

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

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THE ELECTRIC SUBWAYS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

On July 5, 1887, at the office of the Mayor of the city of New York, the Board of Electrical Control was organized, which is the successor to the Board of Commissioners of Electrical Subways. The name indicates its function; it is charged with the regulation of the distribution systems of the electrical supply, telephone, and telegraph companies of this city.

Both these organizations are the outcome of legislation looking to the placing underground of all the electric wires in this city. The Board of Electrical

Control has supervision over both aerial and underground lines, and hardly anticipates success in having all wires placed underground, because in some parts of the city the demand for electrical service is so scant that it would not pay to place expensive conduits in such districts. In the present issue we illustrate the subways at present in use in this city, representing types which, it is fair to say, will probably be followed in general for many years to come. It consists of two elements, the manholes and the conduits.

The general system is the following: At regular dis-

tances throughout the streets where the conduit is to be placed, manholes are established. These are generally square or rectangular excavations lined with brick or iron. They are about 5 or 6 feet in diameter, and vary in depth according to the needs of the locality. There about 700 in the city, and hardly any two are identical in all respects. Some are rounded, six-sided, or diamond shape, although the rectangular outline prevails. A typical brick manhole is shown in Fig. 9.

They are capped with a heavy iron curb, and pro-

(Continued on page 246.)



Fig. 2.—FEEDING ELECTRIC LIGHT CABLES INTO THE DUCTS OF THE SUBWAY.

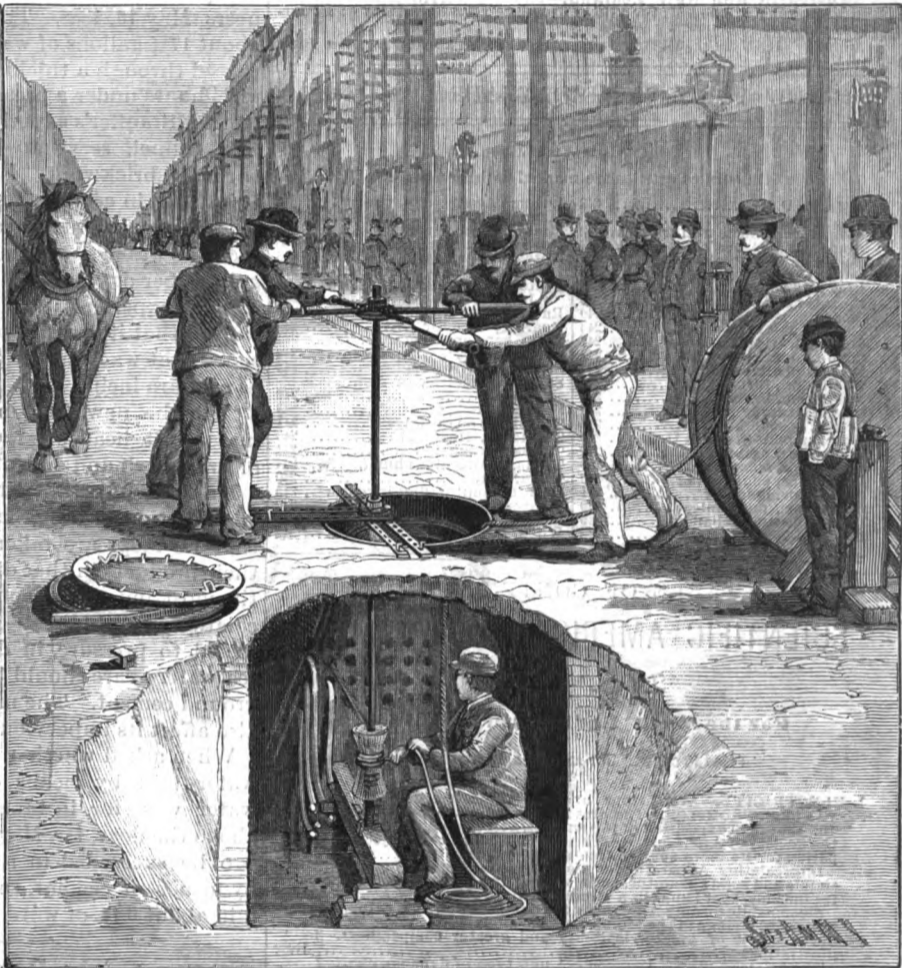


Fig. 3.—WORKING THE CAPSTAN FOR DRAWING CABLE INTO THE DUCTS.

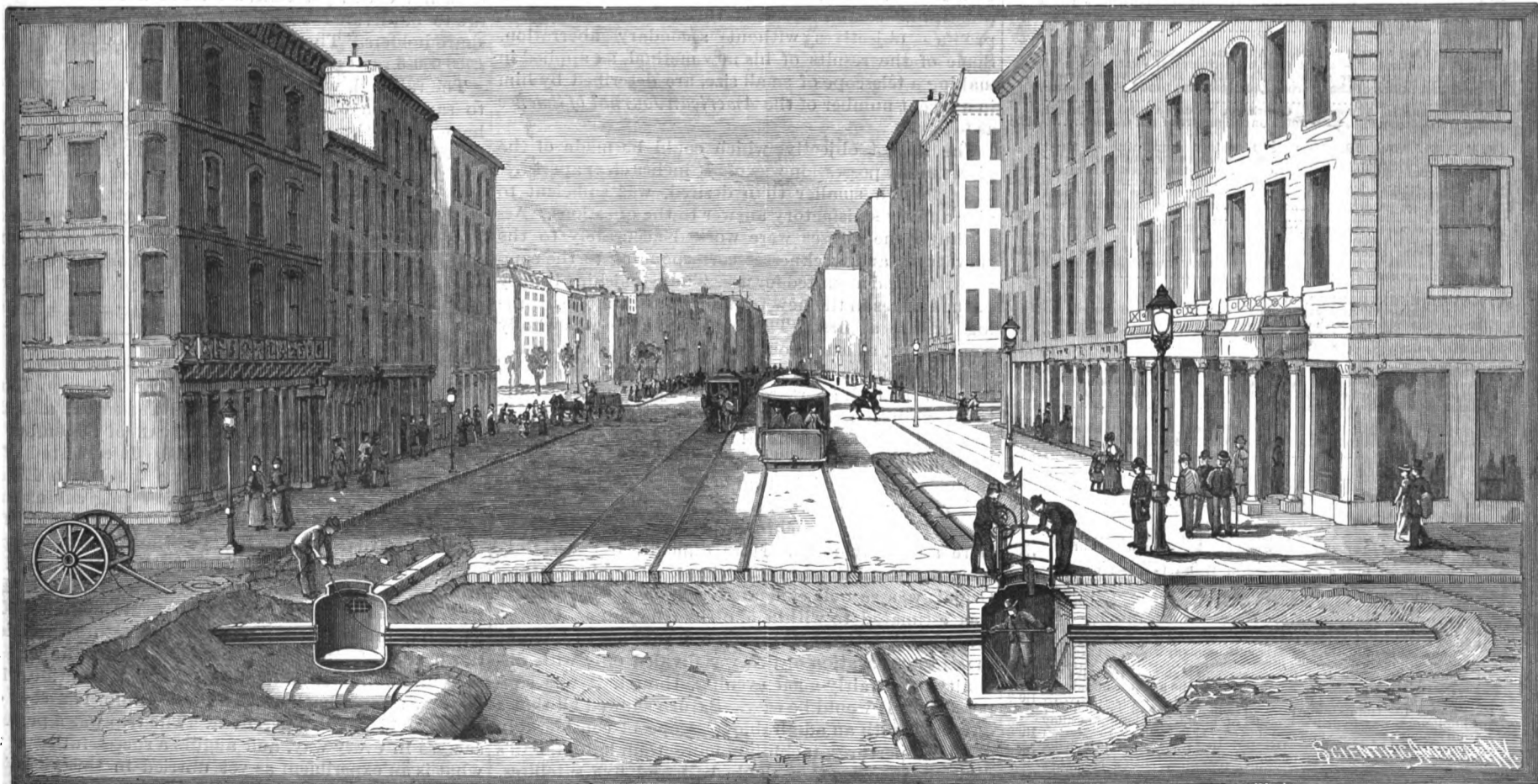


Fig. 1.—ELECTRIC SUBWAYS OF NEW YORK CITY, FOR TELEPHONE, ELECTRIC LIGHT AND POWER, AND TELEGRAPH SERVICE.

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NEW YORK, SATURDAY, APRIL 20, 1889.

Contents.

(Illustrated articles are marked with an asterisk.)

Table listing various articles such as 'Locomotive, Strong, run by', 'Magnesium, experiments in', 'Minerals, jewel, American', etc., with corresponding page numbers.

TABLE OF CONTENTS OF SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT No. 694.

For the Week Ending April 20, 1889.

Price 10 cents. For sale by all newsdealers.

Table of contents for the supplement, including sections like 'ELECTRICITY', 'ETHNOLOGY', 'MEDICINE AND HYGIENE', 'MISCELLANEOUS', 'NAVAL ENGINEERING', 'PHOTOGRAPHY', 'PHYSICS', and 'TECHNOLOGY'.

Permeability of Cements.

At a recent meeting of the Engineers' Club of Philadelphia, Prof. L. M. Haupt presented some notes upon the permeability of cements and mortars, with a view of bringing out a discussion of this subject.

"If all of the work could and would be faithfully fulfilled in accordance with the later specifications requiring backing by masonry laid in cement mortar, it would make the tunnel reasonably water-tight; yet it would not prevent all leakage absolutely, and it is difficult to foretell how much water would pass through.

"The head of the water in the tunnel varies from about 75 to 175 ft., and the pressure due to this head from 83 to 76 lb. per square inch. This is an internal pressure, tending to burst the tunnel outward—a direction of force which the tunnel lining is not well adapted to resist; and in an inelastic material like brick or cement, cracks are liable to be developed on the least yielding—which would be almost inevitable if any weak points were left in the filling.

But even if it were all filled, it must be remembered that both brick and cement are permeable to water. Mr. James B. Francis made some recent experiments on the percolation of water through cement mortar, a record of which was presented to the American Society of Civil Engineers May 16, 1888.

These experiments showed that about 17 1/2 gallons of water per square foot of surface passed through a thickness of nearly 16 in. of cement in 24 hours under a pressure of 77 lb. per square inch.

"Mr. Stauffer's experiments, made in the Dorchester Bay tunnel, serve to throw light on the leakage through brickwork. He constructed a bulkhead of brick, laid in cement, 4 ft. thick, in a tunnel 10 by 10 ft. He found that under a pressure of 72 lb. per square inch the water percolated through at the rate of 120,000 gallons per day, or 1,200 gallons per square foot.

"The experience on the Boston main drainage works proved that it was not practicable to build brick masonry that was water-tight under a pressure of 64 lb. per square inch.

"At the new Croton reservoir, New York, water under 36 ft. head was found to percolate through 36 in. of brickwork and 4 ft. of concrete."

Mr. Marichal said that the imperviousness of cements is a question of the greatest importance; yet it seems that no steps are taken by manufacturers to improve their products in that direction. The fineness is one of the most important considerations, and wherever percolation is prejudicial—as is the case in aqueducts subjected to pressure, in dams, and in works exposed to sea water—care should be taken to select a very finely ground cement. The manipulation of the mortar will also affect its imperviousness.

When asked whether it was possible to make cellars water-tight by means of cement, if the level of the water was, for instance, generally a couple of feet above the floor, Mr. Marichal answered that some years ago he succeeded in rendering perfectly water-tight, by means of cement, some cellars which used to contain about 6 ft. of water.

The Hastings Telescope.

Professor Charles S. Hastings, of Yale University, New Haven, Conn., has discovered a method of finding practicable combinations of three kinds of glasses to produce objectives without secondary aberration. Some of the results of his new method, as applied in making a telescope of small size, are described by him in a recent number of the American Journal of Science as follows:

The largest objective which could be made of the pieces in my possession was of 2 1/4 inches clear aperture. This, though smaller than desired, was sufficient to give a fairly satisfactory answer to the questions. Accordingly the glasses were worked accurately to the curvatures and thicknesses corresponding to the computations and mounted for use. The astonishing beauty of the images in the new telescope was its most surprising feature at first. The familiar purple was wholly wanting, or, at least, could only be recognized with the closest attention, with magnifying powers greater than forty to the inch aperture and on objects most suitable to its exhibition. But the moment that the instrument was applied to astronomical use it was also evident that its defining power was remarkable. The companions to Polaris and Rigel, instead of being objects which require somewhat careful looking, as is the case with my eye and an ordinary achromatic of the same aperture, were strikingly plain. More difficult, but certainly seen, was the fifth star in 9 Orionis. The binary star 7 Orionis was so well elongated that its position angle was estimated to within 5° of its true value. On the other hand, 4 Ursae Majoris, which I suppose to have at present a separation of 1'.7, was divided only with difficulty on a fairly good evening, though it was supposed that it would be easy. Saturn showed all that I have seen with an admirable telescope of considerably greater apertures, including more than half of Ball's division, the ring C, a single belt, and five satellites, though Tethys and Dione have not been seen unless they had an elongation equal or greater than that of

the end of the ring. Rhea has been seen in conjunction. By reference to the records of many observations which I have made with various telescopes, the power of the new telescope was estimated as equivalent to a 3 1/2 inch objective of the ordinary construction. The powers used varied from 58 to 265 diameters, with 194 as the most satisfactory for Saturn and for double stars.

Another method of determining the relative power of the telescope was by comparing the distances at which a table of logarithms could be read with it and a very perfect telescope of 2 5/8 inches aperture made a number of years ago, and with which I have observed a great deal. Allowing for the 5 per cent increase in size in the new instrument, the mean of five tolerably accordant determinations indicated a gain of 23 per cent, or that the new objective was equivalent to a 3 3/4 inch objective of the ordinary construction. This ratio of improvement is doubtless higher than would generally be admitted as possible by most opticians, but it must stand for the present as the best value attainable.

[In view of these surprising results, a new era of interest in the science of astronomy seems about to open. Glorious discoveries are likely to follow the application of the new system to large telescopes.—ED.]

