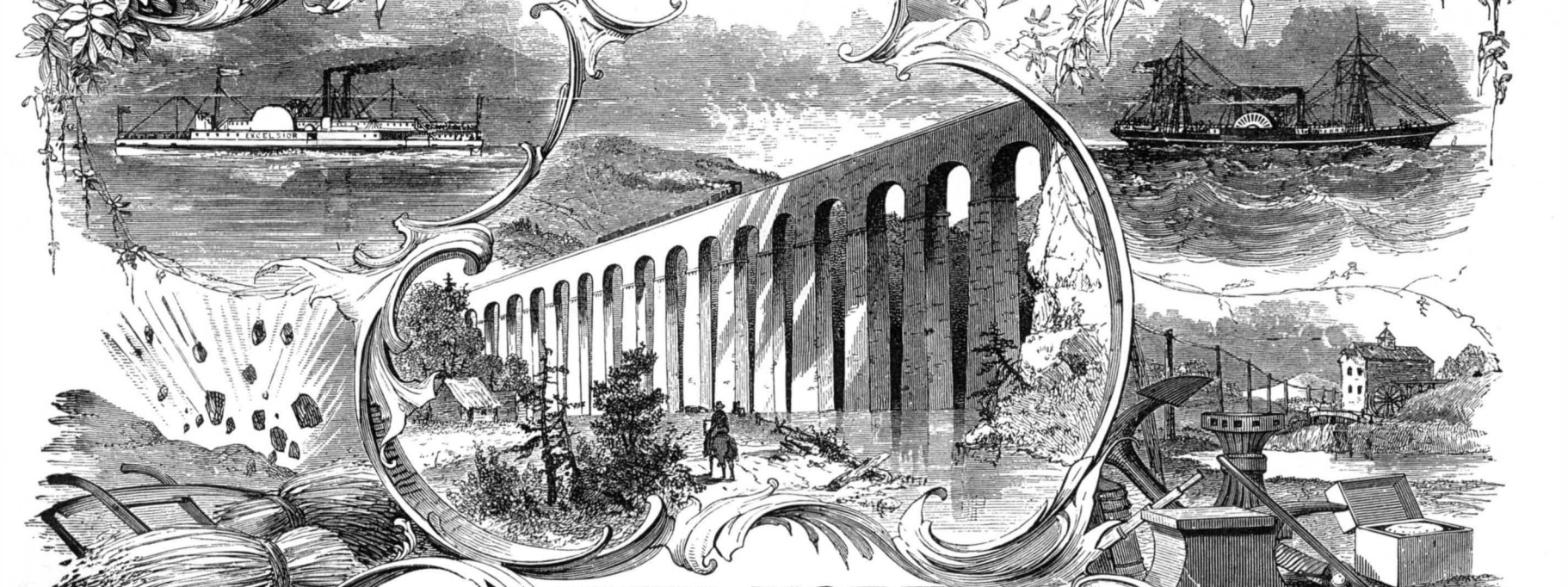


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[NEWSERIES.]

NEW YORK, JULY 3, 1875.

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HOT DRAFTS FOR STEAM BOILER FURNACES.

If cold air be injected into a furnace, it absorbs a large quantity of heat by its great increase of volume by the heat of the furnace; but if the draft be admitted hot, then it is already expanded to a degree corresponding to its increased temperature, and consequently it abstracts a less quantity of heat from the ignited fuel. A saving of fuel, it is evident, may thus be effected in proportion as the temperature of the air is the complement of that in the furnace, provided such air be warmed by the waste heat of the furnace itself. The percentage of fuel gained in each case depends on the degree of temperature of the draft as compared with that of the furnace; in other words, for example, if the heat in the fire box be 2,000°, and that of the alimentary air 300°, then a saving of 25 per cent will be realized. These facts underlie the widespread employment of the hot blast in metallurgical operations. It is the object of the inventor, in the device herewith illustrated, to apply the same, by simple arrangements, to the steam boiler (and in so doing to utilize the heat which is radiated, from the generators as ordinarily set, and so lost, or serves only to render the fire room uncomfortable) to heat the incoming draft. This he does by conducting the air, through suitable compartments, to the boiler setting, and ultimately through orifices under the grate. No modifications of the boiler itself or of the fire box are required, and the system is applicable to any type of generator.

A is the bonnet or outer shell, in the rear upper portion of which is the opening, B, into which the air enters to the chamber formed between said shell and the upper part of the boiler, or the brickwork covering the latter, if the top be arched over. Directly beneath the boiler, in rear of the fire box and in the masonry, are formed transverse flues, C, which open at each end into longitudinal flues, D. These last are simply passages in the bed brickwork at each side, the bottoms of which shelve downward until their outer ends are nearly on a level with the ash pit floor, and finally communicating with the ash pit, as above stated, by suitable orifices a little below the grate.

It will be seen that the chamber, B, and the flues, C and D, are practically one compartment, in which the heat radiated from the boiler, from all sides, is confined by the shell, A. As the air which passes up through the grate traverses the boiler and makes its exit through the chimney in the ordinary way, it is obvious that there will be a constant current entering at B, and having its course as already described, and that said current, through its contact with a large area of hot surface, must become heated to a considerable degree. It may be further noted that this modification of the setting necessitates no change in the ordinary practice of starting fires, as, while the single door which closes both fire box and ash pit is open, the draft will be taken from the outside as usual. The moment, however, the door is closed, the hot draft is established, and, save for supplying fuel or cleaning, there is no need of opening the door while steam is up, as the fire can be easily governed by a damper on the air supply orifice, B. The immediate result is a cool fire room, since but little heat can be radiated into the apartment.

We are informed that thirty boilers have already been set after the plan of this invention, and the testimonials of several well known concerns using them indicate a saving of one third the fuel previously employed. One firm asserts that it uses 4,000 lbs. less of coal per week in a boiler thus set than in a precisely similar generator, placed directly beside the former, but set in the ordinary manner. Other writers bear witness to a similarly large economy. Judging from the general construction of the invention, its application to the boiler need not be costly, since it consists principally of simple changes in the masonry; while its value to all steam

users, if the testimonials above mentioned may be credited, must necessarily be great. The advantage offered of a cool fire room is likewise of especial importance on sea-going steamers, and particularly so upon ironclads of the Monitor type, where the heat is often extremely oppressive and the ventilation inadequate. The invention, we are informed, may be adapted to locomotives, thus utilizing the large amount of heat which is radiated from the boilers, however well they may be felted and lagged.

Patented November 11, 1873. Reissue now pending through

pound allowed to cool. In ten or twelve hours, it becomes sufficiently hard to receive a brilliant polish and to scratch the surface of tin or gold. When heated it is plastic, but does not contract on cooling.

A New Use of the Sand Blast.

The producing, upon plated ware or silver, of a lusterless very finely grained surface, termed by the trade satin finish, has heretofore been accomplished by the use of swiftly rotating brushes made of fine wire. Messrs. Simpson, Hull, & Co., of Wallingford, Conn., have recently found that the sand blast performs this stippling work much more rapidly and effectually, and have introduced the necessary apparatus for its employment in their large silver-plate manufacturing establishment. From Mr. W. E. Hawkins, a gentleman connected with the above concern, we learn that air is compressed by the driving engine of the works into an ordinary reservoir, and thence distributed through pipes which extend along the front of the workmen's tables; and above the latter is a sand receptacle, V-shaped, from which a stream of sand falls, and is met by a downward blast from the pipe, which current drives the material in a stream through a small hole in the table, beneath which a receptacle to receive the sand is placed. The workman, whose fingers are covered with rubber to protect them, holds the article in the jet and

under the table, watching it through a pane of glass let into the top of the latter. The operation is necessarily very rapid, as the article has only to be turned so that the blast strikes the required portions, when the work is completed.

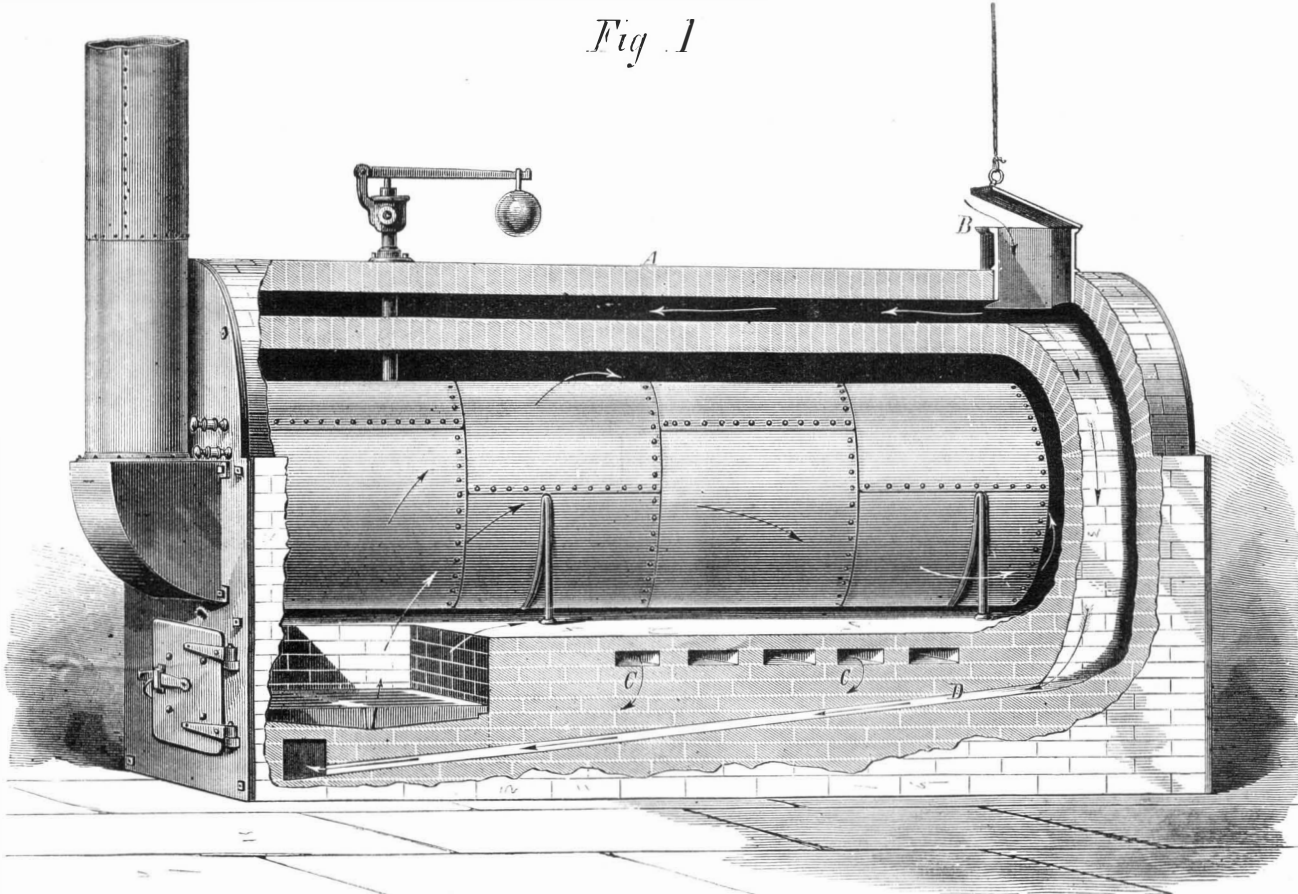
The exposure to the jet, even for an instant, would cut through the Britannia, upon which the plating is afterward deposited. By the interposition of rubber screens of suitable shape, against which the sand has no abrading effect, any fancy patterns or letters are easily imprinted on the surface, the latter of course being satin-finished, while the spaces protected by the screens are afterwards burnished. The screens or patterns are cut out by girls, of whom numbers are employed for that purpose.

Twisting Iron by Electricity.

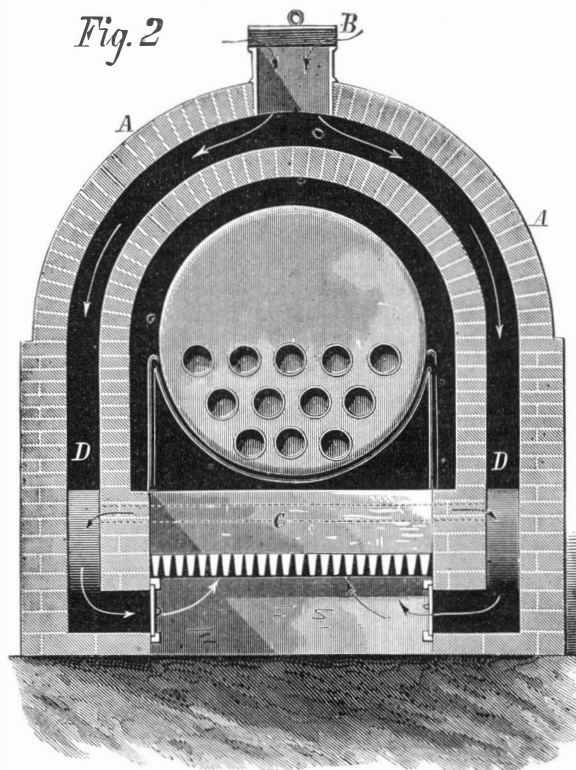
The remarkable phenomenon, first observed by Professor Gore, which consists in the very perceptible twisting of a bar of iron by the joint effects of currents of electricity passing longitudinally through and also around such a bar by means of the insulated wire of an enveloping helix, has been further investigated. Subsequent experiments have shown that such twisting may be made to reach fully one quarter of a revolution. It has also been ascertained that both currents are necessary to the development of the phenomena. Either current, when applied separately, simply produces the effects of magnetizing the bar. The direction of the twist is definitely related to the direction of the current in the helix. In order to produce the fullest effect, the currents must be simultaneous. When they are successive, a perceptible twist results in a lesser degree.

