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(NEW SERIES.)

NEW YORK, DECEMBER 25, 1875.

GRAND CENTRAL DEPOT SIGNAL SYSTEM.

Three great railroads have their termini in the Grand Central Depot, located on 42d street, in New York city. An illustration and description of this immense structure have already appeared in these columns. With the exception of the interval between 1:10 and 3:40 in the morning, and of fifty minutes at noon, no period of fifteen minutes elapses in which some train does not depart or arrive via the Harlem, the Hudson River, or the New York, Hartford and New Haven road. One hundred and eighteen regular, and from ten to fifteen extra, trains daily pass, in one direction or the other over the tracks on the underground road between 53d street and Harlem bridge, a distance of nearly four and a half miles. Barely two minutes sometimes in-

tervenes between the departure of one train and the incoming of another, and three trains often start at intervals of five minutes apart.

It is obvious that. in order to prevent confusion and accident, the movements of each and every one of these trains, while traveling between the points named, must be governed with absolute certainty. Add to this that crowd after crowd of passengers must be admitted from the reception room to the outgoing cars at exactly the proper time, and the checking of their baggage must be stopped in time to insure its despatch by the proper trains; and the reader will have formed some faint idea of the perfect system which must exist for the management of the machinery of the great depot and its approaches. To indicate the salient points of this system is the object of the present article; and in the ac companying illustrations are represented such devices pertaining thereto as are interesting, both in respect to ingenuity of design and mechani-

The system as a whole may be divided

cal novelty

into three really distinct though closely interwoven parts: first, the means whereby trains are received and despatched, and also the internal operations of the depot controlled; second, the electro-magnetic way signals; and third, the novel interlocking apparatus for switches and crossings. For the sake of clearness, we shall begin with the first, mentioning the locomotive waiting outside rings for the engineer to back merely results, and leaving the explanation of the same to in and couple on. Hardly ten seconds elapse before a sharp consideration in connection with the other two topics.

Located far up on the north wall of the depot, the view from its broad window extending over the intricate network of rails into which the various tracks diverge, is a small cabin, the interior appearance of which the reader has before him in the largest of the engravings herewith given, Fig. 1. On the wall hang signal indicators and bells, time tables, and a huge clock. On the table before the single occupant are a telegraph instrument, a record book, and three rows of ivory buttons, twenty in all. This is the despatcher's office, and here, by pressing the buttons or manipulating the telegraph key, he controls the movement of every train going or coming, the buttons, through simple electric bells, governing everything near and about the depot, the key transmitting instructions to far-off points. By way of illustration, we suppose that one train is to start at 4:30, and that another will arrive at 4:31 o'clock. It is now just 4:10, the passengers are congregated in the waiting room, the cars are in place; and the engine, with steam up, is standing outside, not other button, the operator restores the danger signal. The

yet attached. The despatcher touches a button, the sound of a bell is heard, the heavy doors of the waiting room fly open, and the passengers crowd upon the cars. Fifteen minutes elapse: the operator presses another button, a gong strikes in the baggage room, and the checking is stopped. Belated individuals who wish to depart by that train must go minus their baggage. Now the operator watches the clock closely; three minutes pass, and then a sharp peal rings out from a bell close beside him. The minute hand points to 4:28, and the incoming train has reached 64th street and is signaling its own approach. The sound continues for half a minute, then stops; the train is at 55th street, and the finger of the despatcher at once presses another button. If we were on the arriving locomotive, we should see a green disk

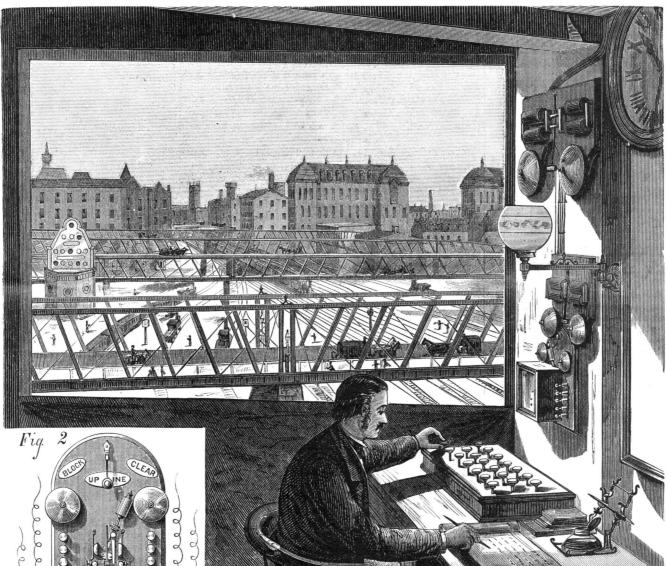
arriving train now rushes in, its passengers disembark, and at the sound of the bell from the despatcher, a locomotive kept for the purpose, couples on and drags the empty cars out of the depot.

