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Improved Lathe for Wood Turning.

Much ingenuity has been displayed in devices for working wood into fanciful forms by machinery, and in none more successfully than in lathes for turning. The one herewith represented employs rotary instead of fixed cutters, the required speed for work being given the cutter head rather than the material to be turned.

The power is applied to the pulley, A, and by means of an intermediate shaft and bevel gears, gives motion to a screw turning in the support, B. This screw rotates the worm gear, C, attached to the spindle of the head stock. The center which holds the piece to be turned can move independently of the arbor. If it is desired to secure it while the arbor turns so that the cutters may operate on one side only of the wood it can be done by means of a catch engaging with slots on the collar, D, of the center; or by the screw through the head, E, on the arbor, it may be fastened to the arbor to rotate with it. A train of gears connect the arbor and the feeding screw which by means of the triple beveled gears and a clutch, F, can be rotated in either direction as may be desired. This screw gives the lateral movement to the carriage, G. A transverse carriage slides on G, which by means of the screw as in ordinary lathes can be advanced to or receded from the work. This carriage has also an automatic movement governed in one direction by a guide, H, and in the other by a spiral spring not shown. The line of motion is regulated by a stop screw, I.

The guide, H, can be of any form desired so that its edge will present a sectional line corresponding with the form to be produced. The shaft, J, which bears the pulley, A, is slotted and carries the bevel gear, K, that has on the inside of its hub a spline corresponding to the slot on the shaft. It traverses with the carriage, G, and drives the cutter head inside the dished gear by the intervention of another gear and pinions, not seen perfectly in the engraving.

The clutch, F, can be operated automatically by the carriage acting on stops on the rod parallel with the main screw as seen in the illustration. Three varieties of spiral work done by this machine are seen in the lathe and on the floor. Specimens in our possession just as taken from the lathe, without sandpapering or polishing, are very smooth and speak well for the effectiveness of the device.

This lathe is capable of doing an almost infinite variety of ornamental work, round or polygonal, with curved, waved, spiral or irregular surfaces. It was patented Oct. 16th, 1866, by August Basse, of Quincy, Ill., whom address for additional particulars. Box 593.

A New Medium of Power.

We have seen in the Bridgeport *Farmer* a notice of a new motor invented by Mr. Henry B. Stiles of the former place. The notice not being really a description we are unable to give the details of the machine, but from what we can learn it is a wheel working by water pressure, capable of exerting great power, and occupying but a small space. One of them twelve inches diameter, under a pressure of forty pounds to the inch, is said to be capable of driving a double medium power printing press. One has just been placed in Trinity Church, New Haven, to drive the bellows of the new organ; the third in size in this country, being exceeded only by that of Trinity, New York, and H. W. Beecher's Church, Brooklyn.

Whenever there is a sufficient head of water it is said this is the best medium for utilizing power now known. It will not get out of order and can be governed and regulated with the utmost exactness. It was patented by Mr. Stiles in Feb., 1866.

New Process of Pickling.

The *Grocer* notes the application of a well known scientific principle in a new process for preparing pickles for the table, in large quantities; an invention lately patented by Mr. Manfield. The machinery employed in this process consists of a large air-tight receiver, capable of containing one hun-

dred gallons of the vegetables to be pickled, connected with an air-tight tank for holding vinegar. The receiver is also fitted with two sets of air pumps, for exhausting and condensing the air, worked by a Lenoir gas engine. All the metal parts of the machinery with which the vinegar comes in contact are made of platinum, rendering the contents entirely free from the dangerous presence of copper.

The pickling process is attained by exhausting the air from the receiver by the vacuum pump, thereby also expressing all superfluous moisture, without injuring the shape of the contained vegetables. Connection being now made with the

top and bottom is connected to disks or plates, *e*. From the center of the top disk a pipe, *f*, is carried, having a jet, *i*, furnished with a tap, *j*. In and above the case, *a*, are weights, *k*, which force down the top disk, *e*, and compress the liquid contained therein. This pressure compels the liquid to ascend through the tube, *f*, into the basin, *l*. A smaller basin, *n*, may be used to receive the liquid under a lighter pressure.

The action of the fountain is as follows: The tap, *j*, is unscrewed and the liquid is poured into the basin, *n*, the fountain being lifted up, which creates a partial vacuum, allowing the liquid to descend freely. The basin being filled, the tap is screwed on, and on turning it the liquid is thrown out in a jet which is continuous so long as the weights, *k*, and the springs, *m*, continue to act and until the liquid is exhausted. It seems as though this simple device might be adapted to use in gardens and dwellings wherever the force of a natural head of water is wanting. Fanciful devices in iron or bronze might be made cheaply with the working apparatus attached.

Safeguard against Fire.

Among the recent improvements having in view the safety of life and property from fires, now so alarmingly prevalent, is an ingenious device patented by Mr. Chas. Dion, of Montreal, Canada. It consists of a small dial, something like a clock face, which is to be hung up in the apartment, and from the dial wires extend through the various rooms of the building, all connecting with

one or more large alarm bells.

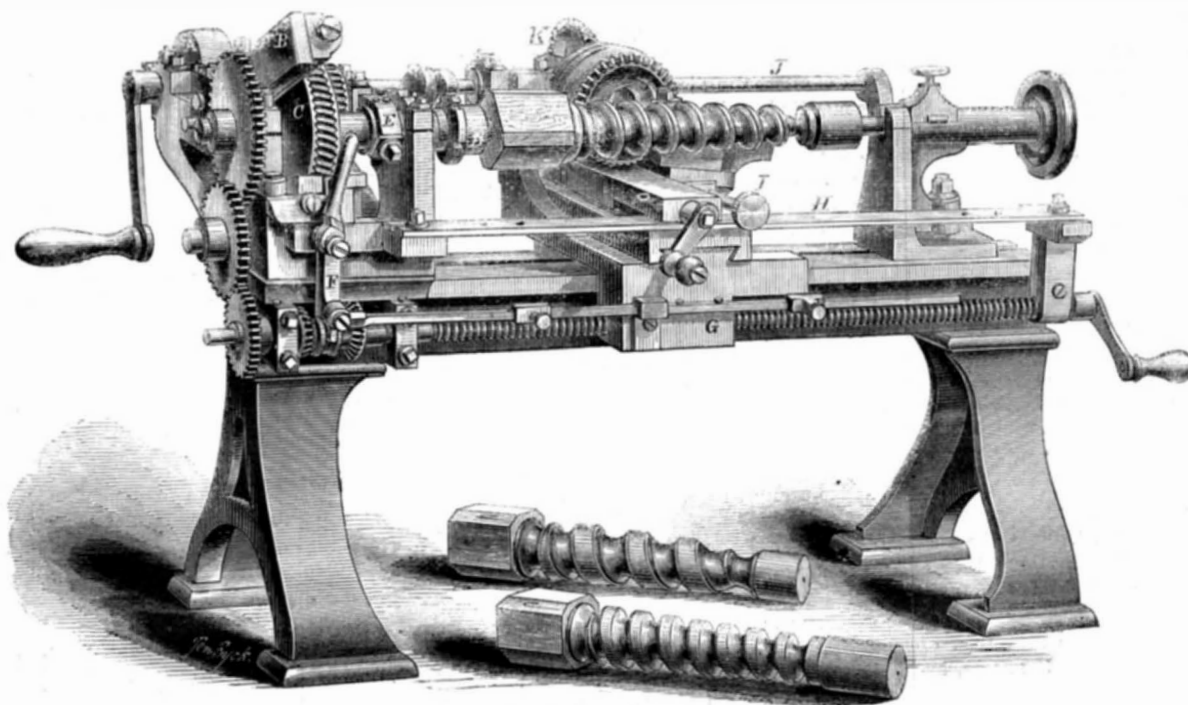
The construction is such that the instant any undue heat is occasioned in any of the apartments of the building where the wire passes, the alarm bell will be violently sounded, and a pointer will be thrown up indicating the number of the room where the heat or fire has begun. We believe the fire records conclusively show that the great majority of all fires could be easily extinguished, in many cases without water, if a prompt alarm could be given. Mr. Dion's invention seems admirably adapted for this purpose, while its cheapness and simplicity commend it for general adoption. The invention has been put into use throughout all the apartments of the Bishop's Palace and also the Chapel, at Montreal, where it gives the highest satisfaction. Over sixty of the dials are there used, and the Vicar General testifies to their remarkable importance and value. The Board of Fire Underwriters of this city have also officially certified to the striking merit of the invention, and strongly urge its general employment.

The Center Rail.

A correspondent reminds us that the center rail, successfully used for heavy grades on the Mont Cenis railway (see SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, Vol. XV., No. 24) is an American invention, patented some fifteen years since by Mr. George E. Sellers, of Cincinnati, and practically applied by the Coal River Improvement and Coal Company, for overcoming a grade of 150 feet to the mile in crossing the eastern barrier of the Shamokin Coal Basin. Two heavy freight engines were built for that company on Mr. Sellers's plan; but they failed to complete their road, and the engines were eventually sold among other things to the Beaver Meadow Railroad Company, and are now in use as ordinary locomotives. The following extract from the report of John C. Trautwine, Chief Engineer to the former company, shows where the credit of first inventing and introducing this device belongs:—

In this engine adhesion is obtained, not by the weight of the engine alone, but by pressure produced by the load itself. The pressure is made to operate by means of two horizontal adhesion wheels or rollers, which act upon the opposite sides of a center rail. The force with which they press the rollers is, by means of a most ingenious device, made to adjust itself instantaneously to the varying resistance to be overcome, whether that resistance be modified by an increase or diminution of the load, or by change of grade. I have seen a small working engine, on Mr. Sellers' principle, ascend and descend a grade of 276 feet per mile, with the same loads that it could barely start on a level. On this grade the engine was under the most perfect control of the engine man. We shall have no difficulty in ascending our 150 feet grade with trains of the same weight as the ordinary engines will transport over the 35 feet grades of the roads with which we connect.

PRESERVING POLISHED STEEL FROM RUST.—A correspondent says that nothing is equal to pure paraffine for preserving the polished surface of iron and steel from oxidation. The paraffine should be warmed, rubbed on, and then wiped off with a woolen rag. It will not change the color, whether bright or blue, and will protect the surface better than any varnish,

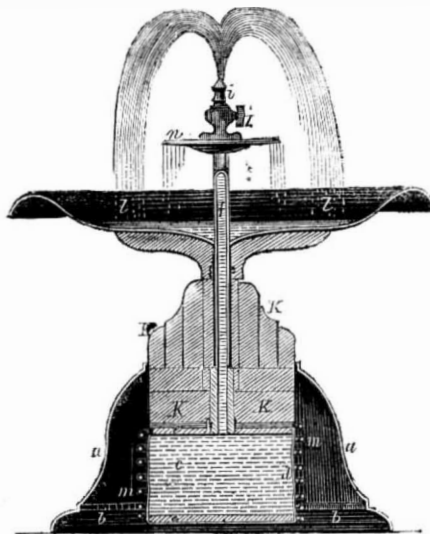


BASSE'S LATHE FOR WOOD TURNING.

tank, the spiced vinegar rushes in, and is forced with a pressure of forty-five pounds to the square inch into the very fibers of the vegetables. When this operation is completed, the pickles are ready for the table, having a good wholesome appearance, and retaining to a great extent their natural color. An important feature in pickles prepared in this way, is that being so completely saturated, they will keep sound for an indefinite period without being immersed in vinegar or brine.

SELF-ACTING FOUNTAINS.

We copy from the London *Mechanics' Magazine* the design of a fountain for propelling common or scented water, which



can be used in any drawing room without the necessity of elaborate "pipe laying." It is a simple mechanical device operated by the compression of air by mechanical contrivances. It is the invention of Eugene Rimmel, the celebrated London perfumer, and is intended for perfuming the air of apartments by the injection of a jet of scented water.

The engraving shows a section of the fountain, *a* being the case or pediment, having a metal bottom, *b*, on which a reservoir, *c*, rests, and with which it is connected. This reservoir is made of a flexible material, *d*, as india-rubber, and at

ARTESIAN WELLS—NOT EVERYWHERE ATTAINABLE.

[For the Scientific American.]

The popular theory prevailing a few years since, that artesian wells might be obtained anywhere by penetrating the earth's crust to a sufficient depth, received its refutation in the grand experiment made in 1858 by the legislature of Ohio, at the capitol of that State.

Artesian wells are obtained by boring into the earth's crust until subterranean reservoirs or streams of water are reached; but unless these supplies have their sources at an elevation higher than the mouth of the wells, the water cannot rise to the surface. These subterranean reservoirs are not lakes, or large bodies of imprisoned waters, but beds of sand, or porous rocks, saturated with water capable of motion. Such borings have produced an abundance of water at Paris and other places in France; and also in portions of Mississippi, Alabama, South Carolina, and other States in our own country. Now, to understand why one district will yield water in every boring made to the proper depth while another will yield none, we must examine the difference in their geological characteristics. Geological science only can solve the mystery.

Surrounding Paris, at a considerable distance from the city, there appears at the surface an immense bed of porous silicious rocks, through which water easily percolates, and which rests on strata impervious to water. The strata of this porous bed of rock dip from all directions toward the city, indicating that they pass beneath it, thus forming a vast basin, having a depth of about fifteen hundred to two thousand feet at its center. This basin is filled by the rocks of the chalk and tertiary formations, so as to bring the surface of the country to nearly a common level—the outer rim of the basin, however, having a higher elevation than its center. The chalk formation rests upon the porous silicious rocks, and is impervious to water. The tertiary formation overlies the chalk, and the two together have a thickness of many hundred feet. The rains, falling upon the outer margin of the basin, sink freely into the porous materials there exposed at the surface; and, keeping the strata constantly saturated with water, create a pressure of that fluid toward the center, where they are overlaid by the newer formations. These porous rocks, may therefore be called water bearing, as an abundant supply of water everywhere pervades their strata, where its evaporation is prevented by the overlying chalk and tertiary. By boring down through these two beds into the porous strata, at suitable distances within the margin of the basin, the water is forced up to a height corresponding to that of the source of its supply, and in some cases reaches an elevation of thirty feet above the surface. The artesian well in the city of Paris is bored to a depth of eighteen hundred feet, and the water rises through a tube to an elevation of sixty feet above the surface, and has a temperature of ninety-four degrees, Fah. The first well of this kind was bored at Artois, in France: hence the name, artesian wells.

In Mississippi and Alabama, the region furnishing artesian wells is not in the form of a basin as at Paris, but is an inclined plane, commencing near the base of the Alleghanies and descending toward the Gulf of Mexico. The water-bearing formation of this section of country is a loose, sandy deposit, occupying a large extent of surface. It is overlaid, further south, by the chalk and tertiary formations, which are known, locally, by the name of rotten limestone. This is an immense deposit of carbonate of lime, existing almost as pure marl, but occasionally including some beds of limestone, and in many places abounding in fossils. It has often a thickness of only a few feet at its northern margin—as at Purdy, Tenn.—but increases rapidly in depth southwardly, until it attains a thickness of nearly two thousand feet; the increase in some localities being at the rate of thirty feet to the mile. The marl is impervious to water, and none can penetrate down through it, however heavy the rains at the surface, or rise up through it by capillary attraction, whatever may be the extent of the evaporation from the soil above. Planters dig cisterns in it, in the form of immense demijohns, and fill them with water from the roofs of their buildings. These cisterns require no wallings of cement to make them water-tight, and retain the water during summer in all its original sweetness.