BENDING HEAVY IRON.—It is now possible, by the aid of hydraulic machinery, to bend iron shafts of 12 inches in diameter to any desired shape. Incredible as this statement may seem to some, crank shafts are now so made, instead of by the slow, laborious, and expensive method of forging. The bent shafts are also said to be much better than forged ones, from the fact that the fiber of the metal runs in one direction continuously, whereas in forged one it is often across the line strain.

IRON IN THE CENTENNIAL BUILDINGS.—The quantity of iron to be used in the construction of the Centennial buildings will aggregate about 6,000 tons, of which more than five sixths will be wrought



KEYES' IMPROVEMENT IN STEAM BOILER SETTING.



the Scientific American Patent Agency. For further particulars, address the patentee, Mr. Samuel Keyes, Bennington, Vt.

Copper Alloy that will Adhere to Glass.

The following alloy of copper will attach itself firmly to surfaces of metal, glass, or porcelain: Twenty to thirty parts of finely blended copper (made by reduction of oxide of copper with hydrogen or precipitation from solution of its sulphate with zinc) are made into a paste with oil of vitriol. To this seventy parts of mercury are added and well triturated. The acid is then washed out with boiling water and the com-

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NEW YORK, SATURDAY, JULY 3, 1875.

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CREMATION IN THE HOUSEHOLD.

For several weeks past, the daily papers of this city, how ever diverse their views on the currency, the tariff, and the next election, have exhibited a delightful unanimity in condemning the method employed in filling in the Harlem flats. Indeed, they have made such an outcry that at last the Board of Health have shown a little interest in the matter, and have applied disinfectants in some of the worst localities.

Our readers may depend upon it that the nuisance created by using garbage for filling in sunken lands was one of unusual magnitude, as it united all the daily papers in condemnation. As a general thing, when one of the great dailies of this city makes a discovery of local corruption or incompetence, all the other papers hold aloof and have nothing to say about it. It is only when the discovery is one of very great importance that the other papers consent to take part in its discussion and thorough development. For instance, if a contractor, in filling a tract consisting of three or four lots, should skillfully mingle a quantity of garbage with the earth and ashes, it must be difficult to excite much popular indignation at his conduct. It is, of course, a happy circumstance that the daily press is independent enough to endeavor to correct great local abuses, and anything but pleasant to find that the Board of Health need to be told by the papers that great abuses need correction. It is a reasonable inference, from the foregoing, that the Board of Health do not correct similar nuisances when they do not excite public attention; so that probably there are hundreds of lots, all through the city, in which the filling up to grade has been done with a very miscellaneous description of materials. It is pretty evident, also, that contractors, if left to themselves, can scarcely be trusted to make a thorough separation of ashes and garbage, in selecting the materials for grading. So that, as long as ashes and garbage are placed on the sidewalks by families, it is probable that they will be transferred to sunken lots, to form the foundations not only of future residences, but of discomfort, disease, and death. What, then, is to be done? The answer seems obvious. The garbage causes the trouble, and will continue to cause it, as long as it is put out by families for removal; cut off the supply, or allow no garbage to be deposited on the sidewalks. Such an ordinance can readily be enforced by the inspection of the police; and we believe the Board of Health have ample power to make a regulation of this character. But if the garbage is not carried off, what becomes of it, it will be asked. And this brings us to the subject indicated by the title of our article. As fast as the garbage is formed, throw it into the fire, and let it be consumed. A famous housekeeper said to us the other day: "My cook burns up everything that is not eaten or given to the poor, so that nothing is put into my ash can except ashes and broken crockery." We had not given much attention to the subject before; but we discovered, by inquiry and experiment, that the statement was perfectly correct, and that it was always easy and often profitable, while it is certainly desirable, to deposit in the ash can, so far as the garbage is concerned, nothing but the ashes of the garbage.

TAINTED MEAT.

Thirty-nine tons of meat were condemned as unfit for food in this city during the year 1874; and it is probable that, under the somewhat lax system of inspection which here prevails, this amount was but small compared with that which found its way from the hands of the retailing butchers, principally to the poorer classes. While it is known that certain races of people habitually eat meat in a high state of putrefaction, with impunity so far as immediate deleterious effects are concerned, it is well settled that the individuals are, as a rule, weak and possessed of slight power to resist disease. The weight of authority points to the fact that bad meat, no matter in what form consumed, is productive of illness, the mild symptoms of which are lassitude, headache, dullness, indigestion, and loss of appetite; while severe attacks are characterized by vomiting and typhoidal indications.

In a recent English health report, it is asserted that, although it may be difficult to prove the fact by actual cases, there can be no doubt that unwholesome meat is one cause among many of the poverty of blood and intractable maladies of the poor, who flock to the dispensaries during the hot weather. Especially in summer is it a cause of diarrhoea; and instances are cited of both typhus and typhoid fevers being traced to its effects. In appearance, tainted meat is generally of a pinkish hue and more than ordinarily slippery to the touch; and the fat is very soft and yellow. In advanced stages, the odor is disagreeably apparent. Shrinkage in cooking, often to the extent of twenty-five per cent, is also another indication.

We have little doubt but that a large percentage of the bad meat sold in New York city is due to the filthy state of many of the slaughterhouses. We recently visited two or three representative shambles, located directly in rear of a number of first class dwellings, and in close proximity to a thickly populated tenement district. The odors which we traced to them were foul and sickening, and pervaded the vicinity over a considerable radius, almost constantly. Unless there be absolute cleanliness in such places (which, in fact, should not be allowed to exist near residences of any kind), the putrid emanations are sufficient in themselves to taint the meat kept in them, or even exposed for sale in the neighborhood. A late report of the Medical Officer of the Privy Council of Great Britain especially dwells upon the fact, and also states that even a low temperature will not serve as a protection to the meat against contamination.

Along the rivers on both sides of this city there are several slaughterhouses which form a standing nuisance as well as a source of danger to the residents of the neighborhood; and why the private interests of their owners should be allowed to override the considerations of sanitary welfare of the community—a fact indicated by the apparently flourishing condition of the establishments, and their permanence, despite repeated complaints—is a question which the public looks to the health authorities to answer. At all events, the probable effect of such places, upon the meat prepared in them, is worth serious consideration by the owners of the cattle, as well as by consumers generally. If the latter would take the trouble to find out where their butchers obtained supplies, and would refuse to purchase meat killed in shambles known to be unclean or ill smelling, and if the former would refuse to send stock to such slaughterhouses, remedies both for tainted meat and bad odors would soon be forthcoming.

RIGHTS OF EMPLOYER AND EMPLOYED IN RESPECT TO A NEW INVENTION.

In the case of the Evans Paper Collar Patent, reported in another column of this issue, the Supreme Court of the United States decides as follows in respect to the rights of employers and employees, touching the proprietorship of new inventions:

Where a person has discovered a new and useful principle in a machine, manufacture, or composition of matter, he may employ other persons to assist in carrying out that principle; and if they, in the course of experiments arising from that employment, make discoveries auxiliary to the plan and preconceived design of the employer, such suggested improvements are, in general, to be regarded as the property of the party who discovered the original principle, and they may be embodied in his patent as part of his invention. Doubt upon that subject cannot be entertained.

But persons employed as such as employers are entitled to their own independent inventions: and if the suggestions communicated constitute the whole substance of the improvement, the rule is otherwise, and the patent, if granted to the employer, is invalid, because the real invention or discovery belongs to the person who made the suggestions.

THE KEELY MOTOR DECEPTION.

Newspapers, from all parts of the country, come to us daily, laden with long accounts of the wonderful things that are to be expected from the astounding Keely motor discovery, which is to supersede steam power, hot air, electricity, gravitation, chemical affinity, and other laws of Nature. This is not the first time that the readers of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN have seen all these things done—on paper. Nor is it the first time that learned professors, like Rand, experienced civil engineers like Haswell, or good practical mechanics like Sergeant, Wood, and Boeckel, have been deluded into the support of strange deceptions like Keely's. But these gentlemen have only temporarily lost their common sense on this one subject. It will return to them again in due time.

In fact, there are indications that Professor Haswell is already recovering, and the others, no doubt, will soon fol-

low. Only those who invest their money will experience permanent loss.

In our paper for May 2, 1874, in an article on the Keely motor, we printed the following extract from the company's pamphlet:

"The following named gentlemen have witnessed the exhibition of the above tests, and may be referred to for the correctness of this statement: Charles H. Haswell, civil and marine engineer, New York city, and formerly Engineer-in-Chief, U. S. N.; William W. Wood, Chief of Bureau of Steam Engineering, U. S. N., Washington, D. C.; S. Parrish, gas engineer, Jersey City, N. J.; Joseph Patten, engineer, Elizabeth, N. J.; F. Glocker, machinist, Philadelphia, Pa.; William Boeckel, machinist, Philadelphia, Pa.

In connection with the foregoing statement, a professional report is given in the pamphlet, by Mr. Haswell, one of the referees mentioned above. He certifies, as the results of two actual working trials of the invention, as follows:

"Mr. Keely developed a cold vapor of a density that enabled it, when admitted to a cylinder having a piston 1 1/8 inches in diameter, to raise a weight of 150 lbs. suspended from a compound lever, connected as 1 to 42, which, with the weight of the lever and the friction due to the absence of a knife-edge or rotating joint, was fully equal to an energy of 7,800 lbs. per square inch."

Mr. Haswell was, at that time, professionally employed to test and report upon the new motor, and did so, as above reported. But the above is only a small portion of his report, which goes into the other details of the motor, not necessary here to mention, because they are based on statements made to him by the inventor. The portion given above, however, was the result of his personal observations in 1874. Mr. Haswell, having allowed his report of 1874 to stand, together with our comments thereon, without the least objection, for over a year, before the public, at last begins to see the absurdity of the matter, and now sends us, June, 1875, the following communication:

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

I am advised that, in the last number of your paper (June 26, 1875), I am referred to as having, with others, endorsed the alleged capacity of the invention of Mr. J. W. Keely, known as the Keely motor.

If you will point out wherein I have ever expressed an opinion of the integrity of the claims of Mr. Keely, of the foundation of which I am wholly uninformed, I shall be interested to learn of it. Respectfully,

CHAS. H. HASWELL.

New York, June 17, 1875.

He also publishes the following, in the New York Sun:

MR. HASWELL ON THE KEELY MOTOR.

To the Editor of the Sun—SIR: In an article in your issue of this morning you imply that I have endorsed the integrity of the Keely motor. As I am wholly uninformed of the foundation upon which Mr. Keely bases his claims, I have never expressed an opinion thereon. I am, respectfully,
June 17, 1875.

CHAS. H. HASWELL.

The republication above, from Mr. Haswell's certificate, will, we presume, give him the information he now desires.

THE SEARCH FOR THE POLE.

The British Polar Expedition has sailed from Portsmouth amid salvos of artillery, cheers from congregated thousands, and other grand displays of official and popular enthusiasm. Until the vessels reach Disco, when Mr. Clement Markham will leave the party and return to England with a report of the prospects and general probabilities of success, as far as can be gathered from appearances at that far northern point, we shall have no tidings; and after that time, until the lapse of the three years allowed to the enterprise, the fortunes, good or bad, of the expedition will likely remain unknown. There is great hope, this time, as to the ultimate success of the attempt. Never before have ships started on any voyage of discovery so completely fitted out with everything which Science could suggest or experience counsel as these two quondam whalers; nor has any previous expedition been projected under that rigid military discipline for the lack of which Hall failed, and which, in the present case, will be maintained by officers already thoroughly conversant with the nature of the task before them, and the causes which have led to its non-accomplishment by their predecessors.

The Alert and Discovery are to proceed to Smith's Sound, taking the route by which Hall reached the furthest point of north latitude yet attained. It may easily be argued that, if the last mentioned commander, in a vessel wretchedly prepared for the work, could reach 82° 16' N. latitude, and then be foiled in further attempts to push onward, not through any fault of his ship, but through dissensions in his crew, there is every reasonable probability that the English ships will have no serious obstacles to encounter in steadily advancing until the open sea, which the peculiar glistening haze (seen above the ice mountains by Dr. Kane's mate from the masthead) indicates, is reached. Then three millions of square miles of water, possibly a frozen continent, unvisited by living things from the lower world, save by the birds which are known to emigrate to the northward of any point yet attained by man, lie open to exploration; and the explorers will doubtless traverse that now unknown region until they reach the end of their journey upon the "spot where the sun's altitude is equal to its declination, and where bearings must be obtained by reference to time and not to the magnet."

Then what? Science is rather vague in her answer, for she relies more upon entirely new discoveries being made than upon verifications of advanced theories. Mr. Clement Markham sums up about all that Science has to expect from

the exploration of the earth's apex, thus: "It may be shown," says he, "that no such extent of unknown area in any part of the world has ever yet failed to yield results of practical as well as purely scientific value; and it may be safely urged that, as the area exists, which is mathematically certain, it is impossible that its examination can fail to add largely to the sum of human knowledge."

In plain terms, the discovery of the pole has reduced itself to a matter in which the curiosity of mankind to know what exists at this *ultima thule* of the globe, a curiosity augmented by repeated baffling, is probably more the underlying cause of attempts to solve the problem than even the thirst for abstract knowledge. If there had been, or could be, any direct gain by reaching the open Polar Sea, we have little doubt but that it would have been penetrated long ago; for the arctic whalers' extremely powerful vessels, with proportionately strong engines, make their way through the ice with ease to regions, and spend months in localities, which the earlier explorers attained only by immense toil and hardships. If the masters of these ships had found out that more blubber could be got in the Polar Sea than elsewhere, the passage would have been made, and the world would probably have remained in ignorance of the fact, until some one had noted with astonishment the figures denoting latitude, which the captain would, quite as a matter of course, have jotted down in his log.

Curiosity, coupled with a patriotic desire to outdo the previous endeavors of other nations, is the motive of popular attention to the North Pole just at present. The problem once solved, the attainment of the South Pole will be as eagerly sought after; and there will be scores of attempts to penetrate the barriers of a region so vast that the moon might easily fall into it without affecting, by the impact alone, any portion of the world now known to man.