We have accounted for twenty-one minutes, during which one train has left and one arrived; the reader may imagine the celerity and certainty of the work when we add that. within the fifteen minutes which we recently spent in the despatcher's cabin, three trains on three different roads were started and three received, all at different times and without the slightest confusion.

The electric bells about the depot being of simple and well known construction, and sounded by the establishing of the current when the buttons are pressed, need no elucidation;

and therefore the points remaining which require explanation are those relative to the movement of the flying switch and danger signals by the despatcher, and also as regards the indicator which anpounced the passage of the train over the crossing. This brings us to the second branch of our subject.

The electro-magnetic way signals and their operations are represented in Fig. 3. The signal is a disk made of metal, painted red, and inclosing a circle of red glass. This is supported on a shaft, shown upright (it may be horizontal. or in fact in any position), which, by the gearing and weight shown at A, is rotated through the unwinding of the cord wound about the barrel of the larger gear wheel. The disk may be turned to present its full face or only its edge in any direction, in one case showing its full color and signaling "danger,' in the other being almost invisible and allowing the aperture of the frame or box in which it is placed to appear empty, meaning the reverse, or "clear road." It is obvious that, in order to govern the disk so that it must always appear



GRAND CENTRAL DEPOT.—TRAIN DESPATCHER'S OFFICE.

it is 4:29; down goes another button; a bell on a post beside "ting" calls the operator's attention to the fact that the pointer arm of the indicator on the wall has swung over from "clear" to "block." The arriving train is on the 53d street crossing. The clock says 4:30; again a button is pressed, the doors of the waiting room are slammed shut, there is a few seconds' delay for the tardy ones on the platforms to board the cars, and then the train moves slowly out of the depot. The indicator pointer still shows "block," and if the outgoing train continues its course a disastrous meeting on the crossing may result. The despatcher remains passive, however, for he knows that the signal between that train and the crossing is normally at "danger," and that the engineer will certainly come to a stop, and wait until the red disk is turned. The delay is but for a second for the indicator bell almost instantly sounds again, the arm swings over to "clear," and the proper button is immediately touched. A distant cloud of steam can be seen for a moment, and the outgoing train is off again. Pressing an-

before us, or at night the flash of a green light, meaning that | in one of the two positions—that is, full face or on edge everything is ready for the flying switch just outside the mechanism is required which will allow it to be rotated by depot, by which the engine is to clear itself from the train, the weight exactly one quarter revolution at a time, and no the cars entering the depot by their own momentum. Now more nor less. This apparatus is found in the simple electromagnetic device shown. Just below the disk, and rigidly secured to the shaft, are four arms having downward end projections, B. Also fixed on the shaft and further down is a cam, carrying beneath it two short vertical pins. The latter, as the shaft revolves, strike certain leaf springs, which will be seen on the circular stage, C, which is located iust above the frame which carries the electro-magnet, D. The armature, E, of the magnet is hinged at one side, and so placed that, when not attracted by the magnet, and consequently held outward by a suitable spring, the projections, B, strike against it as shown in the engraving, so holding the disk stationary. The construction is such, however, that when the circuit is closed by any means, through one of the springs on the circular stage, C, and the pin on the cam of the disk shaft, then the magnet will become active, the armature be drawn in, and the projection freed, when of course the action of the weight will revolve the disk. But as the latter revolves, the pin on the cam will pass clear of the spring on the stage; the current will then be broken, and the armature will fly back in time to intercept the next projection, B, preventing further movement of the disk, which (Continued on page 402.)

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Contents.

(Illustrated articles are marked with an asterisk.)