The bed of sand which underlies the marl must be of considerable thickness, as it has been penetrated to a depth of three hundred feet in some of the artesian wells. It rests upon the older secondary rocks, which, being impervious to water, serve as a flooring to the sand, and prevent the water from sinking lower in the earth. This sand bed, as before stated, occupies the surface all around the northern margin of the marl, and the rains descending upon it are readily absorbed. The water thus supplied is arrested in its descent by the flooring before described, and it flows along the inclined plane, among the sand, until it passes beneath the great marl bed, from whence there is no retreat or escape except by a forward movement. Far down toward the coast, where it has gained power by accumulation, the water is found bursting up through the marl in large springs. Wherever artesian wells have been bored at proper distances within the marl formation, water has been secured; but when attempts have been made at points too near its northern margin, they have either failed or the water does not rise to the surface. The more northern wells in Alabama have a depth of two hundred and seventy to three hundred feet—the water rising in them to within eighty or ninety feet of the top, from whence it is drawn up by the bucket and windlass. There are other wells in the river valley near by which is eighty or ninety feet lower, in which the water overflows at the surface. Further south, where the common level of the country is a hundred feet lower, the artesian wells have the water flowing from their mouths in a constant stream; but, owing to the increase in the thickness of the marl in that direction, they have to be sunk to the

depth of five hundred to eight hundred feet, to reach the water.

In all these wells the water rises to a common level, whether it stops at ninety feet below the surface, barely overflows at the tops of the wells, or ascends in tubes prepared to allow it to reach its maximum elevation. This shows clearly enough that the water has a common origin in a single broad bed of water-bearing sand, everywhere underlying the whole region covered by the rotten limestone. Some exceptions have to be made to this general statement. It has been said that the sand bed includes some strata of hard sandstone. These strata are at different depths, and some of them serve as floorings for the water, or secondary lids to the basin, or rather to the inclined plane upon which the water runs. Consequently, after reaching the water immediately below the marl, if the boring is continued two hundred or three hundred feet through these occasional strata of sand rock, it will rise to a higher elevation than when first reached. This is only true, however, of points distant from the margin.

The artesian well at Columbus, Ohio, may now be considered, and the reasons of its failure stated. The geological strata of this region vary but little from the horizontal, and at many places not very distant, the same rock which is found a thousand feet below Columbus can be seen exposed along the hills of the Ohio River, from Cincinnati, up and down that stream, for a hundred miles. The order is as follows, using western names to designate the formations:—

Beginning at Columbus, the cliff limestone, which is the surface rock, has a thickness of four hundred feet. It is composed of alternating layers of gray limestone and soft marlite. The marlite is as impervious to water as the marl of Alabama or the chalk of Paris. The limestone strata are not what can be considered as water-bearing, though often cellular and containing many seams and small fissures. The dip of this formation is toward Columbus, from the westward, at the rate of a foot or two to the mile, for a distance of sixty or seventy miles. Water penetrating the strata at that distant point, if it could pass on to Columbus, should have been found at the depth of two hundred and fifty feet. But the boring shows that no such supplies are coming in from the westward, thus proving that the cliff limestone has no water-bearing strata. The dip of the strata increases eastward of Columbus, so that at Zanesville, Ohio, it has attained a dip of about twenty-five feet to the mile, and this continues as far as Wheeling, Virginia. No water, therefore, can come to Columbus from that direction, so long as fluids refuse to flow up hill.

Immediately beneath the cliff limestone, but occupying the surface in a large area surrounding Cincinnati, the blue limestone prevails. This formation is composed of alternate beds of blue limestone and marlite, and is not water bearing. It conforms in its dip, of course, to that of the overlying cliff limestone. Its exact thickness is unknown in Ohio, Indiana, and Kentucky, as the whole formation is not exposed at one place within these states. In Pennsylvania it is estimated as having a thickness of six thousand feet; while in the vicinity of Cincinnati only six hundred feet of it are presented, and at Frankfort, Ky., an additional six hundred feet, of still lower strata, are brought up to view. This gives an exposure of about twelve hundred feet of the blue limestone for examination; leaving, it is supposed, about two or three hundred feet beneath, which cannot be seen. It is estimated that its thickness must be greater at Columbus than at Cincinnati, as the former place is over a hundred miles nearer than the latter to its greater development in Pennsylvania.

The strata of this formation are composed of alternate layers of crystalline limestone and soft marlite, both of which are impervious to water. The marlite predominates in the upper half of the formation, and the limestone in the other. It includes no water-bearing strata; but at Frankfort, Ky., there is a portion of the limestone, a little above the river bed, which is cavernous. The same character is presented in it at Tazewell, Tenn., indicating that the lower members of this formation may possess this character throughout great distances.

Now, although these strata, as well as those of the cliff limestone, include none that are water bearing, in the sense in which the term is employed when applied to artesian wells, yet they retain sufficient water for the supply of springs and common wells: but in these cases the water is only found pervading the loose surface deposits or running in veins in the open joints of the rocks, and not, as every one knows, in the body of the rocks themselves.

The marlite, at depths where the frost cannot act upon it, is usually unbroken in its strata, and serves to conduct water along its upper surface, where porous materials allowing its passage exist. But water can never flow along in the midst of compact marl or clay as in deposits of sand. The whole of the cliff limestone, and the blue limestone also, are therefore unsuitable formations in which to attempt the production of artesian wells.

But there is another point which should be noted. Cavernous limestone, as well as that which has openings along the joints, often affords subterranean passages for streams of water. If the quantity in any instance be greater than can pass along the narrower parts of the channel, and the water be thus dammed back, and the source of supply be at a higher elevation than the surface above, a flowing well may be supplied from it, and will secure the surplus which is held back for want of sufficient width in the passage below. The only difficulty will be in striking the vein of water, and to succeed in this, must be the result of accident and not of foresight in the operators.

Beneath the blue limestone, there exists a heavy formation of sandstone, very compact in its structure, and not likely to have any reliable water-bearing strata. It is known in the

New York survey as the Potsdam sandstone. This formation rests upon the primary rocks, and artesian wells cannot be expected in rocks of that age and depth.

The facts stated conducted me to the conclusion, that the geological formations existing beneath the capital of Ohio, were not of a character to justify the expenditure of the money necessary to bore through them. That city is located near the margin of a great basin, having its center in Virginia, and the dip of the rocks was all from it and not to it as a center. In short, the water basin was turned upside down, and Columbus was upon the bottom, with the water all running away from it, instead of converging toward it as is the case at Paris.

But the Legislature made a new appropriation, and the boring progressed until a depth of twenty-seven hundred and seventy-five feet and four inches (2,775 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet) was obtained. The temperature at 2,575 feet was 82° Fah. and at 2,750 feet it was 91°.

The last 190 feet gave no sedimentary borings to the sand pump, the whole seeming to be carried away by currents of water moving at that depth. But where did this water go? This is a question of a curious nature. These currents were moving at a depth of nearly two thousand feet below the sea level. They could only have an outlet into the bed of the ocean, and the fresh water, rising to the surface through the salt water, on account of its less specific gravity, established a current that allowed the continual movement forward of the water filling fissures, or connected cavities, existing at great depths in the earth.

The existence of artesian wells, in minor localities, may be explained on the principles here stated. D. C.

[Our Foreign Correspondence.]

THE LONDON FIRE DEPARTMENT.

LONDON, Dec. 25th, 1866.

I have recently, through the politeness of Captain E. M. Shaw, Chief Executive Officer of the Metropolitan Fire Brigade, had an opportunity of acquainting myself with the organization and working of the London Fire Department, and I think some of the particulars will be of interest to your readers.

INSURANCE FIRE SYSTEM.

In most of the cities of England the work of extinguishing fires is intrusted to the insurance companies. These each own their separate engine and hire a certain number of men to manage it, but depend on volunteers picked up on the emergency, for the complement necessary to work the engine properly. They subdue all fires that occur, but if the property is not insured, the expense of extinguishing is charged to the owner. If it is insured by another company, the expense is charged to them. Somewhat similar, until the present year, was the system in London also. Now, however, the Board of Works have assumed control of the brigade and considerably extended the district to be protected, increasing at the same time the number of stations and the force employed. Just at present, therefore, the organization is in a transition state; but a tolerably correct idea may be formed of the system as it is intended to be.

ORGANIZATION—TELEGRAPH SYSTEM.

The extent of the metropolis is not far from 120 square miles. This is divided into four districts—three on the north side of the Thames, and one comprising all on the south side. In these there will be altogether sixty stations, although at present there are but forty. Each district is under the superintendence of a foreman, who is stationed at a central point and in telegraphic communication with each station in his district and also the head office in Watling street. He attends to the dispatching of engines and all the working of his district, and is responsible for its proper management to Captain Shaw. The telegrams from these four foremen are the only ones that go to the central office. No bells are rung, the whole signaling being done by telegraph. The instruments are very simple and can be worked by all the employees in the station. They are operated by merely turning a handle around over a dial on which are marked the letters of the alphabet; so that any one can receive or send a message. The endeavor of the officers is to keep the existence of a fire as quiet as possible, so that they may get there before the crowd.

LOCATING FIRES MATHEMATICALLY.

As some of the stations on the outskirts of the district are necessarily very far apart, a very effectual means is adopted for locating the precise position of a fire seen at a distance. On the roof of each of the stations is placed a compass, so that the bearing of any light may be readily observed. The officer at the central station telegraphs to two stations at a considerable distance on either side of the direction of the light, to know its bearing from that point. He has a map on which the position of each station is marked by a raised point, so that they can be readily found by the touch, and on which the points of the compass are plainly indicated. It is then but the work of a moment to find where the bearings telegraphed from the outlying stations will intersect, and then the orders can be sent to the various stations with certainty. As everybody knows, nothing is more deceptive than following a light seen at a distance.

FORCE AND APPARATUS.

The number of men composing the brigade is 230, but is constantly being increased. The number of engines is 70, of which 19 are steamers, 27 old manuals, and the others new manuals. A special and most important feature of their force is the use of "curricles," or very small engines, which can be started off at the instant of alarm, and managed by one man. These consist of a box mounted on a pair of wheels, and containing three or four lengths of hose—say 200 feet—coupled

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to the pump and "snaked" into the box so as to come out without kinks, half-inch and three-eighths-inch nozzles, an ax, saw, several canvas buckets which fold up so as to be compactly stowed, a canvas cistern, and a small syringe-like hand pump with small hose attached. On the outside are a couple of small ladders, and the pumps and brakes. In using these the three-eighths-inch nozzles are generally employed, since when it is possible to get near the fire, the smaller the jet the better, as less damage is done by water. The use of these little engines very frequently nips in the bud what must otherwise become a serious conflagration; and I think that as in New York we have gone to the extreme of adopting steam engines exclusively, it would be well worth the while of our Commissioners to turn their attention to the advantages of these curricles. The hand engines would appear to the members of our old volunteer department as very ungainly affairs. They consist of a large box containing the pumps and all the necessary hose and equipment, much the same as the curricles, but on a larger scale. They are painted red, with little if any attempt at ornament, and are drawn by horses or by hand, according to the size. The larger ones weigh 2½ tons in working trim, and require a complement of 40 men to work them.

THE LONDON "STEAMERS."

The steam engines are mostly built by Messrs. Shand & Mason and Merryweather & Co. The engines by the former firm are preferred on many accounts, and range in weight from 26 to 52 cwt. Messrs. Merryweather's engines have the working parts placed under the horizontal body, and are exposed to all the flying mud from the wheels when running to the fire, so that it is necessary to give them a bucket of water before getting to work: they work at a disadvantage on this account. Their weight varies from 30 to 60 cwt. The suction pipe of Messrs. Shand & Mason's engines is kept coupled on while in the station, so that the time of performing this operation is saved, besides insuring that the joint shall be tight. The water is kept always at about 212° by a gas jet which is placed in the firebox, so that but little time is required for raising steam. It takes fourteen minutes to get up steam from cold water. The hose is in forty-foot lengths, two and a half inches in diameter, made of leather, only the best portion of the skin being used, and the rivets are placed half an inch apart. The cross joints are cut at an angle, so as to fold more readily. The hose is all tested to 100 lbs. pressure. The water pressure is from 100 to 150 lbs. The nozzles used range from one and a half inches to three eighths of an inch, increasing by sixteenths from the one and a quarter inch size.

DEFICIENCY OF WATER—PRIMITIVE HYDRANTS.

The great difficulty against which the brigade have to contend is the miserable water supply. As a rule, the water is neither at constant service or high pressure. The fire plugs are surprisingly rude, consisting mainly of a rough cast branch in the water pipe, pointing upwards in a hole in the pavement, and closed with a wooden plug which has to be knocked and pried out. The water then fills the hole and flows up into a canvas cistern about four feet long by two feet wide and two feet deep, having a hole in its bottom to admit the water, the pressure of which, when in, keeps it tight against the pavement. The suction pipes are dropped into this cistern. In some cases a stand pipe having a taper end is driven into the cast-iron nozzle, and is furnished with the necessary couplings at the top. It is unnecessary to say that the leakage with such an arrangement is considerable.

LOW AVERAGE OF FIRES.

The daily average number of fires is five; some few days having been entirely exempt, and some having had as many as twelve: but the average is pretty uniform, and I think very small for such a large city. The uniform of the men is plain and suitable. Each man is provided with a hatchet which he carries in his belt, and wears a brass helmet.

Captain Shaw is a gentleman of great experience and ability, and is laboring as rapidly as allowed by the Board of Works to bring the brigade to the highest degree of perfection in efficiency, force and distribution. SLADE.

ICE BOATING.—This unequalled sport is fast becoming an institution on the Hudson River. The Ice Boat Association of Poughkeepsie, where the interest centers, contains ten handsome boats, and as many well-to-do and spirited proprietors; and there are eight or ten boats more on the river. A grand prize regatta has been resolved on for this season; the winner pledged to run twice afterward for the retention of the prize. Three of the vessels of the association made an exploring trip a few days since: the best time made was a run of two miles in one and a half minutes—only 80 miles per hour. Last winter a run of nine miles was made in eight minutes, or 67½ miles per hour. Of course clothing like that of arctic explorers is needed on an open deck rushing through a winter atmosphere at such breathless speed as this. The construction of the ice boat is peculiar but simple. It is V shaped, the point stern and resting on a single pivoted runner by which the craft is steered. The broad front rests on a pair of runners. The deck is but a few inches from the ice: mast, rigging and sails are similar to those of water boats. Steam has not yet been regularly employed, but is certain to be before long, we judge. These yachts can sail two points nearer to the wind than water craft. Sport in this case will prove the pioneer of business. Practical attempts have been made on the Hudson already, in years past; and the art which is advancing so bravely will doubtless soon be applied to business purposes, as it has begun to be on the upper Mississippi, and will become at its maturity no contemptible competitor with the railroads for winter freight and passengers.