THE HYDROLOGY OF SOUTH AFRICA.

Mr. Froude the historian turned statesman, came back last winter from his self-appointed mission to South Africa big with the belief that he had seen the beginnings of an Anglo-African empire destined to rival our United States in power and prosperity; and he has just sailed thitherward again, bearing an official commission for the advancement of his scheme of confederation, the one thing needful, he thinks, to ensure the speedy development of the colonies of South Africa into the empire of his dreams.

There is much that is attractive in the thought that the continent so long given over to barbarism is about to be won over to civilization by British pluck and energy: nevertheless the prospect of its successful accomplishment is not nearly so bright as Mr. Froude imagines. Something more than men and money, however plucky and plentiful, is requisite for the up-building of an empire. First of all there must be a favorable physical basis, a fertile country, and a genial climate; and if any climatic changes are going on, they must be such as to make the country increasingly productive and habitable.

Unfortunately these conditions are not well met in South Africa. The drift of its climatic changes (and they are enormous) is in the wrong direction, and the operations of its inhabitants are now, and have long been, of a nature to hasten the natural course of climatic derangement. Already vast areas, recently well wooded, well watered, and of boundless fertility, have been converted into barren wastes, alternately parched by drought, ravaged by fire, and torn with torrents of untimely rain; and unless the settlers make a radical change in their mode of procedure in clearing the country, its conquest is much more likely to result in a great desert than a great nation.

By those who have followed the travels of Livingston and others through South Central Africa, the great interior basin of the continent will be remembered as a vast region of swamp, lakes, broad rivers, and trackless forests. To the south lies the basin more thoroughly drained by the river Zambesi, described by travelers as a region just emerging from a condition like that obtaining further north. The rivers have worn their channels deeper through the enclosing rim of the basin, the swamps are turning into grassy plains, the lakes to swamps or to salt-encrusted "pans."

Still further to the south is the southernmost basin of the continent, enclosed by mountains running parallel to the coast. The central part consists chiefly of rolling prairies with few springs, fewer permanent rivers, and forests gradually diminishing to a final destruction which cannot be long delayed. As a rule rain is infrequent, droughts of common occurrence, and irrigation absolutely necessary for the raising of European grains. Yet within the memory of men still living this has been a country of lakes and rivers, abundant rain, heavy timber, and plentiful pasturage. Rivers, now dry the most of the year, then ran with full banks and swarmed with hippopotami and other water-loving animals. And the whole country bears abundant evidence that it is but a little while, geologically speaking, since it was the counterpart of the lake regions traversed by Livingston in the central basin of the continent.

When Dr. Moffat first entered the country as a missionary, in 1821, the natives had not forgotten the floods of ancient times, the incessant showers which covered the very rocks with verdure, and the giant trees and forests which flourished on hills and plains now barren and desolate. They boasted of rivers which ran impassable torrents in the days of their forefathers, while the lowing herds walked to their necks in grass; and the ancient river beds, shore lines, and vestiges of enormous trees bore witness that their stories were not exaggerations. Since the missionary work began, streams, which then furnished drink for thousands of cattle

and water for the irrigation of miles of cornfields and gardens, are now absolutely dry.

Farther west the desiccation of the country is much more extensive and severe, forming the great Kalahari desert, the wastes of Namagualand, and the barren wilds of Bushmanland. Here the drying up of the country has all but reached its limit in degree, though not in area, for the desert steadily encroaches on the habitable land. To some extent, man is not to blame for the climatic changes thus going on. The natural wearing down of the outlets of the basin has drawn off the waters of the lakes, emptied the swamps, and converted the country into something less like a gigantic sponge than it originally was. But the most disastrous effects have been produced by human agency, by the destruction of the country's arborescent and herbaceous clothing by fire.

When Vasco de Gama first explored the coast four hundred years ago, he called the country Land of Smoke. How long the burning had been going on it is impossible to tell: it has certainly been going on ever since. The dominant native races in South Africa are comparatively recent invaders, and wherever they have gone the forests have disappeared. They are "a nation of levelers," says Mr. James Fox Wilson, who has given the matter much careful study on the spot, and "they are the prime cause of the advancing drought."

The practices of the Bechuanas are especially fatal to the forest growths. They cut down and burn down everything, regardless of scenery or economy, stripping the country where they settle, then moving on to devastate other regions and prepare the way for the encroachments of the desert. Wild fires, started for the purpose of clearing the open country of the annual growth of tall grass, play no small part in the work of devastation, killing in dry seasons most of the shrubs and young trees that spring up in wet ones. In Namagualand, the same office is performed by the scorching sun, the effect of drought in this case being, as Mr. Wilson points out, an auxiliary cause of drought.

But the spreading of the desert is not confined to the areas beyond the European settlements. There are vast regions, in the basin of the Orange river and in Cape Colony itself, bare of timber and bush, largely in consequence of the pertinacity with which both native and European colonists adhere to the suicidal practice of burning the dry fields in winter that the flocks may find abundant pasturage as soon as spring sets in. In these bare regions, trees are hardly ever to be found, except on the banks of rivers or in high mountain passes, as the fire penetrates into all the ravines where the most luxuriant vegetation is found, and destroys it. The more denuded of trees and brush wood, and the more arid the land becomes, the smaller the rainfall. "The greater the extent of heated surface over which the partially exhausted clouds have to pass, the more rarefied the vapor contained in them necessarily becomes, and the higher the position which the clouds themselves assume in the atmosphere under the influence of the radiating caloric: consequently the smaller the chance of the descent of any rain on the thirsty soil beneath. And the more the short-sighted colonists and ignorant natives burn the grass and timber, the wider the area of heated surface is made, the further the droughty region extends, the smaller become the fountain supplies, and the more attenuated the streams, until they finally evaporate and disappear altogether. Thus the evil advances in an increasing ratio, and, unless checked, must advance, and will finally end in the depopulation and entire abandonment of many spots once thickly peopled, fertile, and productive."

This evil prophecy was spoken ten years ago, before the British Association, and the occurrences of the past decade have only tended to confirm it. The progress of South Africa is plainly toward uninhabitableness. The increasing severity of the droughts, the vast sweep of the forest and field fires, and the sudden and terrible cloud bursts of rain and hail experienced in the settled portions of the colonies are described at length in the work on the "Hydrology of South Africa," prepared by Dr. John Crombie Brown, formerly colonial botanist at the Cape (and favorably remembered by our readers for his successful championship of Darwinism before the Evangelical Alliance two years ago). In 1869, after a long period of exceptionally dry weather, a tract of country 400 miles long and 150 miles in extreme breadth was swept by fire, destroying fields and forests, farm houses, grain stacks, wild beasts, and domestic animals, and in many instances the families of the settlers.

Smaller yet very extensive fires are of yearly occurrence. The effects of such wholesale denudations of the surface are necessarily widespread and disastrous. The uplands become naked, parched, and slashed with gullies; the lowland springs dry up, the streams fail, and the entire economy of Nature is permanently disturbed. Rains that should be distributed over the entire year fall in a few destructive deluges which wash away the soil and turn the rivers into torrents, roaring sometimes fifty feet above their natural level at high water. Details of a number of such storms are reprinted by Dr. Brown from the colonial newspapers. During one of them in Natal, 27 inches of rain are said to have fallen in two days: the destruction of property was necessarily enormous, even in a sparsely settled region.

A specimen hailstorm is described by a member of the Transvall Geological Expedition. It occurred at Pietermaritzburg, Natal, April 18, 1874. Mixed with the hailstones—which averaged from one and a half to two inches in diameter—were irregular masses of ice from two to four inches in diameter and weighing from four to eight ounces. "On many roofs fully half the tiles were broken, not merely cracked, but very frequently masses went right through into the houses. None have escaped. Fortunately for windows, there was no wind, or the damage would have been much

heavier. Many of the corrugated iron roofs are dented all over and have a pock-marked aspect, while some corrugated iron roofs are completely riddled: the stones went right through as though they had but paper to encounter."

It is proper to bear in mind in this connection that Natal is the garden of South Africa.

During the following November, the newspapers complained of severe and long-continued drought in all the midland districts of Cape Colony. It was followed by a deluge toward the end of the month. Rivers which had been dry for months were suddenly filled with raging torrents, carrying away bridges to the value of \$1,500,000. In one case a bridge, built high enough, it was supposed, for any flood, was forty-five feet under water, and of course utterly destroyed. Several towns were flooded, and not a few lives were lost.

After reciting at length many incidents in connection with this and similar storms, Dr. Brown remarks that it often happens that, within an hour or two after such torrents of rain have been precipitated, the sky is cloudless and serene, and frequently within a month or two all is as arid as before. Yet in such a country, and with a people bent on courses calculated to intensify and perpetuate such climatic evils, Mr. Froude expects to see a great empire grow up!

It is but just to Dr. Brown to say that, while fearlessly recognizing the certain tendency of the climatic changes to make a desert of South Africa, he does not despair of the future of the colonies, provided the colonists cease to do evil and learn to do well. He strenuously urges upon them the one course which will enable them to hold their ground and possibly recover the advantages they have wasted, namely, to put a stop to field and forest burning, and then set to work to restore the forest growths. It is, he admits, a difficult and costly undertaking; but it is absolutely necessary.

SCIENTIFIC AND PRACTICAL INFORMATION.

ORIGINAL MICROSCOPICAL RESEARCHES.

To such of our readers as propose devoting the coming summer vacation to microscopical work, we can suggest the following investigations as offering excellent fields for original research: First, examine the theory suggested by Dr. Bastian as to occasional transformations taking place between the lowest forms of animal and vegetable life. Confine some minute vegetable tissue—if showing protoplasmic circulation, so much the better—in a live box, and watch with care. Notice if, in process of time, nuclei or any other parts should undergo any such transformations. A $\frac{1}{4}$ inch or $\frac{1}{2}$ inch objective is suited for the purpose. There is abundant opportunity for new work in relation to fungi. Cooke's recently published book on that subject should be well studied, and collections made in the field, enough to go over, if possible, the author's ground. The limits of present discovery will soon be recognized, and a line of further progress can readily be mapped out. There is yet plenty to be discovered about the insects. The foot of a fly, for example, its structure, method of use, properties, exudation, etc., would form an excellent subject of study for a long time. The student, if he faithfully perseveres, is pretty certain to hit upon something new. The microscopic changes of the tissues and fluids of the human body, in health and disease, also invite research. This requires vast patience, an excellent instrument, and no small degree of skill; but it offers results which, if gained, will well repay expenditure of time and energy.

MORE JAW WRENCHERS.

"Benzanishydroxamic acid" and "anisidibenzhydroxylamine" are two more chemical absurdities in the way of names recently coined, of course by a German chemist. Cannot somebody invent some rational plan for naming and renaming organic substances that will relieve the science from these polysyllabic nightmares? Suppose the chemists begin by agreeing among themselves to limit the baptismal titles of their discoveries, say to four syllables. Or why not use some symbols which might mean any number of prefixes or suffixes, and thus express the idea without inflicting it on the mind through torture of the jaw?

A MOUTHFUL FOR CIGAR SMOKERS.

The products of the combustion of tobacco, if the combustion were complete, would be carbonic acid, ammonia, and water: in the process of smoking, however, most of the tobacco is distilled rather than burnt, and the products of this distillation are quite numerous and complex. Vohl and Euhlenburg, after burning 150 cigars, recognized with distinctness, in the smoke, cyanhydric acid, sulphuretted hydrogen, certain acids of the fatty acid series, namely, formic, acetic, propionic, butyric, and valerianic: also carbolic acid and creasote, pyridin, picolin, collidin, and other similar alkaloids. They found also ammonia, nitrogen, oxygen, and small quantities of marsh gas and carbonic oxide.

A LIVING RAFT.

The leaves of the gigantic water lily known as the *Victoria Regia*, in the Botanic Garden at Ghent, having attained a remarkably large size, Mr. Van Hulle, the chief gardener, recently undertook to determine their buoyant power. One leaf easily supported a child, and did not sink under a man. Mr. Van Hulle then heaped bricks over its entire area and found that, before the leaf became submerged, a weight of 761 lbs. was floated.

A CENTENNIAL CLERGYMAN.—On the 8th of June last, the Trinity Methodist Episcopal Church, at Jersey City, N. J., held a celebration in honor of the one hundredth birthday of the Rev. Henry Boehm. For seventy years or more he has been a preacher. On the occasion of the celebration, when he rose to address the audience, the clearness of his faculties was observable by all present.

IMPROVED THREE-CYLINDER PUMP.

We illustrate herewith a simple and novel form of three-cylinder pump, the suction of which is continuous, though unaided by an air chamber. Like the rotary pump, its delivery is uniform, but, unlike that machine, it requires no large expenditure of power.

The construction is obvious from the engraving. Three strokes of the piston are caused by one revolution instead of two strokes, as in the double-acting pump, while it is claimed to have the advantage over the latter of being much more free from friction and not to necessitate the stopping and starting of a column of water in the suction pipe at every change of stroke, involving a consequent loss of power. There are, besides, no crooked passages or ports through which the water must be driven; and the construction of the various parts is simple, strong, and lasting. In its smaller sizes, it may readily be worked by hand.

These considerations render the machine useful for railroads, both as a hand pump during the building of lines, and as a permanent power pump for filling tanks where a large volume of water is needed daily. It is also suitable as a fire pump for mills; and since its working parts are but little affected by grit, and it is not liable to choke, it may profitably be employed in quarries. By wind wheels, we are informed, it can be worked at a slow speed with the largest results. It is susceptible to a wide utilization in greenhouses, about farms, and, in fact, wherever a powerful suction and force pump is needed.

Further particulars may be obtained by addressing the Chase Machine Company, manufacturers, No. 36 Charlestown street, Boston, Mass.

A Lady Lecturer on Chemistry.