A Fast Train.

Mr. Geo. J. Lunn gives the programme of one of the runs of the vestibule trains from Savannah to Jacksonville, on February 7 last, when the distance of 172 miles was done at the average rate of 52 1/4 miles per hour. Several runs aggregating 60 miles were made at the rate of 60 miles per hour or over, 12 miles at over 70 miles per hour, and one run of five miles was made at 75 miles per hour. This run was made by Savannah, Florida, and Western engine 80, built by the Rhode Island Locomotive Works, Providence, R. I. Cylinders, 18 in. by 24 in.; driving wheels, 72 1/2 in. diameter; gauge of track, 4 ft. 9 in.; driving wheel base, 9 ft. 1 in.; fuel, coal; boiler, of steel, 62 in. diameter; number of tubes, 289, 2 in. diameter by 11 ft. long; fire box, 78 in. long, 34 in. wide, 66 in. high; weight on drivers, 71,300 lb.; weight of engine, 105,400 lb.; weight of tender, 76,420 lb.; total weight, 181,820 lb.; is thoroughly equipped with the Westinghouse brake for the whole train, steam brakes on the drivers, weight of the train without the engine being about 340,000 lb., a total, including the engine, of 521,820 lb.

The Chignecto Marine Railway Company.

The company formed to construct this application of the late Captain Eads' plan for passing ships over land by railroad, instead of by canal, issues a prospectus in the London papers of March 18 and 19, from which we learn that Sir John Fowler and Benjamin Baker, with Mr. H. G. C. Ketcham, of Fredericton, are to be the engineers.

The share capital is divided into £300,000 preferred shares and £100,000 common. The preferred shares to have 7 per cent cumulative, after which the common shares are to receive 7 per cent. The Dominion government guarantees an annual subsidy for 20 years, payable half yearly, of \$170,602, as long as the capital does not earn 7 per cent, after which excess earnings are to be divided between the government and the share holders. The company is also authorized to issue £700,000 5 per cent bonds.

The railroad, which will be 17 miles long, is expected to save from 300 to 500 miles for vessels that would have passed through the Straits of Canso, and 700 miles for those that would have rounded Cape Breton, and the total sum to be estimated at 2d. per ton on cargo and 6d. per ton on hulls. The directors have contracted with Messrs. John G. Meiggs & Son, contractors in the Argentine Republic and elsewhere, to complete the work for the share and debenture capital; the contractors to pay interest on preferred shares during construction.

Trial Trip of the Ferry Boat Bergen.

The screw ferry boat Bergen, of the Hoboken Land and Improvement Co., which was illustrated and described in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of December 8, 1888, had her trial trip on March 30. It consisted of a run down New York Bay and up the North River. The appearance of the boat, with her long cabins and comparatively unencumbered sweep of deck, is far superior to that of other boats of the side wheel type.

Her engines developed about 900 horse power, distributed as follows: High pressure cylinder, 298 H. P.; intermediate cylinder, 292; low pressure cylinder, 303. This was indicated at 140 lb. boiler pressure throttled down about 20 lb. She made 158-160 revolutions. A measured mile was run with and against the tide, giving an average time for the mile of 4 min. 19 1/2 sec., or a rate of 18.85 miles per hour. The trip was a perfect success in every way, and augurs a successful issue to what is an experiment as yet untried in this vicinity. The marine engineering profession was well represented among the guests invited.

The Paris Exhibition.
[FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.]

PARIS, March 15.

So far as the principal buildings are concerned, the machinery department will be one of the least decorated in the exhibition. This occurs because of its great size and the fact that it cannot be subdivided by partitions as other departments are, these subdivisions affording excellent scope for decoration. Nevertheless, the machinery department has a good deal of ornamentation and decoration, since both sides of the roof are used for this purpose.

The spaces between the roof girders form panels about 25 or 30 feet deep, which extend up to the glass part of the roof. On one side of the building these panels contain cornucopias and the arms of the various towns, departments, etc., in France, the paintings beneath showing their productions. The other side of the roof is similarly decorated, but devoted to foreign countries. Here, for example, is a description of two of these panels:

In the center and at the top, in large letters, is "America," and beneath it, in a raised oval frame or panel, is a portrait of General Washington, beneath which is a shield, on which is painted the United States flag. On each side is a cornucopia filled with fruits, etc. On the right hand side is the word "China," and beneath it a shield having the armorial bearings of the city of Pekin, beneath which is a spray of a tea plant. On the left is "Autriche," with a shield with the armorial bearings of Vienna, and beneath it ornamentation, among which is a spray of hop vine. On the left hand of this, and between the two next roof girders, is a crown, and beneath it "Londres" and the English standard, with cornucopias as before. On the right of the crown is Denmark, with the armorial bearings of Copenhagen, beneath which is painted decoration, whose most prominent feature is a horse's head. On the left side is "Italie" and Rome with its shield. The cornucopias are raised in zinc, but of course painted.

The English are said to be spreading themselves in the matter of decorations, and here is a description of their section of products of woods and forests. First of all, let me remark that in this section of the exhibition buildings the departments are divided by partitions that do not extend to the roof, so that when you stand at the door and look into a department, not only its own roof but those of neighboring departments are in view. This, from the great taste displayed in the coloring of the roof, gives a very fine *coup d'œil* as one enters. Looking straight down one of these departments, one sees that it is divided off by partitions that do not extend higher than the side partitions, so that the full length of that section of the roof is before the eye. The glass extends down about one-third of the depth of the roof and is painted a very pale blue. Below the glass are two rows of panels, extending from one roof girder to the next and one panel being beneath the other. The stringers of the roof are painted crimson, and the upper panel is of pine stained a deep rich yellow. At the point where the roof glass meets the panels there are suspended and looped up heavy, rich silk cord (crimson and white), with huge tassels to match, and strung upon the cord is ornamental bead work corresponding in color.

The side partitions have a maroon ground, with a dado at the top, the feature of the pattern being yellow and pale green. The partitions between the sections of this department are not completely decorated yet, but here is an idea of one of them. The open archway, through which one passes from section to section, has the letters indicating the character of the section and numbers to identify the section in the catalogue. The decorations on the archway are scarlet edges, white ground, and scroll green leaves gilded on their edges. The cases in this department are so far a plain black.

One of the most striking features of this part of the decorations is the charmingly subdued effect that is obtained, notwithstanding the employment of many positive and striking colors, for there is not a trace of the "Dutch" effect one so dreads where any of the reds and other strong colors are employed.

Some of the iron columns used in the buildings are similar in construction to the rectangular columns of parts of the New York elevated roads, but there is more open space between the ironwork. This space is, however, filled in with fancy tile work, one layer being composed of tiles about 8 inches deep and the next about 2 inches deep. These tiles are not all one plain color, but mottled, as it were, the reds running up or fading off rather into yellows and ochers of various shades.

In some cases, where the natural construction of the building is not considered to afford sufficient scope for ornamentation, a little art is brought into play. Thus I saw an artificial column formed by a square wooden framework, on which at intervals were nailed segments making a round collar on which laths were nailed, thus forming a round column, which will appear as a necessary part of the building, and which when ornamented or decorated will add greatly to the effect.

Some of the machines are, I am informed, to be shown at work at stated times, and this will greatly add to the interest in the exhibition, and enable a much

more thorough examination of the merits of the exhibits. American screw-cutting machinery in operation would certainly bring the exhibitor considerable orders. Not that there are not American bolt cutters here, for I have seen them at Elders', on the Clyde, and in other large shops, but they are not generally known, and much inferior machines are in general use. I am of decided opinion that in all branches of thread cutting they are behind here. Not long ago, indeed, a member of one of the largest pipe manufacturing firms of Great Britain came out to New York to inquire into American methods, and in consultation told me that they had been unable to make their pipe threads and fittings taper, and to discover how it was done was the object of his visit. I referred him to some back numbers of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, to a paper read before the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, and to some trade literature got up, I believe, by Mr. M. D. Luehrs, of Cleveland, Ohio, and to whom many of us are under obligations for information on screw-cutting matters. Most of the American bolt cutters I find here are the productions of Wm. Sellers & Co., of Philadelphia, and this undoubtedly arises from the judges' report at the Centennial Exhibition, Wm. Anderson, an eminent English engineer (formerly of the Woolwich Dockyard), being one of the judges.

American sandpapering machines there is undoubtedly a good field for here, especially to some of the ship building yards; and as I have seen the mortising machines of J. A. Fay & Co., of Cincinnati, here, I have been surprised at not finding their sandpapering machines, especially as I have seen as many as ten men sandpapering by hand at one time. Of course it is only a matter of time when such machines will either be imported here or copied.

One thing I am pretty well convinced of already, and that is that you can find a great many more American machines, or copies of them, in either France or England than you can find of foreign machines or copies of them in the United States (some American machines have been more successful here than in the United States); one of the most recent examples in point being the Worthington steam pump, which has become very popular in England since the English government ordered them for the Soudan. It is an open secret now, I believe, that when those pumps were ordered, the Worthingtons tried in vain to persuade the English engineers to have compound condensing pumps, and that it was afterward discovered that in consequence of this advice not having been followed, the pumps themselves would have about consumed all the water the pipes would convey by the time it reached the last pump.

I find a good many firms here using the emery wheels of the Tanite Company, of Stroudsburg, Pa., and machines using them in a novel manner are to be exhibited. I also find wooden wheels, leather covered and coated with very coarse emery, being used where, it seems to me, solid wheels would be better, that is, if a proper cementing material can be found for such very coarse emery when used on such comparatively small wheels as 6 inches diameter.

In the matter of drilling machines, the French and English manufacturers do not approach the American. They do not, indeed, seem to understand the advantages of the American form of construction, such, for example, as the quick return motion of the spindle; and this recalls to my mind the fact that an English engineer of very high standing stated, in his articles on American machines at the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia, that he was of opinion that these motions would be short-lived. As a matter of fact, however, the tendency has been and is to widen the range of feed and to provide all machines of any size, or rather all machines having an automatic feed, with a quick return motion. "You Americans," said an English engineer I met in the machinery department, "seem to us to be in a chronic state of change. Why, it is not long ago that I used to read in your papers about the clumsy, heavy English lathes, when all at once you turn about face and put more iron into some of your lathes than we English would ever think of. During the last year or two you have run off into a groove in quick return planing machine beds, shooting them back as if out of a catapult; but just you wait a little while and see, when the rack and pinion teeth get worn, what a nice little thump you'll have every time the table reverses. It's all very well while you have your cut gearing a dead fit, but two or three years will tell the tale."

Now it is quite true that we did suddenly begin to put more iron into the framework of our lathes and planers, but not one jot of their handiness was sacrificed, whereas the English lathes, and the French ones too (so far as I have as yet seen the latter), are the perfection of clumsiness; but as I shall probably go into this part of the subject somewhat in detail in connection with the exhibits, I withhold any further remarks at present, more than to say that while I have seen the English form of lathe, and some of them of English make, in several large shops in the United States, as at R. Hoe's, at the Betts Machine Works, Wilmington, only one firm that I know of consider them superior to the American lathe, and I am pretty sure that time

will modify that opinion. While on this subject I cannot refrain from mentioning a piece of botch work I saw in an English shop a short time back. A piece of 4 inch shaft, about 6 feet long, had a keyway chipped in it for about half its length, and the man was trying to save filing by putting it in the lathe and using the slide rest as a traveling tool carrier or ram. He fastened a tool in the required (sideways) position, jammed the shaft tight between the centers, and putting on a feed with the cross feed screw, moved the slide rest along, carrying the cut along the keyway. But the tool cut deepening, he could not move the slide rest, so he first got a man to help him and then he got a piece of tube as a lever to move the slide rest with. A more mechanically murderous piece of work I never saw, and the result was just what I expected, for out came a tooth from the pinion, and a moment after out came another from the rack. If such a thing as that had occurred in an American shop, the man would soon have found the outside of the door; but as it was, they coolly went to another lathe of the same pattern and that was not being used, took out its pinion, put it in place of the broken one, and started on anew with the tube lever, one of them remarking, "Something has got to go. I don't know whether it will be the tool or the pinion." To make matters worse, there was an unused planing machine standing idle in the shop.

JOSHUA ROSE.

Expansion of Timber due to the Absorption of Water.

BY PROF. DE VOLSON WOOD.

It is stated by some writers upon the properties of building materials that timber shrinks but little in the direction of its fibers from being thoroughly dried, or expands but little in the same direction from the absorption of moisture; but the amount of these changes was not given in any work that I examined. Desiring to get some definite knowledge upon this subject, I caused to be prepared some pieces of pine, oak, and chestnut. The pieces selected were from lumber fairly seasoned, and were afterward kept in a dry room for three weeks before any measurements were made. The pieces were straight-grained, free from knots or other defects.

In order to secure accurate measurements brass pins were driven near the edges and ends, opposite to each other, and a fine mark made in each. The measurements were made to the nearest half-hundredth of an inch. The pieces were about five-eighths of an inch thick, thirty-six inches long, and five and one-eighth inches wide.

After the first measurements were made, the pieces were put into a vessel of water and allowed to remain there thirty-seven days, at the end of which time they were measured again. The measurements were made on one side only. The following are the mean of the results:

Specimen.	Pine.	Oak.	Chestnut.
Initial length, inches.....	35.505	35.573	35.582
Final length, ".....	35.622	35.608	35.640
Elongation, ".....	0.117	0.035	0.058
Per cent of elongation.....	0.33	0.095	0.16
TRANSVERSE MEASUREMENTS.			
Initial width, inches.....	4.470	4.464	4.481
Final ".....	4.598	4.620	4.645
Expansion, ".....	0.118	0.156	0.164
Per cent of expansion.....	2.6	3.5	3.6
Rate of lateral expansion =.....	53	41	22%
Rate of elongation			

It will be seen that the chestnut expanded laterally and longitudinally more than the oak or pine, that the rate of longitudinal expansion was about three times that of the pine, and the lateral expansion was about one and four-tenths that of the pine. The expansion in the direction of the fibers was larger than I anticipated, especially in the oak and chestnut.