NATIONAL GEOGRAPHICAL PARK.—We have received a circular suggesting inquiry by Congress into the practicability of establishing at Washington a Geographical Park, in which the relative positions and proportions of the several states and territories, with the topography and main features of the continent, shall be represented in miniature. On the representative territory of each state, etc., it is proposed to establish a museum of its productions and history. This is a very pretty plan. In a square mile of ground, the continent might be laid out on a scale of something like one foot to the mile; and such features as the Mississippi River, the great lakes, Niagara Falls, or the Rocky Mountains, might be represented with their outlines clearly visible to the naked eye, though by no means safe from the incautious foot. Gulliver among the Liliputians was nothing, to the American public stumbling or dragging their hoop-skirts over "the great national features of our country" in the Geographical Park. As a facility for the study of geography, we could wish that just such a park were within easy walk of every school house. But we doubt whether its proposed proximity to the halls of Congress and the Executive departments, would enlighten and expand the patriotism of our rulers to the extent anticipated in the circular. Perhaps we have not looked deeply enough into all the bearings of the scheme; but we apprehend that the many millions required to construct and preserve this stupendous toy will not be forthcoming until after the national debt is paid.

THE TAXES.—We are somewhat surprised that Mr. Wells, among his forcible recommendations for the reduction and less oppressive distribution of our taxes (quoted on page 34 of this paper), has made no reference to the burdensome income tax. Perhaps he considered justly that the direct taxes on industry and its products—which are indirect additions to the income tax, compared with which the income tax itself is not worth mentioning; and not only that, but are also levied mercilessly on the poor man's necessities of life—ought to be the first objects of retrenchment on the list, to which the practical consideration of other reductions might well be postponed. If any thing was ever demonstrated, the American people, who were supposed by European statesmen to be capable of any anomaly in the universe rather than submission to taxation, have demonstrated that they can tax themselves beyond the endurance of any other people—when they have debts to pay. We think it unquestionable that a revision of our tariff and taxes is within the present resources of fiscal science, such as would equalize and diminish all our principal burdens, and at the same time yield unabated revenue, and encourage instead of depressing industry. The income tax cuts deep when it takes five and ten per cent from large incomes: it cuts to the bone when it cuts through to the last \$600 per annum.

NEW YORK POST-OFFICE.—The prospect brightens for a post-office worthy of this city and the Union, in place of the old meeting-house and circumambient horse sheds now used for the purpose in Nassau street. The Secretary of the Interior and acting Postmaster-General have united in a strong recommendation to Congress of prompt action in accordance with the report of the Commissioners who investigated the subject during the recess. The House Post-office Committee have agreed to report the bill, and there should be every reason to hope that the necessary appropriation will now be made. The site proposed is the triangular southern end of the City Hall Park, opposite the front or Park Row corner of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN office. Its area is 65,259 square feet—equal to about 25 city lots. The ground will cost \$500,000, and a building is proposed at a cost of \$1,000,000, for the accommodation of the post-office and United States courts. The average of outgoing and incoming mails at this office has increased in the last ten years from 10 tons to 90 or 100 tons per day. Fronting all sides on broad streets, the proposed new post-office will have every facility of access and departure for this heavy business.

TERRA ALBA.—The extent to which this fine white earth is employed in adulterating pulverized sugar, confectionary, flour, prepared cocoa, spices, milk, etc., is incalculable. Dishonesty gives the law to many a traffic and manufacture in these days, and compels those who would rather be honest (so they imagine) to "do as others do." A chalky taste in the delicate white cracker, a tastelessness in bread, a whity scum in the tea cup from a spoonful of snowy sugar, with many another uncomprehended indication, betray the presence of the ever-present adulterator. Two thirds their weight of terra alba has been obtained from lozenges. This comparatively new ingredient is imported from Ireland, and that largely, costing only about one dollar and a quarter per cwt.

RAZING GRINDSTONES.—A subscriber suggests that a simple machine might be made to "raze" grindstones when first hung or out of truth, without the care and labor now employed in that disagreeable job. He says a cylinder armed with proper teeth could be attached to the grindstone frame and be driven in a direction contrary to that of the stone's revolution. We see no reason why a simple device of this character could not be contrived, and made so as to feed up automatically as the work proceeds. This is a hint for our inventors.

At a recent meeting of the Polytechnic Society, Dr. Rowell stated that a cubic mile of water, at a temperature of 40° Fahrenheit, was 900,000 tons heavier than the same amount at 50° Fahrenheit, and weighed 3,000,000 tons more than a cubic mile at 60° Fahrenheit.

COST OF MINING.—The Spanish proverb says: "It takes a mine to work a mine." This is emphatically true in our wild territories remote from markets and manufactures, whither almost every article of subsistence, machinery and implements, must be transported hundreds or thousands of miles on rude wagon roads. A comparison of the bullion produced from the most successful mines in Nevada, with the profits that reach the owners, forcibly illustrates the rude conditions under which mining is now carried on. The proprietors of the famous Gould and Curry mines divided last year a quarter of a million net (\$252,000), out of a gross product of a million and a half (\$1,600,000). Thus only about 16 per cent of the bullion marketed went to the supposed owners. Other mines have done better, and some have done worse. The Savage mine yielded \$1,100,000 in the last six months; net profit \$360,000, or 32½ per cent. The Hall and Norcross and Yellow Jacket mines made each very nearly the same operation in twelve months. The Ophir mine yielded \$450,000, and no dividend at all. On the other hand, the Eureka of Grass Valley produced \$600,000, of which \$420,000, just 70 per cent, was profit; and the Eureka of Amador County produced \$485,000, of which \$310,000, or 64 per cent, was profit. When they get the Pacific Railroad, agriculture and manufactures among themselves, and matured processes of extracting the metal from the ore, our miners may all be able to cry "Eureka."

POPULATION OF THE METROPOLIS.—The census returns for the metropolis proper, so far as it lies within the State of New York—i. e., the "Metropolitan District," or city of New York and its suburban dependencies—have just been published. The population does not appear to be as large as commonly estimated, this city showing but 726,386, Brooklyn, 296,378, and the whole district, 1,224,879. Either these figures are below the truth, or former censuses have been exaggerations. The latter supposition is unlikely; for probably hundreds of families can testify to having received no call from the census taker where one has experienced that attention twice over. There are many temptations to avoid the census taker, and none to seek him out: likewise many temptations to that official to under-do rather than over-do the duty for which he is employed. Certainly, New York and Brooklyn were never so crowded before, notwithstanding the constant increase in the number of dwellings. Landlords can not have it all their own way, as they do here, by proving with figures that houses must be scarce: the fact that houses are scarce is what does the business for the unfortunate tenant. As in many large centers of business and employment, the female population are a majority—in New York, of 28,024, and in Brooklyn, of 13,357. Out of these cities, in the suburbs, curiously enough, the males preponderate by 14,464.

BRITISH EXPERIENCE OF STEAM ON CANALS.—Steam tugs are employed on the Gloucester and Berkeley Canal, at an expense only one fourth that of horse power, which costs one farthing per ton per mile against one sixteenth of a penny for steam. The speed has been increased at the same time from one, two and three miles per hour, to three and four miles per hour. The wear of the banks by the "run" of the water has been completely remedied by a band of weatherstone pitching, two feet wide. On the Ashby-de-la-Zouch canal, experiments indicate that no injury is done to the banks, with a speed limited to 3½ miles per hour. In other respects, as the wear of the sides by the boats, and the accumulation of deposits, the canals prove much the better for the employment of steam. On the Grand Canal, Ireland, a system of navigation 160 miles long, screw steamers are successfully employed on a long level of 25½ miles, with a depth of only five feet two inches. On the Forth and Clyde navigation seventy steamers are now employed for carrying cargo, some as large as 120 tons. The tug plan, however, appears to be more generally approved, though on some canals they prefer to use steamers carrying freight and acting as tugs at the same time.

A VERY curious example of photography is seen in the prints of the Exhibition card, prepared by the New Haven Malleable Iron Works, for the French Exposition. The board measuring 6 by 7 feet, contains samples of the various stock articles and tools made by the company, to the number of 746 pieces, none of which are exactly alike. Their arrangement is quite artistic. The photographic copy is only 7 by 9 inches, but the exact form and comparative size of every one of the 746 articles is clearly shown. It would be possible, by means of photography, to present in a few volumes reduced views of the various tools of the world.

THE PRESS.—There are two items of press statistics going the rounds which illustrate our national growth in two striking aspects. The German press of a single State (Pennsylvania) numbers no less than sixty papers, of which seven are dailies, and eleven are religious. The newspapers already flourishing in the Pacific States and Territories number two hundred and four. Sixteen of these, however, are outside of the land of Unculpsalm. San Francisco boasts twelve dailies—which is quite up to New York.

UNITED STATES AND CUBA TELEGRAPH.—The conditions under which it is proposed to connect Cuba with Florida, by telegraph, have been approved by the Spanish Government, and the contract has been signed.

COLORADO has appointed Geo. W. Maynard, an experienced miner and geologist, as Commissioner to the Paris Exposition, and has forwarded a full and rich collection of specimens of her mineral products.

Reported for the Scientific American.

GLEANINGS FROM THE POLYTECHNIC ASSOCIATION.

The regular meeting of this branch of the American Institute, was held on Friday evening, January 4th, Prof. Tillman presiding.

In continuing the subject laid over from the last meeting Mr Walling read a paper on the

THE NEBULAR THEORY.

All inquiries into the origin of the earth must be more or less speculative in character. Theories can only be formed when facts are sufficiently numerous to fully establish them. In the meantime those hypotheses which best explain all known facts, and include the greatest number under simple laws, seem most likely to be finally accepted; for this reason the nebular hypothesis has been so generally received by scientific men. A paper was read at the last meeting, opposing that portion of the theory which supposes the earth once a molten mass; and to point out the fallacy of the arguments then employed, is the object of this article.

Mr. Wood stated in that paper, first, that since force cannot exist independently of matter, no condensation of nebulae could have taken place, because the consequent radiation of heat into space where there was nothing to receive it, would be impossible. We know that the sun and fixed stars are continually radiating heat into space, and if force cannot exist independently of matter, we have the ether, a material medium, which can receive the radiations and transmit them indefinitely. His statement that solidification in a melted mass will commence at the center, is refuted by the fact that the maximum density of liquids is reached at a higher temperature than that at which they solidify.

LIQUIDITY OF THE EARTH'S INTERIOR.

Among the geological evidences that the earth once existed in a molten state and is now liquid at its center, are included, the regular increase of temperature from the surface downward, volcanoes and the connection between their eruptions and earthquakes, the gradual elevation and depression of continents and ocean beds, and the direction of mountain chains, as if formed by the contraction of a molten mass.

Mr. Wood attributes these phenomena to the influence of some central orb, which acted in some manner analogous to the influence of the moon in causing the tides. We know that the tides are due to gravity between the moon, sun and earth, but the force capable of producing such various changes without manifesting itself correspondingly upon the ocean, is widely different from any force now known to us.

The laws by which solidification takes place under great pressure are not well enough understood to show the truth or fallacy of the argument that fluidity of the earth's interior is counteracted by the pressure it sustains. Such experimental knowledge as we do possess points in the opposite direction, proving that pressure lowers instead of raising the freezing point.

By the nebular hypothesis, innumerable facts are explained which cannot be accounted for in any other way, and not a solitary fact in conflict with it can be brought forward.

COSMOGONY.

Dr. Bradley also read a paper on this subject, assuming as the fundamental principles of the nebular theory, the indestructibility of matter, the existence of ether filling all space, by or from which are developed all forces, and these like matter, are eternal, and all their modifications consist in varying the forms of undulations of ether. The inconceivable attenuation of the molecules of nebulae, find a counterpart in air, which though so distended, defies the philosophers to create a vacuum.

HOW THE NEBULE WERE FORMED.

Astronomers tell us that the solar system is rapidly moving in space, making a great revolution occupying billions of years for its completion, around the star Alcyon in the Pleiades. Is it not reasonable to suppose that, at some time, there should be a great astral winter, and again after the lapse of billions of years, an astral summer with a temperature many degrees higher than that required to gasify all matter or resolve it into nebulae? When in this state, the opposing forces, gravity and heat, would balance each other, and matter would be in a state of quiescence. But the mass is moving to a colder region, and gravity begins to act, contracting and drawing the molecules to a common center.

SOLAR SEGREGATION.

When a fluid is poured through a funnel rotation takes place: so it will be whenever a fluid, elastic or non-elastic, is gathered toward a center. In this case rotation begins, and continues with an accelerating velocity, an equatorial belt swells out, and thus an oblate sphere is formed. Condensation from cooling renders the exterior matter less mobile, the specific gravity is increased, the centripetal equals the centrifugal force, or force of gravity, and a ring is formed, which finally detaches itself, leaving the interior part to repeat the process: thus ring after ring is thrown off, till the sun has reached its present dimensions. Each of these rings still revolving, gradually contracts in volume, its diameter remaining the same, till another separation takes place, the inner portion collected revolving within an orbit. We note the rings of Saturn as proof of this hypothesis.

METEORS.

Satellites and the asteroids, were in like manner formed, but comets are due to the agency of the tangential force aided by heat, being thrown off from primaries, secondaries, or comets themselves, and may we not suppose some small comet performing its round every thirty-three years, which gives off a little spray at each perihelion passage, causing the tricennial meteoric displays?

THE SUN'S SPOTS.

As seen through the telescope, the spots are continually

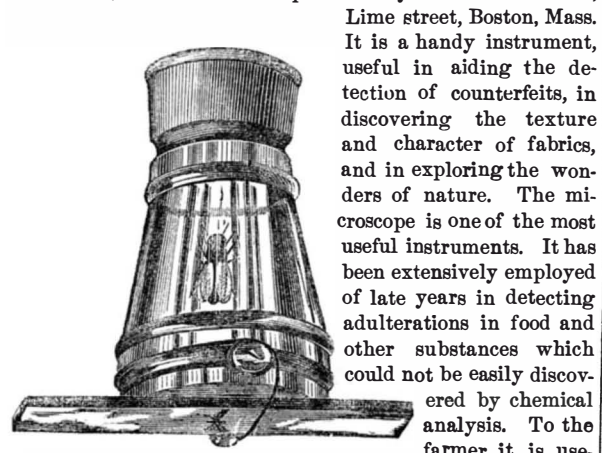
changing, and show all the signs of mobility characteristic of masses floating in a molten liquid, and melting and sinking away. To credit the fanciful notions often received to account for these spots would prostrate the doctrine of the conservation of force and undulations of ether. The hypothesis I would advance in regard to these spots, is based upon the assumption that they are the manifestation of an effort on the part of nature at incrustation. When molten matter crystallizes, it is lighter than the molten mass and floats upon it, but when the crystalline mass is cooled, it contracts and tends to sink.

Suppose a crystalline mass of the sun's surface, cooling on its upper surface, and enlarging on its lower, till the increasing specific gravity causes it to plunge beneath the surface of the molten mass.