Lately, in Aberdeen, Scotland, Miss Charlotte Napier gave a lecture on chemistry, in connection with the Blackfriars Useful Information Society. There was a very numerous attendance; and the lecture, which was illustrated by a variety of experiments, and was of a highly interesting and instructive character, was listened to with the closest attention, an enthusiastic vote of thanks being awarded to the lecturer at the close. Miss Charlotte Napier is a young Aberdonian. Last winter she studied chemistry in Edinburgh, under the direction of Mr. Falconer King, with a view of assisting her father as an agricultural analyst.

RUDIMENTARY EXISTENCE IN FRESH WATER STREAMS.

The marine aquarium and its inhabitants have been thoroughly studied by naturalists; but as yet, very little attention has been given to the many beautiful forms of life to be found in rivers and ponds. Mr. James Fullagar, of Canterbury, England, has recently found in a stream near that ancient city a specimen of the *lophopus crystallina*, and describes it as follows in the pages of *Science Gossip*:

"The *lophopi* are among the largest fresh water polyzoa known. They are about $\frac{3}{16}$ th of an inch in length, and are found attached to the roots of *Callitriche verna*, duckweeds, and other fibrous roots in shady dykes of slow-moving water, under thick masses of floating plants; for in their habits they are light-shunning animals, and are always on the under side of aquatic plants. They are very beautiful microscopic objects, and their being perfectly transparent renders them most interesting animals for examination, as the formation of their statoblast (*f*) can be seen in their different stages of growth, from their first appearance as a little swelling (at which stage they are quite colorless) to their perfect forms, when they become detached and fall free in the perigastric space (*l*), having become gradually colored, the center of a dark brown, and the margin a rich yellow. The process of their propagation by gemmation or budding, by which young ones are added to the existing colony of living polyzoa, can be plainly seen; while the statoblasts (*f*) are designed to propagate the species in the following spring, and are liberated from the polyzoan at its death, when the transparent sac is decomposed, and the statoblast escapes and sinks to the bottom of the water."

In our engraving, *a* is the region of the mouth; *b*, œsophagus; *c*, stomach; *d*, intestine; *e*, muscles; *f*, statoblast; *g*, parasitic globes; *h*, *h*, mouth; *i*, tentacles retracting within cell; *k*, outer transparent envelope; *l*, perigastric space; *m*, lophophore; *n*, tentacles excised to show mouth; *o*, vent; *p*, hollow globe; *r*, place where division commences; *s*, cell.

"The perfect transparency enables us to witness the internal operations of their system. The action of the stomach in the process of digestion can be observed with great clearness. The contents are seen at times to consist of small desmids, and other disk-shaped and globular bodies, together with decayed vegetable matter, etc. The action of the cilia on the expanded tentacles causes a current of water to set in towards the mouth (*a*, *h*, *h*), bringing with it the food required; and if in the vortex thus formed there should be any large and objectionable pieces, they are prevented from entering the mouth by a quick, lashing motion of the tentacle, which rejects and throws them out of the reach of the vortex. The accepted morsel passes direct-

ly into the œsophagus (*b*), and thence into the stomach (*c*), where it is digested by the up and down motions, of a contracting and expanding nature, of this organ. The lower part of the stomach at intervals is seen to be contracted somewhat in the shape of an hour glass, in which for a moment part of the contents of the stomach are retained, then again released to mix with the rest. After being subjected to the action of the stomach for some time, the alimentary matter is delivered by degrees into the intestine (*d*), from

seen, while in others they are very numerous. In one instance of a colony under my observation, they were increased in such numbers of all sizes that they entirely filled the perigastric space (*l*), forcing the smaller particles up even into the lophophore (*m*), and ultimately bursting the whole colony and escaping into the water, when all motion in them ceased, and they soon disappeared altogether. When they are few in number, and of various sizes in the animal, they form a novel and pleasing sight as they are carried up and down by the current before mentioned in the perigastric space.

On being alarmed, the *lophopus* quickly retracts within the transparent cell (*s*), and again protrudes when all is quiet, unfolding its beautiful crown of tentacles, in the course of which movement the action of the muscles is plainly seen (*e*). The expanding of the tentacles, immediately on the protrusion of the polypide from its cell, is one of the most pleasing sights that can be presented to the observer, as the cilia with which they are studded are instantly in full play, passing up on one side of the tentacle from the base to the tip, and down the opposite side, like an endless chain, thereby forming the vortices in the water by which the particles of food are brought to the mouth. Sometimes the colony consists of from six to twelve polypides, and will divide into two, commencing the division at *p*, and slowly separating down to the point where it is fixed to the plant, etc., each part moving in opposite directions. They then propagate by gemmation or budding."

"I would advise," says Mr. Fullagar, "those lovers of natural history who possess a microscope and live in a neighborhood where there are shady dykes or a millpond, etc., to search for them; when found, they will amply repay the trouble in the pleasure they afford in observing and investigating their wonderful mechanism and marvelous beauty. No pencil can portray nor pen describe them. I have had them under observation for over three months, have seen some of the colonies die out, and have their statoblasts in glass cells, from which I anticipate the pleasure of seeing the young polyzoa emerge in due time."

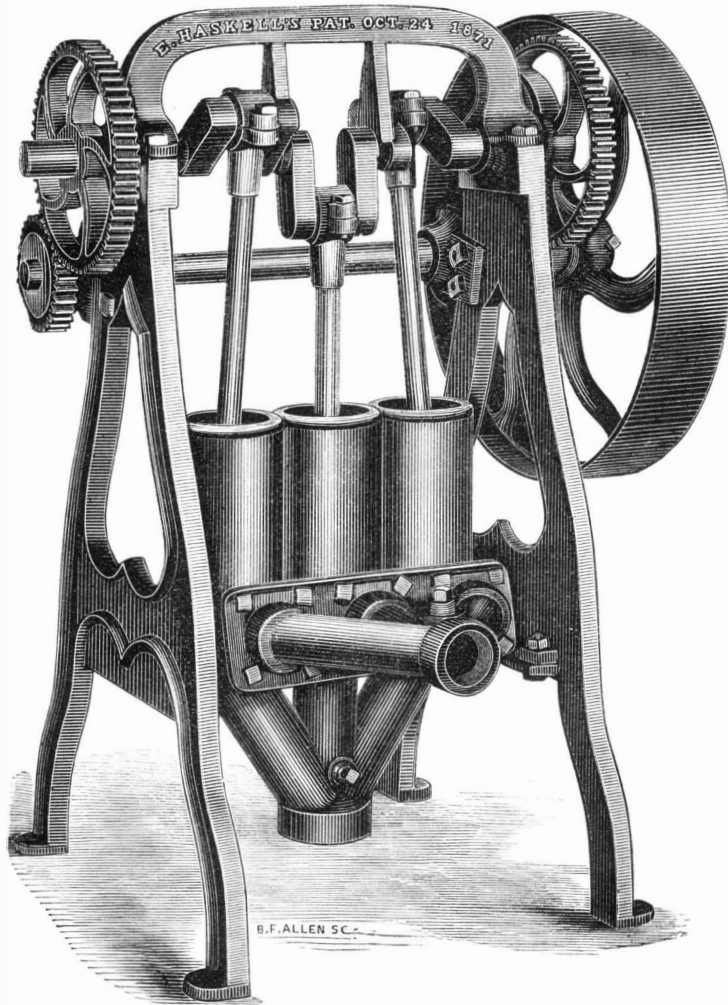
Stagnation in Business the World Over.

It is poor consolation in adversity to know, says the *Commercial Advertiser*, that we are not alone in our misery; such as it is, however, our iron manufacturers may take it to themselves. The depression of the iron trade is general throughout the world. The production of pig iron in Scotland was less in 1874 than in any of the last twenty years. At one time there were only thirty-two furnaces blowing, out of one hundred and thirty-two erected, and the production was 400,000 tons less than in 1870. Russia, notwithstanding its activity in railroad building, imported only 5,221,000 lbs. of rails, against 7,119,000 in 1873. In Prussia the large steel works of Krupp have discharged some thousand workmen, and the Borsig manufactory of engines at Berlin—the most extensive in Germany—has had to protect itself by taking a similar step. Last month the largest Austrian manufactory of engines (Sigl) dispensed with two thousand hands for the reason that it had neither orders nor sufficient working capital. The government, however, in true Austrian fashion, remedied both misfortunes by advancing capital to the works, and by causing some of the railroads to give extensive orders for rolling stock.

A Queer People.

During the last season, says the *Academy*, Mr. Bond, an Indian surveyor, while at work in the Madras Presidency, to the southwest of the Palanci Hills, managed to catch a couple of the wild folk who live in the hill jungles of the Western Ghats. These people sometimes bring honey, wax, and sandal wood to exchange with the villagers for cloth, rice, tobacco, and betel nut, but they are very shy. The man was four feet six inches high; he had a round head, coarse, black, woolly hair, and dark brown skin. The forehead was low and slightly retreating, the lower part of the face projected like the muzzle of a monkey, and the mouth, which was small and oval, with thick lips, protruded about an inch beyond the nose; he had short, bandy legs, a comparatively long body, and arms that extended almost to his knees; the back just above the buttocks was concave, making the stern appear to be much protruded. The hands and fingers were dumpy and always contracted, so that they could not be made to stretch out quite straight and flat; the palms and fingers were covered with thick skin (more especially the tips of the fingers); the nails were small and imperfect, and the feet broad and thick-skinned all over. The woman was the same height as the man, the color of the skin was of a yellow tint, the hair black, long, and straight, and the features well formed. This quaint folk occasionally eat flesh, but feed chiefly upon roots and honey. They have no fixed dwelling places, but sleep on any convenient spot, generally between two rocks, or in caves near which they happen to be benighted. Worship is paid to certain local divinities of the forest.

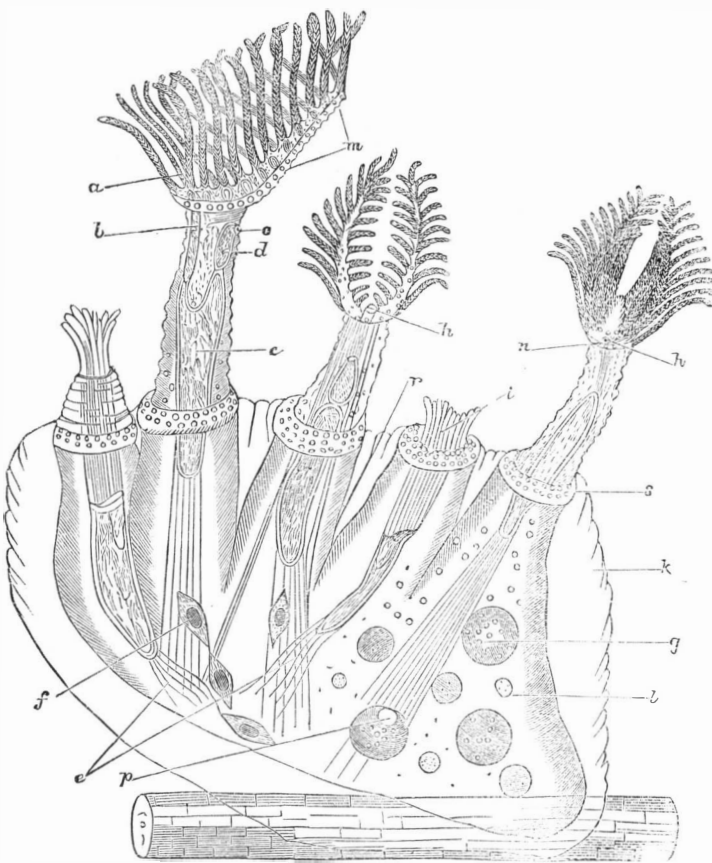
LEAD pipe will not do to conduct water to fish ponds. It is likely to poison the fish.



HASKELL'S THREE-CYLINDER PUMP.

whence it is expelled through the vent (*o*), in form of oval or egg-shaped pellets.

The perigastric space (*l*) is filled with clear fluid, which also extends up the lophophore (*m*), in which fluid are seen floating numerous particles of very varied forms and sizes, the smallest ascending to the tip of the lophophore (*m*). By the movement of those bodies, it is evident that there is a constant rotating motion in this transparent fluid, by which these particles are kept in a perpetual whirl, from one part to the other, and at times with rapidity. No doubt this motion is produced by vibratile cilia on the interior of the body, though not so as to be observable. In some of the colonies of the *lophopus* there are a number of globular bodies (*g*), varying in size from the $\frac{1}{100}$ th of an inch in diameter up to the



A FRESH WATER POLYZOON.

size of an ordinary *volvox globator*. These bodies are considered to be parasitical, as they do not appear to have any necessary connection with the economy of the polyzoa in whose interior they occur. This would appear to be the case from the fact that in some colonies not one of them is to be

REVOLVING FIRE BARS.

The *Revue Industrielle* has recently published an illustration and description of a system of revolving fire bars recently introduced into France with good results. As will be seen, it consists simply of a series of straight tubes, placed either singly or coupled together, and pierced with openings of a suitable form. Means are provided by which these tubular bars can be caused to revolve. It will be seen that the tubes rest upon transverse bearers also cylindrical and hollow, and longitudinally they are supported by a cast iron plate fixed under the furnace door, and formed with a projection upon which the tubes take their bearing, either by a groove as in our Fig. 1 and the third design in our Fig. 2, or against a ring, as in the second type, shown in the second design in our Fig. 2. The bars are turned by means of a key that is introduced into the end of the bar, which is fitted with a ferrule having a six-sided aperture.

The first application of this system was made to a 12 horse power boiler, in which the steam was maintained by means of coke dust and slack containing 25 per cent of cinders. This boiler belongs to the Parisian Gas Company, which has a deserved reputation for investigating new and promising inventions. The success of their first experiments was so great that now some hundreds of these bars are employed by the gas company, so that the arrangement has passed from the phase of experiment into that of actual and large practice. It is claimed that, by the use of the Schmitz bars, the work of firing is rendered much less difficult, while a thick fire (from 8 inches to 10 inches) can be maintained economically. The draft is regulated for a given consumption of fuel, and the front of the ash pit may be closed, because sufficient air can be admitted through the open ends of the tubes. The inside of these tube is always visible to the fireman, who can at once see when any of the openings are choked. When this takes place he is enabled, by partially turning the tube, to present a new surface to the fire, while he is easily able to clear those passages which have been closed. In turning the tubes, the ashes and other *débris* are precipitated into the ash pit; and as shown in the second and third types of our Fig. 2, the bars are furnished with a spiral projection to assist in breaking up clinkers, etc.

