000,000, they give it in equal parts to half a dozen different vessels. It is a strict rule with some firms never to trust more than \$250,000 at a time on any one ship.

A certain party furnishes all the kegs for gold, and packs them. The man who does this is a monopolist in his way. Shippers of large amounts always lose a few dollars by abrasion, but not exceeding sixteen ounces on a million dollar shipment. The only protection to be found against abrasion lies in the shipment of gold in bars instead of coin. Gold bars are not readily obtained.

Culture of Asparagus.

Mr. Joseph Harris argues, in the *American Agriculturist*, that "the plants which contain comparatively little nitrogen require a 'sap of the soil,' rich, rather than poor, in nitrogen. Turnips contain comparatively little phosphates, and yet soluble phosphates are found of special value as a manure for turnips. Wheat and barley contain comparatively little nitrogen, while clover, peas, and beans contain a high proportion of nitrogen; and yet it is a well known fact that to produce a good crop of wheat or barley, the sap of the soil must be richer in nitrogen than for clover, peas, and beans."

Correspondence.

Remarkable Runaway of an Engine.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

We had a runaway of an engine here Friday afternoon, Dec. 17, about 1 o'clock. As engine No. 27 of the C., H. & D. R.R. was backing around the curve from the bridge for the purpose of taking water, the second section of train No. 17, engine 73, in charge of engineer George Long and fireman George Reaves, was sighted. Engineer W. C. Stump, of 27, reversed his engine and threw her wide open, in hope of getting her out of the way, but was too late, and the engine, coming down, crashed into the other, stove in the rear end of the tender and broke the tender loose from the engine, whose throttle valve had been thrown wide open. The men jumped to save their lives, and the engine proper, not being hurt, started forward at a frightful speed, tearing down the main track toward the Union Depot at the rate of about 55 or 60 miles an hour. When she struck 6th St., she jumped the track and ran along on the ground, breaking the heavy steel rails and knocking off five switch standards, finally finding her way back on the C., C. & I. track, on which she rushed through the depot out to Carlton, seven miles distant, where she stopped on account of steam going down. No one was killed or injured by this remarkable runaway.

O. E. V.

Dayton, O., Dec. 18, 1886.

Planting Mill Explosion.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

The recent explosion at East Cambridge, Mass., said to be attributable to the ignition of "minute wood dust," has suddenly become important to planing mill owners. Whether wood dust is explosive or not is a question to be considered.

I think it was settled not long ago that the dust in flouring mills is explosive, but I have never heard that wood dust, whether fine or otherwise, is explosive. Judging from my own observation for the last twenty-five years of the firing of steam boilers with shavings, the most reasonable theory that I am able to form is this. That the East Cambridge furnace was stuffed so full of shavings as to smother the flame; the furnace door was closed before the flame had started; the grates being completely covered, the fuel smouldered, accumulating gases for some little time, which, if left to itself, would soon have exploded without the intervention of the puff of air from the trapdoor which "bulged out."

If dust had anything to do with the explosion (which I doubt), it may have been like the priming in an old-fashioned flint lock gun, which explodes the charge in the barrel; and, in the case referred to, the trap door was the flint that struck the spark.

WM. W. HUBBARD.

Manchester, N. H., Dec. 20, 1886.

Important to Inventors.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

In your issue of Nov. 13, 1886, in an article on the "Bell Telephone Monopoly," you use these words, when descanting upon the House Telephone of 1868: "But a device is protected by letters patent for all possible uses."

What I desire to know, and what others would like to have your opinion upon, is whether it is a settled, unquestioned principle of patent law that an inventor is the absolute owner under his patent of every use to which his invention may be put, in case his specifications and claims do not mention them? To illustrate: An inventor makes a new and novel hen's nest—one that the egg, to prevent the encroachment of egg-sucking dogs, rats, "varmints," etc., falls through a little trap door in the bottom into a close receptacle. Now if it should be found that said hen's nest was an excellent rat-trap, and proved better for that business than for the object claimed in his specifications, would he be entitled to go on and manufacture rat traps under his hen's nest patent? In other words, Royal E. House, in 1868, made a delicate receiver for receiving the Morse ticks or pulsations, and nearly twenty years afterward some inquiring mind discovered that it was a machine that would take on and convey sounds made by air waves of breath. Now are the late discovered possibilities of his invention public property by reason of the expiration of the patent? Or, would the subsequent discovery of the possibilities of such instrument be the subject of a true and valid patent? It seems to me that the only thing an inventor can claim would be the use to which it could be applied, as eliminated and described by himself, and that if the same mechanical contrivance, as in the case of the House telephone, should by some one else be used for another purpose, the discovery would belong to him. It seems that the courts will rule in this way. Let us hear from you.

A. R. C.

Lincoln, Ill., Dec. 9, 1886.

ANSWER.—If a man patents a hen's nest, the patent

secure to him the exclusive right to make, use, and sell the article. How could he enjoy such right if another party could step in and obtain a patent for using the article, no matter for what purpose? If the hen's nest will serve equally well as a rat-trap, such fact adds to the merit and value of the original patent. The man who used it for rats did not invent anything, and therefore is not entitled to a patent. The courts have decided that the mere use of a well-known device in a well-known way is not sufficient to support a patent.

The patent of Royal E. House, of 1868, has expired, and its use is free to the public. Any one has the right to make, use, and sell it, and purchasers may use it as a telephone if they so desire. It was not new when House's patent was granted to operate the diaphragms of electro-magnetic instruments by the human voice. This was done by Philipp Reis, with his electric telephone, prior to 1862.

Labrador.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

In your issue of November 20, I notice an article headed "The New North." It has set me thinking; and a flood of recollection comes over me. It was once a dream of my childhood, a realization, in part at least, of my more mature manhood, and

"The memory of that summer dream
Is pleasant to me yet."

I hesitate to speak the name of my subject, for, as I have talked of it and written about it until it is well nigh threadbare, I actually fear that at its mention your readers, or some of them, may crook their arm and revolve their hands with a rotary motion, while a slightly sarcastic smile illumines their countenances, as they recognize a familiar friend. "Can any good thing come out of Nazareth?" they ask; or "Old friends with new faces;" though most likely an audible sigh or expression akin to sadness will result from its disclosure. Yet old as it is, there may be a drop in the bucket to some poor thirsty seeker after "something new." So I will proceed. And why go searching about for latitude 0, longitude 0, or something equally at present inaccessible, monstrosity of nature, when you can find all the beauties of an Arctic winter, with none of its startling horrors, or see the peaceful moon arise, or the generous sun set upon placid ripples, as the moment's glimpse might truly call them, of old ocean stretching far away into apparent nothing but a halo of beautiful light; and all this within the pale of humanity? Why seek a new "New North," when there be such a grand old "New North" attainable with no pain and one-tenth the cost? Now this is not an advertisement. I have made four trips to this region, and know it pretty thoroughly by this time; but there are, to my mind, certain invincible arguments why I cannot again plow these seas and coast these mains. I have led three expeditions thither and returned in safety, but these lovely scenes now only recall, they do not possess my memory.