Following Dr. Bradley, Professor Stevens made some interesting remarks upon the gold fields of North Carolina, explaining also the geological formation where the precious metal is found, and naming the widely-extended districts over which it is scattered. Space this week will not allow any further presentation of the facts brought forward by the erudite Professor.

A CONVENIENT AND CHEAP MICROSCOPE.

The engraving shows a complete microscope, full size and exact form, constructed and patented by O. N. Chase No. 3,



Lime street, Boston, Mass. It is a handy instrument, useful in aiding the detection of counterfeits, in discovering the texture and character of fabrics, and in exploring the wonders of nature. The microscope is one of the most useful instruments. It has been extensively employed of late years in detecting adulterations in food and other substances which could not be easily discovered by chemical analysis. To the farmer it is useful in ascertaining the quality of seed bought, and in studying the structure and habits of insects injurious to vegetation. To the merchant and business man it is an aid in testing the genuineness of bank notes, the quality of cloths, etc., and to all it is a source of elevating and instructive amusement.

This little instrument, although perfect in every part, is retailed at the low price of one dollar. [See advertisement on another page.]

THE MANUFACTURE OF COTTON--THE MAKING OF ROVING.

In previous articles we have followed the cotton through the first cleansing and straightening processes. In all these it has remained only a soft, woolly filament, known as "cotton," or "cotton wool," an expressive although contradictory term. As it left the drawing frames it was merely "cotton wool," differing from its raw state in that it was cleansed and its matted fibers straightened and brought longitudinally side by side, and cohering somewhat by the pressure to which it had been subjected. It has in this state very little tenacity, having received no twist, except that in some factories the cans that receive it from the last drawing frames have a slow, rotary motion, giving it a very slight curve on its exterior surface. As it comes from the last drawing it is a cylindrical ribbon, about an inch or an inch and a quarter in diameter. Its weight, in comparison with its length, is noted and regulated at almost every step in its progress, so as to insure a certain grade of yarn.

After being put into this form the cotton is to be made into "roving" or "roping," as a preliminary to being spun into yarn. For this purpose some of the most ingenious machines ever invented are employed. The "fly frame" is one of the most remarkable machines used in this or any other manufacture. The drawing is fed in between rollers precisely as in the drawing frames, which have varying speeds, so that while the first course merely takes and delivers the cotton to the next, these, revolving faster, attenuate the cotton ribbon and deliver it to the third or front set, which receive it at a further increasing speed. By this means the fibers are more and more straightened. On the front of the machine are spindles, each one directly under the delivery of the cotton. The top of each spindle is furnished with a fly, having two dependent legs, extending down on each side of a bobbin. One of these is hollow and the other solid, the use of the last being merely that of a counterbalance. The cotton is introduced at the top axis of the fly, which is hollow, and traverses the pipe arm, from which, at the center, it winds on the bobbin. Of course, the supply delivered by the rollers is exactly proportioned to the speed of the fly spindles. The bobbins rotate with the spindles, while the flies rotate outside of them, and they have also a gradual reciprocating motion inside the flies, being carried up and down to wind the product evenly in concentric spirals on the bobbin. Beside these two distinct motions, the bobbins have a gradually retarding velocity as they are filled, as it may be supposed that if, when three inches in diameter, they revolved as fast as when only one, they would strain and break the slightly twisted cotton. In this provision for a gradually decreasing speed is seen the ingenuity of the inventor. We cannot, without numerous diagrams and a lengthy description, explain the operation of this very remarkable de-

vice. The fly frame is, all things considered, one of the greatest triumphs of mechanical skill.

There is another machine, much simpler, and which has, to a great extent, superseded the fly frame. It is known in this country and in Europe as the "Taunton Speeder," from the residence of the inventor, Mr. William Mason, of Taunton, Mass., a mechanic to whom the cotton manufacture is more indebted, probably, than to any other since the days of Arkwright. This machine is very simple, and altogether different from the complicated fly frame. It takes the drawing between sets of rollers precisely as does the fly frame, but the bobbins are run horizontally and rotated by rollers, on which they revolve. Being moved by their circumferences, their peripheries, of whatever size, run at a uniform speed. Therefore, the complicated mechanism of the fly frame for graduating the speed of the bobbins' revolution, is unnecessary on the "Taunton Speeder." The twist, which on the fly frame is insured by the rotation of the flies outside the bobbin, is effected on this machine by an endless belt that rotates rapidly the guiding tubes of the cotton as it comes from the drawing rollers of the machine. But while on the fly frame, using bobbins with heads like flanges, which give the same length to each successive layer of the "roving," the reciprocating movement—up and down—is equal throughout, by the process on this machine each successive layer is shortened, until the top layer is as much shorter as the circumference of the filled bobbin is greater than that of the empty core; so that the filled bobbin is a central cylinder, and the cotton forms on it a larger cylinder, the ends of which are frustrums of cones.

The product, as thus wound upon bobbins or cores, is in the condition called "roving," ready now for being spun into yarn. In this state it is a filament of cotton, cylindrical in form, and, perhaps, about the size of a common straw. The cotton has been almost entirely changed in texture and, to the superficial observer, in nature. The matted and snarled fibers, as they came from the cotton field and the press, are straightened, arranged in parallel form, and stretched. All these operations of cleaning and arranging by the "willower," "picker," "cards," "drawing frames," and "speeders," may be regarded as preparatory to the ultimate use and value of cotton as a material for textile fabrics. The operation of converting the soft cotton into obdurate yarn, possessing tensile strength and rigidity, by spinning, must be considered in another article.

Micro-Photo-Sculptures.

Some very curious applications of this photo-medallion process are described in the *Photographic News*. They consist in what are termed "Micro-Photo-Sculptures," or enlarged images in bas relief of microscopic objects, the material being plaster of Paris. Nothing can exceed the delicacy, sharpness and perfect rendering of these reliefs, which give practically an enlarged model of the original object. The tongue of a cricket is the most perfect of those before us; the tongue of a fly is also exceedingly good; a flea is from a somewhat imperfect negative, and lacks crispness; but this is in nowise due to the process. The perfection of the modelling depends, of course, on the perfection of the definition in the negative; and the amount of relief, other things being equal, on the intensity of the negative, although this may be considerably modified by management in the manipulation. Those before us are on round tablets about three inches in diameter, the amount of relief resembling the thickness of a skeleton leaf.

The result is exceedingly beautiful, and it is probable that the principle upon which they are produced will find other applications. It is only necessary to remark that it is imperative that the subject to be produced should be semi-transparent, and admit of being photographed by transmitted light, so as to secure the relations of form in a relief so produced.

Time and Longitude.

The determination of exact data on this subject can now be effected by careful experiment through the Atlantic cable and connecting telegraphic lines. Mr. Dean, of the U. S. Coast Survey, is engaged in this duty. The telegraph offices from Valentia, Ireland, to Chicago and New Orleans have been put in connection for time, but San Francisco had not been reached at the present writing, the California wires having been down. The results blunderingly reported through the daily papers (after turning some of their P. M.'s into A. M.'s and *vice versa*) approximate closely to the results of the old rule applied to the longitude of our common maps. The time at Valentia, Ireland, being 5h. 9m., P. M., that of Heart's Content, Newfoundland, was 2h. 8m., P. M.—difference, 3h. 1m.—and that of New Orleans was 11h. 50m., A. M.—difference, 5h. 19m. That of New York (not given) would have been in the neighborhood of 4h. 25m. earlier than Valentia, or 12:44 o'clock. The exact adjustment of chronometers and determination of the time lost in transmission, must be approximated by repeated and nice experiment. Mr. Dean estimates that each single flash is transmitted in thirty-five hundredths of a second. The methods of comparing time may be various. One way would be to have all stations successively mark a concerted hour—say 12 M.—by a single flash through the cable, after giving notice one minute beforehand. Or, better still, stop watches being employed at every station, all might be stopped at the same instant by a concerted signal, and the time recorded within a fraction of a second.

LARGE STEEL ROLLERS.—The largest steel rollers ever made in this country were manufactured at Waterbury, Conn., for the Royal Mint of England. They were 14 inches diameter, of solid steel and hardened, intended for rolling the precious metals.

Correspondence.

The Editors are not responsible for the opinions expressed by their correspondents.

The Power of Steam.

MESSRS EDITORS:—The position taken on page 22 of the present volume, in relation to the "power of steam" is not a proper one for obtaining the true power of steam. The views there advanced are correct when steam is generated against the resistance of the atmosphere, but it is a great mistake to compute the power of steam from such data, as they have no general application in determining the power of steam.

The power value of steam varies with the pressure at which it is generated. For instance, in the calculation on page 22, a cubic inch of water is employed, and being converted into steam against the pressure of the atmosphere gives a return of 2,000 foot lbs. of work; but if the same amount of water were vaporized in a closed boiler and under a higher pressure, it would give a larger return in work, or power.

I am a warm admirer of Professor Vander Weyde's ability and varied scientific attainments, but in this instance I beg leave to call the gentleman to order. The error is an important one, and if not universal it is a too common one, and should be corrected.

To realize the full power of steam is beyond the present reach of science. The steam engine, to be absolutely perfect, should generate steam at a pressure of 25,500 lbs. to the square inch, with a temperature of 1,000° above the boiling point; and no expansion should be allowed to take place before the water has received heat enough to give it a vaporous form (supposing no work other than overcoming the resistance of the atmosphere is performed); and then steam would be generated under the most favorable circumstances which the case will admit of. The following would be the result, under these conditions, if a cubic inch of water were employed.

To vaporize a cubic inch of water, thirty-six units of heat are required, and if the water is vaporized under the pressure of the atmosphere, 2,000 foot lbs. of work will be the result: but if the cubic inch of water is confined in a boiler, so that no steam can form until after the whole thirty-six units of heat have been imparted to the water, then, when the water is allowed to take the form of steam, the lifting operation will begin with a force of 25,500 lbs., instead of 15 lbs., as in the former case; and the amount of power developed will be 6,797 foot lbs., instead of 2,000. In the case where the greater result is obtained, one-quarter of the heat is annihilated by the work done, and the expansion in this case ends at 1,275 volumes, instead of 1,700, as in the other case.

If the steam engine were absolutely perfect, it could return but 193 foot lbs. of work for each unit of heat expended in making steam; or return only one-fourth the amount of work which the mechanical equivalent of heat calls for. I have expended much time in inquiring into that mysterious and fearful gap which exists between present practice of motors, and what theory establishes as the actual power of heat; and I will say that it is a curious and interesting fact that a prolonged and laborious study of the subject gradually leads into, and finally ends in, *electricity*, and establishes the fact that electricity is the only element or vehicle which is capable of giving the full power of heat. Such a study also develops the reasons why different vehicles for converting heat into power, do give a like return in work; and there is beauty, order and consistency existing among the vehicles throughout the entire field, when we come to understand the reasons why they differ. Electricity is the beacon toward which the sails must be trimmed to reach perfection in motors. Our present methods of generating electricity are but crude, miserable contrivances, compared with what they will be at some future time; and Professor Tyndall, one of the leading scientific men of the day, but reiterates this when he says of electricity, that *we know nothing about it*. Some entirely new and radical method of generating electricity will yet be found, which will set civilization agog, and rejoice and lighten the hearts of millions. This is the conclusion that I have arrived at, after having followed the subject during available hours, which if brought together into working days, would make one year of constant application. The true method for generating electricity is the problem for the times: present methods must be departed from. Great improvements in thermo-electrics, in my judgment, are yet to be made.

NEW YORK, Jan. 8, 1867. F. A. MORLEY.

Permeability of Metals.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—In No. 24, Vol. XV., you have an article on the "Action of Acids on Steel." So far as said article refers to the case spoken of by your correspondent, F. L. K., I think that both your reason and his, for the peculiar effect on the steel wire, are probably incorrect. Some months ago I saw in one of our shops some sheets of zinc which had been tinned in a peculiar way, but I did not ascertain how it was done. I did not inquire, but it appeared to have been tinned by rubbing on a mixture of mercury and tin. The workmen on cutting it discovered that it was very brittle, and ceased using it. A strip taken in the fingers and bent would break up into pieces almost as easily as a piece of pie crust. I suppose that the zinc being very thin (No. 9) the tinning had penetrated, comparatively, to a great distance, and the sheet, instead of being a sheet of zinc with tin outside, was a sheet composed throughout of zinc and tin and perhaps mercury too—being entirely changed in its nature.

In coating one metal with another, the metal coated must be penetrated by the coating metal to some extent, perhaps to one fiftieth of an inch, and if the sheet is only one fiftieth of an inch thick, of course the coating will go entirely through.

Another case, In making milk strainers with wire gauze

bottoms we first tin the brass wire gauze, not with chloride of zinc, but with sal ammoniac: but if the soldering iron is accidentally too hot, we melt the brass wire, showing that a new mixture of metals is formed by coating the fine brass wire with solder; for it would take a much higher heat to melt the brass wire alone. The same thing takes place in tinning zinc with a soldering iron.

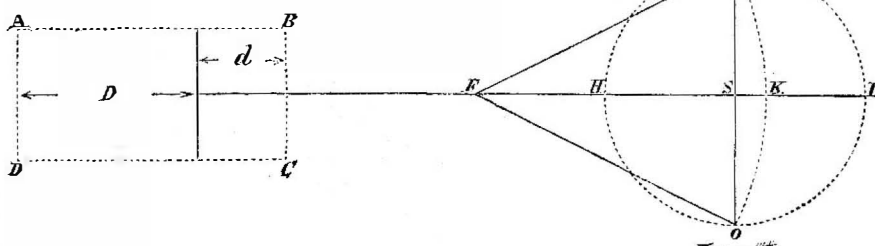
These facts lead me to think the peculiar results spoken of by F. L. K., are due to the tinning and not to the acids.

H. W. S.

"Position of the Piston when the Crank is Vertical."

In an article under the above title in the last number of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, a correspondent makes the following singularly reckless assertion:—"The truth is, no formula can be given for all cases."

It is proposed to show that a formula *can* be given for *any* and *all* cases; a formula which is perfectly simple, requiring no trigonometrical computations, and which is within the comprehension of any schoolboy.



Let A B C D be the cylinder, E F, the connecting rod, S F, the crank, and H E L O, the circle described by the crank pin. Put C=connecting rod.

- c=crank.
- D=distance of piston from outer end of cylinder when the crank is "vertical."
- d=distance of piston from inner end of cylinder when the crank is vertical.

Conceive the connecting rod disconnected from the crank pin and revolved about E as a center, until it assumes the position E K. Then H K will be equal to the distance, D, of the piston from the *outer* end of the cylinder, and K L will be equal to the distance, *d*, of the piston from the *inner* end of the cylinder.

$$\text{Now } HK = HS + KS = HS + EK - ES.$$

But $HS = c$, $EK = C$, and $ES = \sqrt{EF^2 - FS^2} = \sqrt{C^2 - c^2}$. Therefore, substituting these values, we get

$$D = c + C - \sqrt{C^2 - c^2} \tag{1}$$

Again, the distance of the piston from the *inner* end of the cylinder, at the same instant, or when the crank pin has arrived at O, will evidently be

$$KL = LS - KS = LS - EK - ES.$$

Substituting for LS, EK, and ES their values as above, we have:

$$d = c - C + \sqrt{C^2 - c^2} \tag{2}$$

The difference between D and d, as given by (1) and (2), is:—

$$2[C - \sqrt{C^2 - c^2}] \tag{3}$$

If we suppose C to become infinitely long, the value of $\sqrt{C^2 - c^2}$ will be come equal to C, and the difference between D and d will reduce to zero; and the piston will be at the middle of its stroke when the crank is "vertical."