(III and a di tion of a			
Answers to correspondents	409	Liquid meters*	404
Reer drinking	406	Marking out guide bars*	405
Blacking for patterns (5)	409	Metal, white (4)	409
Bleaching horsehair (4)	409	Meter, liquid mechanical*	404
Breakwater the Manora	408	Meter, pulsating*	<u>404</u>
Bromide of camphor (11)	409	Meter, spirit*	404
Business and personal	409	Meter, the Siemens spirit*	404
Cementing leather to iron, etc. (2)	409	Meter, water*	401
Centrifugal force (16)	409	Mines, coal, light in	400
Corner lots	408	Newton's experiments	403
Dreams (18)	409	Patents, American and foreign	408
Drilling chilled iron (7)	409	Patents, official list of	410
Electric force, the new phase of*	401	Phosphorus light (12)	409
Electricity, another form of	400	Plant vases for decoration*	41)7
Engines two newstreet	401	Polygon area of a (17)	409
Filter a charcoal*	404	Polygon, area of a (17) Practical mechanism—No. 38*	405
Filters and liquid meters*	404	Quinine, doses of (9)	409
Filters domestic*	404	Rosin, black (3)	409
Filters, laboratory*	404	Shaping machine, double*	403
Filters, reversible*	404	Signals, Grand Central depot*.399,	402
Fish flour	406	Silk-spinning machinery*	406
Flouring mill, the largest	405	Skilled labor	403
Galley support, printer's*	402	Stove patterns, waxing (19)	409
Gases, volume and pressure of	403	Strains on a rope (15)	409
Gears, compound (20)	409	Telegraph poles, street	407
Grand Central depot signals*399	.402	Thermometer, mercury in a (1)	409
Greenhouses and hothouses*	407	Timely suggestions	401
Guns. recoil check for*	406	Vinegar, testing*	402
Hydraulic ram, the	402	Weight on an axle (14)	409
Index to volume XXXIII 411.	412	Weights and pulleys (13)	409
tife, the origin of	400	Welding iron and steel (6)	409
Lighthouses, illumination for	406	Welding iron and steel (6)	406
Lightning rod ignorance, loss from	400	Wood boiled in oil (10)	409

THE END.

With this issue, the time for which a large number of our subscribers have prepaid expires. We hope that all will renew their subscriptions, and bring some of their friends and neighbors with them. The safest way to remit is by Postal Order, Express, Bank Check to order of Munn & Co., or Registered Letter. But little risk is incurred in sending bank bills by mail, although the above-named methods are safest, Beautiful Chromo Name Lists and Special Prospectuses and Circulars sent on application. For terms, see page 410 of this paper.

THE ORIGIN OF LIFE.

Whether the line of experimental investigation adopted by Bastian and other students of spontaneous generation will ever lead to a convincing demonstration of the origin of life de novo is very doubtful. However fine the apparatus employed, however exacting the precautions against the slip ping in of germs from without or their escape from destruction within, the ingenuity of the opponents of the theory will always be able to discover a possible broken link in the chain of evidence.

Like many another point of scientific controversy, this, we suspect, will be flanked rather than carried by direct assault. As in the case of magic and witchcraft-belief in which died a natural death in the minds of intelligent people, superseded by more rational views of man and Nature, but never logically demolished—so, we are inclined to think, the mystery of life's beginning will undergo a natural solution.

Those who hold to the dogma of "no life without antece dent life" are compelled to assume, at some point in the history of the Universe, the occurrence of nothing less than a miracle—that is to say, a phenomenon unknown to Science, and logically unsupposable from a truly scientific point of

Life must have begun somewhere, once at least. If it was not a natural product of material conditions, its beginning must have marked a positive breach in that causal connection of events without which Science would be impossible. The weight of all experience is against assumption of such a breach of continuity: in other words, against a miraculous origin of life. On the other hand the weight of experience is equally against the assumption of a material condition absolutely unique in character. If life arose once in consequence of material conditions, Science affords no justification for the assertion that such conditions may not be repeated, possibly in our laboratories.

This is substantially the position taken by Mr. Proctor in the latest expressions of his views, and by Professor Tyndall in his latest discussion of matter and life; and such appears to be the growing conviction of those of the present generation of scientists most pervaded by the spirit of scientific progress. Says Professor Tyndall: "The conclusion of Science which recognizes unbroken casual connection be- the soil. If the ground is always moist, a smaller extent of tween the past and the present would undoubtedly be that the molten earth contained within it elements of life, which than if the soil is generally dry.

grouped themselves into their present forms as the planet cooled." The context shows that by "elements of life," Professor Tyndall does not mean entities but possibilities of molecular condition by which the phenomena of life were to be evolved in the natural course of events, not by the miraculous addition of a new force but by means of the forces already in play.