Now the great pity is that some enterprising person does not establish a yearly summer excursion to this region. It is easy of access, and it is beautiful when viewed without fog, rain, or black flies. Go to your New North, or Alaska, or your own seashore, in fact, and you are liable to these pests, though here we will substitute mosquitoes for the black flies; and the chances are that you will have enough days clear to show you the sights. Icebergs in summer! I have counted over two hundred in plain sight, the farthest one scarce half a mile away—some of them bigger than the hugest pile of single buildings in New York city. It was in this region that Mr. Bradford gathered the materials for his famous iceberg scene, which brought him so much renown. I have seen them of all shapes and sizes, heard them go to pieces with a noise like thunder, viewed them covered with a bass-relief of seals and turreted with sea birds, and felt their cold breath. I have caught cold fish in their own homes, trout in an angler's paradise, birds in a hunter's heaven, and eaten, slept, and talked Labrador until I am already a veteran in my youth, and almost in my second childhood regarding it. Some time ago, your pages put forth a scheme for diking the straits of Belle Isle, to change the climate of Canada and the Atlantic seaboard, at the cost of forty millions of dollars. Time and again have I passed the sounding lead over the very path marked out for this gigantic scheme. Gigantic humbug? I will not even venture an opinion. Spend that money and buy Canadian North America, and the enemies' bullets will not reap a harvest of widows and orphans who will clamor for pensions to feed their hungry mouths, while the day will surely come when we may utilize every foot of sea and soil. But why proceed? My object is accomplished if my words are read, even if they are not acted upon. Yet, to my mind, they cannot be acted upon too soon. Labrador is much nearer than Alaska. It is a valuable and beautiful region in spite of its barren rocks and "rock bound" coast, and certainly deserves the attention of gamblers, fishers, pleasure-seekers, and the American Republic.

Philipp Reis, Inventor of the Telephone.

There has been much discussion whether the Reis telephone was able to transmit only tones or also words. From the documents at hand, we consider it beyond all doubt that words were also transmitted; and as a proof of this, we would add to the material which Thompson, in his biography of Reis, has most carefully collected, a letter written by Reis to F. J. Pisko, on the 18th of October, 1863:

MOST HONORED SIR: In answer to your distinguished favor of the 16th inst., allow me first to express to you my thanks for your friendly interest in my invention, and for kindly sending me your interesting article.

Your wish regarding the sending of articles and drawings I can fulfill only very imperfectly, as my time does not permit me to comply with the demands in this regard that are made upon me from all sides.

I therefore refer you to the only article published by me (*Bericht des physikal. Vereins zu Frankfurt a. M.*, 1860-1861), which you surely can obtain there. Furthermore, the apparatus of the latest construction will be described in Pouillet-Mueller's "Lehrbuch der Physik," last edition (in press). Moreover, I add description, as is done with each instrument, and would say to you that Mr. Hauck, mechanic in your place, has ordered an instrument, and can certainly give you information.

Regarding the explanation upon page 15 of your programme, I must say that the conclusions drawn, although rightly based upon former suppositions, are totally false (simply because the suppositions are false). The apparatus produces whole melodies, the scale between C and c very well, and I assure that, if you will visit me here, I will convince you that one is able to understand also words.

How is it that the tympanum of our ear can reproduce all tones with their quality (Klangfarbe), accords, etc.?

It would certainly be best if you would convince yourself of the simplicity and correctness of the facts.

With especial regard, yours obediently,

(Signed) PH. REIS.

Friedrichsdorf, 18-10-63.

Far in advance of his age, misunderstood, and poorly encouraged, a disease of the lungs completed what sickness and discouragement had begun. In 1873 his illness brought the inventor to his sick bed, after he had already, in 1871, lost his voice. He seemed, however, to recover, and again took up his duties as teacher.

He died January 14, 1874, and rests in the churchyard at Friedrichsdorf, where a monument was erected to him by the Physical Society of Frankfort-on-the-Main.

French Industrial Prizes.

Among the prizes offered for 1887 by the French *Societe d'Encouragement* for discoveries and inventions of value to French industry, the following have been quoted in the Continental press: Prizes of 1,000f. (£40) each: 1. For the utilization of residue in factories. 2. For the discovery of a new alloy for industrial purposes. 3. For the industrial utilization of a cheap and abundant mineral substance. 4. For the useful application of metals which have hitherto been only used to a limited extent for industrial purposes. 5. For the construction of a heating appliance to produce, in small industrial workshops, elevated temperatures by a quick and economical method.

Prizes of 2,000f. (£80) each: 1. For a small motor for workshops, acting for itself or in connection with a larger factory. 2. For suitable improvements in the mechanical spinning of flax. 3. For improvements in the usual form of grain mills. 4. For a motor for heavy oils. 5. For the economical production of ozone, and its application.

Prizes of 3,000f. (£120) each: 1. For a mode of transmitting natural mechanical forces over long distances, when their immediate utilization is impossible. 2. For the manufacture of glasses for chemical purposes. 3. For the manufacture of fine stoneware. 4. For the construction of a simple and solid appliance which will indicate the progress of a train at any distance, in a reliable, automatic, and regular manner. 5. For the construction of an appliance which will indicate, at a distant point, the temperature of a heated room. It is stated that models, etc., must be sent to the secretary of the society, 44 Rue de Rennes, Paris, by January 1. Competitors are reminded that the communication of processes to the society does not afford them the protection of a patent, which should be applied for before the competition.

THE *Pharmaceutische Rundschau* gives the recipe for an excellent disinfectant: Four pounds of crude sulphate of iron or two pounds of sulphate of copper are dissolved in hot water, to which two ounces of sulphuric acid are added. Mix with the solution while still hot eight ounces of carbolic acid, filter, and fill in bottles. When this powerful remedy cannot be applied in its fluid state, dry sawdust thoroughly moistened with it may be scattered over the floor of a dark-room or other places to be disinfected.

MIXING OF FLUIDS—EXPANSION BY HEAT.

T. O'CONNOR SLOANE, PH.D.

The phenomena of diffusing fluids have already been alluded to, in an early article of this series. The mixing of thick silicate of soda solution with water was used as the illustration. To a suggestion from Mr. C. Trautwine, Jr., of Philadelphia, the experiment here illustrated is due. He observed that, in dropping whisky into glycerine, a peculiar effect was obtained. The whisky by its energy, due to falling, penetrated deep into the thick and heavier glycerine, and immediately tended to rise to the surface. In so doing, it subdivided the glycerine into veins, and seemed incapable of mixing perfectly with it.

In the illustration, a glass containing some glycerine is shown. From a height, in order to obtain im-



THE MIXING OF GLYCERINE AND ALCOHOL.

petus, alcohol is poured into the center of the surface. The effect described above is produced. If rightly done, the veins of subdivided glycerine will extend quite deeply into the center of the fluid, and produce a very curious and striking effect.

The subject of heat is susceptible of illustration by a number of experiments. Until reduced to the absolute zero, -273° Cent., the constituent molecules of all substances are assumed to be in intense and rapid vibration. This implies that they do not touch each other. By their oscillatory motion under the influence of the kinetic force, or objective heat, they are not allowed to rest touching each other. Hence, it follows that by applying more heat, their paths of vibration should be lengthened, and they should occupy more space. An *a priori* consideration would therefore lead to the conclusion that bodies increase in size as they grow hotter.