The following are the results of this trial:

	Ordinary Furnace.	Schmitz' Bars.
	lbs.	lbs.
Water evaporated per pound of coal . . .	4.678	5.563
Water evaporated per hour per square foot of heating surface	1.321	1.322
Coal burnt per hour per square foot of grate	6.79	5.70
Coal burnt per hour per square foot of heating surface	0.283	0.238

From trials made with a boiler on the Passy Gas Works, an economy of 26 per cent was claimed for the apparatus, while the fuel employed was of such a nature that it could scarcely have been employed in an ordinary furnace.

A Medical Strike.

A strike among professional men is certainly a novelty; and it has been reserved for Switzerland to produce the same for the astonishment of mankind. In the canton of Glarus, out of 23 licensed physicians, 21 declare that they will perform no more official duties until an efficient sanitary police be established and medical examinations be conducted by a committee of competent men. What a harvest must open before the dazzled gaze of the two disaffected individuals! We can imagine the doctors striking against the quacks; but for them to strike in favor of a sanitary police, in favor of a means for preventing the diseases by curing which they make their bread and butter, certainly passes the bounds of reasonable belief. If the doctors of New York should follow the example of these Swiss brethren for the last mentioned reason, what a vast relief to our stench-sickened citizens would be produced!

How to Reduce Telegraph Charges.

It is undoubtedly true that nine tenths of the messages offered for transmission, if delivered at any time in from six to twelve hours, would answer their purpose just as well as though delivered within a few minutes. On the other hand some of the messages are valueless unless transmitted and delivered immediately. It has been proposed therefore, to establish a class of express messages, which shall be guaranteed precedence and quick delivery, an extra price being charged for such service; a second class of messages which

do not require especial despatch, to be sent at the convenience of the lines, but within a special time, at say about the present rates; and a third class, to which even less importance is attached, to be sent at a considerable reduction from present rates.

If telegraph wires were continually occupied in the transmission of despatches, no doubt even lower rates than are now exacted would be profitable; but how few wires, comparatively, are thus continuously occupied! We cannot see any insuperable obstacle to the introduction of this system, and believe that something like it will eventually be adopted by our telegraph managers.

It has been urged, in opposition to such a system, that the

cal than beams, while they were also more beautiful. By way of illustration he referred to the bridge of St. Louis, at Cincinnati, which had a central arch of 520 feet in span. There was no reason why arches of 700 or 800 feet span should not be erected; and in some situations even these great spans would be economical in comparison with a number of smaller openings involving expensive foundations.

Crime the Result of Automatism.

A striking analysis of the mental status of the criminal classes, which seems to occupy a middle ground between the theory of morbid impulse of Dr. Hammond and Professor Huxley's ideas as to the automatism of all animals, has recently been made by Dr. Despine and confirmed by Dr. Thomson, resident surgeon of the General Prison for Scotland.

Dr. Despine arrives, after a thorough search of court records, prison statistics, habits of individuals, and of all other possible and available sources of information, at a belief in the entire absence of a moral sense in the criminal class. He says that free will, which in the normal man is only controlled by a sense of duty, in the criminal has no such counterbalance, this sense being wanting. His acts are therefore mentally automatic, the result of the strongest instinct, appetite, or passion prevailing at the time. Although intellectually cognisant of the moral standards of society, the criminal yields to natural passion or appetite, unrestrained and unapproached by any feeling of impropriety. Hence the remarkable *sang froid* seen in hardened offenders under the most trying circumstances, and the superficial character of any apparent reformation or conversion.

How does a Spider Make its Web?

Here is a poser put by a writer in *Science Gossip*, which some of our readers, who have watched the habits of spiders, may be able to answer: How does a spider make its web, the lines of which, crossing at the center, are carried, some of them, to the surrounding objects, while others are fastened to an outer circular line, made evidently before the outer circular lines of the web are formed? Where does the spider place itself when it ejects the lines which form the spokes of the wheel?

Curious Fact.

Friction impedes the progress of the railway train, and yet it is only through friction that it makes any progress. This apparent paradox is explained when we remember that, by reason of the frictional bite of the drivers upon the track, they draw the train. The bearings of the wheel upon the rails are a mere line where they come in contact, iron and iron, yet this slight and almost imperceptible hold is sufficient to move hundreds of tons of dead weight with the speed of the wind.

A Monument at Sea.

Several years ago the famous obelisk, known as Cleopatra's Needle, was donated by the Egyptian to the British Government, but the latter, although several plans have been proposed, has heretofore considered no scheme as overcoming the engineering difficulties of removing the monolith from its present site near Alexandria to the shore, and thence transporting it by sea to England. We learn from the *London Times* that an attempt is now shortly to be made, and the project which has been adopted is as follows: The obelisk, which is quadrilateral in shape, is first to be changed into a cylinder. This will be done by attaching heavy beams, strongly connected together, to each face, until the desired form is obtained, the work being continued very carefully, and excavations being made, little by little, until the entire shaft, from apex to foundation, is enveloped. It will not be difficult then to roll the monument over a wooden road, laid over the sand hills which cover the intervening mile between its present location and the sea.

The wooden envelope, while increasing the mass will, at the same time, be such as to diminish the specific gravity of the whole, so that the great bundle will readily float. To this end, the diameter of the circle formed by a section of the cylinder will be 20 feet, or 12 feet larger than the breadth of the sides of the obelisk. Besides, in order to render the line of flotation horizontal, a diameter exceeding 20 feet will be necessary at the heavier base.

After the monument is launched, it will be towed out of the Mediterranean and into the Thames, to the nearest point to its future site. It will then be beached and rolled to its position, where it will be erected before removing its coverings.

This plan, it is believed, can be carried out very easily and with little expense, while it will be free from the dangers found in transporting the Obelisk of Luxor to Paris, as during its voyage that monument seriously damaged the vessel.

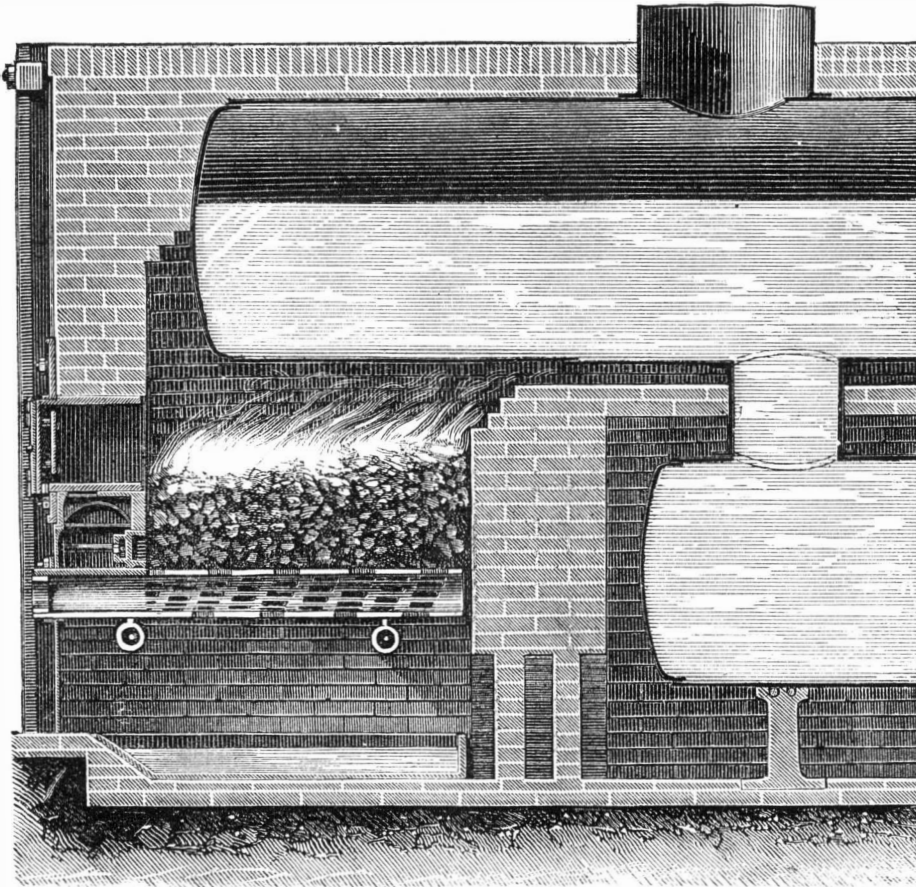


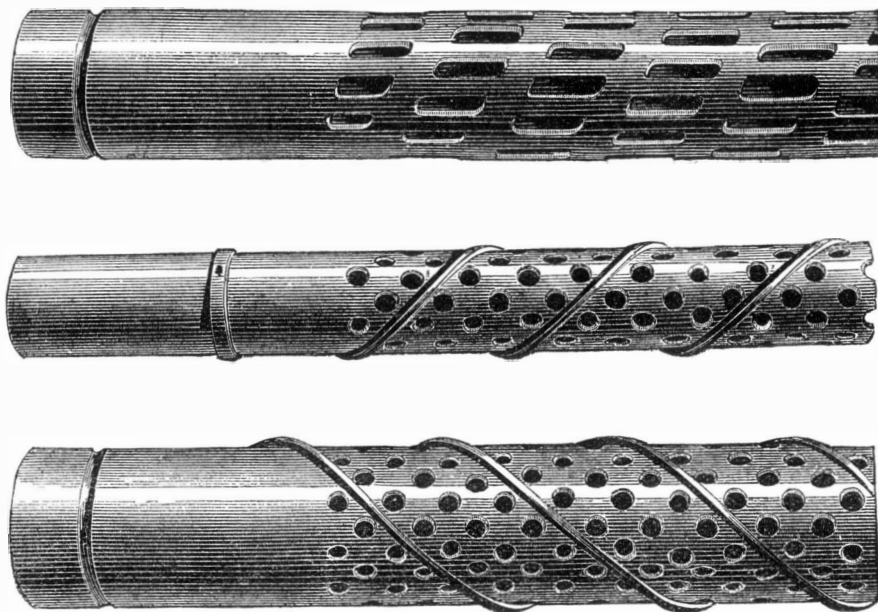
Fig. 1.—SCHMITZ' REVOLVING FIRE BARS.

laws of this State, and probably of most of the States, require messages to be transmitted in the order in which they are received. This argument is just as good against the half-rate night messages, as to which, so far as we know, it has never been raised. It is not in either case a valid objection, for both would be a special contract between the telegraph company and its customers, and therefore not within the scope of the law in regard to telegraphic service.—*The Telegrapher*.

Metal Arches.

The above was the title of a paper read last week by the President, Professor Fleeming Jenkin, at the closing meeting

Fig. 2



of the Edinburgh and Leith Engineers' Society. The Professor began by describing the stresses which occurred in the common masonry arch, illustrating the subject by means of a wooden model of novel construction, in which the arch was rendered flexible. He explained that, in papers by Professor Clark Maxwell, Mr. Bell, and Professor Fuller, of Belfast, methods were given by which the maximum intensity of stress on each part of a metal rib could now be determined with as great accuracy as the stress on the ordinary girders; and the reader of the present paper expressed a strong opinion that the great bridges of the future would be metal arches, which for large spans were essentially more economi-

IMPROVED HORSE HAY RAKE.

The invention herewith illustrated consists of a simple and novel apparatus for operating horse hay rakes, by means of which, it is claimed, both the rake and the clearer are more securely and readily adjusted, and at the same time more easily worked by the driver.

The thills are hinged to the axle, so that the latter, when released from the mechanism below described, is turned in its wheels by the pulling of the horse, the effect of such turning being to raise the rake. During the gathering, however, this revolution is prevented by the rod, A, which is bifurcated at its rear end and provided with several holes, so that it can be adjusted to the axle so as to permit the latter to turn rearward more or less, thus throwing the rake nearer to or farther from the ground, as desired. The forward end of rod, A, is pivoted to the hand lever, B, which lever is pivoted in the frame, C. On said frame, but not shown, is a downward-pointing hook, which receives the rod, A, just behind the lever end, which abuts against the hook, thus holding said rod firmly in the position represented in the engraving, and keeping the rake to its work until the rod is released by the driver by a suitable movement of the lever. The rake clearer, D, is connected by a forked rod to the lever, and pivoted above the fulcrum of the latter, so that, whenever the lever is actuated for raising the rake, the forked rod will also be moved, and thus the clearer caused to do its work quickly and efficiently.

Patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency March 9, 1875. For further information address the inventor, Mr. Benjamin Mellinger, Mount Pleasant, Westmoreland county, Pa.

IMPROVED NAPPER AND BRUSHER.

The machine herewith illustrated has been especially designed to meet the requirements of manufacturers of hosiery goods. It takes in any width of cloth, from 24 inches down, brushes the cloth in a flattened web, works on both sides at once, cleans off the specks, burrs, seeds, etc., raises a nap, restores the pliancy and softness (of which the washing has deprived the goods), and leaves the web in a smooth roll, ready for the cutter. To those who wash and dry in the garment—in which case the brushing is done immediately after the cutting—these capabilities of the machine will render it of especial utility.

The brush is arranged to do its work thoroughly, and in order to do this the goods are smoothly and gently stretched, both in length and width, over a roller having a firm and true surface, such surface being so made as to hold the goods in this smooth, stretched shape. To accomplish this, rollers about 5½ inches in diameter, made of cast iron pipe, are used; the shaft runs clear through, and the heads are shrunk in; the surface is then turned off true, and, with a tool made like a comb, having V-shaped points, the roll is filled with parallel grooves; it is then grooved lengthwise with the same tool. This gives a surface similar to emery, but differing from it in being true, with no chance to come off; it is then given a thin coat of paint to prevent rusting.