"The difficulty and reluctance encountered by this conception," he continues, "arise solely from the fact that the theologic conception obtained a prior footing in the human mind. Did the latter depend upon reasoning alone, it could not hold its ground for an hour against its rival. * * * Were not man's origin implicated, we should accept without a murmur the derivation of animal and vegetable life from what we call inorganic nature. The conclusion of pure intellect points this way and no other."

Admitting the natural origin of life, the question arises When did life begin?

One branch of the evolution school delights to trace the existing forms of life back to some primodial germ: through changing conditions, the tendency of living things to vary from generation to generation, the survival of the fittest, etc., the one has become many. But there is from this point of view no satisfactory accounting for the persistence of so many primitive forms, or for the present preponderance of undeveloped forms. Nor is there any sufficient reason given for assuming that life began once, and once only. in the distant past.

A more logical position is occupied by those who favor the hypothesis that the material conditions: under which life originates are common conditions; consequently that the low forms of life which swarm in the waters of today are low because of their recentness. If they resemble long past fessil forms, they do so from some natural law of evolution, rather than in consequence of direct descent. From this point of view there may be no closer kinship between humanity and existing brutes than arises from a common relationship to Mother Earth. Man may be cousin to the ape but that does not necessarily follow from the theory of evolution, as the Science of the future will regard it.

HEAVY LOSS FROM LIGHTNING ROD IGNORANCE.

On the 6th of September last the large woolen mill of Robert Fitton, Esq., at Cavendish, Vt., was struck by lightning and consumed, with a loss of \$100,000; 130 persons were thrown out of employment. The mill was 45 feet wide, 106 feet long, 4 stories high. It had a flat, gravelcovered roof, and around the eaves ran a 3 inch iron lightning rod with vertical points every four feet. From the eaves rod six branch rods extended to the ground, five of which terminated at a depth of three feet below the surface, and the other was carried thirty feet underground to the bank of a pond. These particulars have been mostly furnished to us by the proprietor of the mill. The Boston Commercial Bulletin states that the insurance underwriters regarded the mill as particularly well protected against light ning, as there was upon it an unusual array of rods, which had been overhauled and put in good order during the year. Yet the mill was struck, the flames flashing instantaneously through the spinning room. The Bulletin thinks that the loss of this mill shows what value there is in lightning rods. The insurance companies had to pay \$84,000 in settlement.

The principal comment we have to offer is that the burning of the Cavendish mill was a glaring example of the results of lightning rod ignorance. It would be difficult to find a more sagacious or enterprising body of business men than are the presidents, directors, secretaries, inspectors, and agents of our fire insurance companies. It would naturally be supposed that, in a matter which so directly affects their pecuniary interests as fire losses from lightning, they would take great pains to acquire knowledge concerning the means of safety, and promulgate the strictest requirements among insurers. But they appear to be lacking in this respect, although year after year the records of annual losses of millions in property, by fire caused by lightning, are forced upon their attention, and large sums of money in damages are drawn from their coffers. By consulting the naval records they may easily satisfythemselves that, while formerly the losses of ships and lives by lightning were enormous, the losses immediately ceased when rods were introduced upon vessels; and at the present day we seldom or never hear of a serious injury to or loss of life from lightning, upon a properly rodded ship. The same appliance that protects a wooden vessel at sea will protect a wooden building n land, and we will here briefly describe this applian though in doing so we only repeat what we have oftentimes

In general terms, a ship's lightning rod consists of a rope or rod of copper or iron wire, lashed to the rigging and extended from the sky pole down so as to connect at any suitable place with the copper bottom, which is in contact with the sea. The rod thus has for its terminal a very large surface of conducting material, larger in fact than the deck surface of the vessel, and the lightning passes off harmlessly.

The golden rule of safety for rodded buildings is analogous to the above. The rod must have for its terminal a very large surface of conducting material, placed underground in contact with the earth. Without such a terminal, no rod can be considered safe.

How large should be the conducting surface of the terminal, and of what materials made? The area of conducting surface necessary to ensure safety varies with the nature of conducting surface for the bottom of the rod will be safer

To meet the contingency of a very dry soil at the driest season of the year, the electrician, Mr. David Brooks, of Philadelphia, recommends that the rod have for its terminal a conducting surface, placed underground, equal in area to that of the roof of the building; if this rule errs, it is probably on the side of safety.