The Use of the Telephone on Railways.

A novel application of the telephone has been made on the railway between Saint Valerie-sur-Somme and Cayeux (France), with a view to facilitate communication between a train broken down on the line and the nearest station. *Industries* says the stations on this line are already in telephonic communication by means of an overhead wire, and in the guard's van of an experimental train was fitted up a telephone, with battery of ten Leclanche cells and call bell. One pole of the battery is put to earth by being connected to the framework of the guard's van, and the other is joined in the usual way to the telephone, the other terminal of the latter being connected with a wire, by which connection with the existing telephone line can be made at any point. To facilitate this operation the wire is inclosed in a light steel tube, long enough to reach the overhead wire from the roof of the van, and provided at the end with a hook for attachment. Upon ringing up, the stations in front and rear of the train receive the signal, and conversation can be carried on with both simultaneously. The object of this arrangement is to enable the guard of a train, delayed or broken down on the line between two stations, to call for assistance. The apparatus carried in the guard's van is self-contained, inclosed in a box, and weighs only about 25 pounds.

EXPERIMENTS IN MAGNETISM.

BY GEO. M. HOPKINS.

Nature furnishes permanent magnets "ready made," the lodestone being an example of such a magnet. She is able to induce magnetism in magnetic bodies, the



Fig. 1.—MAGNETISM BY INDUCTION FROM THE EARTH.

earth itself being the great magnet by which the induction effects are secured. It is to the directive force of this great magnet that the compass owes its value.

The magnetism of the lodestone is due, doubtless, to a long exposure to the inductive influence of the earth's magnetism. Any body of magnetic material becomes temporarily magnetized to some extent when placed in the magnetic meridian parallel with the dipping needle, and if it be a body like soft iron, without coercive

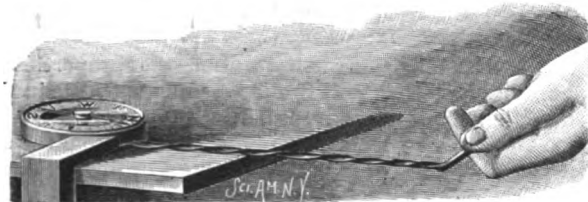


Fig. 2.—DEVELOPMENT OF MAGNETISM BY TORSION.

force, it loses its magnetism when arranged at right angles to this position in the same plane. This may be readily demonstrated by placing a rod of well annealed wrought iron in the magnetic in an inclined position, as indicated in dotted lines in Fig. 1, with its upper end in close proximity to the end of a compass needle. The needle will be instantly deflected, showing that the rod has become magnetic. When turned in the plane of the magnetic meridian to a position at right angles to its former position, it will lose its

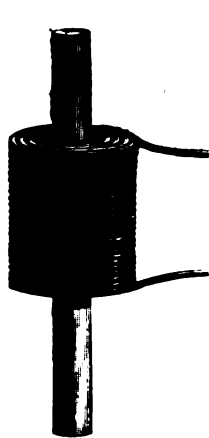


Fig. 3.—MAGNETIZATION OF BARS.

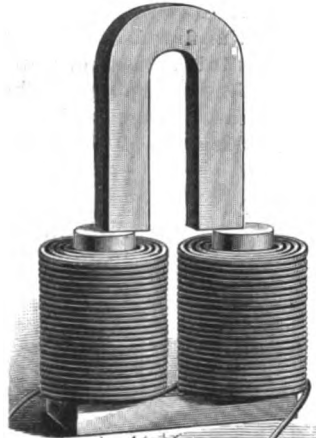


Fig. 4.—MAGNETIZATION OF U-SHAPED BARS.

magnetism and will therefore be no longer able to repel the needle. By placing a bar of hardened steel in the magnetic meridian and striking it several blows on the end with a hammer, it becomes permanently magnetic, not strongly, but sufficiently to exhibit polarity when presented to a magnetic needle.

By twisting a rod of soft iron having one of its ends in proximity to a magnetic needle, it is shown by the deflection of the needle that magnetism is developed by torsion. By this and similar experiments it may

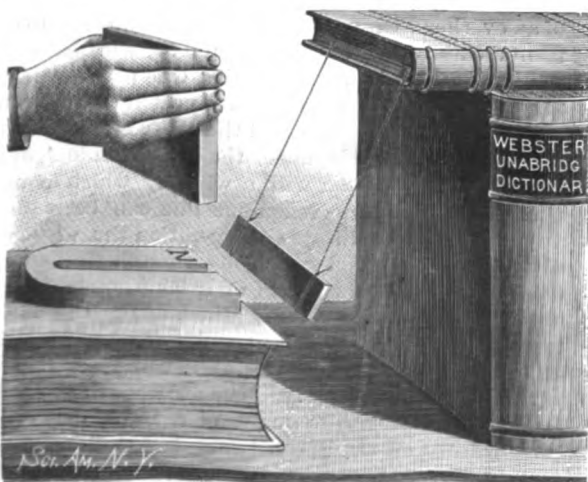


Fig. 5.—MOTION PRODUCED BY A PERMANENT MAGNET.

be shown that stress and compression favor magnetization.

Artificial magnets are produced by the contact of hardened steel with magnets or by means of the voltaic current. The latter is the more effective method, provided a strong current and a suitable helix or electro-magnet is available. For the magnetization of bars of steel a helix like that shown in Fig. 2 is needed. Its size and the amount of current required will, of course, depend upon the size of the bar to be magnetized. For all bars up to 1/2 inch diameter, a helix 1/2 inch in internal diameter, 2 inches external diameter, and 2 1/2 inches long, made of No. 16 magnet wire, is sufficient. A current from five or six cells plunging bichromate battery is required, or in lieu thereof, a similar current from a dynamo.

The bar to be magnetized is hardened at the ends and placed in the helix, the current is then applied, and the helix is moved from the center of the bar to one end, then to the opposite end and back to the center, when the current is discontinued, and the bar is removed. If several bars are to be magnetized, they may be placed end to end, and passed through the coil in succession. The magnetization of U-shaped bars may be accomplished by means of an electro-magnet formed of two coils above described and a suitable soft iron core. The U-shaped bar is placed on the poles of the electro-magnet as shown, when the current is sent through the coils for a short turn and then interrupted. Another method, which is perhaps more effectual, consists in drawing the U-shaped bar several times across the poles of the electro-magnet.

In the search for perpetual motion, vain efforts have been made to discover a substance which could be interposed between the magnet and its armature, and removed without the expenditure of power, and which would intercept the lines of force, so as to allow the armature to be alternately drawn forward and released, but no such substance has ever been discovered. The lines of force may be intercepted by a plate of soft iron placed between the magnet and its armature, but it requires more power to introduce the plate into the magnetic field, and withdraw it therefrom, than can be recovered from the armature. Fig. 5 illustrates an experiment showing how motion may be produced by the force of a permanent magnet. An armature is suspended by threads in the field of a permanent magnet. The magnet attracts the armature, slightly deflecting its suspension from a true vertical line. The introduction of a soft iron plate between the magnet and its armature intercepts the lines of force, thus releasing the armature, when it swings back under the influence of gravitation. If at this instant the iron plate is withdrawn, the magnet again acts upon the armature, drawing it forward. Another introduction of the iron plate into the field again releases the armature, when it swings back, this time a little farther than before. By moving the iron plate in this manner synchronously with the oscillations of the armature, the armature may be made to swing through a large arc.

A Rival to Western Union.

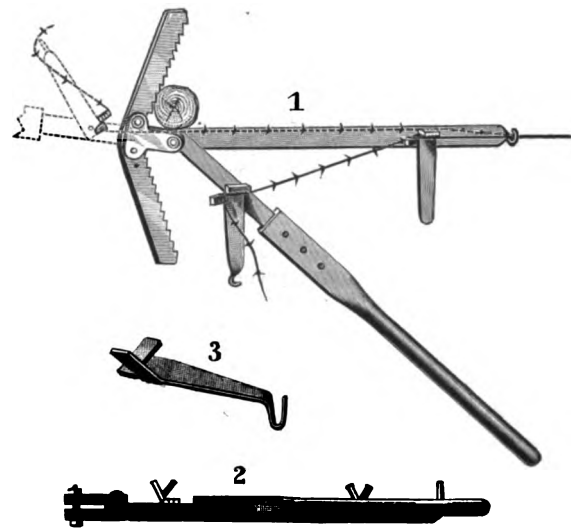
The South Atlantic Telegraph Company, of Baltimore, Md., has been incorporated with a capital stock of \$50,000. It is said that the new company is to form a link in the Mackay-Bennett and Postal Telegraph Cable Company system, and is for the purpose of purchasing and owning the lines of that system in Maryland, which are now only leased. The scheme embraces an amalgamation with the Southern Telegraph Company, of Virginia; the Southern Telegraph Company, of North Carolina; and the Southern Atlantic Telegraph Company, whereby lines of wire may be secured extending to New Orleans and covering the entire South and Southwest. This entire system is to be controlled by the Mackay-Bennett management.

IMPROVED STRUCTURE FOR USE AS A SILO.

The construction herewith illustrated is designed to be erected on the surface of the ground for use as a silo. It has been patented by Mr. James E. Rankin, of Elk Rapids, Mich. The preferred size is about sixteen feet square by sixteen feet high, the structure consisting of horizontally arranged and spaced rectangular frames, with vertical linings secured to their inner faces, and a diagonally arranged sheathing attached to the outer face. The inventor styles this structure a straw stack silo, as it may be built with only the inside lining, by using the refuse straw therewith, although a waterproof material may be secured to the diagonal sheathing, with clapboarding outside thereof. The rectangular frames are preferably about nineteen inches apart, sixteen inches wide, and one inch thick, affording large air space between the outer and inner walls, Fig. 2 showing the relative position of the frames and Fig. 3 the manner in which they are joined at the corners by means of an angle bar having its extremities bent in opposite directions to embrace the edges of the approaching sides. There is a door with a three-foot square opening in the center of one side, such door being adapted to be closely sealed, while the roof is supported some three feet above the walls of the structure by means of posts bolted to the frame.

AN IMPROVED WIRE STRETCHER.

A device of simple construction, which may be readily attached to a post and engaged with fence wires it is desired to tighten, the device being one which may be applied with equal convenience to either side of the post, is illustrated herewith and has been patented by Mr. George R. Hughes, of Savoy, Texas. It is of metal, with the exception of an attachable wooden handle, and the body of the device is essentially T-shaped, the members constituting the head being slightly inclined and provided with teeth on their inner face. Fig. 1 is a view of the device in which the dotted lines indicate the relative position of the stretching lever to the other parts after it has been thrown forward to stretch the wire and draw it against the post. On the other end of the main member is a

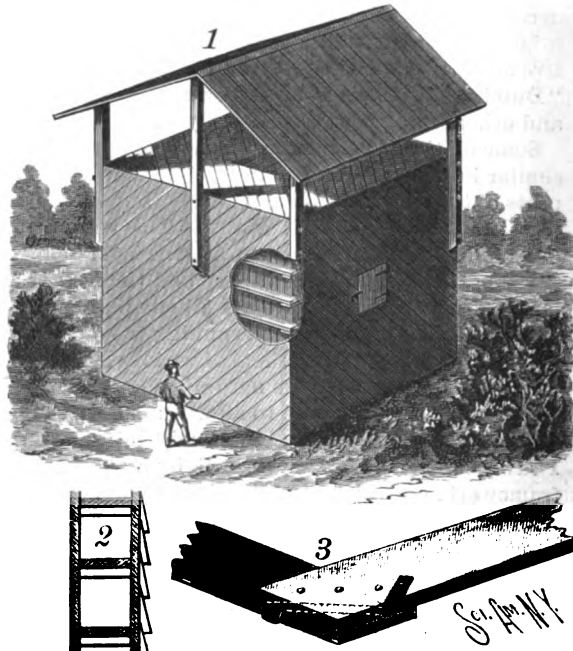


HUGHES' WIRE STRETCHER.

hook or eye through which the wire is first passed, and near it is pivoted a lever with jaws, similar to those shown in Fig. 3, the space between the jaws being just sufficient to receive the wire. Near the head is pivoted a plate with enlarged oval end having apertures in each extremity, adapted to receive a bolt or screw for pivoting the plate to one of the arms of the head, according to the side of the post it is desired to operate upon. The same plate is also pivotally connected to the lever to which the handle is attached, there being also pivoted to this lever a clamping lever having a hook, as shown in Fig. 3. The wire having been passed through the eye and the first clamping lever, the latter is carried around in parallel position to the left, and the jaws of the next clamping lever are engaged with the wire, which is drawn taut, after which the handle lever is carried to the left to the position shown in dotted lines. Great tension is thus obtained, while the wire is firmly held against the post, in position for tacking or making fast in the usual way.

Dangers of Petroleum.

It is remarked by Colonel Majendie that the risk from fire and explosion is not limited to cases in which whole or considerable cargoes of petroleum spirit are shipped. A few barrels, or even one, may suffice. One gallon of petroleum spirit, it has been shown, is enough to render 16,000 gallons of air inflammable, representing a space exceeding 2,000 cubic feet. The penetrating nature of the vapor increases the risk—a fact which has been proved by direct experiment, as well as indicated by actual misfortune. This quality, combined with the high specific gravity and flame-carrying power of the vapor when combined with air, renders its presence highly dangerous, even when the quantity may be small.



RANKIN'S STRUCTURE FOR USE AS A SILO.

AN IMPROVED BOOK SUPPORT.

A stand for supporting dictionaries, large works of reference, etc., and holding them in either closed or open position, has been patented by Mr. James W. Coultas, of Clinton, Ill., and is illustrated herewith.