Such is actually the case. The statement that heat expands and cold contracts is so old as to be known to all. It is a crude expression of a universal law.

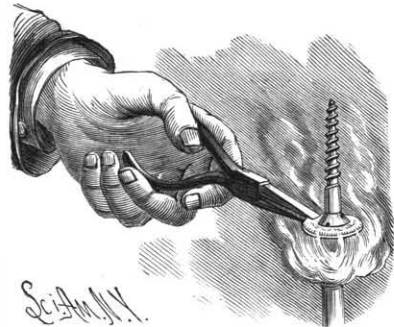
To illustrate its universality, it should be shown experimentally as applying to all three states of matter—the solid, the liquid, and the gaseous. The expansion of solids shall first be considered here.

In general terms it is the most difficult of the three forms to use as the basis of a satisfactory experiment. Iron, per degree Centigrade, only expands 0.000012, brass 0.000018, and zinc 0.000029. Non-metallic substances are not so available as the metals, because they cannot, as a rule, be heated so highly. If a bar of metal is adopted, its expansion can only be shown by multiplying its movements very largely.

From the coefficients of expansion given above, it will be seen that zinc is a very suitable metal for the purpose. It is fusible at a rather low point, but not so much so as to impair it for experimental use where the temperature need not rise very high. The apparatus for exhibiting the expansion of metals is shown in the cut.

A wooden base, provided with two standards, is first

constructed. It may be about twelve inches long and three wide. The standards are best mortised into the base, and glued or keyed so as to be free from shake, or they may be screwed or nailed directly to the



SOLDERING HEAD ON SCREW.

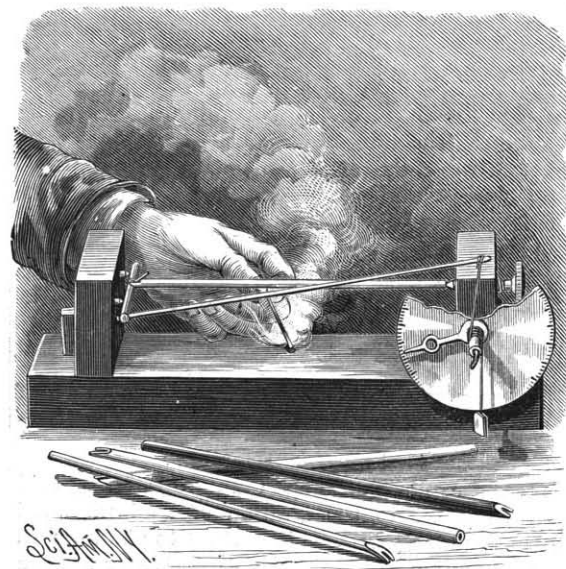
ends of the base piece. These uprights should be about four inches high. Through one of them, the left hand one in the cut, a hole is bored, near the top, through which a wood screw passes freely, screwing in and out. In the inner face of the opposite standard, at the same height, two sharply pointed pieces of wire (about one-sixteenth inch in thickness) are inserted, whose points project about an eighth of an inch from the wood.

The rod or piece of metal to be expanded comes next. Several are shown lying in front of the apparatus. A perfectly straight piece of brass, copper, or iron wire, or a corresponding rod of zinc is needed. The piece should be of slightly less length than that of the space between the standards. One end is filed off square, and a slight excavation is drilled or punched in its center. This is to receive the point of the wood screw. The other end is filed off obliquely, and a slit filed in the center axis of the rod. If the rod is very thin, less than a quarter of an inch, its end may also be slightly upturned, so as to produce a larger oblique surface. One of the pieces is shown thus constructed. In any case, a shape is given the end somewhat similar to that of the claws of a carpenter's hammer.

A short piece of wire has two holes punched or drilled in its surface, to receive the two points projecting from the right hand standard. Another very fine hole is drilled almost or quite through its center, in which a pin about the diameter of a ladies' hair pin is soldered. This pin should project a quarter of an inch, and should be about 135° from the two holes, as referred to the circumference of the wire. Finally, in the end of this short piece of wire another hole is drilled, and the long arm seen in the drawing is soldered therein. The experimental rod is placed in the position shown, and adjusted by screwing in or out the screw until the least motion affects the movements of the long index wire. Now if the rod be heated, it will expand, and raise the index wire perceptibly.

To still further multiply the extent of motion, the index attached to the left hand standard is provided. A wire axis is thrust into the wood. A thin tube, which may be of glass, is placed over this axis, a paper index is secured thereto by sealing wax, and the end of the wire is bent to secure all. If desired, a graduated dial may also be pasted to the standard. A thread is attached to the end of the wire index, is carried three or four times around the tube. At its end is a small weight.

By the wire index every movement of the rod in the direction of its length is multiplied, perhaps eighty or a hundred times. This, by the paper index, is again multiplied probably twenty times, giving a total increase of motion of two thousandfold. Hence the sen-



APPARATUS FOR ILLUSTRATING THE EXPANSION OF METALS BY HEAT.

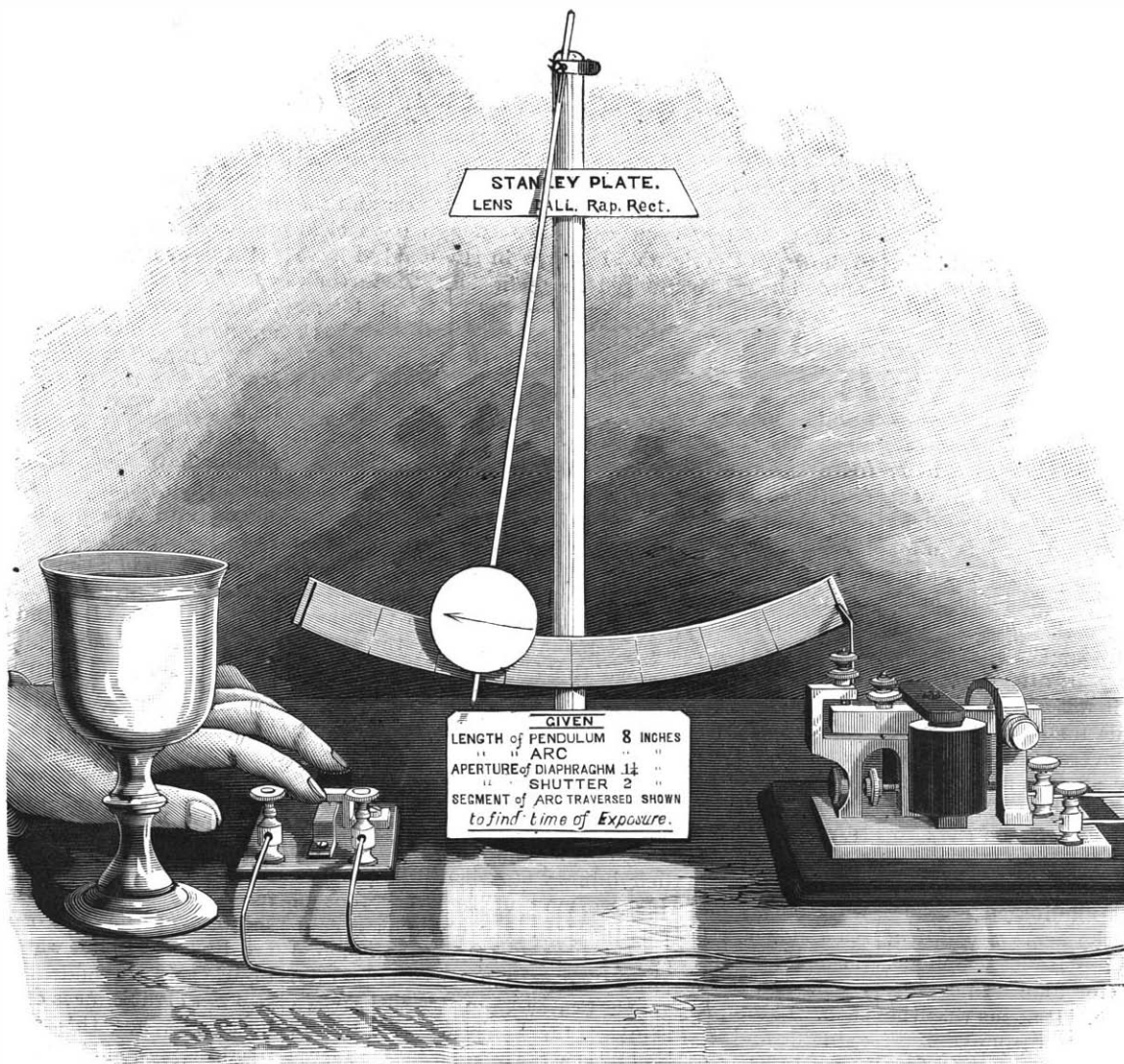
sitiveness is very great. A match held under the rod will produce a visible movement in the index, while a candle or alcohol lamp will produce more than a full rotation of the index.