It will be observed, therefore, that the longer the connecting rod the smaller will be the difference between D and d, and *vice versa*.

Example.—Let $c = 2.5$ feet, and $C = 10$ feet. Then from (1) we have

$$D = 2.5 + 10 - \sqrt{100 - 6.25} = 2.82 \text{ feet.}$$

(3) gives as the difference between D and d, $2(10 - \sqrt{100 - 6.25}) = 0.64$ of a foot:

hence

$$d = 2.82 - 0.64 = 2.18 \text{ feet.}$$

If we make $C = 5$ feet instead of 10, (1) gives us

$$D = 2.5 + 5 - \sqrt{25 - 6.25} = 3.17 \text{ feet:}$$

while (3) gives, for the difference between D and d,

$$2[5 - \sqrt{25 - 6.25}] = 1.34 \text{ feet, or more than twice as great as before.}$$

Finally, $d = 3.17 - 1.34 = 1.83$ feet.

d might have been found in each case from (2); but the results would have been the same.

It appears, therefore, that this question is not so difficult after all: and it is clear that a resort to geometrical construction will always require more labor, while the results obtained will be less accurate than those obtained by the simple computations indicated in our formulæ. M.

Mrs. Wood on Snake Charming.

MESSRS. EDITORS: I am not a naturalist, nor yet a hunter, but was greatly interested in a paper entitled "Charming by Serpents," in No. 20, page 316, last volume of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, and would like to add a few incidents that have come under my own notice.

One day in early spring time, hearing an unusual chipping under a cherry tree near the house, I stepped out to see what was the matter. On looking through the fence I saw a

large garter snake, with glaring eyes distended to an unnatural size, and mouth wide open.

A common phoebe bird was rapidly flying—not in circles, but directly up and down from a small twig on the tree—toward the snake. As the bird receded, the snake closed its mouth, opening it again as the bird approached. I noticed a quantity of saliva or foam about the snake's mouth.

In a few moments the "combat" ended, if combat it was. The bird, with eyes as bright as the snake's, made a dive into the mouth of the snake, and was swallowed. I do not think the bird was injured by bites, though I did not examine it.

In this country (California) snakes are larger, more numerous, and of greater variety, than I ever saw at home (New York). Here, they are frequent visitors to the poultry yards, to the great discomfort of young chickens and turkeys: but whether they get possession of them by Mesmer's science, charms, or quarreling, I do not know. That they are swallowed in great numbers is certain. I have seen a large snake, in appearance like a rattlesnake with no rattle, with a good-sized young turkey's foot in its mouth; every time the snake drew or sucked, the turkey would cry out, and then it was perfectly quiet, with closed eyes. On applying a stick to the snake it let go its hold, to make its escape. The turkey seemed tired out, but in a short time was as well as ever.

It may be that snakes never charm. I know that they have never charmed me: they will only do to look at a good way off. It is rather a bold position to take, to tell a story of what one has seen with one's own eyes, that looks as if one believed that snakes do charm, when there is such good authority against the old supposition.

My little daughter, then eighteen months old, was out in the yard, accompanied by her little dog. Hearing him bark violently, I called the child; but receiving no answer, and fearing lest she had fallen into a prospect hole—there were many in that vicinity—I rushed out to find her. The horrible surprise I felt can not be easily imagined. She was standing near the verandah, and but a few steps from her was a great bull snake (so called here) with head erect, and eyes terrible to look at. The dog was barking, and running first toward the snake and then toward the door: his every motion was delight when I came, as I think, to the rescue. The snake did not notice me in the least, but was slowly raising itself from the ground. When I caught the child, the snake fell as though struck. Her body felt like a wilted plant. I thought she had fainted; but she was standing with eyes open, when she came to. She seemed just waking from sleep. I think the strange look in her eyes lasted not more than a moment, though it seemed an age. The snake measured seven feet in length, and very large in circumference, in comparison to its length.

I do not say there was any charm about it, but I think it a queer performance. MRS. R. E. WOOD.

Our Cosy, Napa, Cal., Dec. 12, 1866.

[It was a queer performance, indeed, and the facts as narrated appear to establish the fact that snakes have the power to fascinate.—EDS.]

"Shut the Door, John."

MESSRS. EDITORS:—Many of the highest as well as the lowest traits of the human character, are often made known by very simple means. And very important principles in ethics, natural philosophy, and mechanics, have been discovered by accidents, incidents and details which are common in domestic life: but who would have thought, in olden times, of consulting with a four-paneled door, as a philosophic and a metaphysical friend, to obtain a knowledge of the hidden mysteries and the general effects of the human mind?

During the last ten years, in the winter season, according to our daily record, we have noticed the manner in which one thousand persons who called for work, have opened, shut or not shut our store door: this, you may say, is a futile and a useless undertaking; but we entertain a very different opinion. What are the facts, and what the deduction?

First, out of the 1,000 persons recorded, 355 opened the door and shut it after them carefully, when they came in and when they went out, without much noise.

Secondly, 226 opened it in a hurry and made an attempt to shut it, but did not and merely pulled it to, when they went out.

Thirdly, 202 did not attempt to shut it at all, either on coming in or going out.

Fourthly, 96 left it open when they came in, but when reminded of the fact, made ample apology, and shut it when they went out.

Fifthly, 102 opened it in a great hurry, and then slammed it to violently, but left it open when they went out.

Sixthly, 20 came in with "how do you do, sir," or "good morning," or "good evening, sir," and all these went through the operation of wiping their feet on the mat, but did not shut the door when they came in, nor when they went out.

REMARKS.—We have employed men out of all the above classes, and during that time have had an opportunity of judging of their merit, etc.

The first class, of 355, were those who knew their trade, and commenced and finished their work in a methodical manner, were quiet, had but little to say in their working hours, and were well approved of by those for whom we did the work. They were punctual to time, and left nothing undone which they had been ordered to do. They did not complain about trifles, and in all respects they were reliable men, and were kind and obliging in their general conduct.

Class the second, 225.—These were not methodical in their work, had much to talk about, were generally late, but were willing to quit work early. They were always in a hurry when we overlooked them, but they did not do as much work in the same time as class the first, and often left little things unfinished, and if they were told of it, would make many trifling excuses, but highly extol their own abilities.

Class the third, 202.—These were negligent in personal appearance and in their work. They talked much about their own good qualities, and were better acquainted with the business and domestic habits of their neighbors than with their own. They always belonged to the temperance society when first set to work, but in a few days afterward their breath would smell more like an old rum cask, than that of human beings. These men were not steady at their work, were always short of money, and could not be relied on in regard to truth and honesty.

Class the fourth, 96.—These were careless in their manner of work, committed many errors, but when they were pointed out to them, would apologize most willingly: soon forgot particular small items; were tenacious of their own rights, but not very nice about the rights of others: still, there was something pleasant in their manners at first sight, but they did not improve on further acquaintance. They required much watching and often talked about what they had done and what they had been, what they could do and what they intended to do, but they seldom did any thing properly.

Class the fifth, 202.—These were of a strong, nervous temperament—always in a hurry—little order and method in their work, often met with accidents, and often got themselves into difficulties by their hasty proceedings: otherwise, they were kind and willing to oblige, but the promises they so hastily made were soon forgotten.

Class the sixth, 20.—These were better dressed than the others, but were not good workmen, as they had tried many things, but had not mastered any one in particular. Their politeness was artificial, and one day was often sufficient to expose their deception. Innocent and small impositions seemed to be their legitimate business. They were too ignorant to blush at their own folly, and too proud to acknowledge their own faults. They were vain in the extreme, and unreliable.

REMARKS.—Whether these rules are applicable to all trades, professions and classes of men, I do not know, but I am thoroughly acquainted with the facts above stated, and also with the traits of character I have there described: therefore I leave the reader to make his own deductions.

JAMES QUARTERMAN.

New York City, January 5, 1867.

Extraction of Oils with Petroleum Naphtha.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—In an article on perfumery, which I wrote for your valuable paper last spring, I recommended the use of petroleum naphtha for the extraction of oils, showing its advantages over other solvents or other means of separating the oils.

Lately Dr. Volh, in Cologne, has experimented in the same direction. As he came to similar conclusions with myself, I herewith give you his observations on this theme.

The usual method of extracting oils from vegetables, especially seeds, consists in a strong pressure after previous diminution by grinding. This mode extracts a number of substances from the seed, which produce rancidity of the oil or impart to it an unpleasant flavor, thereby impairing or completely destroying its utility for the table, while they by no means improve its value as a lubricator or for burning.

Among the first innovations upon this method was the attempt to extract oil with alcohol, ether, etc. These agents were soon laid aside on account of their limited solvent power and the faulty construction of the apparatus used in the experiments.

The introduction of bisulphuret of carbon into the market at a low price soon brought this substance into use for extracting oils from seeds, wool, etc., although its use is attended with many disadvantages, among which may be mentioned the decomposition of the bisulphuret by causes little studied as yet, producing a deposit of sulphur which imparts to the oil an unpleasant sulphurous odor and taste. The bisulphuret further dissolves, beside the oil, a resinous substance which on exposure to air soon produces rancidity and injures the quality of the oil for the purpose of lubrication.

During saponification such oil spreads an unpleasant odor, which it also imparts to the soap, together with the undesirable property of affecting the colors of metals which may be washed with it, as silver spoons, etc. Sometimes painted wood, doors, etc., are washed with such soap. If the paint contains lead, the change of its color to black will be no credit to the washing. The pressed seeds form moreover valuable feed for cattle, while seeds exhausted with bisulphuret of carbon are disagreeable to them from their offensive flavor.

The properties which a solvent for oils should possess, may then be said to be the following:—The solvent should be completely volatile and easily separable from the fat oil by distillation. It should not be decomposed during extraction of the oil or during distillation, or if decomposed it should not deposit any substance that dissolves in the oil and injures its quality. It should not dissolve any substance injurious to the quality of the oil. It should be cheap and procurable in large quantities.

My experiments have demonstrated that the Canadol, a volatile light hydrocarbon produced from Pennsylvania and Canadian petroleum, possesses all the properties mentioned, and is therefore especially adapted for the extraction of oil.

A consideration of the first importance is the complete removal of sulphur from the hydrocarbon. For this purpose the

treatment with sulphuric acid and bichromate of potash, or with sulphuric acid and peroxide of manganese, should not be omitted. Before using the canadol it should always be tested for sulphur.

Pure canadol has a specific gravity of 650 to 700 at 60° Fah. It boils at 127° Fah., evaporates completely, without leaving a residuum, is neutral and of a pleasant, ethereous odor. This substance behaves differently from other similar hydrocarbons toward fatty oils. Tar oils, benzole, etc., dissolve oils as well as resins produced by the oxidation of the former, and are therefore largely used for removing grease spots from clothes. The canadol, on the contrary, dissolves the unchanged fats and oils with facility and in large quantities, while it exerts very little or no influence upon dried or resinified oils, as well as resins and gum resins. Amygdaline and sinapine (sulpho-sinapisine or sulpho-cyanate of sinapine), contained in many oil-bearing seeds, especially the brassica varieties, are also insoluble in canadol. The yield of oil by this mode of extraction is 6 to 7 per cent greater than in the extraction by pressure, this amount remaining in the latter case in the residuum used as cattle feed.

The oil extracted by canadol is of a bright golden yellow, almost tasteless, and without odor. Its liability to become rancid is very slight, while its freezing point is as low as 18° below zero. It requires no further purification for table use. The canadol, charged with the oil, may be filtered through bone black before its distillation from the oil, when the latter will become almost colorless.

The manipulations on a large scale, in order to be successful, should secure a complete comminution of the seeds, which should then be treated with the extracting solution at its boiling point. The extracting medium should be separated completely from the oil as well as from the refuse seeds. The refuse yields, to boiling alcohol, resin, vegetable matter, and chlorophyll, beside minute quantities of oil. Sinapine may be prepared from it. Mixed with water to a thin mash and heated to 80–100° Fah., it develops ethereal oil of mustard. After treatment with alcohol, no such oil is developed, as the requisite sinapine is wanting.

The action of canadol upon oils is so energetic, that it may be employed for analysis, as it always extracts the oil almost completely, giving results which are at least accurate enough for practical purposes.

The Construction of Wharves.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—In your paper of Dec. 22, I notice that you advocate the construction of piers or wharves on cast-iron pillars, which will allow a free flow of the tides, deposit, etc. This, I think, will be found objectionable, and will have a tendency to cause the deposit to accumulate and fill up the slip or dock much faster than would be the case if constructed so that the tides could not flow under the pier.

Several years since, by an Act of the Legislature of this State, parties were allowed to extend their wharves into the Christiana Creek, provided the wharves were not made solid, but built on piles ten feet apart between the rows, the rows to be placed in the direction of the current. The result has been that the deposit has accumulated under and in front of these wharves, around the piles, so as to make it necessary to extend them into the creek for 80 to 100 feet. There is not now 12 feet of water 100 feet outside of where there was 18 feet thirty years ago. The building of all such wharves has been prohibited by law. GEO. G. LOBBELL.

Wilmington, Del., Dec. 29, 1866.

[The proposal of the New York Pier and Warehouse Company contemplated dredging between the piles.—EDS.]

A Singular Celestial Phenomenon.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—On the night of January 1, 1867, at about 11.15 P. M., I noticed a strange appearance in the heavens. This remarkable phenomenon consisted in a bright bar of light, connecting two stars, which lasted several minutes. On consulting the atlas, I placed the position of the phenomenon in the constellation *Eridanus*. A star of the fourth magnitude, near *Theemim*, was connected with another of the same magnitude (about five degrees southwest), by a bright light resembling that of a comet. From the upper one of the two there was a bright light turned off a little more toward the northeast. The color of the light was about the same as that of the star *Aldebaran*. I wish you would inform me through your columns of the cause of this phenomenon.

J. JULIUS CHAMBERS.

In the Clouds.

The Polytechnic Institute appears to be rapidly going into the clouds, and unless it expels some of its superfluous gas it will soon be beyond the reach of the unassisted eye. The Institute as its name implies was established, or at least we so supposed, to furnish information upon the arts. It did very well for a while, but its members seem to be getting far too learned for the mass of mankind. In this number we present our readers with a conglomerate of a very sapient discussion of the nebular theory, solar segregation, cosmogony etc., which contains some atheistical speculations about the eternity of matter, which may do very well to stimulate the fancy but can afford no substantial good. We invite the gentlemen of the Institute to return to the bosom of mother earth, and to confine their investigations to things more practical. The SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN cannot be made the vehicle for ventilating such absurd nonsense.