For the brush card, clothing is generally used, and the brush rollers are made of wood, so that the clothing can be easily tacked on. Its bearings are attached to long swing arms, which are held in place by spiral springs and adjusted by thumb screws and check nuts, so that the brush can be set parallel with the iron roller, and as close or far from the cloth as required. Its shaft and bearings are so made as to enable the user to turn it end for end in a few moments, the object being to keep the brush wire in working shape.

When a quarter or a seam, caused by basting on the end of another roll, reaches the brush, it should be raised for a moment to prevent injury to it. For this purpose, a handle on the left hand side of the machine is so connected as to raise both brush rollers at once. In case the cloth is brushed just as it comes from the knitting machine, the roll is placed in the bearings direct. The receiving pulleys are 5 inches in diameter, 3¼ inches face, calculated to run about 240 revolutions, the top to turn from the machine, thus giving 800 revolutions to the brushes. As the large pulley that gives motion to the brushes is double-crowned, they can be driven with one open belt passing around all three pulleys, or by two separate belts, open or crossed as the user prefers.

For the take-up, change gears are sent, so that the user can hurry or retard the cloth, as circumstances require.

The spreaders are made with long dowel pins, and can be lengthened by slipping on to said pins anything to fill the space and keep them extended, so that a few spreaders will meet the needs of most mills.

The amount of work that can be passed through the machine and the durability of the brushes depend upon how thoroughly one wishes to brush. One party in Troy, we are informed, is using one brush for eight sets of cards, using

instead of supporting, the unfortunates who had trusted to them, by dropping down towards their hips. In this way scores of dead bodies were picked up in the water, wearing belts which, if properly constructed, would have saved the life of the wearer.

Printing Telegraph Instruments Duplexed.

Another important step has been successfully taken in duplex telegraphy. The combination printing telegraph instruments, used to a limited extent by the Western Union Company, have been successfully adapted to duplex operation. Two of these instruments, specially arranged for working on the duplex system by Mr. G. M. Phelps, are now in operation, sending and receiving simultaneously on one wire, and the speed at which they are worked is represented as something remarkable. Mr. Gerrett Smith has been engaged for some time past in making the necessary arrangements of circuits, etc., to accomplish this, and it is a complete success. The ease and rapidity with which these new instruments work, and the advantages which they possess, will be likely to lead to a more extensive use of them by the Western Union Company. No doubt they can be adapted to quadruplex operation also; and with four improved combination printers working on one wire, the amount of business which can be transmitted will be likely to astonish not only outsiders, but a large proportion of even experienced telegraphers.

It would be another instance of the changes which time

brings about, if the printers, with their old time recommendation, "prompt, accurate, and reliable," should once become leading and favorite instruments for commercial telegraphic purposes.—*The Telegrapher.*

To Prevent White Paint from Turning Yellow.

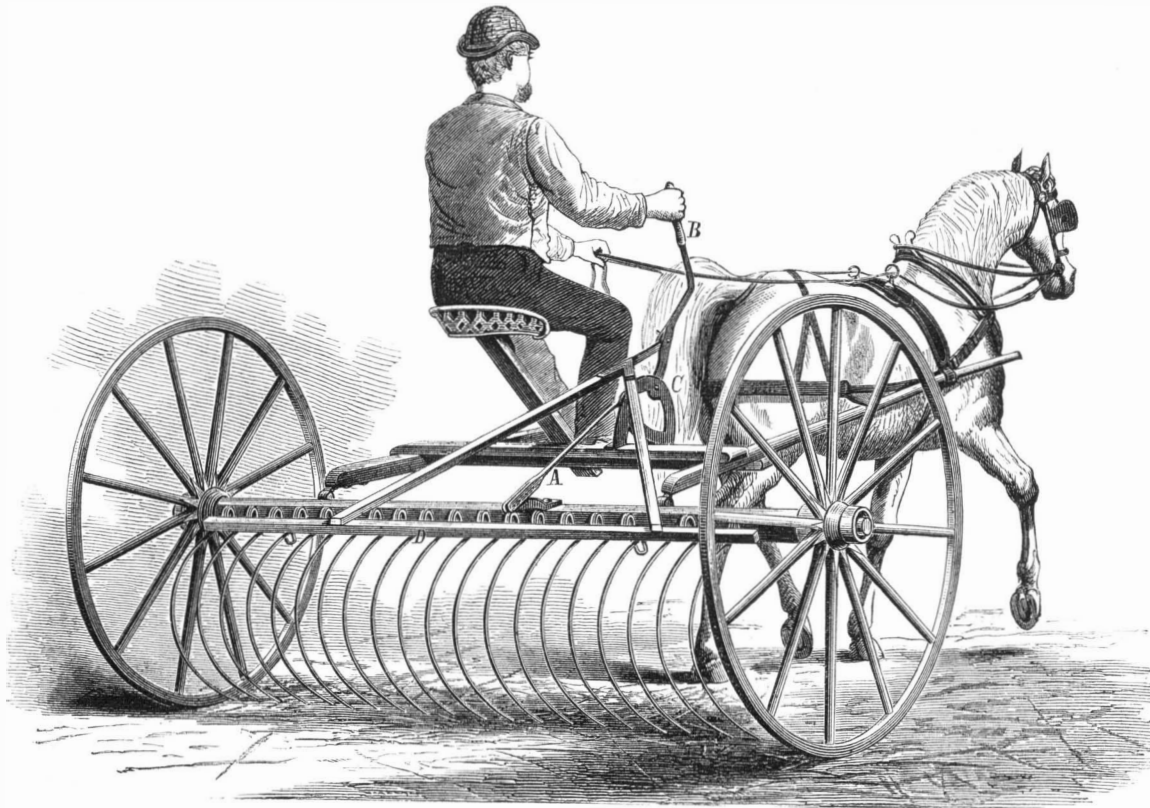
Dr. Luedersdorff, of Berlin, in discussing the cause of white paint turning yellow wherever it is excluded from the light, attributes this fault to an inseparable property of linseed oil, and believes that the only cure for it is to substitute some other material for the oil. The value of drying oils for mixing with pigments depends entirely on the property which they have of being converted, by the absorption of oxygen, into a peculiar resin. When entirely dry, this resin is the only bond of union, and to it the oil colors owe their stability. During this oxidation of the oil to a resin and the drying of the paint, especially where there is insufficient air and light, the yellowing takes place.

The author believes that if, instead of waiting for the oil to be gradually converted into a resin, an already formed and colorless resin were employed as binding material, the paint could not change in color. Out of the long list of resins to be chosen from, Luedersdorff selects two, one of which is soluble in alcohol, the other in turpentine; the former is gum sandarac, the latter gum dammar.

When sandarac is employed, it is first carefully picked over, and all pieces of bark or wood thrown out; 7 ozs. of sandarac, 2 ozs. Venice turpentine, and 24 ozs. of alcohol of 90 per cent Tralles, or specific gravity 0.833, are put in a suitable vessel over a slow fire or spirit lamp, and heated with diligent stirring until it is almost but not quite boiling. If the mixture be kept at this temperature, with frequent stirring, for an hour, the resin will all be dissolved, and the varnish is ready for use as soon as it is cool. The Venice turpentine is necessary to prevent too rapid drying, and more dilute alcohol cannot be employed because sandarac does not dissolve easily in weaker alcohol, and furthermore, the alcohol, by evaporation, would soon become so weak that the resin would be precipitated as a powder. When this is to be mixed with white lead, the latter must first be finely ground in water and dried again. It is then rubbed with a little turpentine on a slab, no more turpentine being taken than is absolutely necessary to enable it to be worked with the muller. One pound

of the white lead is then mixed with exactly half a pound of varnish and stirred up for use. It must be applied rapidly because it dries so quickly. If, when dry, the color is wanting in luster, it indicates the use of too much varnish. In such cases the article painted should be rubbed, when perfectly dry, with a woolen cloth to give it a gloss.

Dammar varnish is made by heating 8 oz. gum dammar in 16 oz. oil of turpentine to 60° or 70° R. (167° to 190° Fah.), stirring diligently and keeping it at this temperature until all

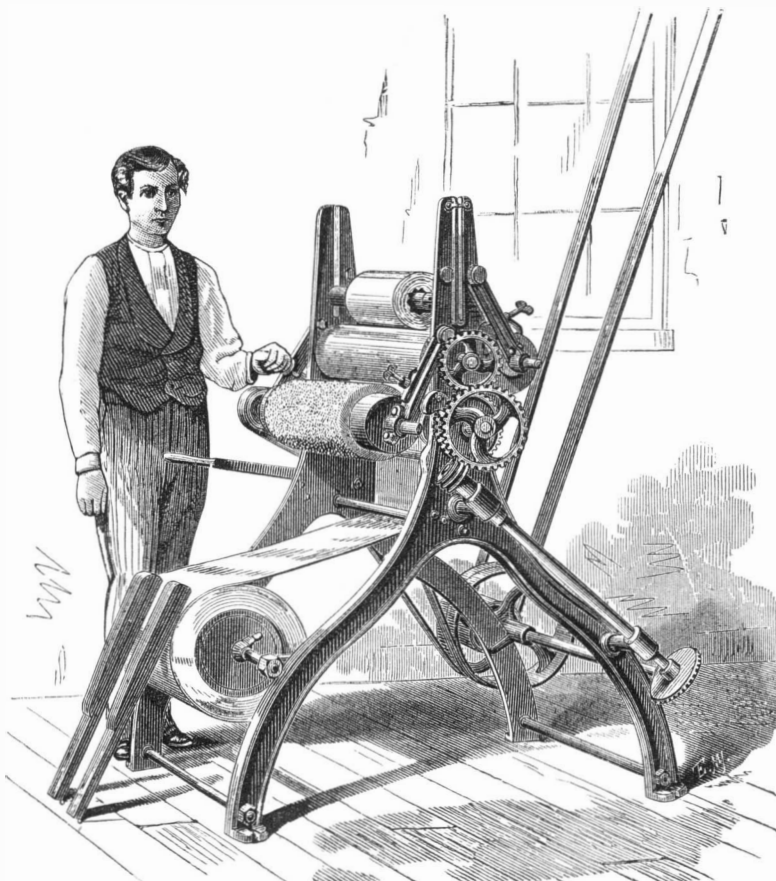
**MELLINGER'S HORSE HAY RAKE.**

old fancy for the brushes. Another party, who has just started one, has new clothing made on purpose for it, and is brushing for eleven sets.

Further particulars may be obtained from the manufacturer, Mr. C. Tompkins, Troy, N. Y.

Death Belts.

Frequently in cases of shipwreck, especially in comparatively smooth water, life belts would furnish a means of temporary safety until boats were got ready on shore. They would have done so in the case of the Northfleet, and in the still more recent instance of the Schiller. But the life belts must be genuine, and not pretexts for the purpose of figur-

**TOMPKINS' NAPPER AND BRUSHER.**

ing in advertisements as proofs of the care taken by the owners for the lives of their passengers. Those found upon the Schiller's victims appear to have been of the latter sort, consisting, as they did, of a few slabs of cork fastened together and to the person by one or two pieces of tape, and were thus worse than useless to a good swimmer; for it is stated that those who recovered the bodies declare that in very many instances they were found with the head under water and the heels in the air, showing that the belts had really drowned,

is dissolved, which requires about an hour. The varnish is decanted from any impurities and preserved for use. The second coat of paint, when dry, is dead white, and does not take a gloss so easily as the alcoholic paint. To give it a luster, a coat of the pure varnish, to which half its weight of oil of turpentine has been added, may be applied. It is still better to apply a coat of sandarac varnish made without alcohol, because dammar varnish alone does not possess the hardness of sandarac, and, when the article covered with it is handled much, does not last so long.

These paints are, of course, inferior in elasticity to freshly applied oil paint; but for window frames and closet doors, which do not require much bending, this is a quality easily dispensed with.

THE ANIMALISM OF PLANTS.

A century ago, Dr. Erasmus Darwin, grandfather of our

contemporary scientist who wrote the "Origin of Species," published a book entitled "The Botanic Garden": the second part of which bore the name of "The Loves of the Plants," and was much laughed at for its strange theories and the fantastic manner in which consciousness and volition were attributed to specimens of the vegetable kingdom. It was reserved for our day to show, beyond question or cavil, that paralysis of a plant can be produced by external injury, and that the existence of a nervous system in a vegetable cannot be denied; that flowers display their gorgeous hues to attract the insects which convey the impregnating pollen gathered from specimens of the other sex of the same plant; that flowers can not only digest and assimilate animal matter, but can crush insects and drop them on the soil for purposes of fertilization.

We publish herewith engravings of some carnivorous plants, which were described by Dr. Hooker, the cele-

brated botanist who has charge of the Royal Botanical Gardens, at Kew, Eng., in an address before the British Association, at its recent meeting at Belfast. Dr. Hooker and Mr. Darwin examined them very closely, and found that, when a fly was caught, it was dissolved in a digestive fluid exactly like ordinary gastric juice, and the same happened with a piece of beef; but when a mineral substance was placed on the leaf, there was no contraction. The fine hair on the leaf closed gently on a piece of wet chalk, but soon opened again, and rejected it. The experiments also proved that the contraction of the leaf was precisely similar to the contraction of a muscle, so that, as Dr. Hooker explained, it is not only proved that the digestion of the plant is like that of animals, but that it has a nervous system, and in fact forms one more link in the continuity of Nature. As our readers will see by reference to the engraving, these plants are furnished with various kinds of traps or snares for the unwary insects upon



CARNIVOROUS PLANTS.

which they live. The *sarracenia*, the large plant on the left of the page, the *nepenthes*, in the center, and the *cephalotus*, which is immediately below it, have lids which shut down upon their victims. The *darlingtonia*, shown on the right, curls its leaf around them; the *pinguicula*, in the right hand bottom corner, shuts itself up and curls its leaves; the *dionaea* on the left, below the *sarracenia*, also shuts itself upon its prey, and the *drosera*, in the left hand bottom corner, has an arrangement of fine lines ending with little knobs, which it throws over its prey, and thus secures it.