The soldering is very easily done. A little hydrochloric acid is neutralized with zinc. The places to be soldered are cleaned and filed up bright, and a little of the "soldering acid," as it is called, is placed on them with a wire or a match. On heating one of the pieces in an alcohol lamp, with a bit of solder resting on it, the solder will melt and flow over the metal. This is done to both pieces separately, and afterward they are heated until the solder melts, and pressed together while held in the flame, removed, and allowed to cool. In the cut the operation is shown of attaching a head, which may be a copper cent, to the wood screw, to

facilitate its manipulation. After tinning or coating with solder one side of the cent and the screw head separately, the screw and cent are placed as shown, are heated until the solder melts, and allowed to cool, when the union will be secure.

PHOTOGRAPHY OF A MOVING PENDULUM.

We represent in the cut accompanying this article an interesting achievement in photography. It is not only of value in itself as a perfect production of the art, but is very suggestive. It opens the question as to how much movement can be allowed to an object which shall not be detected in the blurring of its image, and also as to the relation between the distance, speed of instantaneous exposure in photographing a moving object. Thus the one-hundredth of an inch is a distinctly visible quantity. A movement during the time of exposure which would, on the plate, produce this amount of displacement would tend to cause a blur. By one high authority the amount allowable is placed at 1-10 millimeter, or the 1-250 of an inch. It is uncertain how far this can be accepted as an absolute law.



PHOTOGRAPHY OF A MOVING PENDULUM.

If a moving steamer were photographed so as to be reduced to 1-1000 of her size, a displacement on the plate of 1-250 inch would represent on the part of the steamer a movement of 1000-250 inches, or four inches. At a speed of 15 miles an hour, this would occupy a period of 1-66 second. This reduction would represent the City of Rome as a little over six inches long.

In photographs of distant objects, there would be a certain difficulty in determining the blur. The grain of the paper would tend to conceal it. When a near object is photographed so as to be reduced to one-half only of its natural size, any displacement in the time of exposure is much more easily detected. It is such subjects that test most rigorously the limitations of the photographic art as affected by the shutter mechanism and sensitiveness of the plate.

The cut represents almost of full size a photograph of a swinging pendulum. It was taken by Dr. J. J. Higgins, an amateur photographer of this city. The conditions were as follows:

The pendulum was eight inches long as regards the distance from its point of suspension to its center of oscillation. Thus its period for small arcs would be

ter and pendulum. The pendulum swung down, passed the lowest point of its arc, consuming very nearly $\frac{1}{4}$ second in the journey, and just as it was rising on the opposite side was photographed. The sharpness of the image is surprising. Absolutely nothing can be detected to indicate the motion of the pendulum. The length of the pendulum is known; the divisions of the arc can be reduced to degrees, so as to give its angular displacement, and thus we are in possession of the data necessary to arrive at an idea of the time of exposure.

The pendulum in its journey from starting point to the place where it was photographed had spent about $\frac{1}{4}$ second. It was at this point moving at the rate of 258 inches per second. Taking the reduction as one-half, which is not far from the truth, and allowing for a displacement of image on the plate of 1-200 inch,

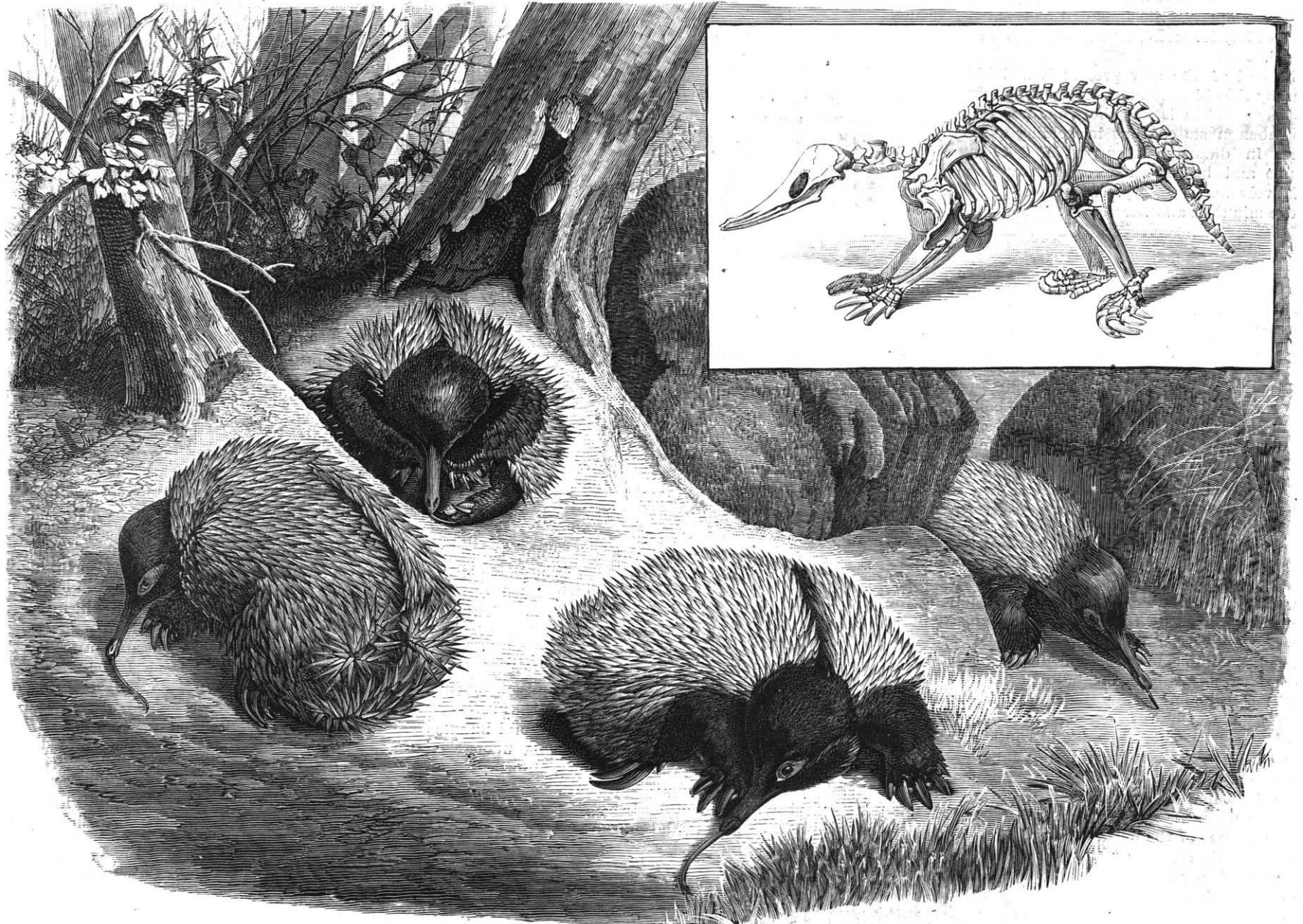
$$\text{this would give for time of exposure } \frac{1}{12.9 \times 200} \text{ second or}$$