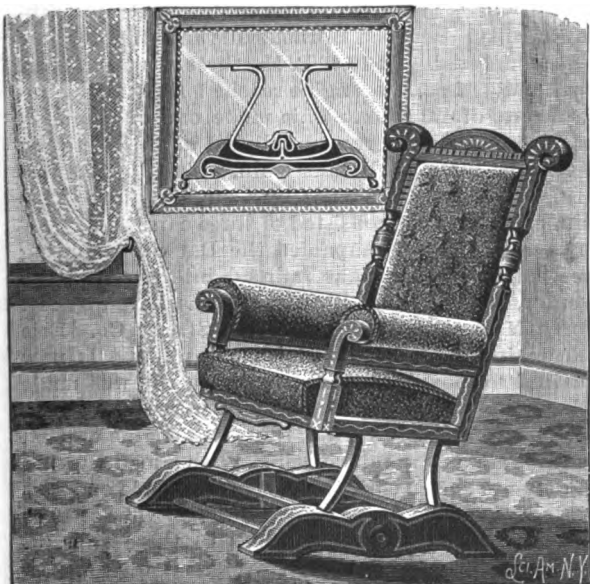


COULTAS' BOOK SUPPORT.

The standard is vertically adjusted, and has at its upper end a serrated disk fitting against and clamped to another disk carrying the book support, in such way that the inclination of the support may be changed to suit the convenience of the user. Between a plate which receives the back of the book and a frame plate are clamped the shank plates of hinges which carry the sides or leaves of the book support, the hinges being adjustable in or out to adapt the book support to receive different thicknesses of books. A spiral spring is arranged parallel and adjacent to the axial line of the two hinged plates, one end of the spring being attached to one plate and the other end of the spring to the other plate, link bars connecting loosely the opposite ends of the spring and the hinged plates, whereby the axis of the spring is thrown away from the axis of the hinge when the latter is opened and the hinge locked in open position. The book, when open, thus rests upon a solid surface, fitted to its back and sides, and is not held open by snaps or hooks.

AN IMPROVED ROCKING CHAIR.

The accompanying illustration represents a rocking chair forming the subject of a patent recently issued to Mr. Lewis C. Gunn, of Seventh and Beach Streets, San Diego, Cal. The base consists of two boxes or casings connected together by cross bars, these casings providing an interior space in which is held the rockers, the several inclosing parts being so finished as to represent a solid piece of wood. The rockers are centrally pivoted on bearings in the sides of the casings, as shown in the sectional view, the shape and size of the interior space being such as to allow free movement of the rockers, the legs of which are so curved as to permit of their free movement in slots extending up through the casing near either end. The rockers are provided with a stop, in the form of a vertical projection extending upward in a central recess of the casing. This projec-



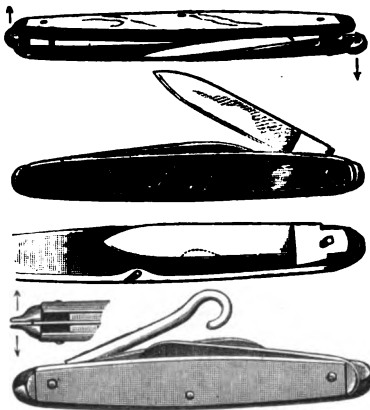
GUNN'S ROCKING CHAIR.

tion has a central vertical opening at the top, in which is held a brass wedge, in a groove in the top of which rests a central cushion spring, the spring moving partly through the opening below between the sides of the projections. This spring is a narrow strip of steel, so bent that the sway of the projection backward compresses one side of the spring and opens the other, and vice versa, when the projection moves forward.

To further aid in giving the rockers an easy and yielding movement, an elastic bearing is located beneath them, consisting of a main spring with a broad fold at each end, there being a fulcrum beneath the fold at each end of the spring, where it is made fast. The length of the spring is thus made to conform to that of the curved rocker by reduction of the fold at each end. There is a strip of rubber or leather underneath the whole length of the rocker, as a sole, preventing sound and wear of the parts in moving over the spring below. It is the design of the inventor to avoid all unnecessary weight in the manufacture of this chair, the rocker being made not to exceed three-fourths of an inch in width, of a malleable casting, with long recesses to be filled by tightly-fitting wooden strips. Each end of the rocker is solid, with a hole drilled from the top to admit of a threaded bolt by which the leg is attached, the latter being of hollow wrought iron pipe.

AN IMPROVED POCKET KNIFE.

A pocket knife so constructed that the blades may be moved into position to be seized by the fingers without the use of the finger nails is illustrated herewith, and forms the subject of two patents issued to Mr. Arthur Wilzin, of No. 207 Center Street, New York City. The knives are not complicated in construction, and their general appearance and the form and action of the spring are very nearly analogous to those of ordinary pocket knives, the illustrations showing both two and four bladed knives. The pivotal portion of the blade has a projection, and a receding part terminating in a point or heel, their relative positions to the pivotal point of the blade being such that the projection and the heel will bear against the blade spring in the back of the knife to hold it slightly open. To hold the blade in closed position, when pressed into the handle, a locking device is provided consisting of a pin mounted on a spring arm, the pin projecting through an opening in one of the end tips. After the blade has been slightly opened by moving the pin laterally, which is done by pressing back the tip, the blade may be seized by the fingers and pulled to fully opened position, when the pin will rest against the side of the pivotal portion of the blade.



WILZIN'S POCKET KNIFE.

AN IMPROVED BINDER.

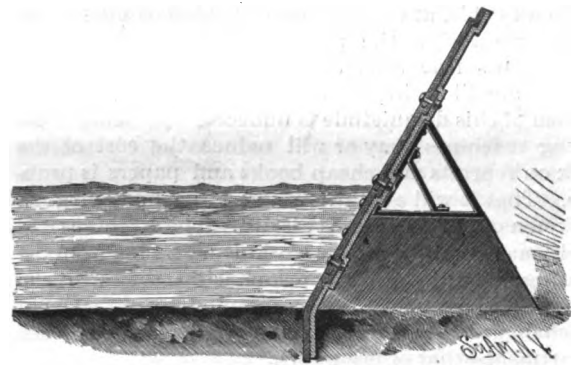
A binder or portfolio in which sheets of a newspaper, pamphlet, etc., may be conveniently bound and quickly removed when desired, and in which a sheet containing an illustration may be extended across the fold in such way that all parts will be visible, is illustrated herewith, and has been patented by Mr. Emil Wansleben. The portfolio has angled brackets attached to its inner face adapted to hold a longitudinal bar in fixed position, from which bar a series of pins is projected. A second detachable bar of equal size is provided with apertures corresponding with the pins, and upon the outer face of this bar springs are held to slide, their movement being limited by studs integral with the bar, projecting through elongated apertures in the springs. One spring is placed between each two apertures in the detachable bar, and a semicircular recess is formed in each extremity of the spring adapted to bear against the pins on the fixed bar when the device is in use. The springs are slightly bowed, and are expanded by sleeves sliding over them upon the detachable bars. The needle employed consists of a strip of wire bent upon itself to form a series of staples corresponding to the number of pins on the fixed bar.

For further information relative to this invention address Mr. Henry Rohr, St. John, Kansas.

MR. JOSEPH M. GRIGGS, general ticket agent of the Boston and Albany for about 24 years past, has resigned, and is succeeded by his son, George B. Griggs, who has been in the service for several years. The retiring general ticket agent has been in the service of the Boston and Albany and its predecessor, the Western Railroad, for 47 years, having begun in 1842. He was for a long time cashier of the road, and before that was local ticket agent.

IMPROVED PROTECTOR FOR DIKES OR LEVEES.

A removable shield or protector, which may be placed at points of danger in dikes or levees in times of high water, in order to prevent disaster, is illustrated herewith, and has been patented by Messrs. James M.

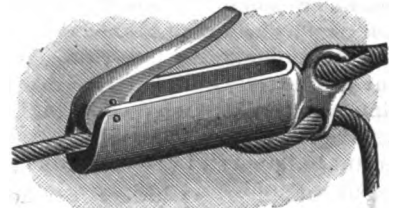


McLEMORE & JONES' LEVEE PROTECTOR.

McLemore and Charles D. Jones, of Coushatta, La. The shield is made in sections of cast or wrought iron, bolted together, each of the sections being formed with a rabbet, on which the overlapping section fits to make a smooth front and a water tight joint. This shield is applied to and extends below the water front of the levee, as shown in the sectional view, where four of these sections are used. The shield is backed by the front wall of the levee, but extends above the crown of the latter, where it is strengthened by braces firmly bolted or otherwise anchored. This shield can be used upon either old or new levees, and when used in new constructions allows a much smaller quantity of material to be employed than ordinarily.

AN IMPROVED ROPE CLAMP.

A simple form of clamp, especially adapted for use on clothes lines, tent ropes, etc., is shown herewith. It has been patented by Mr. S. William Conklin, of Yonkers, N. Y.

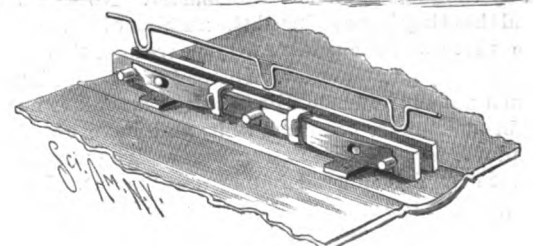
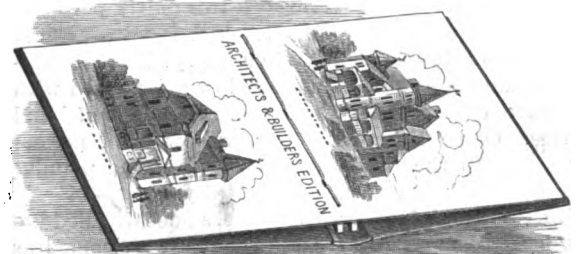


The frame of the clamp is preferably made of malleable cast iron, in one end of which is pivoted a clamping lever, formed with an eccentric notched upon its lower surface to engage the rope. The clamping lever has an inclined slot for its pivotal pin, so that any strain upon the rope will tend to draw the lever forward and force it downward upon the rope, thus increasing its holding action. The opposite end piece is formed with a ring by which the clamp is secured to one end of a rope, and also a lower ring through which the opposite end of the rope is passed after being drawn through the open space back of the clamping lever.



CONKLIN'S ROPE CLAMP.

In a recent lecture at the Society of Arts on the Forth Bridge, Mr. B. Baker described a practical method he had adopted for the purpose of determining the effective area of the bridge exposed to a wind pressure striking the work at different angles. A model of the bridge was made and towed in water at different angles to the stream; the area of a flat board normal to the current was then determined, which exerted the same drag as the model. This area was then taken as the effective area of the bridge for the particular angle at which it was towed.



WANSLEBEN'S BINDER.

Do Machines Hurt a Trade?

BY THEODORE L. DE VINNE.

There seems to be an uneasy feeling among compositors about type-setting machines. It is true that only three of the many recently invented are at practical work, but all of them give a promise of usefulness, if not in all fields, at least in some field of composition. It is certain that the machines have come to stay. Compositors fear that they will reduce the price of labor, and will indirectly drive them out of business.

Much of this disquietude is unnecessary. That type-setting machines may or will reduce the cost of the work on reprints and cheap books and papers is probable. That it will ever drive any large body of good workmen out of business is absurd. The machines will surely make more work for workmen. So far from decreasing the standard of workmanship, they will elevate it. This conclusion is warranted by a review of the changes in the trade made by inventions in another department—that of presswork.

Fifty years ago the advantages of machinery in presswork were recognized in this country, but they were not fairly tried. Stereotype, composition rollers, cylinder presses, and Adams presses had then been invented, but were little used. The *New York Sun* and *New York Herald* were trying to print growing editions of their then petty sheets on hand presses. Harper & Bros. and other book printers in New York were doing their presswork on hand presses. Books were cheap and editions were small; pressmen were abundant and wages were low. Journeymen piece compositors were paid an average of twenty-four cents per thousand ems, and earned seven dollars a week with difficulty. Weekly wages for time compositors were nine dollars, but this sum was earned only by the more active and expert. The average wages of piece compositors, and occasional time hands was not over seven dollars a week. Hand pressmen, paid almost entirely by the piece, had to do an amount of hard labor to earn nine dollars a week which the modern power pressmen would regard as excessive and unreasonable.

Although work was hard and wages small, there was even then a dislike to machinery—a dislike which seems to have been imported from abroad. Johnson, an eminent printer of London, had already denounced the printing machine, then in use in London, as the destroyer of the living of pressmen, and called upon Parliament to impose a tax on machine presswork, so that machines could not work for a lower price than hand presses. In 1880, and even as late as 1848, the journeymen printers of Paris destroyed printing machines in the Royal Printing Office of that city as well as in other offices, because they said that these machines were taking the bread out of their mouths. Stereotyping, invented by Ged in the last century, had been delayed more than fifty years by the opposition of hand pressmen, who secretly battered plates in the supposed interest of compositors. Master printers were afraid to use the new process. Composition rollers were opposed by pressmen, because they enabled a boy to do the work of the extra man, who wielded the old-fashioned inking balls. The first inking machine attachment was found more objectionable, because it enabled the master printer to dispense with this extra roller boy or this extra man who had been regarded as necessary to the working of the hand press. Every invention or process that increased production was regarded by working men as an evil agency.

In this country there has never been any active hostility to new machinery in the printing business. There have been no mobs or strikes against inventions, but workmen look on all new devices with suspicion and unfriendliness. They do not see that the invention which temporarily throws one man out of work ultimately makes work for two or more men.

What would have been the state of the trade if we had no stereotype or electrotype, no composition rollers, and no printing machines? The daily newspaper, as we now have it, would be an impossibility. An edition of two thousand or twenty-five hundred copies of a small sheet would be the highest performance of the hand press, and what severe work this paltry performance would impose on the wretched hand pressman who had to print this edition in a hurry! The illustrated magazine of large edition and low price, filled with fine wood cuts, could not exist at all in days of hand presses. One could go on and show how hand presses would curtail the production not only of the popular but of the artistic forms of typography.