Applying the Brooks rule to the Cavendish mill, the rods should have had for their terminals, underground, 4,770 square feet of conducting material, in contact with the earth, instead of which they only had the beggarly amount of less than thirteen square feet. No wonder that the building was struck.

Of what material should the terminals of lightning rods be composed? Iron or copper plates or pipes are the best material. In all cases where there are underground water pipes, the rods should connect with them. If these are of any considerable extent, nothing more is required. In cases where metal terminals cannot be provided, then good charcoal may be used in quantity sufficient to furnish the required extent of conducting surface. This substance ranks next to the metals in conductivity. It may be placed in a trench leading away from the building, with the rod extended along the center. Full particulars concerning lightning rods, the electrical laws concerning them, the electrician's tests for safety, and the best methods for their construction have been given, many times over, in our back numbers; but we propose to continue the subject from time to time so long as may be necessary. We are confident that, if the insurance companies were each to spend seven dollars and place the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN and SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLE-MENT on file in their respective offices during the year 1876, they would derive many most valuable suggestions from our pages, not only concerning the means of safety from lightning, but the prevention of fires of every description: suggestions which, if required to be carried into practice by insurers, would save large sums of money to the companies.

LIGHT IN COAL MINES.

Two or three years ago the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN suggested a plan of lighting coal mines from without, so as to do away with miners' lamps, and thereby avoid the explosions of fire damp inseparable from their use. The terrible explosion which occurred on December 6 in a Yorkshire colliery, a colliery said to be worked entirely with safety lamps under very rigid discipline, gives fatal emphasis to the demand for a different mode of illuminating such works.

The experiments described in this paper (page 129, volume XXXI.) amply demonstrate the unsafety of safety lamps in places where blasting is practised, the sound wave generated by a blast driving the flame through the wire mesh of the lamp and firing the explosive air without. However perfect the lamp may be, however carefully managed, the protection it affords is only partial; and explosions are liable to occur so long as they are employed. The safety of the miners demands, therefore, the exclusion of all illuminating flames, wherever fire damp is liable to exist, and the lighting of the mines by luminous radiations incapable of exploding fire.

This could be accomplished very easily, we believe, by the generation of the light without the mine (or else at the foot of a ventilating shaft), and its conveyance through tubes to the points requiring illumination. Beams of concentrated light could be sent to any distance through pipes having reflectors suitably placed at bends and angles, or without reflectors, provided the interior of the pipes were smooth and bright. The cost of such lighting would probably be less than the cost of lamps, and the degree of illumination might easily be such as to flood the mine with the brilliancy of day-

Another substitute for treacherous safety lamps might be found in electricity, the lanterns being clesed so as to make it impossible for explosions to occur. If the insulation of the conducting wires should prove a serious obstacle, it is quite possible that Mr. Edison's "etheric force" would do the work as well without insulation.

THE DISCOVERY OF ANOTHER FORM OF ELECTRICITY.

Several years ago, it was accidentally discovered that, when the contact of an electric current which magnetized a large electro-magnet was broken very near one of the poles of the electro-magnet, the spark was so much increased in intensity as to produce a powerful snap, like that of a small pistol; while the breaking of the contact at a distance from he electro-magnet produced by no means such effect. The next thing observed was the drawing of sparks from the iron electro-magnet, or from its armature; but neither of these phenomena led any investigator to search out their origin, or to try to find what further results of the same class could be obtained.

This appears to have been done at last by Mr. Edison, of Newark, well known among electricians for several valuable inventions relating to electric telegraphy. He investigated the nature of the spark which could be obtained from the iron core of the electro-magnet, which, according to his statement, recently published, does not manifest the ordinary properties of electricity. The galvanometer is unmoved, the delicate gold leaf electrometer exhibits no signs of deflection, a Leyden jar is not charged by it, etc. But we consider the conclusion that this manifestation shows the existence of a newforce, to be rather hasty.

It is well known that static electricity, which will produce a shock, will not move the galvanometer, and that the current of a large element of a voltaic battery will neither move a gold leaf electrometer, charge a Leyden jar, nor produce a shock. Therefore to say that the phenomena observed at

test new "principles, until now buried in the depths of humanignorance," as some of the reporters of the daily papers have done, is, to say the least, rather premature.