1-2580 second. For Mr. Muybridge's exposures the time of 1-500 of a second has been claimed. Mr. E. J. Marey, who in France has done the most important work of the last few years in photographing moving men and

THE PORCUPINE ANT EATER.

An important question in natural history can now be answered. There are egg-laying mammals. This fact, which has long been believed by scientists, has finally been proved, and the link between mammals and birds, which, according to the saying that "Nature makes no jumps," must necessarily exist, has been found. It is worthy of note that Darwin was interested in this question.

August 25, 1884, Dr. Wilhelm Haacke, former assistant of Haeckel and Director of the South Australian Museum in Adelaide, discovered that the porcupine ant eater (*Echidna hystrix*) laid eggs, and the same discovery was made a few days later by W. H. Caldwell, a young English naturalist who went to New Holland to study the development of animals of the duckbill species. The anatomical construction of these animals and their position in the zoological system has been a subject of discussion among naturalists, but they have finally been classed as mammals. The particular animal to which we wish to call attention (see accompanying cut, taken from the *Illustrirte Zeitung*) is the porcupine ant eater (*Echidna hystrix*). It is the



THE PORCUPINE ANT EATER.

about 0.4 sec., and for a longer arc such as indicated by the divided circle a very little more. It was held at one extremity of the graduated arc by a catch attached to the telegraphic sounder, so as to be released when a current of electricity was passed through the magnet. In the circuit with the sounder were included a key, a resistance coil, and an electrical detent of similar character to the sounder, for holding and releasing the shutter of the camera. The paper arc was divided into inches, and the general data of the experiment were written on the cards seen attached to the standard. The apparatus was set upon the roof of Dr. Higgins' residence. To make the print a certificate of its own authenticity, a goblet of mercury was placed by the side of the apparatus, and was photographed with it. This proved that the table was level. Otherwise, by inclining the apparatus, the pendulum could be taken by a time exposure in any desired position. At the upper end of the rod, two threads were used for suspending the pendulum. This precluded the possibility of the pendulum being mechanically held to one side, as it would be impossible to do this and keep the threads aligned with the rod. The camera was then placed a short distance from the apparatus, focused, the shutter detent arranged, a mirror was placed so as to reflect the sunlight directly upon the pendulum, and all was ready.

A touch of the finger on the key released both shut-

animals, has used a regular exposure period of 1-2500 of a second. Dr. Higgins, therefore, seems to have about reached the same limit, for when the sharpness of the image is considered, it is not easy to admit a greater displacement than that used in the calculation.

Again, it is necessary to distinguish between the efficient period and mechanically opening period of a shutter. Little effect is produced upon the plate until the shutter is partly open, and the light ceases to a great extent to act before the shutter is fully closed. The exposure, however, was wonderfully short. When the nearness of the object to the camera is taken into account, the perfection of the photograph produced is very remarkable.

Hydraulic Jack Patent.

In the U. S. Court, Southern District of New York, in the case of Richard Dudgeon v. Watson & Stillman, for infringement, Judge Coxe sustained the plaintiff's claims and granted an injunction. The defense was want of novelty and non-infringement. The Judge in his opinion describes at length the workings of hydraulic jacks, and says there is no doubt as to the infringement of the patent, as the jack made by defendants works in substantially the same manner.

SOME one truthfully asserts that it is cheaper to get a good engineer and a good engine than to procure an inferior quality of both articles.

smallest of the monotremes, and reminds one of the porcupine. Its body is plump, and its short legs are each provided with five strong toes armed with sharp nails, well adapted for burrowing. Its beak resembles closely that of the woodcock, being thin and tube-shaped. The mouth is very small, only large enough for the passage of the worm-like, rough-pointed tongue, which can be extended some distance beyond the beak and is used for drawing in food (ants and other insects). No ears are visible, but there are hearing passages, which can be opened and closed by folds of skin. The upper part of the body is covered with black, pointed quills, the roots of which are surrounded by short hair, and the head, legs, and other parts of the body are also covered with hair.

This ant eater lives in mountainous districts and in high, dry woods in South Australia, where he burrows under the roots of the trees. In his hole he makes a nest which he lines with parts of plants. To protect himself from an enemy, he rolls himself up like a porcupine.

The Northwestern Miller, of Minneapolis, Minn., is a weekly publication which has attained a deservedly high position as a representative of the milling interests of the country. It celebrated the holiday season this year by issuing an unusually attractive number, a prominent feature of which was the presentation of pictures of a large number of leading members of the trade.

Welding by Electricity.

Recently, at the Institute of Technology, Boston, Professor Thomson, of the Thomson-Houston Company, of Lynn, made known to the public his new and remarkable method of welding, by which a broken bar of metal can be easily reunited, or bars of different metals welded together; and those materials which previously resisted welding most strenuously are now joined with ease, while those previously easily welded remain the same by the new process. Differences in specific electrical and heat conductivity are the properties which are most troublesome. The method consists in simply forcing the ends to be welded together tightly and passing a sufficiently powerful current of electricity through the joint. The resistance raises the metal to a welding heat, and the pressure makes the joint. The speaker enumerated some of the practical results obtained personally within a recent period. Iron and copper wires of varying dimensions have been joined end to end. Steel or iron bars nearly an inch in diameter have been solidly welded together, and steel has also been joined to brass. A copper rod nearly one-half an inch in diameter has been welded, requiring a current of 20,000 amperes. Steel pointed tools may be cheaply made of inferior metal, and new points welded on as desired.