Processes and machines that were once dreaded are now used by every printer, and they are welcomed as much by the journeymen as the master. No one will pretend that they have reduced the number of workmen. Where there was one printer fifty years ago, there are at least twenty printers now. Instead of driving hand pressmen out of the trade, the printing machines have really brought more pressmen in it, and have enabled an employer to pay them better wages. The machines have not even driven good hand pressmen out. In all our large cities the expert hand pressman is in active demand. He does but one-half the labor of his predecessor, yet he is paid twice as much and has steadier work. For some forms of printing the hand press is more economi-

cal than any machine, and if there were more men who could use them skillfully, they would be more generally employed. They are not used because it is difficult for an employer to get a boy to learn this branch of presswork. He objects, because the work is hard. Not even for double or treble the old pay will a pressman in 1889 undertake to do on a hand press the work done by all pressmen in 1840.

The journeyman book compositor of New York, who works by the piece, now earns an advance of seventy-five per cent on the rates of fifty years ago. The time hand gets twice as much. Expert machine pressmen in the larger New York book offices are paid \$20 and \$22 a week—an advance of more than one hundred per cent. If they are specially skillful or active, they are cheerfully paid a good deal more. They have steady employment and comparatively easy work. It should be noted that the highest wages are always paid in those offices that have the most and best machinery. Low wages are the rule almost without exception in all offices that have little or no machinery. Instead of throwing men out of work, machinery has made a demand for more work. Instead of lowering the price of labor, machinery has raised it.

It will be noticed that the prices of composition have not increased as much as those of presswork. The compositor's advance is seventy-five per cent or less; the pressman's is one hundred per cent or more. The reason is plain. Composition has not as yet received any appreciable benefit from type-setting machinery. Nearly all of our composition is done by hand, as it was done fifty years ago, but the piece compositor who works in an office that has many printing machines earns more than he does in an office that has few machines. Indirectly he obtains advantages from machinery, which he personally does not manage.

As a rule, the average piece compositor is a better educated man than the average pressman. Under equal conditions he should and would earn higher wages, but his superior intelligence and education do not increase his production. This production is limited by the slowness of his hands, which is now as it was fifty years ago. If the compositor was employed on a type-setting machine, he would get some of the benefits of the increased production. With more machines there would necessarily be more composition; there would be more compositors, and they would be better paid.

One reason why the modern pressman is better paid than the old pressman is because he is a better workman. The machine is more complex than the hand press, and it compels the pressman to exercise more forethought and intelligence. He has to keep it in order and to get a fixed quantity of work from it within a limited time. To accomplish this he does not have the hard stretching of the muscles that was called for by the hand press, but he does have to do twice as much work with his brains. It is this work of the brains more than that of the hands that earns him higher wages, but it is the machine that spurs him up to this increased mental activity.

As a rule, the mechanics who most bitterly decry machines are those who have been found incompetent to handle them. The men who refuse to learn the theory or the practice of new processes—who are content to do work as it was done when they were boys—who "don't want to be bothered" by the study of new problems in handicraft—who evade or shirk responsibilities—are the very men that employers don't want to employ upon their machines. That they may and probably will suffer for their persistent refusal to adapt themselves to changed conditions is much to be regretted; but are they blameless? Is it the fault of the master, or the machine, or the workman himself?

It is probable that many employers will at first try to get composition done on machines with the cheapest labor. Many of them will employ poor workmen, inexperienced boys and girls. They will sophisticate themselves with the notion that a cheaply paid helper will soon be taught to do as much as an expert workman. This is the error that was made when power presses were first introduced. There were employers who reasoned, "It is the machine and not the man that does the work. The machine is the first consideration and the man the second, a cheap man can be made to do as much work as a high priced man." This fallacy is no longer believed. Every master printer who does good presswork, or even tries to do a large amount of presswork in a given time, regardless of quality, knows that an expert workman at high wages is always more economical than the cheap workman. He takes better care of the machine, he gets more work out of it. The same conclusion will be reached after a long trial of type-setting machines. The expert man who thoroughly understands his business will always be in demand. He never need to fear the competition of boys, or girls, or amateurs.

It is really amusing to reflect on the cheerful short-sighted stupidity of the earnest trade union men, who so violently opposed all improvements in typography. Really meaning to benefit the trade, they were actually doing their best to destroy it. If they had carried their point, if they had suppressed all labor-saving de-

vices, if they had kept the trade in the same narrow rut it was in fifty years ago—what would be the present condition of most of the men who are now earning fair wages in pleasant situations in our trade? It is plain that if these improvements had been prevented, they would not be in the trade at all. There would be no place for them. The limited amount of work that could be done on hand presses would have kept them out. They would have been obliged to find employment in other fields. Most of them would have had to do hard manual labor, or accept inferior situations in which they could with difficulty earn nine dollars a week. In view of the enormous blunder then made by sincere men, a thinking compositor may now well question the wisdom of the policy that oppresses type-setting machines. — *National Publisher and Printer.*

New Barometer Scale.

BY JAMES ASHER.

Instead of saying the air supports a certain height of mercury, I state the ratio of given pressure to standard. I say pressure is 1,000 thousandths of normal in place of saying it sustains a thread of mercury 760 mm. high. The point 760 in barometers will be marked 1,000; divisions 0.76, usual length.

ADVANTAGES.

1. Scale tells fraction of normal pressure in decimals.
2. Divisions are shorter, hence greater accuracy with integers.
3. Using it with my milligrade thermometer scale (see *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*, Nov. 26, 1887), we can correct bulks of gas to normal pressure and temperature with elegant simplicity. In correcting to standard temperature, 1,000 is numerator and temperature denominator; and to standard pressure, 1,000 is denominator and pressure numerator: 1,000 cancels. Hence the brief

RULE.—Multiply by pressure and divide by temperature.

Ex.—Barometer shows 983 thousandths, thermometer 1,065° milligrade; what will 648 c. c. of gas be at normal?

$$\text{Solution: } \frac{983 \times 648}{1065} = 598.1 \text{ c. c.}$$

4. With equal ease we find weight of bulk, given pressure, and temperature.

Ex.—A gramme of H at standard fills 11.19 liters; what will 43 liters weigh, barometer 1,018, thermometer 954° M?

$$\text{Solution: } \frac{1018 \times 43}{954 \times 11.19} = 4.08 \text{ grammes.}$$

Problems need a third of usual time.

5. Aneroid and sympiesometer in graduations will be independent of mercurial barometer.

[The above is an excellent suggestion and well in line with the milligrade thermometer scale. The present barometric scale is so awkward that Prof. Bunsen, in his gas analysis calculations, reduces all volumes in his formulæ to a pressure of 1,000 millimeters.—ED.]

Remarkable Runs by the Strong Locomotive.

In our issue of January 12 of the present year, we gave an illustrated description of the Strong locomotive A. G. Darwin. At that time the engine was doing express service on a New England road, which was not a fit place for the development of the locomotive's capacities. In order to test these to the uttermost, two trial runs were made upon the New York, Lake Erie, and Western Railroad, between this city and Buffalo. On April 1, at 9:24 A. M., the engine left Jersey City with six cars. Other cars were picked up en route, so that at one time nine cars were attached. Over part of the route a speed of 65 miles an hour was maintained with this heavy load. Several delays occurred, one near Callicoon, where a derailed train was in the way, and another of equal duration at Hornellsville. These delays the engine made up without difficulty. Between Hornellsville and Buffalo snow was encountered. At 10:27 P. M., three minutes ahead of schedule time, the engine reached Buffalo, an unbroken run of 423 miles. This made one of the most remarkable runs on record, eclipsed as to length by the famous Jarrett & Palmer train, which, in 1878, was taken to Pittsburg, 444 miles, by a single engine. This train, however, only consisted of three cars.

A special party accompanied the Darwin, including representatives of various railroad interests, and the inventor, Mr. George F. Strong. It was driven by Mr. George McRae, an engineer of the Strong Co. Erie R.R. engineers accompanied him as pilots. It now remained to show that this remarkable run was made without undue effort; accordingly, in a snow storm, on the morning of April 2, the same engine started from Buffalo on the return trip. With a load varying from nine to eleven cars, the return was made on exact schedule time, the train reaching Jersey City at 10:55 P. M. A special interest attaches to these runs, in view of the fact that the road traversed is of about the same length as the famous London-Edinburgh roads on which the fast running occurred last summer.

PHOTOGRAPHIC NOTES.

Adhesives for Mounting Purposes.—Many photographers use nothing but rather thin glue, which, however, should be made from a material free from any elements of putrescent fermentation, and not acid. The glue sold as French medal glue is generally clear, not in a state of incipient decomposition, and free from acidity. Half a pound in a quart of water is a convenient strength. Milk may be used instead of water, and is said to keep the glue from becoming brittle. An addition of sugar—say one-fourth of the weight of the glue—is perhaps more effective. The use of glycerine is open to objection. The following preparation is useful for gumming large sheets of paper, which may be kept on hand ready for use; when wetted they will stick well on glass: Starch two drachms, white sugar one ounce, gum arabic two drachms, to be boiled with a sufficient quantity of water. The same mixture can be used in making adhesive mounts upon which moist prints will adhere by pressure only.—*Photo. News.*

Mounting Prints.—There are three systems by which prints may be mounted, all of them possessing advantages peculiar to themselves.

That in general use is the time-honored one of applying paste by means of a brush to the back of a wet pile of prints placed one on top of the other as a matter of convenience, and then deftly transferring each print thus treated from the top of the pile to the mount, upon which it is laid down in position and pressed into contact by a pad or rubber. No special precaution or care is requisite in carrying this system into effect beyond seeing that the paste is free from hard particles and is freshly prepared. Glue or gelatine, which is employed by some as a mountant in preference to starch or paste, requires more dexterity in its employment.

A second system, introduced about sixteen years ago, consists in sizing the mounts with any suitable adhesive of the gum or dextrine class, these being kept in a state of preparation always ready for use. The print requires no pasting or other treatment, but may be taken while simply in a wet or moist state and laid down in its place on the dry mount, followed by the rubbing requisite for insuring contact. This system is very convenient in many cases, especially for one who desires the occasional mounting of a few prints without having to experience the trouble of preparing paste and going through the whole operations consequent upon the act. We are glad to know that mounts ready gummed are now commercially procurable. Those who desire to prepare mounts for themselves must be careful in selecting a gum of a suitable nature. It may be applied by a sponge or large flat brush, although preferably so by a little machine for the purpose, introduced by a Halifax firm, and exhibited at some of our societies a few years ago.

The third system is one which is adopted much more extensively in America than in this country, and is highly suitable when large quantities of prints are to be mounted. As witnessed in operation in the States six years ago, when many thousands of prints were undergoing this process, we specially noticed its neatness, the rapidity of its action, and the impossibility of producing cockling. The backs of the prints are coated with ordinary starch paste and allowed to dry. The prints are then trimmed and laid *in situ* on the paper (or card) mounts to which they are thenceforth to be permanently attached, which mounts, however, have first been rendered slightly damp. A number of prints thus prepared are then run through the rolling press, and the operation is complete.

Arrival of Great Steamship.

The new and magnificent ocean steamer City of Paris arrived at this port on the 11th inst., on her first trip, having made the voyage from Queenstown in the remarkably quick time of 7 days, 11 hours, 39 minutes. It is believed her speed will be increased after a few more voyages have been made and her machinery becomes a little worn. As it was, the vessel made 498 miles as her fastest single day's run. The Paris is a younger sister to the City of New York, which was finished, and made her first voyage last season. Both ships are substantially similar in size, construction, and machinery.

Length over all, 580 ft.; length on water line, 525 ft.; breadth, extreme, 63½ ft.; and depth, moulded, 42 ft.; the gross registered tonnage being 10,500 tons. The vessels have very fine and graceful lines, and their beautiful appearance is in no wise impaired by the clipper bows with which they are provided. Each ship is propelled by two sets of triple expansion engines, and they are supplied with twin screws, so that if one engine or propeller should become disabled, they can proceed with the aid of the other. This provision has already been found of great value.

THE *Electrician* reports a rumor from Berlin to the effect that a means has been discovered of using electricity for ascertaining the true north, instead of the magnetic needle; that, in short, the new means will be superior to the compass and is likely to supersede it.

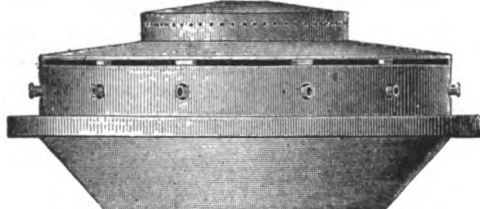
Correspondence.

The First Inventor of the Monitor Turret.
To the Editor of the Scientific American:

Paragraphs substantially the same as the one published under the above head line in your issue of April 6, p. 216, have appeared at intervals since January, 1863. Had you not expressed your approval of assertions made by a correspondent of the *Washington Star*, who "rightly says" that "Theodore R. Timby is the real inventor of the monitor revolving turret," and that large royalties were paid "for the use of his invention," indicating that even you entertain a mistaken notion, no notice, just as in the recent past, would have been taken of the erroneous statements.

The following extract from one of Captain Ericsson's contributions to historical literature, bearing on Mr. Timby's claim to priority of invention, is instructive:

"The most important object, namely, the rotating turret, will now be considered; but before describing this essential part of the Monitor system, it will be well to observe that the general belief is quite erroneous



Side Elevation of a Floating Revolving Circular Tower, Published by Abraham Bloodgood in 1807.

that a revolving platform, open or covered, is a novel design. So far from that being the case, this obvious device dates back to the first introduction of artillery. Sixty-four years ago the writer was taught by an instructor in fortification and gunnery that under certain conditions a position assailable from all sides should be defended by placing the guns on a turntable. Long before building the Monitor I regarded the employment of a revolving structure to operate guns on board ships as a device familiar to all well informed naval artillerists. But although constructors of revolving circular gun platforms for naval purposes, open or covered, have a right to employ this ancient device, it will be demonstrated further on that the turret of the monitors is a distinct mechanical combination differing from previous inventions. The correctness of the assumption that revolving batteries for manipulating guns on board floating structures had been constructed nearly a century ago will be seen by the following reference to printed publications.