We will here call attention to the fact that at present three principal forms of electricity are known, and they vary so much in their nature that formerly some investigators inclined to consider them as separate forces or fluids. First we have the so-called static electricity, possessing great tension it is developed on a small scale by friction, and on a large scale by evaporation and induction, as manifested in thunder storms. For this form of electricity, not only all kinds of metals, but water and the human body are good conduc. tors, even the dry skin of the hands forming no obstacle Secondly, we have the voltaic or galvanic electricity, originated by chemical action, and developed in our galvanic batteries. For this form of electricity, only some metals are good conductors, others poorer, while water and the human body are bad conductors; its effects on the latter cannot be studied without wetting the skin, as the dry skin is a nonconductor of it. This form of electricity is used for telegraphy, while, as is well known, the static electricity (as obtained by friction) is not so useful for this purpose, its great tension causing it to escape too easily. Thirdly, we have the thermo-electricity, discovered in 1820, by Seebeck in Berlin, which differs as much from the galvanic electricity as the latter does from static electricity. For this thermoelectricity, water or the human body is an absolute non-conductor, and a thin metallic wire is but a poor conductor; so that it can scarcely pass through the whole length of the coil of a common galvanometer, and does not act on this instrument, but is powerfully indicated by one made with very thick and short wire, even if the galvanometer consists of one single, heavy, and uninsulated wire, in a coil of one turn or only half a turn.

Now it appears to us that the form of electricity discovered by Mr. Edison, may be:

1. A fourth kind of electricity, requiring as little or less insulation than the thermo-electricity of Seebeck. It is said to pass over the ordinary gas pipe, and can equally well be drawn from several of the chandeliers in a house, or even in other houses, if one of them is connected with the source of the new electricity.

2. It may consist of a continually reversing current of inductive electricity of a form in quality between the static and galvanic kinds. This appears the more probable as its source is said to be a vibrating armature, in which of course there are continuous interruptions, the induced currents formed by the interruptions running in an opposite direction from those formed at the making of the contacts, as is well known by all electricians. Such continually reversing currents of course cannot act on the galvanometer gold leaf electroscope, or Leyden jar, as their rapid reversion neutralizes all possi ble charge, the only manifestation being the sparks. of which, however, the rapidity of the succession causes an abundance, little affected by imperfection or even absence of insulation.

At the same time, this would explain why one end of a long wire, bent over the other end connected with the electric generator, will produce a spark. Electricity is present in such abundance that branch currents are easily supplied while at the same time the two polarities are continually and so perfectly balanced as to exactly counteract one another so as to be unable to charge any conductor, or to manifest the results of such charge, as in an electroscope, or to establish a polar current and manifest its results, as with a galvanometer. It is undoubtedly a manifestation of electricity; and being neither positive nor negative, as is the case with all the forms of electricity thus far known, it might be called nentral electricity.

The sparks investigated by Dr. Reiss, the well known German electrician, and called by him weak sparks, have polarity, being either positive or negative; and although they have certain resemblances to the electricity obtained by the method of Mr. Edison, they appear to be of a different nature, having a very different origin.

The most remarkable feature of this new form of electricity, which proves its perfect neutrality, is that it has no apparent effect on the human body, and none on even that most delicate of all electric tests, the properly prepared frog's leg, unless an exceedingly strong galvanic current is used around the magnet.

Two New Street Engines.

A new traction engine for street usage has recently been tested in Brussels, Belgium, with satisfactory results Fy teriorly it resembles an ordinary street car, with the exception of the chimney which projects through the roof. The body is placed quite low, and the wheels, which run on rails, are concealed to within a short distance from the ground. The boiler is tubular and inexplosible, and is heated by coke. The engine is one of the Brotherhood three-cylinder pattern. The exhaust is condensed in a tubular condenser, and the boiler is fed by a separate steam pump. The machine traveled without smoke or escape of steam, made no more noise than an ordinary horse omnibus, and turned sharp curves very easily. Another engine has been introduced in Paris; but instead of running on a tramway like the above, it is a kind of omnibus or steam carriage. It accommodates 12 passengers and weighs about 5 tuns. A vertical engine supplies the motive power and occupies a space in the rear of but 39 inches high by 31 inches broad. A Giffard injector forces in the feed water, which is taken from the gutters or any other convenient source. The ma-.3 horse power is utilized, requiring 600 quarts of water, and 110 lbs. of coal per hour.