The cost of the new process is undoubtedly less than by the old method of forge and hammer, while the time required is very short and no heat is wasted. Mr. Thomson stated that in welding a steel bar 1½ inches in diameter, a current of 6,000 amperes in volume and having an electromotive force of one-half a volt was necessary. The use of 35 horse power for one minute is another way to state it.

SCIENCE IN TOYS.

II.

The pulse glass, shown in the annexed engraving, is due to Franklin. It consists of two glass bulbs, formed on opposite ends of a tube bent twice at right angles, the system being partly filled alcohol or ether, the air having been expelled by boiling the inclosed fluid before sealing the tube. When the bulb containing the liquid is held in the hand, and the tube is placed in a horizontal position, the rapid evaporation of the liquid by the warmth of the hand creates a pressure which causes the transfer of the liquid to the cooler bulb. The quick evaporation of the liquid adhering to the sides of the now empty bulb increases the pressure, and causes a rapid ebullition of the liquid in the full bulb, and at the same time carries off the heat to such an extent as to produce a very decided sensation of cold.

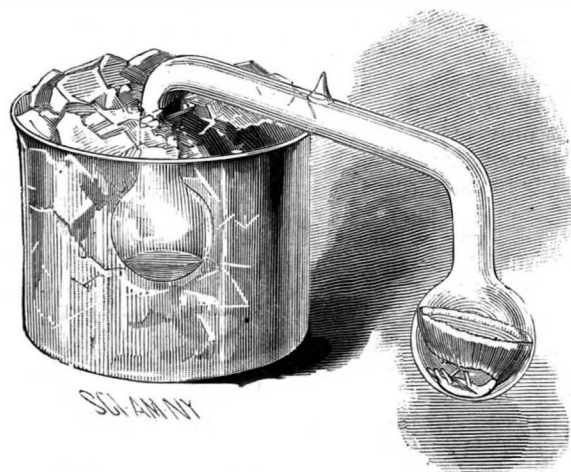


PULSE GLASS.

When the bulb is held at an inclination of about 40°, the liquid pulsates from one bulb to the other. The expulsion of the liquid from the bulb in the hand produces cold, which is quickly dissipated; and when equilibrium is restored, the liquid contained by the tube condenses the vapor in the empty bulb, and enters that bulb, to be again expelled as before.

The instrument operates continuously and very regularly when placed in a horizontal position upon a table, with one of the bulbs in the vicinity of a lamp, that is, within eight or ten inches of the flame, the other bulb being placed as far as possible away from the flame and shaded.

Wollaston's cryophorus is similar to the pulse glass,



WOLLASTON'S CRYOPHORUS.

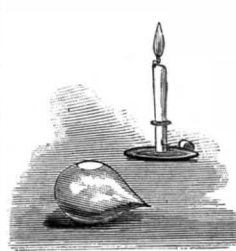
the only difference being that the tube connecting the two bulbs is made much larger, to avoid choking by ice, a thing sure to occur when the tube is of small diameter—the water vapor which is drawn toward the empty bulb (in a manner presently to be described) being condensed and frozen on the walls of the tube to such an extent as to entirely close it.

The cryophorus in process of construction is partly filled with water, which is boiled in the bulbs before sealing, to drive out the air. When the empty bulb of the apparatus is placed in a freezing mixture of ice

and salt, for example, the evaporation of the water in the filled bulb, due to the cooling and condensation of vapor in the empty bulb, is so rapid as to carry off the heat to such an extent as to cause the water to freeze. Instead of employing the freezing mixture, a spray of ether or bisulphide of carbon may be projected upon the empty bulb with the same results.

This is a very interesting experiment, illustrating the principle of freezing by evaporation. It is the opposite of the popgun experiment illustrated and described in the last article on this subject. That was heat by compression. This is cold by rarefaction.

The candle bomb, shown in the annexed engraving, exhibits in a forcible way the explosive power of steam.



CANDLE BOMB.

It consists of a small bulb of glass filled with water and sealed. When held in a candle or lamp flame by means of a wire loop, it soon explodes violently.*

The least expensive machine for applying to mechanical work the force exhibited by the candle bomb is the fifty cent engine, shown in the engraving below.

It is a small and simple machine, but it is far more perfect than the steam engines of our forefathers. It will readily make 800 to 1,000 revolutions per minute. It is a wonderfully inexpensive example of the world's greatest motive power. Its construction is so well known as to require no description.

The radiometer is one of those instruments which should perhaps be classed with scientific apparatus, but it may, nevertheless, be properly called a toy. It is a heat engine remarkable for its delicacy as well as its great simplicity. It illustrates a class of phenomena discovered by Crookes, which are complicated and difficult to explain in a brief



RADIOMETER.

and popular way.

The instrument consists of a very slight spider of aluminum, supporting on the end of each of its four arms a very thin mica plate blackened on one side and silvered on the other side.

The aluminum spider is provided with a jewel, which rests upon a delicate needle point supported at the center of the glass globe.

The spider is retained on its pivot by a small tube extending downward from the top of the globe. When placed in sunlight or near a gas or lamp flame, the

vanes revolve rapidly. Crookes' explanation of the radiometer is as follows: "The interior of the glass vessel being highly vacuum, the light or the total bundle of rays included in the term light, falling upon the blackened side of the vanes, becomes absorbed, and thereby raises the temperature of the black side. This causes extra excitement of the air molecules which come in contact with it, and pressure is produced, causing the fly of the radiometer to turn round." G. M. H.

Encouraging Inventors.

Until very recently the propriety of rewarding inventive genius, by securing to the originator of a public benefit certain rights, by which he might obtain remuneration for the labor and time expended by him in perfecting his invention, has not been questioned. A uniformly healthy sentiment has prevailed on this subject, which has materially assisted in increasing novelties of a useful character. The incentive of a pecuniary reward has stimulated the efforts of men of ability in every walk of life, and as a consequence there has been a marked improvement in the domestic economy of all civilized peoples.

The advantages of the patent right system are probably more apparent in the United States than in any other country. No nation has produced so many useful inventions as this, and to the efforts of American genius may be ascribed the complete revolution in several fields of labor which has rendered it possible for men who were once slaves of toil to work and at the same time enjoy life. This has a forcible illustration in the changed system of farming brought about by the patent agricultural implements now in general use. Before the introduction of these useful articles every grain of wheat was paid for, literally, by a drop of sweat; but now, although the farmer is still compelled to labor, he does it under such improved circumstances that it scarcely seems burdensome, and agriculture, as a consequence, has become a favorite pursuit, instead of being avoided, as it was at one period.

It would be idle to attribute the great strides made

* When experimenting with candle bombs, a guard of some sort should be provided, to prevent injury to the experimenter.

in mechanics to any other cause than the protection afforded to inventors by the patent laws. It is unfortunately true that the deserving originator is often deprived of his just rights by his inability to comply with the requirements of the law governing the granting of patents, or, as sometimes happens, through ignorance; but this does not affect the general result. It has been asserted, also, that irregularities occur in the issuance of patents by the commissioner, by which inventions are rejected as valueless on the ground that they do not possess sufficient novelty to entitle them to the protection of a patent, and subsequently another applicant is awarded letters for substantially the same thing originally declined. Such mistakes should not militate against the system.