"The *Nautical Chronicle* for 1805 contains an account of a 'movable turning impregnable battery, invented by a Mr. Gillespie, a native of Scotland, who completed the model of a movable impregnable castle or battery, impervious to shot or bombs, provided with a cannon and carriage calculated to take a sure aim at any object.' It is further stated that 'the invention proposed will be found equally serviceable in floating batteries. Its machinery is adapted to turn the most ponderous mortar with the greatest ease, according to the position of the enemy.' Again, the transactions of the Society for the Promotion of Useful Arts in the State of New York, 1807, contains an illustration representing a side elevation of a circular revolving floating battery constructed by Abraham Bloodgood.

"The guns of this battery, as the inventor points out, 'would be more easily worked than is common, as they would not require any lateral movement.' It is also stated, as a peculiar feature of this floating battery, that 'its rotary motion would bring all its cannon to bear successively, as fast as they could be loaded, on objects in any direction;' and that 'its circular form would cause every shot that might strike it, not near the center, to glance.' Thirty-five years after the publication of the illustration and description of the circular floating revolving tower of Abraham Bloodgood, Theodore R. Timby proposed to build a tower on land for coast defense, to be composed of iron, with several floors and tiers of guns, the tower to turn on a series of friction rollers under its base. The principal feature of Timby's 'invention' was that of arranging the guns radially within the tower, and firing each gun at the instant of its coming in line with the object aimed at during the rotary motion of the tower, precisely as invented by Bloodgood."

It is interesting to learn that Mr. Timby got his idea of a revolving tower from seeing the land defense on Governor's Island, and, perhaps, it will interest your readers to be informed that Captain Ericsson's conception of what became the Monitor was during a visit at Portsmouth (1828), when being rowed past the "wooden walls" which were regarded as England's bulwarks, he remarked to his companion, Count Adolf E. Von Rosen: "It has just occurred to me how all these stately ships could be at the mercy or destroyed by a single opponent," and got the curt response: "Then, for God's sake, keep it to yourself if you want to succeed in England." This mind image was never lost sight of; it was simply held in abeyance for opportune development.

The statement that \$5,000 was paid to Mr. Timby "for the use of his invention in the construction of that vessel" (the Monitor), "and a like sum for each turret constructed . . . in building of the other ironclads for the government," is erroneous.

The Monitor engaged the Merrimac March 9, 1862. Previous to the issue of the first patent to Timby (dated July 8, 1862, the last being dated September 30, 1862) Mr. John A. Griswold and others made a discretionary agreement with him by which they could purchase at a stipulated price his patents for the United States, should he obtain any. Having in view their important contracts, they felt bound to protect themselves against any delay in the completion of the monitors, then greatly needed by the government, should legal complications arise. October 6, three patents were assigned to Mr. Griswold, and Mr. Timby was ultimately paid \$15,000.

Captain Ericsson frequently had occasion to refer to this transaction, and maintained that the principal object of the preliminary arrangement to secure the Timby patents was to enable Mr. Griswold and others (not including himself) to control the erection of revolving forts on the coast of the United States, and that his (Captain Ericsson's) strong opposition to the scheme and its failure, attributed to his interference, was the cause of a somewhat unpleasant feeling between himself and one of the associates in the Monitor undertakings, and he emphatically denied that Timby's patent claims in any manner affected the principal or detail of the monitor system, and that Timby did not receive to the amount of one cent royalty on account of the original Monitor, nor on the monitors that immediately followed.

Now fifty-six turrets were built by the different contractors, hence, according to the *Washington Star* correspondent, Mr. Timby received the handsome sum of \$280,000 for his embryo!

The numerous communications on this subject received by Captain Ericsson and the claims of a host of inventors made him somewhat callous. He was, however, once much amused by the extraordinary demand of a colored man for compensation, because he had, he said, suggested the Monitor, both turret and hull, by the peculiar manner he folded a table napkin when waiting upon Captain Ericsson, at a dinner in the old Moffat House restaurant.

S. W. TAYLOR, Private Secretary.
New York, April 6, 1889.

Harvey F. Gaskill.

It is with profound regret we learn of Mr. Gaskill's decease, at Lockport, N. Y., on the 8th inst., at the age of 44 years. Mr. Gaskill was a distinguished engineer and inventor, the active head of the Holly Manufacturing Co., and the real author of the well known Holly water works system.

Among the thirty or more patents secured by Mr. Gaskill, and which are of indispensable value to the Holly Manufacturing Company, are the Gaskill horizontal and the perpendicular engines, the Gaskill triple compound pumping engine, a number of water meters, conceded to be the best in use, steam pump, pump valves, engine valves, motion water motors, Gaskill hydrants, etc. The *Lockport Daily Union* says: "When it is taken into consideration that one single individual is the inventor of a set of water works and pumping machinery that beyond the power of contradiction excel all other inventions in this or any other country, it is wonderful, and in the demise of Mr. Gaskill not only Lockport, but the world at large, has lost one of its greatest benefactors. Untold millions of property have already been saved by this superior class of pumping machinery, and its value is all the time increasing, as new works are being completed in all parts of the country."

Electrical and Industrial Exhibition at Birmingham.

An electrical and industrial exhibition is to be held in Birmingham during the months of August, September, and October. A very large amount of support has been promised for it, and there is every prospect that it will prove a success. The electrical department will be divided into three sections, the first including all kinds of machinery and apparatus for electric lighting, the second relating to complete displays of electric lighting on various systems, and the third comprising telegraphs, telephones, phonographs, electric bells and clocks, electric welding and smelting, electrotyping, telpherage, and miscellaneous apparatus. The industrial section will consist largely of Birmingham manufactures and manufacturing processes, although it will include many other subjects.

Estimated Amount of Fire Hose Pipe Now in Use in the United States.

Cotton.....	2,766,250
Rubber.....	1,777,000
Leather.....	346,650
Linen.....	259,550
Unclassified.....	469,750

Total feet of fire hose in service.....5,612,900

THE ELECTRIC SUBWAYS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

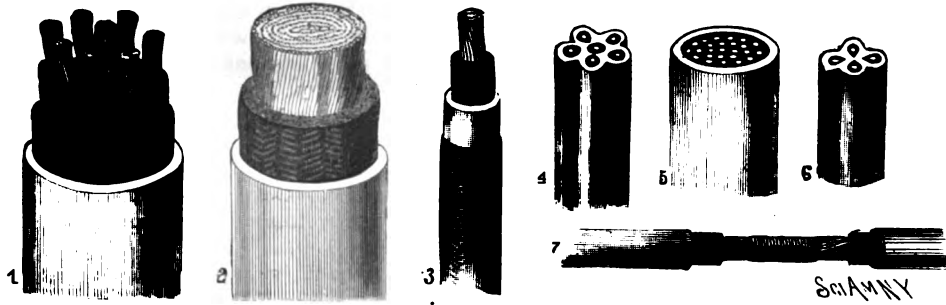
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vided with a double lid. The lower lid is held down in place by a gun-metal cross-bar and screw, and is provided with a tubular India rubber gasket, which is held in a groove and never leaves the lid. (See Figs. 2 and 3.) This gasket bears against a lip on the curb, so that

be given. Its direction is first determined, and the pavement is removed over the line; a trench is then excavated in the street to a depth which may vary from 3 ft. to 5 ft. The bottom of the trench is first leveled to the determined grade. This, of course, is subject to wide variation, because the streets are at present so occupied with gas mains and water pipes

The cables have now to be drawn into the conduits. This operation is illustrated in Figs. 1, 2, and 3. The workmen are supplied with a number of rods of wood, each about 3 feet long, and tipped with brass male and female screws at the ends. Entering a manhole, the workman pushes one of these into a duct into which a cable is to be introduced. He screws another rod to it, and pushes it about 3 feet farther, or its own length, screws another rod to that, pushes it in, and so on until a line of rods screwed together reaches through the conduit to the next manhole, perhaps 250 feet distant. These rods are shown in Figs. 1 and 3. A small line is attached then to the last rod introduced, and a workman at the further manhole withdraws the rods, unscrewing them as they come out, until he gets the end of the small line. To this a strong rope is attached, which is drawn through. The end of the cable is fitted with an iron loop screwed fast to it. Brass bushings are placed within the end of the duct, provided with shoulders to prevent their being drawn into it. These prevent the sharp edge of the iron pipe from marring the metal coating of the cable. The rope is now fastened to the loop, attached to the cable, the end of the cable is passed down into the manhole, and made to enter the duct through the bushing, and the rope is drawn through from the other end, the cable following it. Of course, great power is required to do this, on account of the stiffness of the cable, and we illustrate in Fig. 3 the form of capstan used in drawing the cable into the duct. It will be seen that the power of four or more men may be required in turning the drum. Where care has not been exercised in laying the pipe, burrs may exist at the couplings. These materially increase the friction where they exist. The ends of the pipes should be smooth internally, and any projecting metal should be removed by filing or reaming. As a general rule, the cable is cut in pieces, so that a single length is enough to reach from manhole to manhole, with an allowance for splicing. In many cases the cable is of double length, when it is fed into the manhole, both to right and left, its loop or bight gradually disappearing into the manhole, and being gradually straightened out in the operation. It is often necessary to use a blower, to expel gas and bad air while work is going on. This plan is adopted when a manhole contains so much gas as to render work in it difficult. It is seen in Fig. 1.

The ends of the lengths of cable thus introduced have now to be joined. To do this, they are opened, the wires for a few inches are stripped of their insulation, and connected. The joints thus made are wrapped, in



1. Eight-lead arc light cable. 2. Incandescent light cable. 3. Single-lead arc light cable. 4 and 6. Fire department cables. 5. Telegraph cable. 7. Splice in arc light cable.

Fig. 4.—DIFFERENT FORMS OF SUBWAY CABLES.

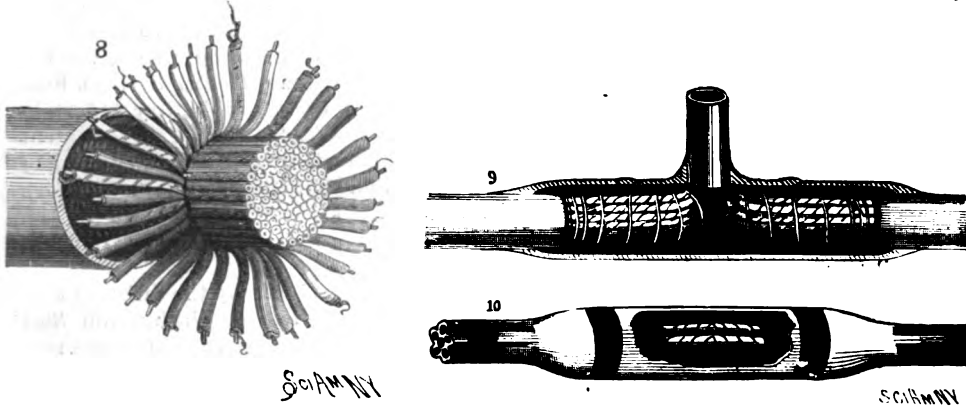


Fig. 5.—TELEPHONE CABLE OPENED FOR SPLICING.

9. Branch connection with cable. 10. Splice in cable.

Fig. 6.

when the lid is in place and the fastenings screwed, the hole is almost or quite hermetically closed. Above this inner lid comes the second lid, which is loose, and which lies flush with the pavement of the street. These manholes are placed about 250 feet distant from each other. They average one for each street block.

From manhole to manhole a number of pipes are carried, 2½ to 3 inches in diameter. These pipes are generally of wrought iron of the type of gas or steam pipe. They are asphalted inside and out, or coated with some equivalent protective material. On each end they are threaded, forming slightly tapering screws. They are connected by means of sockets as usual in steam or gas fitting, and are screwed up powerfully, so as to bring metal against metal, forming the most perfect joint that can be made in this class of pipe. When in place they are embedded in concrete. Thus, taking the system as a whole, we find at every block a manhole, the iron or brick lined excavation already described, and connecting the manholes are a number of wrought iron pipes embedded in concrete. As a matter of nomenclature, the pipes are called ducts; the system of pipes and the concrete in which they are embedded is termed a conduit; and the whole system of ducts, conduits, and manholes together is termed an electric subway.

The method of laying the concrete conduits may now

give a breadth of five lines of pipe and a height of four layers, but the system lends itself to any number.

When the cement, which is the best American cement that can be procured, has set, so that the concrete is hard, the whole forms a homogeneous monolithic mass. The concrete on the bottom, sides, and top of the subway is far thicker than between the pipes, so as to form a better protection. Above the concrete, 2 inch yellow pine planks are laid, which have been creosoted with from 12 to 16 pounds per cubic foot. This is designed to protect the structure from injury by pickaxes or crowbars in the hands of workmen excavating for any purpose. When it is considered that the pipes used are lap-welded, and can withstand an internal pressure of 500 pounds to the square inch, and, naturally, a very much higher external pressure, the great strength of the conduit will be apparent at a glance.

The conduits being laid and manholes built, completing the subway, the next problem is to introduce the cables into the ducts. These cables vary greatly in size and arrangement of wires, and we illustrate a number of sections in the cuts, Figs. 4 and 5.

In Fig. 4 the general type will be seen to comprise the conductors surrounded with insulating and wrapping material incased in a pipe of lead or of lead and tin alloy. The arc light cable contains sometimes eight leads. The incandescent cable is of very large capacity, consisting of a multiple wire conductor insulated and protected with the lead coating. The Fire Department cables are fluted in outline, and one rib is pointed or angular on one shoulder. This gives a means of identifying the leads; calling the one under the angular rib No. 1, the others in regular order are designated as No. 2, 3, etc. The method of splicing arc light cables is also shown in the cut No. 7 and in Fig. 9. The ends are brought together and lapped and wound with wire, and solder is applied to secure the most perfect electrical contact. A telephone cable is shown in Fig. 5. It contains wires that are individually insulated only. Different colored wires are used to facilitate identification. These admit of easy separation for splicing purposes or for making side connections. The Metropolitan Telephone Co. generally uses a cable containing the wires arranged in pairs and each pair twisted. The ultimate use of these is for metallic circuits, the twisting tending to diminish induction.