THE NEW PHASE OF ELECTRIC FORCE.

In our number for last week, we called attention to what we at first supposed to be a similarity between the prior experiments of Professor Reiss and those of Mr. Edison. A further examination of the Reiss reports satisfies us that the results obtained by Mr. Edison are novel, and have little or nothing in common with those of Professor Reiss.

We have had an opportunity of closely examining the apparatus by which Mr. Edison and his assistants obtained the evidences of the supposed new kind of electricity which has lately elicited so much inquiry and speculation, and we present herewith three diagrams of some of the apparatus used by Mr. Edison during his experiments.

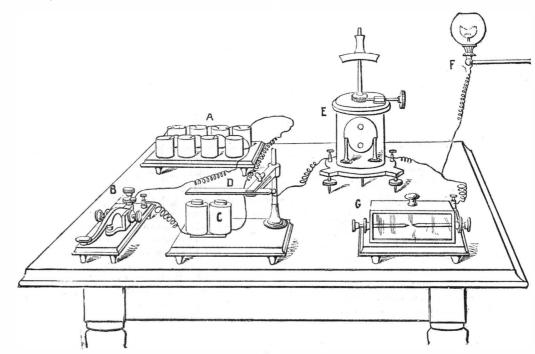
The first recognition of the distinctive character of the spark occurred on the evening of November 22. Mr. Edison and his assistants, as we have already stated, were experimenting with a vibrator magnet, consisting of a bar of Stubb's steel, fastened at one end and made to vibrate by means of a magnet, when they noticed a spark coming from

nection, which would drain the wire of induced electricity, if there were any-bright sparks are visible between the graphite points in response to the motion of the telegraphie

Standing on an insulated stool, the experimenters draw sparks from the following arrangement (Fig. 3), in which x is the end of the vibrator (which, as well as the battery, is insulated); A, a secondary battery; B, a 200 ohm coil or copper wire; C is a block of iron, and D, a condenser, all well insulated except A, which is of glass, and stands on the table.

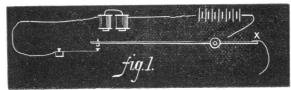
In another experiment a glass rod, four feet long, with a piece of carbon fixed to one end, was well rubbed with a silk handkerchief over a hot stove, and the carbon point presented to the apparatus, the other end of the rod being held in the hand with the handkerchief: sparks were drawn, yet the galvanometer chemical paper, the sense of shock in the tongue, and a delicate gold leaf electroscope were not in the least affected by the mysterious current.

Tested in whatever way the experimenters have been able



MR. EDISON'S APPARATUS, EXHIBITING THE NEW PHASE OF ELECTRIC FORCE.-Fig. 2.

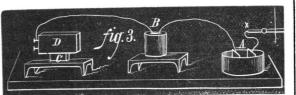
the core of the magnet. They had often noticed the same to devise, the new current refuses to obey any of the estabphenomenon in connection with telegraphic relays, in stock printers when there were iron filings between the armature and the core, and in the new electric pen, and had always supposed it to be due to inductive electricity. On this occasion the spark was so bright that they suspected something more than induction. On testing the apparatus they found that, by touching any portion of the vibrator or magnet with a piece of metal, they got the spark. They then connected a wire to the end of the vibrating rod (the wire leading nowhere), and got a spark by touching the wire with a piece of iron. Still more remarkable, a spark was got on turning the wire back upon itself and touching any part of the wire with its free end. The end of the vibrating rod was then connected by means of the wire to a gas pipe overhead, whereupon a spark could be drawn from any part of the gas pipes in the room, and subsequently it was found that the spark could be drawn from any part of the whole system of city gas pipes. The vibrator and battery were next placed



on insulated stands, and the wire, connected with x, Fig. 1, was carried over to the stove, about 20 feet distant. On rubbing the end of the wire against the stove, splendid sparks were observed. With the wire permanently connected with the stove, sparks could be drawn from any part of the stove with a piece of metal held in the hand. Again, while the vibrator was in action, a block of iron was placed near x, but not touching the bar, nor connected with it in any way except by the wood of the base through the table, and sparks could be drawn from the iron.

These and other experiments which we have had the pleasure of witnessing show conclusively that the new force is not amenable to the laws of voltaic or static electricity.