"To Mr. Ellis," says Dr. Hooker, "belongs the credit of divining the purpose of the capture of insects by the *dionaea*. But Rev. Dr. Curtis made out the details of the mechanism, by ascertaining the seat of the sensitiveness in the leaves; and he also pointed out that the secretion was not a lure exuded before the capture, but a true digestive fluid, poured out, like our own gastric juice, after the ingestion of food.

"For another generation the history of this wonderful plant stood still; but 1808 an American botanist, Mr. Canby, who is happily still engaged in botanical researches, while staying in the *dionaea* districts, studied the habits of the plant pretty carefully, especially the points which Dr. Curtis had made out. His first idea was that 'the leaf had the power of dissolving animal matter, which was then allowed to flow along the somewhat trough-like petiole to the root, thus furnishing the plant with highly nitrogenous food.' By feeding the leaves with small pieces of beef, he found, however, that these were completely dissolved and absorbed; the leaf opening again with a dry surface, and ready for another meal, though with an appetite somewhat jaded. He found that cheese disagreed horribly with the leaves, turning them black and finally killing them. Finally, he details the useless struggles of a curculio to escape, as thoroughly establishing the fact that the fluid already mentioned is actually secreted, and is not the result of the decomposition of the substance which the leaf has seized. This curculio, being of a resolute nature, attempted to eat his way out. 'When discovered he was still alive, and had made a small hole through the side of the leaf, but was evidently becoming very weak. On opening the leaf, the fluid was found in considerable quantity around him, and was without doubt gradually overcoming him. The leaf being again allowed to close upon him, he soon died.'"

The foregoing description and illustration appeared in a special edition of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, issued in December, 1874, and will be read with interest by all students of natural history and lovers of the marvelous in Science.

Sir John Lubbock has recently turned his attention to botany with special reference to the same thing, and has recently published "British Wild Flowers Considered in Relation to Insects," which will undoubtedly throw a great deal of light upon it. Meanwhile in this country no pains have been spared by those competent to investigate; and within the last year or two one lady in particular, Mrs. Mary Treat, of Vineland, N. J., herself both a practical botanist and a charming writer, encouraged in her pursuits by Professor Gray, of Cambridge, Massachusetts, has made diligent search for plants possessing these characteristics, and has patiently watched them through months of experimenting, keeping a diary and giving the information thus gained to the public. Mrs. Treat's latest experience is with bladderwort, which she carefully observed, and found ample proof that the little sacks are traps for water insects which are unsuspectingly drawn in and then consumed. She found that not only small insects were caught, but "innumerable moths, and butterflies two inches across, are held captive until they die—the bright flowers and brilliant, glistening dew luring them on to sure death." Some of these plants she took to the house, "away from atmospheric agitation," and began her experiments, pinning living flies "within a quarter of an inch of the most vigorous leaves; in less than an hour the flies' legs are entangled in the glands. I now take the long-leaved sun dew, which is more common and a more wonderful flytrap than either of the other species, place a struggling fly on a vigorous, healthy leaf; in less than three hours the leaf is folded completely around its victim. I take a bit of raw beef, placing it as nearly as possible on the center of the leaf; in twelve hours it is so enfolded in the leaf as to be completely hidden from view." Mineral substances, bits of chalk, etc., were not at all affected. Next she tried the round-leaved sun dew, whose leaves clasped a piece of raw beef in less time.

Killing Gophers.

The gopher is one of the most troublesome pests that the Western farmer has to contend with, and as difficult of extermination as any. Several inquiries have been made of us says *The Inter-Ocean*, as to the most effective means of disposing of them; and with a view of finding the most approved, we have consulted several farmers who have had extensive and painful experience with them. The plans for removal have been as various as the persons consulted, and have included poisoning, drowning, shooting, trapping, and other methods. But to our minds by far the best plan is that adopted and highly recommended by Dr. W. A. Pratt, of Elgin, Ill., and seems the most simple, least expensive, and most effective of any. He takes a light steel jaw trap, such as is used for catching rats, and crooks the catch (that passes over one of the jaws to the pan) a little, so as to allow the jaws to come nearer together than they do when set for ordinary purposes. He then sets the trap so that it will go off easily, and plants it bottom upwards over the gopher's hole, bringing the dirt a little around the edges so that the only apparent passage is through the jaws of the trap. The gopher, who generally comes out with some haste, rushes up, hits his head or paws against the pan of the trap, which unfastens it, and he is

caught securely in the jaws. Dr. Pratt says that a few days of persistent trapping in this way will completely clean out every vestige of the gophers from a large farm

A NEW MAGNETO-ELECTRIC ENGINE.

In order to investigate the induced currents produced by the application of armatures to horseshoe magnets, Professor W. R. Morse recently constructed the simple apparatus represented in Fig. 1. This consisted of cylindrical horse

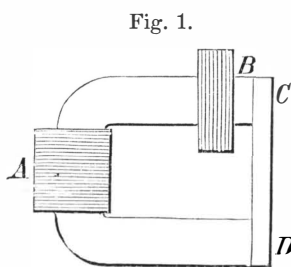


Fig. 1.

shoe electromagnets, the wires of which were wound about iron cores at the bend of the iron, so as to form practically straight electromagnets with cores horseshoe in form. A is the coil of the electromagnet, and B the induction coil. Upon exciting the electromagnet, induction currents arose in the coil of fine wire, B, both at making and breaking the circuit. These currents were measured by a reflecting galvanometer placed in the circuit of the coil, B, and were compared with those obtained from the same electromagnet by placing a straight armature, C, D, upon its poles, and then exciting the electromagnet.

The results of experimenting show that a marked increase, amounting to nearly 25 per cent in the strength of the induction currents, is due to the application of the armature to the poles of the electromagnet. The first induced current after the removal of the armature, which results from again making the current in the electromagnet, shows the same increased effect, but the following current, resulting from breaking the circuit of the electromagnet, falls to its normal amount. This is noteworthy as indicating, according to the author, a certain molecular change in the iron due to the application of the armature.

Generally, it also appears that the induction currents, resulting even from the employment of straight soft iron armatures which had been carefully deprived of residual magnetism, are more than four times as strong as those obtained by merely slipping the induction coil on and off the limits of the electromagnet; and when electromagnet armatures are used, the effects far surpass those obtained by non-magnetic soft iron straight armatures.

Based on these facts, a magneto-electric engine of the fol-

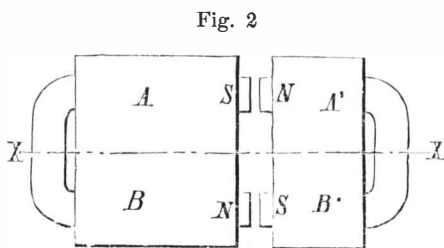


Fig. 2.

lowing construction is suggested by Professor Trowbridge: The horseshoe armature is made to revolve around the line, X X, Fig. 2, as an axis. It has been found by experiment that, when a north and south pole are opposed, the induction currents through B and A' are in the same direction, and those through B' and A are also in one direction. By a suitable commutator, the currents circulating through the coils on the stationary magnet can be sent through those on the armature, and *vice versa*. The residual magnetism in soft iron is sufficient to start the induced currents. Experiments, says the *American Journal of Science and Art*, are now being made upon the engine.

A Word to Young Mechanics.

"When Tubal Cain began to invent utensils and started to make a din in his forge, I suppose the first idea that struck him—for he must have been very observing in his youth—was that some materials are soft and easily manipulated, while others are of a more obdurate and ungovernable nature, and consequently require different treatment at the hand of him who would attempt to work them into new forms, so as to mold the shapeless mass to his uses, or engrave order and design upon chaos. With the lesson to be learned from the example of this pioneer of our order in view, I desire to say a word to young mechanics that would have been valuable to me while in the maze of study in the days in which I was learning a trade.

Every one that ever learned a trade knows that many a time he has been without any clear idea of what he was doing, having merely acted as the machine of a master who was credited with being a No. 1 mechanic and all which that should imply, but who just lacked one thing, and that a very important one—he did not understand how to tell another how to do what he could do exceedingly well himself, and, as a general rule, got into a passion because his 'cub' didn't do it just to his mind. Now I could drop a word of advice here to journeymen; but you know, boys, as well as I do, that it is not our place to tell a 'jour.' anything, for fear his dignity might suffer, and ours too in consequence. But my advice to you is simply this: In starting out to learn a trade, make up your mind to learn and study both at the same time. This combination of occupations, it unfortunately happens, is rarely agreeable at fifteen or seventeen years of age, when one has just left school, and all study is looked at as something belonging to bygone days. I have been told by many a young man that work was his portion now, and that he didn't have time to study, and besides he was so tired at night that it was out of the question. My reply to those who speak in this way is:

'But you misunderstand me, my young friend. The lessons you need to study now are not taught in schools, colleges, or seminaries. You never see the books you need to apply your mind to now in libraries.'

I lay a piece of wood before the carpenter and say, 'my boy, that is one of your books.' I present a piece of iron to the blacksmith in the same manner, and on through all the branches of mechanism. The carpenter answers:

'Why, this is only a piece of pine, or of oak, and nothing more.' The smith will say: 'A bit of iron, and that's all.'

But here comes the question, 'what do you know of the nature of the wood, or of the iron, and why should you know its nature? True, you may be able to work them after a fashion, and your powers of imitation may enable you to be as good a mechanic as the man who taught you; but you will never thus, in the nature of things, excel, and excellence is what every young man should have in view in any pursuit, for without it you will be termed just what you so often hear of—only a mechanic.'

Every mechanic should have as thorough a knowledge of the material he works as has the best chemist in the land; and this cannot be arrived at without close study and attention to its every natural feature—strength, power of resistance, and tension; in short, everything connected with its working or transformation from one condition to another. This knowledge is what is meant when you hear a man spoken of as an experienced mechanic."—*Paper Trade Journal*.

Correspondence.

The Fireless Locomotive.

To the Editor of the *Scientific American*:

The fireless method of using steam is one of those simple affairs which need but little experiment to develop its best results.

Locomotives of this kind with large tanks will probably prove more economical than those with small tanks. If a tank, 3 feet diameter and 10 feet long, is capable, with one charge, of propelling a car with from 25 to 40 passengers a distance of 8 or 10 miles, a tank of twice this capacity would probably do considerably more than twice the amount of work, owing to the greater body of concentrated power and heat in proportion to the weight and surface of tank. The weight of these tanks may be reduced to a minimum by making them with hemispherical ends.

A tank of this form, 4 feet in diameter and 15 feet long, capable of sustaining a pressure of 360 lbs. per square inch safely, would weigh only about one third as much as an ordinary locomotive boiler. A tank of this size once charged with cold air only, to a pressure of 350 lbs. would propel an ordinary horse car load of passengers about five miles, if I figure correctly; if charged with water and steam at the same pressure, it would probably propel the same load some twenty miles. Notwithstanding this difference in expansive power of the two mediums, condensed air might prove the more economical and satisfactory of the two, especially in localities where ample water power could be obtained for condensing the air into reservoirs for charging the locomotive tanks.

A foreign periodical recently contained an illustrated description of a car propelled by a series of coiled steel springs arranged upon a single shaft beneath the car; but nothing very satisfactory seemed to be developed by this device. At present there seems to be nothing so likely to supersede horses on street railroads as the fireless locomotive or a system of condensed air engines. When the possibilities of both of these systems are fully developed, city transit will be conducted much more cheaply and satisfactorily than it now is.

Worcester, Mass.

F. G. WOODWARD.

Fire Escapes Wanted.

To the Editor of the *Scientific American*:

The French church in which the Holyoke horror occurred was a large wooden building constructed of inflammable pine, with insufficient modes of exit in case of accident. Under such conditions, the best fire department in the world is helpless, and the only possible remedy is to rigidly require such buildings to be properly constructed. The only door by which escape could be made opened inwardly; and as was the case in the accident at a New York church several weeks ago, the frenzied crowd of men, women, and children pressed against it, barring their only way of escape, and became a prey to the raging flames.

There must be a remedy for all this. There must be responsibility somewhere for an arrangement that will crowd seven hundred strong men, timid women, and helpless children into a small church with no sufficient means of egress in case of an alarm. The church at South Holyoke is not the first that has been thus destroyed, and with it the lives of many human beings; yet that church, and many another like it, seems to have been constructed with a special view to occasioning a loss of life in the event of a stampede. This large and densely packed congregation were quietly seated in their church at a certain moment; and in twenty minutes thereafter, seventy-five of their number lay dead and dying, trampled under foot, crushed by fatal leaps, or blackened by the flames that rushed upon them. There was not a person in that church who could not, with an uninterrupted passage, have placed himself in security from danger in the space of one minute. If the means of egress had been sufficient to empty the church in five minutes, all would have been saved.

The estimates for the strength of gallery and floor are

based upon the largest crowds they can hold, and may be calculated with accuracy. Why should not similar estimates and calculations be made in determining the facility for emptying a place for public gathering? Why should not the architect picture to his mind's eye a great audience struggling for egress, as well as standing or sitting, wedged in together, on the floor and gallery? There is need for the law to control these matters. Provision can be made, and it should be compelled to be. We forbid the building of frame structures in our cities; we maintain, at enormous cost to the public treasury, and by an onerous tax on private property, efficient and skillful fire departments; we cover the roofs of our cities with a network of telegraph wires that summon, at an instant's warning, the distant engine to the scene of a conflagration; we take every public precaution against the destruction of property by fire; yet we take none against the destruction of human life through the same instrumentality. To save some slight expense, an extra flight of stairs, or an extra door and a few convenient windows, the law permits hundreds of persons to be gathered into a pen from which there is no escape in case of confusion and alarm, to be seated, as it were, over a magazine that may be exploded in an instant.