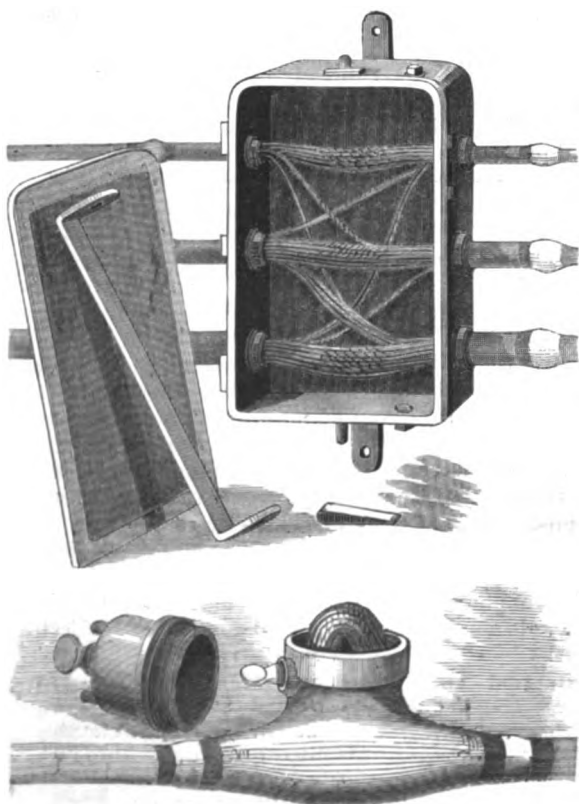


Fig. 7.—DISTRIBUTION BOXES FOR USE IN MANHOLES.

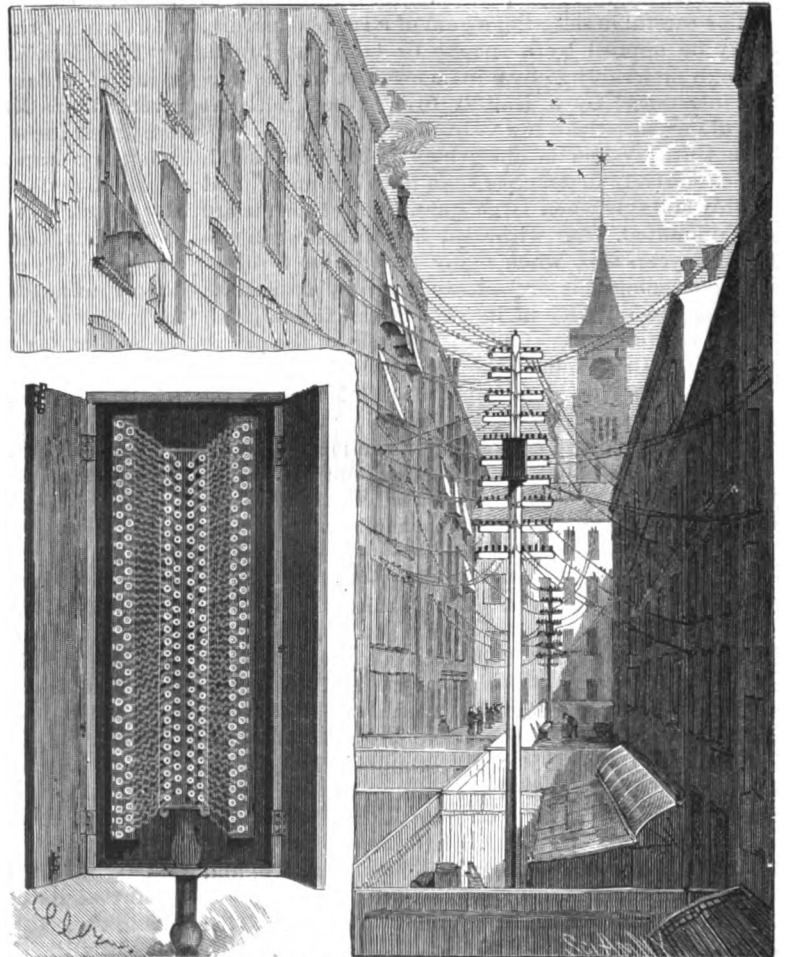


Fig. 8.—BACK YARD SYSTEM OF DISTRIBUTION AND POLE DISTRIBUTION BOX.

the case of telephone or telegraph cables for each individual wire, with insulating tape, and a lead sleeve previously passed over the cable is slid over the joint. Wiped joints are now used to secure the whole, so that the joint is as strong and water-tight as any other part of the cable. The operation is shown in Fig. 9.

This provides for transit lines. It will be seen from the cuts, Figs. 6 and 7, how the cables lend themselves to lateral leads. The cable can be opened and any desired wire picked out for side connections. For use in the manholes, distributing boxes, shown in Fig. 7, are provided, which allow perfect freedom for the with-

drawing and distributing of specific wires from the manhole as a center. Hand-holes, shown at bottom of Fig. 7, are used for distribution from a single cable only. The transit ducts included in the conduits, as described, are supplemented by external lines of pipe, laid above the creosoted plank work, directly in the earth, which are termed distributing ducts. These are to provide for local service, and at intervals they have hand-holes, which are hollow castings similar to the lower box in Fig. 7, giving access to the wires, to which castings pipes are connected leading into the separate buildings or to the different lamp posts. These last named pipes are termed service pipes.

For private house distribution, the house top or back yard system is adopted. For the first named as many leads of cable or wire as requisite are taken out of the manhole and carried up the front wall of a building to its roof and thence distributed where needed. The back yard system, shown in the cut, Fig. 8, involves the erection within the block of a single distributing pole. The cable is brought to it from the manhole, preferably by an underground and cellar route, and carried up to a distribution box shown in the same cut. Entering this box the cable is opened and its wires distributed and carried to the cross arms of the pole and thence to the houses requiring the service.

The kinds of current to be provided for resolve themselves into two—high and low tension. The low tension represents telephone and telegraph service; the high tension, the electric power and light leads. When it is necessary to have both kinds of current in the same street, two main conduits are laid, one for each type of service, and they are placed on opposite sides of the street. Furthermore, the rules of the Board of Electrical Control do not permit the use of wires in the same cable which differ in potential from each other more than 500 volts.

Other forms of subway are in use. The Dorset conduit,* made entirely of asphalt concrete without iron ducts, was one of the earliest forms laid. This presents the peculiarity of insulating the cable covering. The regular conduit grounds it, through all that lies within the ducts. The Johnstone subway, seen in Figs. 1 and 2, made of sectional iron castings for conduits and manholes, has also been used, and is approved of by the commissioners. It grounds the cable coverings. Wooden pipes have also been used in the concrete ducts instead of iron ones. On account of the recent gas explosions the manholes will probably be ventilated, so as to permit any accumulation of gas to escape into the air through a pipe reaching well above the street attached to an electric light pole.

These conduits have been laid by a construction company, as the Board of Electrical Control and their predecessors have had no authority to spend money for such purposes. The construction company, for its return on the investment and general expenses, relies on the revenue received for the use of these ducts. The rental has been based on the use of a single duct per annum and per mile. It will be clear that as each duct can carry six electric light wires, when each wire is in a separate lead-covered cable, and that when the wires are in a single cable eight wires can be contained in a $2\frac{1}{4}$ inch duct, a fairly remunerative rental will not be extravagant. As regards telephone service connection, the cable introduced containing some fifty double wires arranged to provide for through metallic circuits, it follows that on a ground system 100 telephone wires can be provided for by a single duct. The entrance of the telephone cables from the subway ducts into the central station building in Cortlandt Street is shown in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of March 30, 1889.

To give an idea of the extent of work, the figures from the report of the Board for the past year may be quoted:

240,155 feet of trench have been excavated, giving 2,287,880 feet of single duct transit and distributing and central station connections. Allowing 80 wires to the duct, this gives a capacity for telephone and

descent conduit is separate, and represented 338,376 feet, with over a million feet of conductors.

MICHEL EUGENE CHEVREUL.

This distinguished French chemist died in Paris on Tuesday, April 9, at the great age of 102 years 7 months and 9 days. His strength had been failing for some months, but his friends had not been without hope that he would live till the 31st of August next, to celebrate the completion of his 103d year. His son, Henri Chevreul, died a few weeks ago, 70 years of age.

The date and place of M. Chevreul's birth are well authenticated. He was born at No. 11 Deux Haies Street, Angers, an old city of France, at 8 o'clock in the evening of August 31, 1786, the record bearing the attestation of many witnesses. The parents were both persons of some distinction, the father being a physician and a professor, and living to the age of 91 years. The mother died at 93 years of age. M. Chevreul's memory of his early life was also remarkable, and he used to relate having been the witness of the guillotining of two persons in 1793, when he was but seven years old.

M. Chevreul studied at a central school in Angers from the age of 12 to 17 years, thence going to Paris, where, in 1797, he was admitted to Vaquelin's laboratory, taking his place among several students who were afterward to win a high place as chemists. At the same time Chevreul was giving instruction in another college, and four years afterward became preparator at the Museum. At the age of 30 he was appointed director of the dyeworks and special professor of chemistry at the Gobelins. In 1814 he demonstrated that oils and fats were formed of a mixture of several peculiar principles, including margarine, oleine, and stearine, the latter furnishing stearic acid, and giving rise to the industry of making stearine candles. M. Chevreul's further labors upon fatty bodies and saponification aided also in creating other new industries, besides much enlarging the field of organic chemistry.

In 1842 M. Chevreul assumed charge of the dyeing operations at the Gobelins and Beauvais establishments belonging to the government, and his researches and valuable discoveries touching colors have been almost continuous from that time to this. He has shown that

the harmonies of colors are submitted to immutable laws, which may be demonstrated by calculation. His laboratory was a vast room surrounded by show cases, in which were kept specimens of his work, and numerous parcels sent him by various industries, with closets containing various specimens of coloring matters, test tubes, graduates, glass rods, balances, etc. It is not too much to say that there was but little work of much importance, during the past half century, touching the dyeing industries, which his researches did not cover in the extraction, fixation, and observation of colors.

He was examiner for many years at the Polytechnic School, and had always been president of the National Agricultural Society. Up to 1855 he had been a member of the jury of every French exhibition. A member of the Legion of Honor, commander in 1844, grand officer in 1865, grand cross in 1875, he has had all the grades that any scientist could be covetous of. The foreign decorations that he received would cover his entire breast. But honors never elated the indefatigable worker, who was ever studying, and remained more than ever, at the age of over one hundred, the dean of the students of France and of the entire world. The life of the septuagenarian was passed between the Museum of Natural History, the Gobelins, and the Institute of France. He never failed to be present at the Monday sessions of the Academy. The number of memoirs that he presented to his colleagues is almost incredible. He was never desirous of being a politician, but during the Franco-Prussian war (1870-71), at the age of eighty-six, he willingly endured the pri-

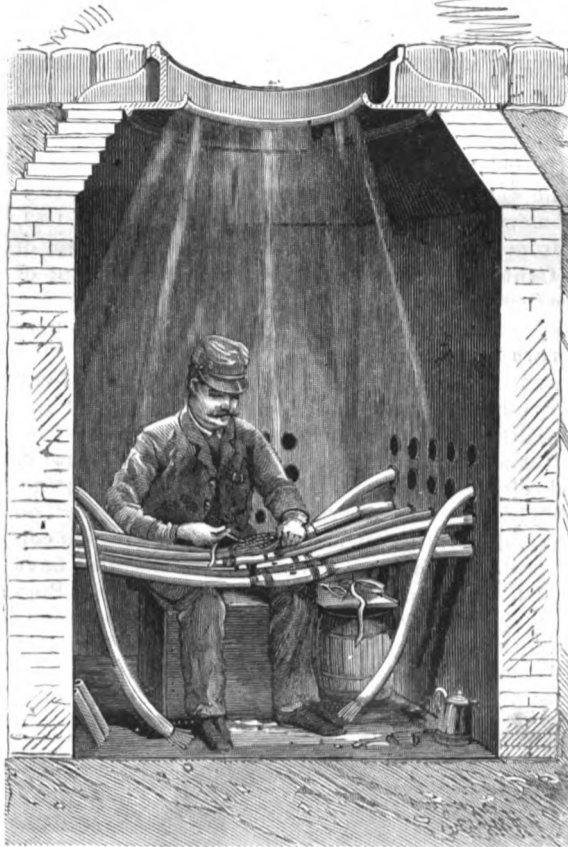
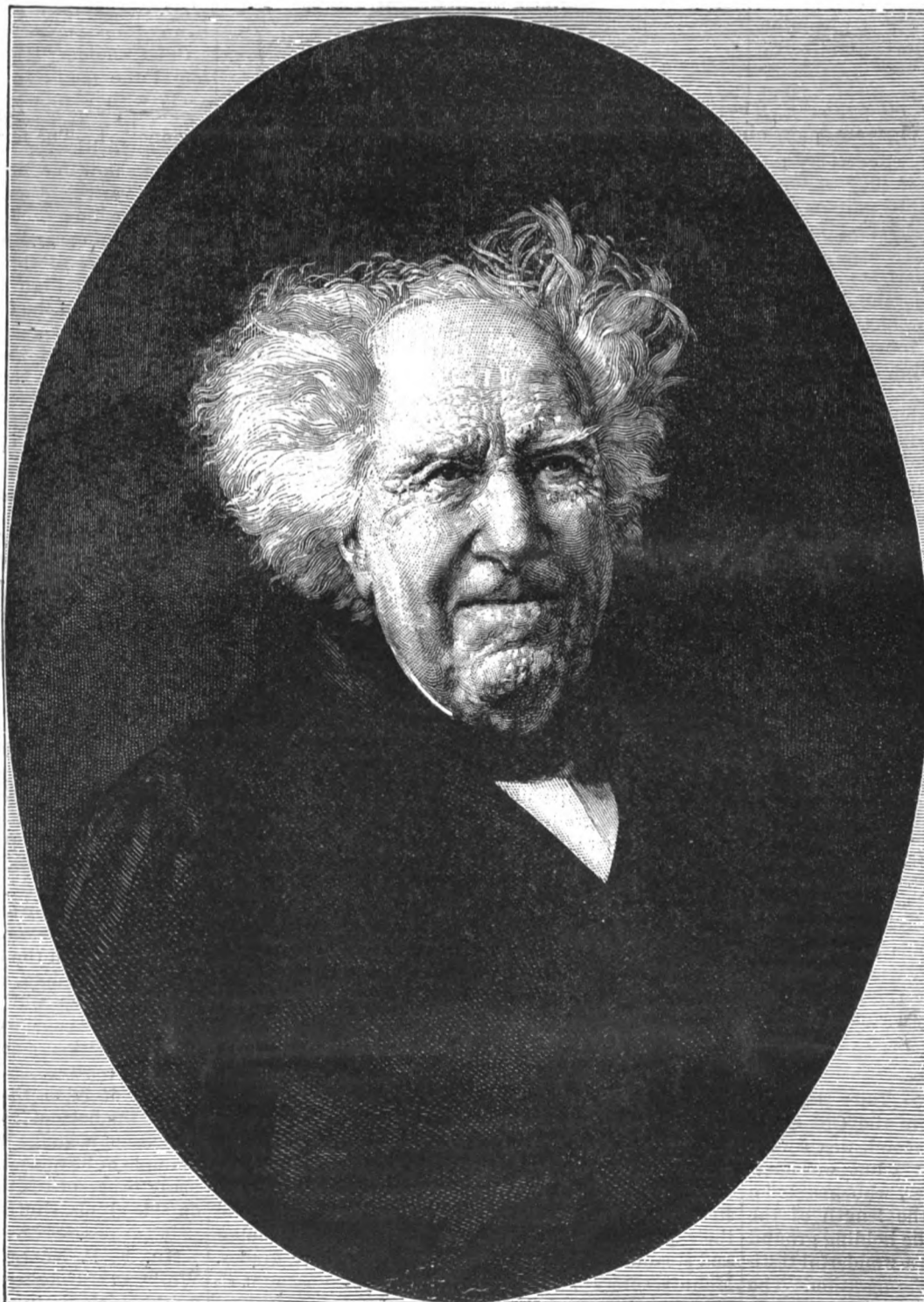