CENTALS.—The Chicago Board of Trade have resolved that after the first of March, 1867, other Boards of Trade concurring, all transactions of grain shall be conducted by the cental or 100 lbs.: expressing a substantial instead of an apparent measure of food. It is expected the change will be general throughout the country.

IMPORTANCE OF ILLUSTRATING INVENTIONS.

Thousands of persons who have spent a little money in bringing their inventions prominently before the public, have realized rich harvests thereby. We believe, and have abundance of evidence in support of it, that greater results have been effected to the patentee oftentimes, by having his inventions illustrated in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, at the expense of a few dollars, than by thousands spent in injudicious advertising. It is only subjects of merit or novelty that we will publish in these columns, and to the pages of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN the public refer for the latest improvements.

Patentees who have good inventions cannot over-estimate the importance of having them first illustrated and afterwards advertised in these columns. It will usually pay ten-fold the cost, and has often paid a hundred-fold.

To patentees, and those who wish to have their inventions illustrated in this Journal, the following general directions will be a guide:—

In preparing engravings for publication in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, the use of a model from which to make a design, is preferred. If it is inconvenient, however, to send a model, a well executed photograph, taken from a machine or model, will usually answer the purpose. The Letters Patent should be sent with a statement of the advantages claimed for the invention. After the order is received the engraving will be prepared and published, and the model, patent, and engraving returned by express. For further information address publishers of this paper.

A Pretty Fish.

Mr. Lord, an English traveler, and a clever sensation writer, has just published in London a book on British Columbia and the Pacific Coast, in which among other traveler's tales he gives a lively description of the octopus, in "the Brobdignagian proportions he attains in the snug bays and long inland canals along the east side of Vancouver's Island." The creature is a huge flat disk, with eight long radiating snake-like arms, fringed with numberless suckers, and which it uses like oars in mid-water, like spider legs on the bottom, as climbers on the sides of rocks, as hangers on the rank aquatic vegetation, and collectively as a hand for grasping its prey. These arms are gifted with prodigious strength and lightning-like mobility. The Indians display great skill and daring in hunting the monster in their canoes with long spears.

VARIOUS MINERALS.—We published lately a letter relative to the valuable manganese beds of Arkansas, discovered from geological indications, just before the civil war. To this may be added a more recent discovery of the same kind near Mission Dolores, Cal. Manganese is also mined on San Pablo bay. The rapidly increasing consumption of manganese in the manufacture of Bessemer steel adds greatly to the importance of these developments.—The Tennessee copper mines reopened since the war begin to turn out a large product; impeded however, by the want of sufficient facilities for transportation. Much attention is drawn to the iron veins of that state, by a geological report just published showing very extensive deposits.—The iron of North Carolina is of great value, particularly the mines of Lincoln Co., and the rich deposits on Deep river described by the late state geologist, Mr. Emmons. In the latter region are also found coal, gray and yellow copper, roofing slate, mill stones, and agalmatolite or image stone, a somewhat rare mineral.

CORRECTION OF LOCAL ATTRACTION.—We advise our friend, Captain Forbes, whose interesting communication on this subject we published on page 21 of this volume, to accredit his friend Capt. Martin to the Emperor of Russia. That enlightened potentate has just presented a gold pocket compass set with brilliants, to Mr. A. Smith Jr., of London, in recognition of the value of his mathematical researches into the deviation of the compass in iron ships. As the practical result of the researches of Mr. Smith and the rest of the transatlantic savans, according to Captain Forbes, is *nil*, the Emperor probably conceived a bauble to be the most appropriate reward. But as he is accumulating rapidly a great iron fleet, he would undoubtedly make it a very substantial object to a practical Yankee to cure his compasses, even if he could not so admirably diagnose the disease "in the language of the savans."

FLAVORING OF CANDIES AND PASTRY.—Chemical imitations of fruit and flower flavors have been carried to great perfection by the French of late years. Few persons suspect the poisonous ingredients which they roll as sweet morsels under the tongue, in mixed candies and flavored cakes. It is well to avoid all flavors that are not derived easily, cheaply and abundantly from nature. But even the oil of lemon, in consequence of the large demand for that flavor, was long ago adulterated or supplanted extensively with a vile imitation from turpentine. The fusel oils, which are very poisonous, give us the delicate and agreeable apple, pineapple and banana flavors now so common in candies. Gum drops and fig paste are not made from gum arabic or other valuable natural jellies, since a poisonous but cheap composition has been invented to supply the large demand for those confections. The cheaper candies for the wholesale trade are also colored with villainous stuff, of which arsenic and other poisons are essential ingredients.

PHOTOGRAPHING SHOT IN MOTION.—The feat has been accomplished of taking a photograph of a cannon ball in its passage from the gun when fired. The ball is shown just protruding from the muzzle of the gun. The front of the camera was covered with a revolving disk, with one or two holes so placed in it as to correspond with the line of the lenses when revolved to the proper point. A strong spiral spring

Improved Steam Leach.

It is well known to tanners and persons employed in extracting essences of vegetable substances by decoction, that the processes usually made use of are not effective in eliminating the full strength of the material. The best spent bark—oak and hemlock—still contains more or less of the principle called tannin, which is thus wasted. To effect a more perfect extract and to facilitate the operation is the object of the improvement represented in the engravings. The leach tub may be of metal, or of wood strengthened with hoops and braces, like that shown in the engravings. It is suspended through a floor or a frame, A, at a sufficient height to allow the bottom to swing open for discharging the mass after the leaching is completed.

The bottom is hinged, as at B, and held in place when closed by the catch, C. It is also secured to the top by rods with nuts, and both top and bottom are packed on their rims by suitable flanges of elastic material. The true bottom is furnished with a false bottom of copper or other suitable material perforated with minute holes, as at D, and raised slightly from the inside of the main bottom. This forms a sieve to retain the bark, while the liquid extract finds its way through the fine holes and is discharged at the center through the pipe, E, the bottom being slightly concave, or furnished with radial grooves for channels, converging to the pipe in the center. The top of the tub may be readily raised by means of the line, pulleys and weight as shown.

Figs. 1 and 2 represents the leach in two positions, and Fig. 3 is a sectional view with boiler attached. By this figure the operation of the apparatus is easily comprehended. The tub

is nearly filled with the bark, or other material to be treated, and the top and bottom secured, when steam is admitted through the pipe, F, and rapidly softens the mass. Water is then introduced from near the bottom of the boiler by the pipe, G, and distributed by means of the rose sprinkler over the surface. This combined water and steam quickly permeates the mass; and the decoction filtering through the perforated false bottom is discharged at E. By keeping the steam on continuously and introducing the water at short intervals the best results are obtained, the mass being constantly heated and saturated with steam and hot water. The apparatus appears to be also well adapted for cooking food for cattle, as the work can be done quickly and effectively.

Patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency Aug. 14, 1866, by N. Spencer Thomas, of Painted Post, N. Y., whom address for additional particulars.

Improved Steel-headed Rail.

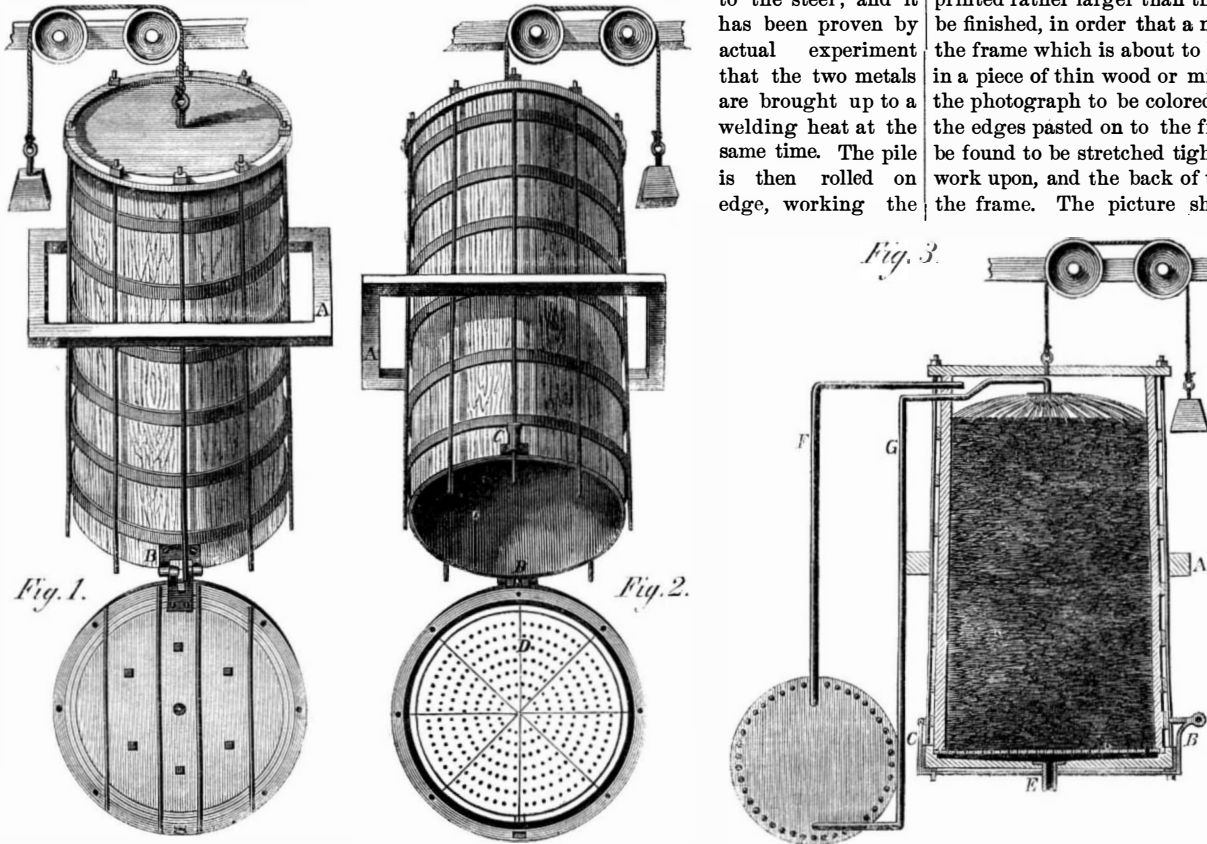
It is generally conceded by railway engineers that Bessemer steel rails will wear about sixteen times as long as common iron rails. If such be the fact, it is a matter of the utmost importance that railway companies renew their roads with steel rails or steel-headed rails as soon as those already in their tracks are worn out. Some of the first engineers in the country have expressed themselves in favor of steel-headed rails, provided the steel head could be welded perfectly to the iron; as in this country the weather is so intensely cold in winter that rails made entirely of steel are very liable to break. It is well known to all that until quite recently steel-headed rails have proved a failure, for the reason that it is such a difficult matter

to heat a rail pile composed of iron and steel according to the usual mode of piling; as the iron requires about double the heat to bring it to a welding state that steel does: consequently either the iron is not heated sufficiently to weld, or the steel is over-heated, which destroys its properties altogether: in either case the rail is unfit for use. As a general thing, the iron is not heated hot enough to weld to the steel, and the result is, that in a few weeks the steel cap separates from the iron, and the rail is rendered worthless.

S. L. Potter, Superintendent of the Wyandotte Rolling Mills, claims to have discovered a plan by which a pile can be made

of iron and steel, and disposed in such a manner that the iron will receive twice as much heat in the furnace as the steel, consequently, they are both brought up to a welding heat at the same time, without injuring the properties of either, and a perfect weld is secured.

By referring to Fig. 1, a section of the pile, it will be seen that a billet of Bessemer or other steel, A, about five inches by four inches—having been previously rolled or hammered from ingots seven or eight inches square—is introduced into the side of an ordinary rail pile, and charged into the furnace with the steel toward the flue, thus protecting the steel with the iron from the extreme heat. As it passes over the bridge from the fire chamber, the heat passes through the iron to the steel; and it has been proven by actual experiment that the two metals are brought up to a welding heat at the same time. The pile is then rolled on edge, working the

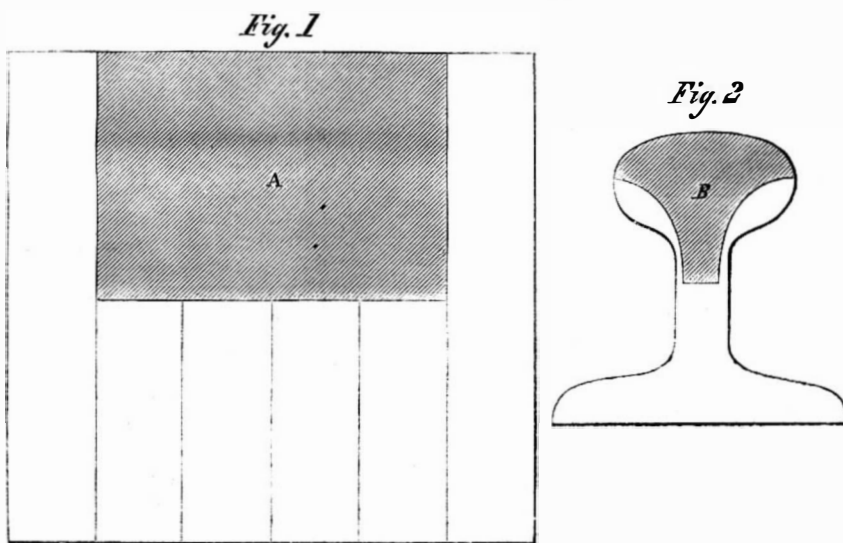


THOMAS'S PATENT STEAM LEACH.

steel in the head. In the first passages through the roughing rolls, a portion of the iron on either side of the steel is worked down in the lower part of the head, allowing the steel to form the head, as shown at B, Fig. 2.

More than fifty different pieces of rails made after this plan, have been subjected to one hundred blows from a two-thousand-pound steam hammer, literally crushing them, without impairing the weld in the least degree. Some of these rails are now in the track of the Michigan Southern and Northern Indiana Railroad, Michigan Central Railroad, and Detroit and Milwaukee Railroad, and have thus far given entire satisfaction. This plan is peculiarly adapted to re-rolling, as the old rails can be rolled into flat bars, then formed into a pile of the iron and steel as shown in Fig. 1. The old rails can at a very moderate cost be converted into a steel-headed rail, one-third of which being steel, and two-thirds iron that will be as durable and much less liable to break in cold weather than an entire steel rail. If it be preferred, a T-shaped piece of steel can be used instead of the square piece, and the same result obtained.

This invention is patented in the United States, England,



PATENTED STEEL-HEADED RAIL.

France, Prussia, and Belgium, all of which patents were procured through the Scientific American Patent Agency. For further information address S. L. Potter, Supt. Wyandotte Rolling Mills, Wyandotte, Wayne County, Mich.

THE differences in metals is surprising. Although copper alloyed so as to come under the term bronze, has been made hard enough to receive and retain an edge, so as to be used for cutting instruments, yet it is softened by being heated and plunged in cold water, while iron and steel is hardened by precisely the same process.