There is just as much danger of fire in every church and public place as there was in the church at South Holyoke. Drapery and lights in close proximity may be noted anywhere. It chanced there, as it may in any such place, that the light touched the drapery; that a small stream of flame shot terror into some one's heart; that there was a cry, and, as the contagion of fright increased, a rush for the door. All this may occur in any place where a crowd is gathered; but it is not from every place that, when the rush begins, the crowd can escape. The crowd could not readily pour itself out of the South Holyoke church, nor can a startled crowd so pour itself out of anyone of two thirds of the churches and halls in this country.

Indianapolis, Ind.

L. K. Y.

The Motive Power of Light.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

I read in your paper an account of Professor Crookes' instrument for proving the motive power of sunlight. In Dick's "Practical Astronomer," chapter 1, you will find a description of a device made for the same purpose thirty years ago.

R. L. TAYLOR.

914 Chestnut street, Philadelphia, Pa.

The following is the description to which our correspondent refers:

[From "The Practical Astronomer," by Thomas L. Dick, LL.D. Published in 1848.]

"Light, though extremely minute, is supposed to have a certain degree of force momentum. In order to prove this, the late ingenious Mr. Mitchell contrived the following experiment: He constructed a small vane in the form of a common weathercock, of a very thin plate of copper, about an inch square, and attached to one of the finest harpsicord wires about ten inches long, and nicely balanced at the other end of the wire by a grain of very small shot. The instrument had also fixed to it in the middle, at right angles to the length of the wire, and in a horizontal direction, a small bit of a very slender sewing needle, about half an inch long, which was made magnetical. In this state the whole instrument might weigh about ten grains. The vane was supported in the manner of the needle in the mariner's compass, so that it could turn with the greatest ease; and to prevent its being affected by the vibrations of the air, it was enclosed in a glass case or box. The rays of the sun were then thrown upon the broad part of the vane, or copper plate, from a concave mirror of about two feet diameter, which, passing through the front glass of the box, were collected into the focus of the mirror upon the copper plate. In consequence of this, the plate began to move with a slow motion of about an inch in a second of time, till it had moved through a space of about two inches and a half, when it struck against the back of the box. The mirror being moved, the instrument returned to its former situation; and the rays of the sun being again thrown upon it, it again began to move, and struck against the back of the box as before. This was repeated three or four times with the same success.

On the above experiment the following calculation has been founded: If we impute the motion produced in this experiment to the impulse of the rays of light, and suppose that the instrument weighed ten grains, and acquired a velocity of one inch in a second, we shall find that the quantity of matter contained in the rays falling upon the instrument in that time amounted to no more than one twelve-hundredth-millionth part of a grain, the velocity of light exceeding the velocity of one inch in a second in the proportion of about 12,000,000,000 to 1. The light in this experiment was collected from a surface of about three square feet, which reflected only about half what falls upon it; the quantity of matter contained in the rays of the sun, incident upon a foot and a half of surface in one second of time, ought to be no more than the twelve-hundred-millionth part of a grain. But the density of the rays of light at the surface of the sun is greater than that at the earth in the proportion of 45,000 to 1; there ought, therefore, to issue from one square foot of the sun's surface, in one second of time, in order to supply the waste by light, $\frac{1}{45000}$ th part of a grain of matter, that is, a little more than two grains a day, or about 4,752,000 grains, or 670 pounds avoirdupois, nearly, in 6,000 years; a quantity which would have shortened the sun's diameter no more than about ten feet, if it were formed of the density of water only.

If the above experiment be considered as having been ac-

curately performed, and if the calculation founded upon it be correct, it appears that there can be no grounds for apprehension that the sun can ever be sensibly diminished by the immense and incessant radiations proceeding from his body on the supposition that light is a material emanation. For the diameter of the sun is no less than 880,000 miles; and before this diameter could be shortened, by the emission of light, one English mile, it would require three millions one hundred and sixty-eight thousand years, at the rate now stated; and before it could be shortened ten miles, it would require a period of about thirty-one millions of years. And although the sun were thus actually diminished, it would produce no sensible effect or derangement throughout the planetary system. We have no reason to believe that the system, in its present state and arrangements, was intended to endure for ever; and before the luminary could be so far reduced, during the revolutions of eternity, as to produce any irregularities in the system, new arrangements and modifications might be introduced by the hand of the All Wise and Omnipotent Creator. Besides, it is not improbable that a system of means is established by which the sun and all the luminaries in the Universe receive back again a portion of the light which they are continually emitting, either from the planets from whose surface it is reflected, or from the millions of stars whose rays are continually traversing the immense space of creation, or from some other source to us unknown."

Our Patent System.

"A Defence of our Patent System," and "Our Country's Debt to Patents," are the titles of two essays, written respectively by Mr. John S. Perry, of Albany, N. Y., and Mr. H. Howson, of Philadelphia, and published under the auspices of the United States Patent Association, in a handy volume, by J. R. Osgood & Co., of Boston, Mass. Mr. Perry's paper is a reply to the speech of Hon. H. B. Saylor, in the House of Representatives, last winter, in support of a bill permitting the free use of any article made under a single patent, on the payment of a royalty of 10 per cent and the filing of a bond by the user. The object of the measure was the prevention of such monopolies as those controlled by the sewing machine ring and the hat body people; but the provisions advocated, as we remarked in commenting upon them at the time, were objectionable and contrary to public policy for a variety of reasons, which need not here be recapitulated as the bill was not passed.

Mr. Perry does not confine himself to showing up the disadvantages of Mr. Saylor's proposition, but goes further and denies, *in toto*, the latter gentleman's statements as to the profits made by the various industries involving the manufacture of patented articles; and he fortifies his denials by the testimony of a number of manufacturers and inventors, and by the assertion that the census returns, from which Mr. Saylor gathered his statistics, are entirely unreliable. There are several points in Mr. Perry's statements as to the profits of the sewing machine people, and those of various other manufacturers, which are open to criticism; but, in the main, his views on the general subject of our patent system are sound and able. He says, very truly, that "a patent law compels the inventor, if he would avail himself of its benefits, to make the inventions known by spreading out a minute description of the same upon the public records of the Office, and, if he would reap pecuniary advantage, to publish them to the world, thereby giving an opportunity for their general adoption. . . . In no sense can a patent be considered an injustice to the public, because it takes nothing from them which they had ever before possessed; on the contrary, it gives them something new, some increased facility, some more advantageous method, a cheaper substitute for a rare and costly article. . . . In proportion as the patent system has stimulated and developed inventions among our people, have our mechanical arts risen in importance, until our power in this direction has become recognized throughout the world."

Mr. Howson's essay will, without doubt, interest every one who is himself interested in patents. He deals with the subject in a practical and lucid manner, and his remarks are well worth careful perusal. We give an extract below, and shall present other selections in future issues.

"We constantly hear the word 'patents' from the mouths of the manufacturer and mechanic, the wholesale merchant and retail dealer, and the farmer, and always in connection with something that is novel, or of superior quality, or some thing that can be obtained at a cheaper rate than usual.

Now and then we hear the word uttered in contemptuous tones by disappointed speculators, jealous manufacturers, men who would invent without being inventors, or by those who would attempt to cure the minor evils always accompanying even the most salutary and beneficent systems of public policy, not by attacking these evils in detail, but by the disorganization of the whole system.

Common as the word is, there are few who are aware how intimately related patents are to our present well-being and comfort, how much we owe to patents in the past, how much we have to hope from them in the future, and how intimately they are interwoven with our whole social system."

WHAT PATENTS HAVE DONE FOR US.

"I propose to show how grateful we ought to be for our patent system, not by any elaborate investigation of different branches of industry, not by any lengthy historical and statistical researches, but by confining my remarks to familiar objects within my reach in the room which I now occupy—a library furnished with the ordinary accessories which a professional man requires.

There is a tapestry carpet on the floor, a carpet with a tasty pattern woven in brilliant colors. Twenty-five years ago, a

skilled workman could weave by hand two yards per day of a carpet like this, but not equal in quality; and now a single power loom will weave twenty yards per day. 'The carpets, moreover,' to quote the words of a well known authority, 'are more exact in their figures, so that they are perfectly matched, and their surface is smooth and regular. They surpass, indeed, in their quality, the best carpets of their kind manufactured in any other part of the world.'

To-day these superior carpets can be purchased at half the cost per yard charged for the inferior hand-made carpets of thirty years ago; that is, if we take into account the difference in value of money then and now.

To what shall we attribute this rapid progress in the manufacture of carpets? To Erastus B. Bigelow, you will say. I shall not be detracting from the merits of this great American inventor in saying, as I believe he himself would say, that the rapid progress of this manufacture is due quite as much to our patent system as to Bigelow's ingenuity.

This accomplished patentee spent years of studious application in the production of his loom. Where was the incentive to this laborious mental task? The reward which our patent system held out to him. Where was the incentive for capitalists to invest money in the manufacture of these carpets on a large scale? The security which patents afforded for the investment. Mr. Bigelow, although the most prominent inventor in this branch of industry, was not the sole contributor to its progress. Crompton and hosts of other patentees, have aided in bringing this manufacture to its present perfection, or rather to its present state of excellence; for we cannot foresee the end which perfection implies. We must look for further improvements, based on future patented inventions, providing progress is not obstructed by legislation tending to destroy the motive to invent. It is safe to say that better carpets may be seen to-day in the cottages of hardworking artisans than were found forty years ago in the houses of the wealthiest citizens; and this is due to the ingenuity called out by the incentives which patents have presented, and continue to present. It is not the wealthy alone who are gainers by our patent system; it is the masses who derive the greatest comforts from that source.

Before I leave the carpet, let me say that its greater durability is insured by a cheap patented lining, for different styles of which a dozen or two of patents have been granted, and that the carpet is secured by patent fastenings, on the production of which much ingenuity has been expended; for patents for these little devices can be counted by the score."

To be continued.

The Inventor's Paradise.

"A thousand patents," says a London writer, "are granted every month in the United States for new inventions. This number exceeds the aggregate issue of all the European States, yet the supply does not equal the demand, and the average value of patents is greater in America than in Europe by reason of the vast number of new industrial enterprises and the higher price of manual labor. A hundred thousand dollars is no unusual consideration for a patent-right, and some are valued by millions. The annual income from licenses granted on the Blake sole sewing machine is over three hundred thousand dollars, and other patented inventions are equally profitable. Inventors are encouraged by the moderate government fee of thirty-five dollars, which secures an invention for seventeen years without further payment; the rights of patentees are generally respected by the public; and no national legislator, with a single exception, has ventured to propose the abolition of a system which at once secures substantial justice to inventors and proves of incalculable advantage to the nation."

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DECISIONS OF THE COURTS.

Supreme Court of the United States.

PATENT PAPER COLLAR.—THE UNION PAPER COLLAR COMPANY, APPELLANTS, vs ISAAC VAN DEUSEN, JOHN VAN DEUSEN, AND HENRY BOEHMER, PARTNERS, AS VAN DEUSEN, BOEHMER & CO.

[Appeal from the Circuit Court of the United States for the Southern District of New York.—Decided at the October term, 1874.]

The purpose of a reissue is to render effectual the actual invention for which the original patent should have been granted—not to introduce new features.

Therefore in an application for reissue, parol testimony is not admissible to enlarge the scope of the invention beyond what was described, suggested, or substantially indicated in the original specification, drawings, or Patent Office model.

Whether a reissued patent is for the same invention as the original depends upon whether the specification and drawings of the reissued patent are substantially the same as those of the original; and if not, whether the omissions or additions are or are not greater than the law allows to cure the defect of the original.

Where the original patent for improvement in paper shirt collars, granted to Andrew A. Evans, May 26, 1863, stated the invention to consist, first, in making the collars of parchment paper, or paper prepared with animal sizing; and second, in coating one or both sides of the collar with a thin varnish of bleached shellac to give smoothness, strength, and stiffness, and to repel moisture, the claim being for "a shirt collar made of parchment paper, and coated with varnish of bleached shellac, substantially as described, and for the objects specified;" Held, that a reissue thereof which describes a paper other than parchment paper, or one prepared with animal sizing, and which does not require either side of the collars to be coated with a varnish of bleached shellac for any purpose, the claim being for "a collar made of long fiber paper, substantially such as is above described," is for a different invention from that embodied in the original patent.

Articles of manufacture may be new in the commercial sense when they are not new in the sense of the patent law.

New articles of commerce are not patentable as new manufactures unless it appears in the given case that the production of the new article involved the exercise of invention or discovery beyond what was necessary to construct the apparatus for its manufacture.

It appearing that the collars made by Evans, apart from the paper composing them, were identical in form, structure, and arrangement with collars previously made of linen, paper of different quality, and of other fabrics, and that Evans did not invent the paper used by him, nor the process by which it was obtained: Held, that he was entitled to a patent for the collars as a new manufacture.

The relation of employer and employé, in regard to the origin of inventions, stated.

The object in turning down a collar on a curved line instead of a straight line is precisely the same, whether the collar be all paper, paper and linen, or all linen. Hence, where it appeared that linen collars had been turned over on a curved line to prevent wrinkling, and to afford space for the cravat: Held, that it was not patentable to apply the same mode of turning down to collars of paper or paper and linen.

Reissued patent of Andrew A. Evans for "Improvement in Paper Shirt Collars," July 10, 1866 (original May 26, 1863), and of Solomon S. Gray, March 29, 1864 (original June 23, 1863), pronounced invalid.

Mr. Justice Clifford delivered the opinion of the court.

J. A. Seward, for appellant.
J. J. Coombs & E. Wemore, for appellees.

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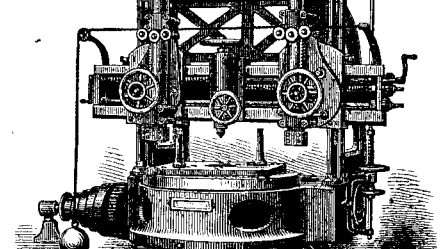
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