Fig. 9.—SPlicing WIRES AND CONNECTING CABLES.

telegraph service of nearly 35,000 miles of wire, long enough to go nearly one and a half times round the earth. For lighting and power service, 316,796 feet of single duct, with a capacity of 600 miles of wire, had been laid by the end of 1888. The Edison incan-



MICHEL EUGENE CHEVREUL.

* See SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, October 9, 1886.

vations of the siege, and did not leave the confines of Paris. He lived at the Museum while more than eighty Prussian bombs were shattering the glasses and breaking the cases.

Of his works several have been translated into English, German, and other languages. The best known are: "Lectures on Chemistry Applied to Dyeing" (3 vols., 1838-31); "On the Law of the Simultaneous Contrast of Colors and the Distribution of Colored Objects Considered in Relation to Painting" (1839), accompanied by a splendid atlas; "On Colors and Their Applications to the Industrial Arts by Means of Chromatic Circles" (1864); and a "History of Chemical Research," begun in 1856. He also wrote on sanitary subjects, on organic analysis (1824), on the optical effects of silken textures (1849), on the divining rod and table tipping (1854), on scientific method (1855), and on the prescription of drugs in medicine (1865). He wrote all the articles on chemistry in the "Dictionnaire des Sciences Naturelles," and edited with comments the "Photographic Recherches" of Niepce de St. Victor (1855). It was at his suggestion the practice of charging the interior of water casks was adopted.

M. Chevreul is reported to have left a large fortune. He was tall of stature and well formed, having a vigorous and healthy constitution, which, under his methodical way of life, although he was always an energetic worker, preserved him for a vigorous and healthy activity throughout all his long years.

The Tiffany Exhibit of American Jewel Minerals.

Tiffany & Co., of this city, have prepared an exhibit of minerals to accompany their collection of jewel and art work to the Paris Exposition. It is designed to cover the field of American jewel minerals only, and the endeavor has been to keep it as compact as possible by only including remarkable and unique specimens. Among the specimens of native gold is some of John Marshall's "find" of 1849 at Souter's Mill, the first gold found in California. Native silver is shown in some very beautiful specimens, in one associated with native copper. The last is of special interest, it having been pronounced fraudulent by some English authorities, although really authentic. The first sapphire found in the United States, from Jenks mine, Franklin, Macon Co., N. C., and the first sapphire ever found in its matrix are included.

Beryls, blue, green, and colorless, are shown, including a cut specimen (aquamarine) of 133 karats, from Stoneham, Maine, and emerald crystals from 1 to 8 3/4 oz. weight. The latter are of greater value as crystals than could be anticipated from them if they were cut. Garnets are present in perfection. Ruby garnets from Fort Defiance, Arizona, and Navaho Reservation, New Mexico; the first samples of cut spessartite garnet, and the great 14 lb. crystal with all faces perfect—a slightly distorted or elongated dodecahedron—and a two inch garnet cup are typical of the character of this mineral as shown. Red, green, and colorless tourmalines from Maine localities are extremely beautiful, and are both cut and in natural crystals.

A number of very beautiful associated malachite and azurite specimens are shown, embodying Ruskin's idea of the green of the earth and the blue of the heavens. It would be hard to find in all mineralogy a more exquisite combination of colors.

Among the quartz minerals are a quantity of crystals, curious on account of their minute size and perfection, there being 7,500 to the ounce.

Crystals of amethysts, smoky and rose quartz and rock crystal, and quartz, jasper, and other arrowheads, some unique, are included. Some of the rose quartz is cut into cups, spheres, and other shapes, and a mass of rock crystal is considered one of the finest shown. An interesting exhibit is olivine from meteorites, two being cut into jewels (chrysolite), forming gems of true celestial origin. An Oregon opal is the first found in the United States. A superb block of amber is shown which is dichroitic or fluorescent, and a massive piece of jet is near it, both illustrating organic jewel material. Pearls from different sources are included; some from Indian mounds, others from the clam, common oyster, and other mollusks. Mottled and black obsidian and the first samples of pectolite and wollastonite ever cut are of interest. The exhibit, which is in part a loan collection, is in charge of Mr. Geo. F. Kunz, who is to accompany it to Paris. By the time this reaches our readers it will probably be on its way across the ocean.

Cure for Roaring.

It may interest owners of horses to know that the mare ridden by Colonel Edwards in the Old Berks Hunt Club race, and who finished second, was a very bad roarer (hence her name "Aroara"), but was operated upon by Mr. Jones, of Leicester, who inserted a tracheotomy tube. Considering the length of the course, a long four miles, the pace, the holding ground and big fences, her performance was a wonderful testimony to the efficiency of Mr. Jones' operation. The tube which is inserted in the trachea of the throat is certainly a wonderful thing. The time occupied in the race was nineteen minutes.—*Land and Water.*

THE REV. J. G. WOOD.

The Rev. John George Wood, who did more to popularize the study of natural history than any writer of the present age, was the son of a surgeon who was at one time chemical lecturer at the Middlesex Hospital. He was born in London in 1827, and was educated at Ashbourne grammar school and at Merton College, Oxford. After being attached for two years to the Anatomical Museum at Christ Church, Oxford, he was ordained in 1853 as chaplain to the Boatmen's Floating Chapel. This post he held for four years, and in 1856 he was appointed assistant chaplain to St. Bartholomew's Hospital. This post he resigned in 1863, and from 1868 to 1876 he held the post of Precentor of the Canterbury Diocesan Church Union. Want of space forbids us to mention more than a few of Mr. Wood's numerous works on natural history. Among them are "Common Objects of the Seashore," "Homes without Hands," "The Natural History of Man," "Our Garden Friends and Foes," and his larger "Natural History," in three volumes, enriched by excellent illustrations from animal painters of the highest rank. He also for some time edited the *Boy's Own Magazine*. In 1879 he projected a series of "Sketch Lectures" on zoology, illustrating them himself by drawings in colored pastels on a large canvas. These lectures have been delivered in all the principal institutes of England and Scotland. His last lecture—on ants—was given in London only a few days before his death, which took place on March 3, at Coventry, from an attack of peritonitis. Sad to say, despite his energy and



THE REV. J. G. WOOD, NATURALIST.
Born 1827. Died March 3, 1889.

industry, Mr. Wood was unable to make any provision for his family, and he has left a widow in very ill health, with six children, absolutely destitute. Donations on their behalf will be received by the Rev. Alfred Whitehead, Vicar of St. Peter's, Kent, and Rural Dean of Westbere.—*The Graphic.*

Curious Facts as to Wheels.

The product of the cycle manufacturers for 1889 exhibits little departure in types of bicycles, tricycles, and safeties, but a number of quite noticeable improvements in details, in the direction of strength and lightness, simplicity, and ease of use. As usual, the old New England makers have the lead in the finer machines.

The cycling industry is still comparatively young on both sides of the metropolis. It began at Hartford about eleven years ago, and took root in other places two or three years later. From the first the New England bicycles were built for men's use, first class mechanically and first class in price.

Whether it is impossible or inconsistent to make both high and low grades of bicycles in the same factory, or whether there is some other local or trade reason for it, the fact is the costlier and finer grades never appear from the same factory with the cheaper and inferior grades.

It may be worth observing, in connection with the fact that the high grade bicycles continue to be made by the two or three leading makers of the East, that there is a difference in the average grades of workmen, often quite apparent. Talent and skill are not only cumulative in the same factory by years of practice, but also go somewhat from generation to generation. Skill, ingenuity, and steady industry, which contribute so much to the productive power represented on any pay roll, are found at a higher average in our older manufacturing centers. Articles and machinery of accuracy or delicacy, or complexity or difficulty of construction, like bicycles, guns, and watches, require in their production just this sort of superskilled labor and steadiness of force, especially in the finer grades. Manufacturers of experience take this into account in locating.

The difference in grade and construction of machines made has no necessary relation to the character of

machines that are used in the different sections. The sale of fine grades in all sections is very large and increasing. While the East may not lose its excellence or prestige in cycle making, it is quite likely that the West will gain, until its marks may be as good as a Boston, Hartford, or Chicopee Falls mark. It took Birmingham some time to equal Sheffield, and then some time longer to overcome the "Brunagem" reputation; but it got there, and, as every one knows, is now a center for really fine manufactures.

Of course not all that is made in the East in this line is best, since wherever a successful business is founded imitators spring up; but generally speaking in design of machines, in material used, in workmanship and finish, in substantial improvements over last year's productions, in all that goes to make up the best bicycle, tricycle, or safety, the old New England makers still hold the lead.

The Tobin Bronze.

The Tobin bronze is a metal recently placed on the market by the Ansonia Brass and Copper Company, of 19 and 21 Cliff Street, New York. It possesses many remarkable characteristics. Among its leading qualities are great torsional and tensile strength, with corresponding high elastic limits, as will be observed in the recorded tests by N. O. Olson, Esq., engineer of the department of tests for Fairbanks & Co.

Source Ansonia Brass and Copper Company.
Material Hot rolled Tobin bronze.
Mark 1 2 3
Test No. 6,491 6,492 6,493
Shape, original, 1 in. round bars.

DIMENSIONS.	Final.	Original.			
		Length, inches.....	8 in.	8 in.	8 in.
Stress in lb. Tension.	Elastic limit.....	0.645	0.641	0.645	
		0.327	0.323	0.327	
	Area, square inches.....	0.518	0.500	0.509	
		0.211	0.198	0.204	
	Per cent elongation.....	17.00	16.25	14.00	
		35.47	33.70	37.61	
	Maximum.....	17,000	18,000	18,000	
		26,000	26,720	26,850	
	Per sq. in.	Elastic limit.....	51,900	55,720	55,050
		Maximum.....	79,700	79,630	78,900
Fracture.....	Very good.				

Mr. Olson says it is far superior in point of strength to any bronze or metal of that kind he has ever tested.

Chief Engineer Hine, U. S. Navy, after making tests, found the metal to withstand the action of certain acids with a loss that was infinitesimal. It can be forged into bolts with great facility, and is used in large quantities for this purpose in several of the naval steamers now in course of construction for the navy, and for various other purposes, such as dye house and sugar machinery. It has been used successfully for cylinder linings and pump rods by some of the leading pump makers of the country. Owing to its non-corrosibility and high torsional elastic limit, which is equal to that of the toughest grade of machinery steel made in this country, it is being generally used for steam launch and yacht propeller shafting. Another important feature is that it can be drop-forged in the same manner as steel, making it essentially valuable where strong and intricate bronze pieces are required that cannot be obtained by casting. It has been carefully tested, and found to withstand the action of sea water in such a manner as to commend it to favorable notice for sheathing ships and spiles. The ingot metal is adapted for railroad car journal boxes and bearings of all kinds, for land and marine machinery, and, in point of endurance and anti-frictional properties, has given results equal to the best in use.

The company's pamphlet, just issued, contains testimonials from many of the leading firms of the country.

Hanging Doors and Blinds.

In hanging a number of doors which are of the same size, the time expended upon measuring the correct position of the hinges may be, according to the *California Architect and Builders' News*, saved in a very simple manner, which is as follows: Take a lath and mark upon the top and bottom the exact position where the hinges should come, drive in at these marks sharp-pointed brads, and you have a gauge which may be used in hanging all doors of the same size. In using it, all that is necessary is to place it against the edge of the door with the top of the lath on the level with the top of the door, give it a sharp tap of the hand, when the brads will mark the exact position of the hinges. The same gauge lath may be used in marking out the position of the hinges of the stile of the door frame, excepting that a nail should be driven in the bottom of it, so that there may be sufficient room left at the bottom to allow proper play of the door. The use of a gauge lath in the case referred to is an example of its use. It is of equal utility in hanging many other pieces, such, for instance, as inside and outside blinds, shutters, etc.

MR. F. P. ALLIS, the head of the Reliance Iron Work at Milwaukee, one of the largest foundries and machine shops in the country, died very suddenly April 1. He was a man of cultivated tastes, a liberal patron of the arts, and had amassed a large fortune.

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