Imitation Ivory Miniatures, Photo-Chromographs, Etc.

A method of coloring photographs intended to be set as brooches or in lockets, in imitation of ivory miniatures, has recently excited great admiration, and has been extensively employed by a few photographers, but, having been kept as a secret by those who have attained a knowledge of the method, it is not known to the general body of photographic colorists. The effect produced is so exactly like that obtained on ivory, that it is only by those who have had great experience in colored miniatures that the difference can be detected.

The method of proceeding is as follows:—The photograph to be colored, which must be on plain salted paper, must be printed rather larger than that part of it which is required to be finished, in order that a margin might be left to paste on the frame which is about to be described. An aperture is cut in a piece of thin wood or mill-board larger than the part of the photograph to be colored; the print is now damped, and the edges pasted on to the frame. When dry, the paper will be found to be stretched tight, exhibiting a smooth surface to work upon, and the back of the part required will be clear of the frame. The picture should now be painted in water

colors, as described in a former part of this work, with the exception that the colors must be more forcible, and the face of the portrait darker than will be necessary in the finished result; the after operation making the picture paler than before the wax is applied.

When the picture is quite finished—and it is well to avoid any further alteration or corrections—melt a little pure white wax in a porcelain capsule, and, holding the picture before a fire, apply the wax to the back with a brush. The picture will appear to darken all over, but will regain its color on cooling. It should now be cut out of the frame and backed with a piece of warm tinted or cream-colored paper. If any alterations are absolutely necessary, they may be made by mixing a little soap with

the colors employed, which will prove effective.

Another method on the same principle, but requiring less artistic skill, consists in coloring very forcibly and rudely one print which is mounted on cardboard. Another print from the same negative, printed somewhat lightly on thin, fine paper, and not toned too black, is made transparent either with wax or varnish made with Canada balsam and turpentine. This is stretched tight upon the face of a good piece of colorless glass, to which it is attached throughout with the varnish. It is then fitted so as to superpose accurately upon the roughly painted copy: the transparent print has the effect of softening and blending all the harsh coloring in the original, and giving a good effect with very little expenditure of skill or time. Care must be taken, however, that while the glass and transparent print superpose accurately, they must not be quite in contact with the roughly colored print: a strip of card must be pasted at the edges of the latter, the thickness of which strip divides the transparent print from the colored one, and gives a great appearance of relief and softness.

Another method on the same principle consists in first making the print transparent with wax or varnish, and then coloring at the back in oil colors forcibly but roughly. The print is then mounted and varnished with mastic varnish, and has the effect of a picture colored in oil.

Another method on the same principle yields, with skill and care, very pretty results, resembling enamel. A print on glass, by the Simpsontype or collodio-chloride of silver process, is produced, and, when dry, is coated with a solution of gelatine with which a little Chinese white from a tube has been mixed. When this is dry, the picture is colored at the back, on this gelatine surface, with either water or powder colors. If with the former, the gelatine surface should be first coated with collodion, to prevent it working up: if with powder, the instructions in the chapter on "Non-inverted Colored Positives" should be followed. A little practice will be necessary to ascertain the depth and tint to be applied, as the result can only be guessed at in course of coloring. When done, a piece of gelatinized paper is pressed into perfect contact with the picture, avoiding air bubbles; this is left to dry, and then the whole is removed from the glass by running a penknife around the edge, and a brilliantly-colored miniature, with an enamel-like surface, is obtained. The glass may be prepared with an almost imperceptible coating of wax dissolved in ether, before it is coated with collodio-chloride, in order to facilitate the whole readily leaving the glass when finished.—*Newman's Harmonious Coloring.*

STEREOCHROMY.—We have given in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN (page 22, present volume) a full account of the process of monumental painting employed by Kaulbach at Munich. We observe that Dr. A. Hill of Norwalk, Conn., has recently patented a process for painting on marble, by which it is claimed that the colors are rendered as durable as those of stained glass; the process being at the same time simple and quickly performed.

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THE CARE OF TOOLS.

We believe—although we are not certain that it is capable of demonstration—that more tools are ruined by want of care than broken or worn out by proper use. It is surprising how easily the man forgets the "bridge that carried him over," how ready even the thoughtful workman is to leave to neglect the tool which has just subserved his purpose. Carelessness in the use of tools is a source of enormous annual expense to manufacturers and others, an expense which, if aggregated would probably surprise even the most observant. On the farm the plow is left in the furrow, the hoe between the rows of corn, the shovel in the pit, the scythe on the tree, and the ax in the log—left to rust and to the liability of accidents. The wood-worker, called away suddenly from the job he is doing, leaves his plane on the board he has been smoothing, to be knocked off by the first passer-by, or allows the auger bit or the saw to remain in the half-pierced timber to be broken by the first swinging board in the hands of the apprentice. The blacksmith leaves his tongs at the vise when he needs them at the anvil, and the machinist drops tap, drill, reamer, or hammer, where last used.

Order is the "first law" in the shop as in heaven, and care, no less than cleanliness, is "next to godliness." Next to the advantage of having a place for every thing is the wisdom of keeping every thing in workable condition. In the machine shop the use of impure oils in drilling, tapping, etc., is an expensive economy. Oil containing mineral or earthy matter is only a grindstone in solution. It cuts and abrades the edges of the tool, while in use, precisely as does the grindstone or buff-wheel. Gummy oils are scarcely less injurious. They add to the friction of the tap or drill and demand increased strength to resist torsion. A "gummed-up" tap or file is almost useless until thoroughly cleaned. The application of warm soapsuds, benzine, or turpentine, will not always remove this gum. In such a case they can be readily cleaned by covering them with oil, turpentine, or any inflammable substance, and exposing them for a moment to a flame until the liquid takes fire; then card or wipe them and they will be found to be in excellent order. Finishing files not unfrequently become clogged, and when the card is useless to remove the "gurry," this process will be found efficient.

Sometimes, also, in filing wrought iron the tough particles of the iron are torn off by the teeth of the file and lodge, producing scratches on the work, and thus impairing the efficiency of the tool. A simple device, which we used for years, that easily and quickly dislodges these clinging particles, is a piece of soft iron wire flattened under the hammer at one end to a chisel point, or disintegrated like a broom and used thus: The point of the file resting on the bench, the handle held by the left hand; then strike across the face of the file, in the direction of the "first cut" teeth, with the flattened end. It certainly and thoroughly dislodges the snags, and the file is ready for work. The wire instrument may have a ring turned at the handle end, or be affixed to a wooden handle. No. 8 wire is large enough.

Turning tools, after being tempered and ground, are frequently left wet from the stone until wanted for use. In this state the keen edge is acted upon by rust, and a re-grinding becomes necessary. If not put at once to the oil stone they should be wiped with oily waste. These little matters are more important than they seem at first sight. A saw or chisel which has been used in unseasoned wood, should be carefully wiped and oiled, otherwise it contracts rust and wears away fast. A new file should not be put upon the scale of cast iron or of unannealed steel, and a file kept for brass or bronze should not be used on a harder metal. Back saws for cutting

iron and other metals are often ruined in inexperienced hands. If drawn forward and back too rapidly they heat and lose their temper, when they become almost useless.

A hundred other instances might be adduced to show the depreciation of tools by neglect and the necessity of paying attention to these "little things." The real economist, however, needs but a hint, while the constitutionally careless are slow to see their errors.

PRESERVATION OF MEAT.

It is a well known fact that lean meat, as beef, for instance, becomes dry, hard, and innutritious by salting. Salt being chloride of sodium, and its chlorine having a great affinity for the soluble portions of the flesh—albumen, fibrine, etc.—it attracts the juices, forming a brine, containing the larger portion of the nutritious qualities, with the elements of phosphoric acid, potash, and other mineral ingredients. As these are removed from the meat so is its fitness for food diminished. When lean meat is subjected to the action of salt, the deliquescent properties of the salt attract the juices of the meat, and the brine resulting contains the mineral bases of the meat—the phosphoric acid, potash, etc.—with the albuminous elements, all being held in the saline solution.

Fat meat, or rather fat itself, is impervious to salt. The outside becomes indurated by the salt, and refuses entrance to the decomposing gases. Still, salt is a solvent, and it assimilates with the substances with which its solvent properties harmonize. If not adapted to its action as a chloride of sodium, readily uniting with the elements of animal substances except the fatty principle, it drains the meat subjected to its operation of its most valuable qualities. The action of salt, it will be seen from these brief remarks, is almost confined to the lean flesh to which it is applied; although, in fact, it is a necessary element in the preservation or preparation of animal food for the market.

In this connection we desire to say a few words as to the management of animals designed for the slaughter house and the market. Animals which have been subjected to considerable fear and agitation before being slaughtered have their flesh relaxed. They have been in just the worst condition to preserve the fat already deposited on their bones, and in just the best condition for them to make good the waste, if offered the opportunity, to which they have been subjected. How necessary it is then, for the cattle brought from peaceful pastures to the abattoirs of the metropolis to have some days of rest, with proper shelter and good food, before being hurried to the shambles.

The albumen, from which waste of exercise or work is to be made up, is exhausted. Why? Simply this. Muscular action is supported and sustained by the decomposition of carbon in the food eaten, and violent exercise, like a high chimney, induces a strong draft. The carbonaceous or life-giving elements burn out rapidly, when either forced exercise is demanded, or the agitation of the mind is allowed to react on the physical organism; and we are among those who believe that mind, or reason, or intellect, exists among the lower orders of animals as well as in the *genus homo*. These animals, then, intended for the slaughter, may, by the exercise or the excitement of driving, or the fear of unknown harm while *in transitu* on the cars, waste the vitalic force stored in the cellular tissues of their fat and be in a collapsed condition, to speak mechanically, when they arrive at the shambles.

A few weeks ago we made a notice of the new abattoir at Commimpaw, and we had something to say as to the matter of bringing meat to market. We then approved of the principle of the management at that establishment, especially in regard to its humanitarian tendencies, believing that what is merciful to the beast is merciful to the man, thereby reversing the form of the old saw: "A man that is merciful to his beast, is merciful."

In fact in this preservation of animal food for human consumption there is involved a law of nature. We have not time nor space to detail the particulars. There is a latent force, or there is a latent heat—in this respect synonymous terms—in all substances, and especially in substances taken by the animal as a part of its organism. Vegetable substances are taken up by grazing animals and as soon as the processes of digestion act, in fact sooner, become a living force in the animal. This force can be expended by violent exercise or by anxiety or trouble, reaching through the sensual or the mental perceptions and affecting the tissues of the physical structure. This may be seen every day. A worried man is never a fleshy man. Swine sometimes refuse to be fatted. They have trouble on their minds. To be made fat they must be free from care and take to their food kindly. Care in their case is dyspepsia. In the case of men, anxiety, producing or at least inducing dyspepsia.

The flesh of wild animals, those we obtain as food, is lean. They are full of anxiety, have no time to get fat, and their meat when salted is not nutritious. Take our domestic animals and they live "in clover," having no care, not harassed nor troubled. They grow fat, and not only put layers of fat over and under the muscles but extend it through the lean tissues. This is the meat, when properly killed, that delights the taste of the epicure and nourishes the frame of omnivorous humanity. We seldom think of preserving the meat of wild animals, especially those which hold their lives by a tenure of grace from unresting enemies, by salt. We view them like fish as fit to be eaten only while fresh. We do not salt down lean animals. Even from the meat of those given to fat we select, the fat for salting, the lean for eating fresh or at most "corning."

Our meat for preservation by salt must be either fat in itself or have fat enough in the lean to neutralize the de-

liquescent quality of the salt and leave us the juices which contain nutriment, otherwise our "corned beef" would be only the whaleman's "mahogany" or the soldier's "salt horse," and we should be subject to the mishaps of the long sea voyagers or the commissaries of the camp.

PATENT LAW OF PRUSSIA.

The recent extraordinary military success of Prussia, and the consequent expansion of her dominions, have attracted great attention in this country. We notice a manifestation of this interest very marked among the large class of our citizens known as inventors. They are making many inquiries of us concerning the patent system of Prussia, which we regret to say does not correspond in its scope and application to the liberal and enlightened character of the past, present or future of the kingdom.

The existing ordinance relative to patents in Prussia went into operation, if our impression is correct, as long ago as October, 1815, and has as little in common with the modern age in spirit as in date. Under it, the tenure of a patent right in Prussia is analogous to that of real estate in Turkey: it can be held only by a subject of that power. Foreigners can obtain no foothold in the kingdom for their ingenuity or enterprise, but in the name of some Prussian and dependent on the equity of a private contract with such representative before the law as they may be able to employ. Furthermore, the patented manufacture must be actually introduced within six months, or the protection is forfeited. These two restrictions operate to deter ingenious Americans from undertaking to procure Prussian patents. The protection is too indirect and uncertain, and the time allowed for introduction is much too short to be of any use in most cases, especially with the more important class of inventions. In the absence of available protection, without which men will not engage in new branches of manufacture, the introduction of many valuable improvements and industries that enrich a nation, is retarded or wholly prevented, to the great detriment of that country. It cannot be that a government so enlightened and enterprising as that of Prussia should remain insensible to the mistake in principle and policy contained in this obsolete kind of legislation. Our own patent system is very liberal, and does not discriminate against inhabitants of other nations unless the laws of those nations discriminate against our citizens. The impulse which has been given to invention in this country since the liberal Patent Amendment Act of 1861, has been truly wonderful. During the five preceding years, from 1856 to 1860 inclusive, the number of patents granted was about 18,000. From 1861 to 1865, inclusive, the number increased to nearly 22,000, and that in the midst of our deplorable war, which shut off nearly one half the states from the privilege of the Patent Office.

It seems most probable that the subject will come before the re-organized German Federal Government of which Prussia is the predestined and acknowledged head. Demands are already put forth through the German press, for a uniform patent system for the whole German Confederacy embracing the following points:

Patents to be issued for fifteen years, securing the article patented to the inventor, his heirs, administrators and assigns; no preliminary examination to be required, and inquiry into novelty or priority of invention to be made only when protest is entered against the application; patents to be refused on general principles, without reference to the particulars of construction or use, excluding such articles as may be opposed to public morals or welfare; no limitation of the period for introducing patented articles; patents to be granted without charge until after a limited period, when the fees will be exacted and will be gradually increased; the Government to have the right of appropriating a patent to its own use by paying a suitable fee to the inventor; aliens and citizens to have equal rights before the German Patent Law, and local laws conflicting therewith to be over-ruled.

CHEESE AS FOOD.

Compared with other people the Americans place but little value on cheese as an article of food. We use it as a condiment, sauce, or side dish, rather than as necessary or proper food. In England, Scotland, Ireland, Wales, and in many parts of continental Europe, it is regarded as a common and sometimes a necessary article of food. There is reason why it should be so regarded. Its composition is very similar to that of flesh, the casein representing the muscular fiber, and the buttery matter the fat portion. Casein is an albuminous substance, useful in building up the muscles, and the buttery matter is a concentrated carbon as useful, in its way, for food as fat meat. The Swiss chamois hunters take on their expeditions among the higher alps, where they remain sometimes for days together, exposed to intense cold and undergoing the hardest of exercise, only a small quantity of cheese and a flask of brandy. The English harvesters live on ale, cheese, bread, and occasionally a bit of mutton. The Germans and Hollanders use cheese as a common article of food.