The truth of the matter is, that the law in its present shape is a very good one, and it has the indorsement of all who are interested in the prosperity of the nation. That it may sometimes be abused is no argument against its advisability, for very few acts are absolutely perfect. So long as a reasonable protection is accorded to inventors, no one will have cause for fault-finding. Public opinion is strong enough, as was evinced recently in the sewing machine case, to restrain those having the power to give extensions from using their privilege when it is liable to work injury to the country at large. Those who have commenced a senseless opposition to the entire system because a few grasping men, following the natural instincts of human kind, have attempted to derive more benefit from it than they deserve, will see their error, and unite with us in expressing the belief that the encouragement of genius is the product of an advanced state of civilization, and for that reason merits the friendship of sensible men.—*The Manufacturers' Gazette.*

Snow Melting Apparatus.

A system of snow melting has been devised by Mr. F. Lyon, of 94 Harleyford Road, London. When it is considered that a fall of snow 6 inches deep, over one mile of road 60 feet wide, amounts to 5,866 cubic yards, the impossibility of removing it promptly by means of horses and carts is at once apparent—the more so when it is remembered that some metropolitan vestries have from 50 to 100 miles of road, and thus would have to deal with from 300,000 to 600,000 cubic yards of snow, assuming a 6 inch fall to occur. The principle of Mr. Lyon's invention is that the snow can be dealt with in the roads on which it falls when it is in a light and fleecy condition, and therefore easily melted. The apparatus consists of a wrought iron tube about 35 feet long, having a furnace at one end and a short length of vertical pipe for a chimney at the other. The tube is made in lengths of 6 feet, and each length is tapered so that they all fit into each other and are closely packed for transport on wheels. When a fall of snow occurs, the apparatus is to be laid along the gutters of the roads to be cleared, the width occupied being about 4 feet. A fire is then to be lighted in the furnace, the heat from which will pass along the horizontal tube, which has a flatly arched top. The snow is then to be shoveled on to the heated tube, which will melt it, the resulting water flowing away to the nearest gully. A trial of this apparatus took place in the St. Marylebone district in February, 1885, on some snow which had fallen long previously and had been twice carted. Notwithstanding the solidified condition of the snow and the imperfect condition of the experimental apparatus, it is stated that 21 yards of the consolidated snow, weighing 10 tons 8 cwt. 3 qrs., and equal to 198 yards of freshly fallen snow, were melted in 10 hours with a consumption of coke of the value of 1s. 7d., or under 1¼d. per ton.

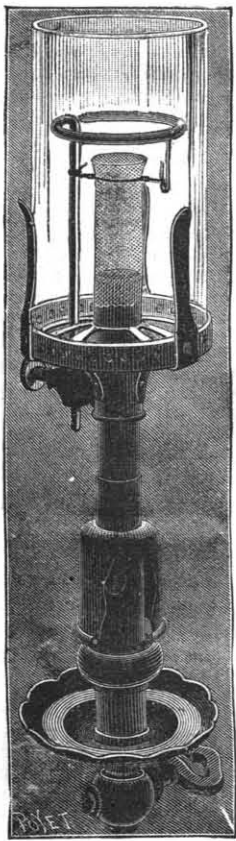
Talcum Filter.

Talcum as a filtering medium, recommended by Dr. Fr. Hoffmann, is reported by the Committee on the National Formulary to be better, cheaper, and affording quicker filtration and clearer filtrates than other media previously used. Finely powdered white talcum should be well washed with hot water, slightly acidulated with hydrochloric acid, and again washed with pure hot water until no trace of acid can be detected. It is then dried, and may be used by adding the dry powder to the cloudy mixture, and filtering through paper; or the talcum filter may be constructed in the following manner:

Make a double filter out of white filtering paper, and insert it in a quart glass funnel; mix about half an ounce of talcum with one pint of hot water in a bottle and shake well, then pour it immediately upon the paper filter, taking care so to distribute the mixture that the entire filter from bottom to top is evenly covered with the fine powder. The water will be found to pass off rapidly and perfectly clear, after which the filter is ready for filtering any cloudy mixtures. The same filter may be used frequently for the same substances; but after it has been used the funnel should be covered with a glass plate, to exclude the dust and preserve the filter clean for the next operation.

INCANDESCENT BURNER OF DR. AUER.

The peculiar feature of the gas lamp of Dr. Auer von Welsbach consists in the incandescence of certain metallic salts placed in the middle of the flame



NEW INCANDESCENT GAS BURNER.

of a Bunsen burner. The principle is not new; it is the same as that in the Diamond lamp, in which, as may be remembered, the incandescent substance is formed by a little thimble of magnesia threads. On the other hand, the arrangement of the Auer burner is very simple, and appears to possess many advantages. It consists of an ordinary Bunsen burner, the end of which is covered by a hood of cotton or woolen tissue washed in a special preparation. The hood, about 6 or 7 centimeters in height, is slightly flaring and is held by a platinum thread which passes around it and is fixed to two rods of iron connected with a ring above. The longer of the two is held by a thumb screw to the pipe which supports the burner.

As soon as the burner is lighted, considerable heat is generated within the hood, which, in a few seconds, becomes aglow with a whitish blue light, remarkable for its steadiness and intensity.

It is not perfectly well known how the hood is made, but here are a few details from the patent of Dr. Auer, which throw some light on the subject: Take a solution of zircon and nitrate or acetate of lanthanum or yttrium, and soak in it the woolen or cotton that is to form the hood. The tissue is then carbonized, and leaves a sort of network, which is applied to the Bunsen. The nets thus procured appear more favorable to the production of light than the massive cylinders of zircon tested in 1868 by Tessie de Mottay on oxyhydrogen burners.

According to the inventor, each hood costs about 1 cent, and will last 1,000 hours, or until the dust of the atmosphere is sufficiently incrustated thereon to diminish the strength of the light. Finally, with equal lighting power, the consumption of gas in the Auer burner will be about one-half less than that of an ordinary burner, which should show an economy of 50 for 100, but these figures ought to be verified. The

durability of the hood ought also to be determined by exact tests.—*La Nature.*

JOSEPH ECHELETER'S DESIGN FOR A GRANT MONUMENT.

Fourteen competitive designs for a monument to General Grant, to be erected in New York, have been sent in, and among these the design of a German who has lived in America for two years is especially noteworthy. Thinking that many of our readers may be interested in the design of Joseph Echeleter, we give a cut of it, taken from the terra-cotta model.

The monument is to be about 71 or 72 ft. high, the lower part consisting of a mausoleum. It will cost about half a million dollars. The memorial is crowned by an equestrian statue of Grant. This represents the General as commander, riding to battle on a rearing horse, his cloak flying, and his head turned to look back, while he points in the direction of the enemy with a field glass held in his right hand.