With some persons cheese is not in favor because of its constipating qualities. Eaten raw it is less so than when toasted or made into the popular dish known as Welsh rarebit. In this form it is scarcely fit for the human stomach. The fatty particles are separated from the albumen and appear simply as liquid oil, while the albumen is changed to a tough, stringy substance, without nutritious qualities and almost as indigestible as sole leather.

Cheese derives a factitious and market value from the districts in which it is produced. The Stilton cheese is a synonym of superior excellence to the English palate, and those who have made themselves acquainted with Teutonic tastes understand well what is meant by Limburger and Switzer

case. But for years past the American cheeses have been growing in favor, not only here, but in England. A late number of the London *Grocer* says:—"The Americans and Canadians are emulating our most successful dairymen, and really choice American and Canadian cheese may now be obtained from those English importers who have made themselves well acquainted with the best sources of supply."

If cheese could be afforded at a fair price as compared with meat, there is no reason why it should not become, in a measure, a substitute, as it seems to be especially adapted to restore the force expended by those whose work is extra laborious and exhaustive; and, indeed, it may be questioned, now, whether it is not as cheap, all things considered, as fresh meats. It is a subject worthy some consideration.

ITEMS OF THE STATE OF IRON MANUFACTURE IN PORTIONS OF THE EASTERN STATES.

One of our reporters has recently made a flying trip through some of the Eastern States, and noticed that in general iron workers appear to be doing well, having orders enough on hand to last some time.

In Hartford, Messrs. Geo. S. Lincoln & Co., an old established and well known house, are doing their usual line of castings and machine tools. Messrs. Lincoln & Co. have built most of the tools for Colt's Armory, and large numbers of milling and other machines for Wheeler & Wilson and various sewing machine factories. Their work is first class, and in the dullest times they have been busy.

Pratt, Whitney & Co., have one of the handsomest and most convenient machine shops in the state, and the proprietors are both known as superior mechanics. They manufacture machine tools of all classes, and also the Weed Sewing Machine. Pratt & Whitney's engine lathes are most excellent machines, and are fitted with a patent attachment for turning tapers without moving the centers out of line with each other, as is the case when the tail stock is set over.

Woodruff & Beach have a lot of orders for stationary engines on hand. They make a strong, substantial, and highly-finished machine. They have built engines for the United States Government, and also for many factories throughout the country. Their engines are fitted with a variable cut-off of Green's patent which gives great satisfaction.

In New Britain, Conn., Messrs. Landers, Frary & Clark have recently erected a large and splendidly appointed cutlery establishment, near the depot, which is now in active operation. The Stanley Works are also about taking up another line of manufacture, for which they have put in one of the Shaw & Justice Hammers. Messrs. Thomas Humason & Beckley are running on their usual class of goods, cast-steel hammers, etc., etc.

In New Bedford, the Gosnold Mills are at work on horse shoes, employing a few men at present. In this town, however, we were much pleased to notice an innovation in the machine line that is creditable to the employer and beneficial in a moral point of view; namely opening a new branch of trade to female labor. These opportunities are so few that it is matter of congratulation that another chance is offered them. The Morse Twist Drill and Machine Company employ twenty-four female machinists in the manufacture of their tools, and we saw them hard at work a few days ago, cheerful and contented. These girls do filing, of a light nature, just as well as men could, and much better than boys who were "so full of the devil," as Mr. Morse stated, that nothing could be got out of them. They earn good wages, are exposed to no bad influences, being in an apartment by themselves, and seemed contented and prosperous. Beside filing they tend light machines, grind drills, and do other miscellaneous tasks. This is certainly much better than being stifled up in a noisome workroom, cramped over a needle for a miserable stipend. We wish our space permitted further mention of this admirable little shop. Mr. Morse is an alive mechanic, takes the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* as a matter of course, and believes in going ahead. He has just built a large addition to his shop, and is prepared to do machine work of all kinds. Mr. Morse is an inventor of a remarkably original turn of mind, and has got up special machines for almost all his work.

In Worcester, Mass., Messrs. L. & A. G. Coes are making their celebrated screw wrenches which they have had in market for many long years. The Coe wrench is an "indispensable institution," as their orders prove conclusively.

Messrs. Ethan Allen are making their celebrated Damascus guns, and also pocket pistols and revolvers. The several machine-tool makers are doing a fair amount of work.

In Winsted, Conn., the scythe and axle makers are doing well. Mr. Hurlbut, axle maker and general forger, informs us that he has no reason to complain.

In Seymour and in various towns along the Naugatuck Railroad we find a fair activity for the season, particularly in cutlery establishments. The axle trade of this country must be something enormous, for we find establishments very busy and more going up. The Aetna Spring and Axle Company are just starting at Bridgeport, and the Spring Perch and Axle Company of that place, some time established, are doing a good business.

New Year's.

J. B. Aiken, of Franklin, N. H., has sent us a nice bundle of warm stockings knit on his patent machine. He also sends us a package of photographs, taken by him last summer in Colorado—being his first attempt in the art. The specimens would do credit to an experienced artist. Another friend in Pittsburg has forwarded some "Old Rye," put up in one of Stoekel's patent graduated bottles. Will the donor be kind enough to inform us what he wishes us to do with the contents?

SHOES VS. SANDALS.—THE CLASH OF ATOMS.

BY PROFESSOR CHARLES A. SEELY.

In the state of nature the feet of man are the least vital parts of his body, and as they were intended to perform heavy service they were endowed with extraordinary powers of endurance. But fashion and art long ago ignored these good designs of nature, and now our feet are proverbially weak and sore. Every one at some time has his corns, or that other disease quite as common, which make his presence hateful to his best friend. Although the feet are not the seat of fatal diseases, yet they are the open portal which invites to the lungs its most terrible enemy. We learn from the ancient poets that the feet were regarded as objects of beauty, but now our feet are so pinched out of shape, that we may search a long time for a well formed foot, unless we go to the ancient statuary, or among the semi-barbarians of the east.

This state of things did not exist in ancient times: if corns had been invented in his time, Job would surely have told us about it. And at the present day the poor Indian of untutored mind knows nothing of our fashionable diseases. Corns and mis-shapen feet are incidents of modern civilization.

Such a statement of the case as this is sufficient to suggest to the minds of most people, the cause and perhaps a remedy. The radical view of the subject is, that the cause is leather and the remedy is sandals: leather obstructs the healthful perspiration and ventilation of the feet almost as effectually as would sheet iron: the feet need no more protection than the hands or the face: down with leather. But I am no radical. The fashion of centuries is too respectable to be dealt with in a violent way. "Nothing like leather" has been too long a household proverb to be forgotten in a day.

It is entirely practicable however, to institute the beginning of reformation without making ourselves obnoxious to the reasonably fastidious. Thus: We may refuse to wear shoes which pinch us or tend to press the feet out of shape, we may prefer thin porous leather, and wear cloth shoes whenever fashion will permit us. And we may think of the reform and reason upon it with our neighbors. In these little ways, we shall strengthen ourselves in the faith and hasten so much of the millennium as pertains to the feet.

In my opinion here is to be a fruitful field for the inventor. I suggest a few problems: How to make leather less unsuitable for shoes: Better ways of uniting cloth uppers to leather soles: How to weave a shoe and attach a sole: The best fiber for a cloth shoe: How to protect the feet from rain and yet secure ventilation: To make a shoe of net work, or of perforated leather.

THE CLASH OF ATOMS.

Prof. Tyndall and others advocate the theory that the heat of combustion and chemical action generally is only the heat of collision or percussion. In combustion of coal, for example, the atoms of carbon and oxygen rush upon each other and thus strike fire. This view of the case involves some very interesting consequences.

One pound of carbon in burning, as determined by experiment, gives out 8,000 units of heat, that is, heat sufficient to raise 8,000 lbs. of water one degree. Now the theory implies that an equivalent amount of force (*vis viva*) has been expended or converted. The mechanical equivalent of 8,000 units of heat is $772 \times 8,000 = 6,276,000$ foot pounds. Now on the supposition that the pound of coal is burned in one minute we have the force represented in horse-power, thus: $6,276,000 \div 33,000 = 187.15$ horse-power. But we know that by pulverizing the coal and burning it in pure oxygen it may be consumed in an indefinitely short space of time. Suppose that the time taken be so long as one second, then the number of horse-power concerned in that time is $60 \times 187.15 = 11,229$!

Yet this calculation gives still a very imperfect notion of the immensity of the force involved in the burning of a pound of coal. The distance through which atoms move to unite chemically is unmeasurably and insensibly small. The velocity which a pound of matter must attain in order to evolve 8,000 units of heat by percussion is $(\frac{1}{772} \times \frac{1}{2} \times 8,000) \sqrt{2} = 3,514$ feet per second. What must be that force which can start matter from a state of rest, and in an insensible space give it such a velocity? What the resistance that instantly destroys the momentum? Gravity, which moves the universe, requires 1,600 feet of space and 20 seconds of time.

OUR STEAM NAVY.

It may be said with some truth that a man's rivals are his true critics. So in nations we learn of our failings from rival nations. We copy a critique on our present steam navy, from *The Engineer*, which embraces a very sensible discussion of a subject that concerns deeply the interests of our country. We may say *en passant* that the management of the engineering department of our steam national marine has offered the opportunity of which *The Engineer* avails itself. There is evident need of improvement, as may be seen by the comparison which the English periodical institutes between English and American vessels.

MARINE ENGINES IN THE UNITED STATES NAVY.

If reliance is to be placed on the reports which reach us from America, it is not only probable but perfectly certain that the efficiency of the new navy now springing into existence in the States, will be seriously impaired by the defective nature of the machinery with which it is being supplied. The American press denounces the Bureau of Steam Engineering—a Government department of which Mr. Isherwood is chief—in no measured terms; and apparently the complaint is not without foundation. It is quite possible that all that is said of the engines of the new fleet is not perfectly true; but the arguments put forward by such of Mr. Isherwood's subordinates as have ventured to defend the practice of their chief are so weak, and the results of practical trials of his

machinery are so inferior to those obtained with the marine engines of the old world, that we are forced to the belief that the tales which are told of official incompetency and the failure of engine after engine are substantially correct. Nor is it to be supposed that engines defective in design and workmanship are supplied to Government ships only by Government officials. Even private manufacturers appear to be singularly unfortunate in their dealings with the American navy. Those are not wanting, however, who with much plain speaking—to use somewhat of a euphemism—assert that the fact is due to the interference of men who are unable to supply good engines themselves, and who are unwilling to be beaten by others. In a word, both the theory and practice of American marine engineering as far as concerns fighting ships is, at present, in an extremely anomalous condition, while the literature of the subject as represented by both the editorial and correspondence columns of the scientific and daily press is simply unique in its character.

Mr. Isherwood's screw engines of the largest class are for the most part similar in type to those of the Miantonomah, already described in our pages. They are back-acting, and so far resemble Maudslay's double piston rod engines, but there the resemblance ceases. They have single piston rods laying hold of a rectangular frame consisting of a crosshead, to the center of which the piston rod is affixed; a cross tail, off which the connecting-rod works; and a pair of round side rods, one of which passes above and the other below the crank shaft. In all this there is nothing remarkable. But the capacity of the cylinder for a given power is very much less than English engineers consider sufficient; while the dimensions of the boilers and the weight of the machinery, taken as a whole, is much greater. Mr. Isherwood does not believe in expansion, and therefore his cylinders are small, because the terminal is nearly as great as the initial pressure. But his boilers are large because he uses steam uneconomically. As an illustration of his most recent practice, we may select the machinery of the *Franklin*, one of those magnificent wooden unarmored frigates intended to steam at a high speed and to carry very heavy guns, with which it is proposed to keep American commerce safe from *Alabamas* in future. Much has been heard of this new fleet in this country, and all that relates to it possesses great interest. We learn from our American advices that the *Franklin* is an enormous ship of splendid model and as strong as wood and iron can make her. It is obvious that in ships intended to act the part of police of the seas, speed is the first essential, yet Mr. Isherwood promised that he would get ten knots! out of her, and it appears more than probable that even this poor result will not be realized. The *Franklin's* machinery consists of two "back-acting"—return connecting-rod—engines with cylinders 68 inches in diameter and 3 feet 6 inches stroke. These are obviously moderate proportions for a ship of the class, and if the boilers were designed in accordance with English practice we should simply say that the vessel was underpowered. But the boilers are designed in accordance with Mr. Isherwood's practice which is sufficiently original. There are four main boilers constructed with vertical tubes under Martin's well known patent, and two superheating boilers of similar construction, the only difference being that very little water is carried in them; the steam being dried in the upper portions of the tubes. Without going into details, for which we have not space here, we may give a fair idea of the steam generating powers of these boilers by stating that they have no fewer than 583 square feet of grate area, and about 14,500 feet of heating surface. Let us compare these proportions with English practice. The *Lord Warden*, of 1,000-horse power nominal, has 700 feet of grate and 19,000 feet of heating surface. Her boilers are designed to supply three cylinders, each 91 inches in diameter and 4 feet 6 inches stroke, the steam being cut off at about one-sixth of the stroke. The displacement per revolution, omitting clearance and waste in ports and passages, being 1219.5 cubic feet. The *Franklin* has, as we have said, 583 feet of grate, and 14,500 of heating surface, intended to supply two cylinders 68 inches diameter and 3 feet 6 inches stroke, representing a displacement per revolution of 353 cubic feet only. Assuming that the engines of the *Lord Warden* are properly designed—and Messrs. Maudslay and Field do not make mistakes—we find that the proper displacement for the cylinders of the *Franklin* would be 1015.66 cubic feet, equivalent to a pair of cylinders of 113½ inches in diameter, the stroke remaining 3 feet 6 inches; or 100½ inches diameter if the stroke were increased to 4 feet 6 inches—that of the *Lord Warden's* engines. The accuracy of the deductions to be drawn from a comparison of these proportions depends, of course, on the piston speeds being the same. Assuming the number of revolutions in the case of the *Lord Warden* to be 60, we have a piston speed of 540 feet per minute. It is not likely that the pistons of the *Franklin* will be run at more than this, which is equivalent for a 3 feet 6 inches stroke to rather over 77 revolutions per minute. It is therefore obvious that her cylinders are out of all proportion too small for the boilers. Indeed they could not possibly work up the steam which the boilers ought to make, were it not that the cut-off valve does not close till the stroke is nearly completed.

It is not in the cylinders alone, however, that Mr. Isherwood's design is objectionable. Catching at the idea that plenty of surface is essential to the life and easy working of a bearing, the chief of the Bureau of Steam Engineering carries out the principle like an amateur, manifesting an utter disregard for the teachings of practice. The bearings of the crank shaft are made half as long again as the longest in use in English marine engines, and as a result they bind and cut. Americans are peculiarly attached to a system of trial which consists in lashing a vessel to quay wall, and then running the engines, usually for a period of seventy two hours. During