At the four corners of the cap or upper part are four female figures representing Peace and Prosperity, Industry and Invention, Commerce and the Marine, Statesmanship and Law. On the front is a battle scene, Grant with outstretched sword riding at the head of a column of infantry, while at the left the cannoners are busy firing the guns. At the back of this upper part, the North and South are represented as engaged in a mortal hand to hand combat, and in the midst of the confusion of the battle rises the imposing figure of a commanding general of the Southern army.

The group in the middle part of the monument is specially well conceived; two female figures, the North and the South, grasp hands in token of eternal friendship. The North is represented as having beautiful classic features and wearing the Phrygian cap—she is laying the palm branch of peace on the shattered weapons of war; while the South is characterized by features of the Southern type and light clothing, the figure being partly nude—she is laying a laurel wreath at the feet of an eagle whose outstretched wings spread over the scene. The background of this principal group is filled with an architectural design of arches.

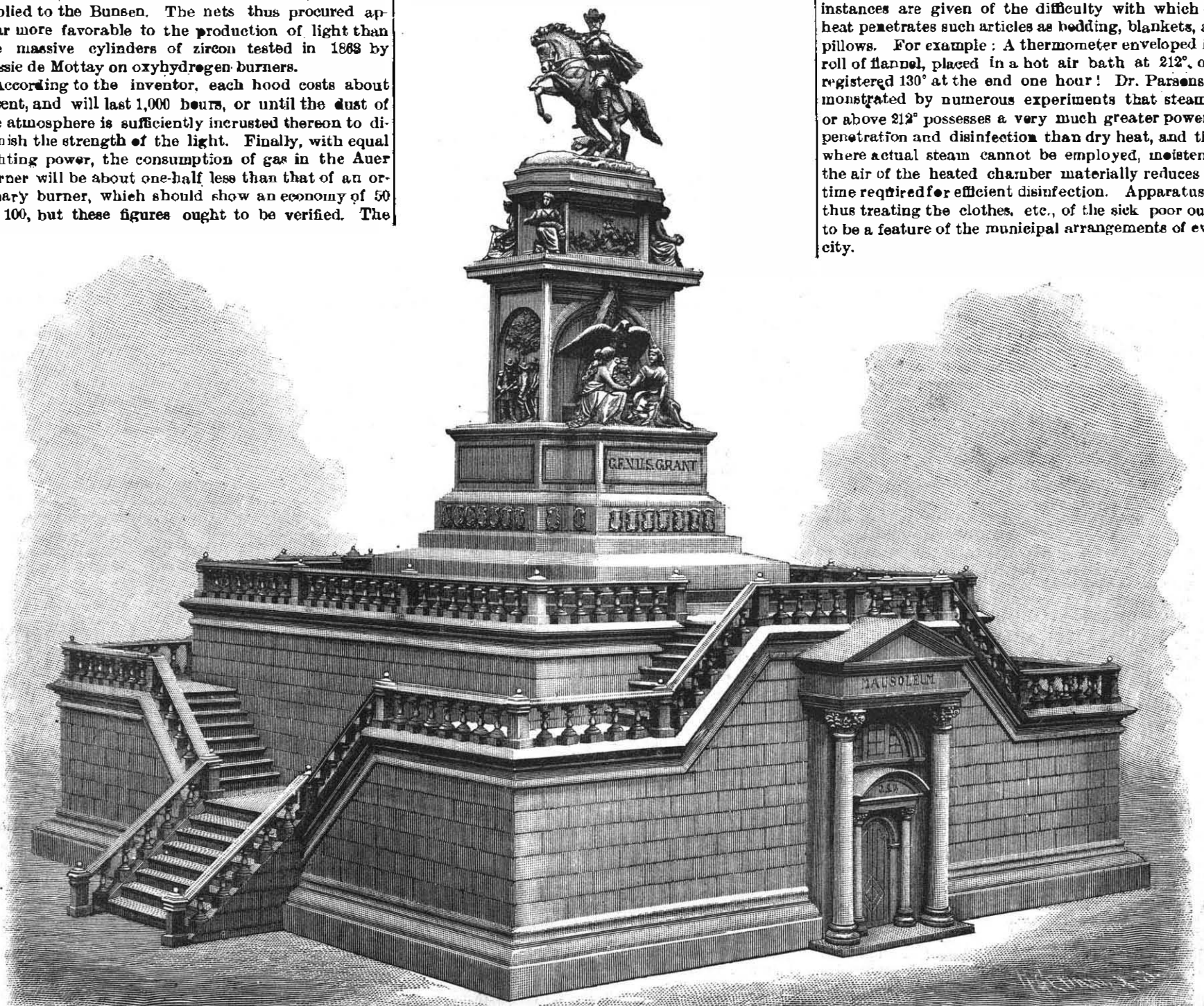
On the opposite side of this part of the monument is the figure of General Grant in uniform and fully equip-

ped for war. He is seated with his left hand on his sword, and about him and on a staircase behind him are grouped the members of a negro family. The negro, on whose wrist the fetters are still visible, raises her hands to Grant, praying him to deliver her from slavery, while the negro tries to express his gratitude by pressing the General's hand, resting his left hand on the forearm of his deliverer. In the foreground a little negro boy is playing with the broken chains. The left face of this portion represents, in high relief, the scene under the memorable tree at Appomattox, where General Lee surrendered his sword to the victor Grant. In high relief, at the right, the artist has shown the steps of the White House at Washington. On the upper step Grant is taking the Presidential oath before Chief Justice Chase, while in the background stand Grant's predecessor, Johnson, and several Senators, as witnesses. The front of the principal part of the monument bears the inscription, "Gen. U. S. Grant." The coats of arms of the different States are arranged on the under soles.

The mausoleum, which is 59 feet in depth, is provided in front and at the back with three terraces. The cap of the monument, the main part of the mausoleum, the portals, and the balustrades are to be made of polished granite, the foundation of rough-hewn stone, and the figures and coats of arms of the best bronze. The completion of the work would require about five years.—*Illustrirte Zeitung.*

Disinfection by Heat.

The disinfection of articles of clothing, and of dwellings, after infectious ailments, is admittedly one of the most important duties which attends the work of preventing disease. A recent report of the medical officer of the local government board, London, presents the entire question of the destruction of germ life in a new aspect, including, as it does, a memoir on disinfection by heat, from the pen of Dr. Parsons. The degree of dry heat necessary to kill the germs of diseases well known to be infectious was first investigated. The bacilli of splenic fever, for example, were killed by exposure for five minutes in a dry heat varying from 212° to 218° F., but their spores did not yield to two hours at 220°. One hour at 245°, and four hours at 220°, achieved the result. Some very remarkable practical instances are given of the difficulty with which dry heat penetrates such articles as bedding, blankets, and pillows. For example: A thermometer enveloped in a roll of flannel, placed in a hot air bath at 212°, only registered 130° at the end one hour! Dr. Parsons demonstrated by numerous experiments that steam at or above 212° possesses a very much greater power of penetration and disinfection than dry heat, and that, where actual steam cannot be employed, moistening the air of the heated chamber materially reduces the time required for efficient disinfection. Apparatus for thus treating the clothes, etc., of the sick poor ought to be a feature of the municipal arrangements of every city.



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