An experiment made with the apparatus figured in the large engraving (Fig. 2) will satisfy any electrician that the force in action is not induced electricity. All the parts are insulated except the gas fixture. A is the battery; B, a common telegraphic key; C, an electro-magnet; D, a bar of cadmium (or other metal, cadmium being the best) supported by an



insulated stand; ${f E}$ is a mirror galvanometer; ${f F}$, the gas pipe; G, a dark box enclosing pencils with graphite points (common chine will travel at the rate of 9 miles per hour. About lead pencils). The unknown current passes from the bar of cadmium through the galvanometer, without causing the slightest deflection, and-notwithstanding the gas pipe con-

lished laws of electricity further than that it traverses metallic conductors, manifests itself as light, and can be controlled by making and breaking connection. Among its observed peculiarities may be noticed its lack of polarity, indifference to the earth (and consequently its capability of transmission through uninsulated wires), its power of producing action when turned back upon itself, its independence of electric non-conductors, and seeming lack of mechanical and physio-

Mr. Edison has proposed the name "etheric force." Since the above was put in type, Mr. Edison has sent us

a variety of additional particulars pertaining to his new and interesting discovery, which we shall give to our readers in our next number.

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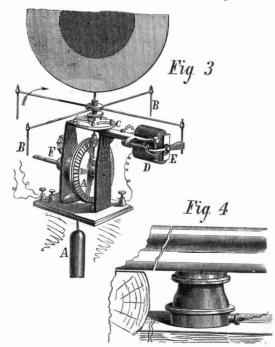
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(Continued from first page.)

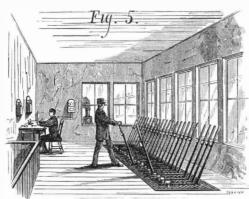
will thus have completed exactly one quarter revolution, changing for a given location from an edge view to full face, or vice versa. The reader has doubtless ere this divined that the despatcher, in raising a danger signal to release the outgoing train, or in setting the flying switch signal, simply pressed a button which established an electric current, and thus charged the disks as was necessary. From the foregoing also it will be obvious how this signal is worked on the block plan from two different points. As soon, for example, as a train passes a given location, an operator there



posted, by the means described, sets the danger signal When the train reaches another point a safe distance away, it may itself, by pressing on a simple and delicate circuit closer, arranged, as shown in Fig. 4, under the rails, again establish the current, which will free the disk arm a second time and turn the disk to safety for following trains. Or, as it is easy to see, by the use of two circuit closers properly disposed, the train might set its own danger signal and then reverse it when a suitable distance has been traversed.

But it is not enough that the signals should be set. The people in charge of them must also be infallibly informed of that fact, as well as of any failure in the working. For this purpose the tell-tale shown in Fig. 2 is used. This is the machine which announced that the incoming train, in one example, was coming over the 53d street crossing; or more properly, it first showed that a block signal had there been set and afterwards reversed; for through that signal it was operated, as we now proceed to show.

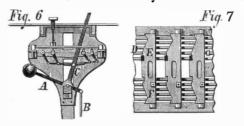
By examining the circular stage, C, in Fig. 3, a pair of springs at the left hand side, placed so as to overlap, will be noticed. There are two pairs of these springs, arranged diametrically opposite to each other on the circle, and hence between the two similarly disposed single springs, through which the circuit, as before explained, is established. The members of each pair of springs overlap without touching, but are brought in contact by one of the pins on the cam on



the disk shaft, during the revolution of the latter. Without entering into further detail, we may state that this contact | ble to those who may not have at their command the remust necessarily be caused with one or the other pair of springs whenever the disk changes position, and the effect of such contact is to send a current to the electro-magnet in the indicator, Fig. 2. The armature of this magnet is connected with the index clapper, and the general construction is such that, whenever the magnet is excited, the clapper will be thrown over to a position opposite to that in which it hap pens to be. The relation between indicator and signal is so adjusted that whenever the signal shows "danger," the clapper, which has a weighted extremity to aid its motion and to strike a gong at each end of its course, and so to give warning, swings over to "block;" when the signal is reversed the arm swings back to "clear." During its travel it strikes a suspended ball, and this, vibrating, shows to ano perator, who may have several indicators before him, which one has just become reversed. By this arrangement, it will be evident that when the signal moves the indicator must show it, and vice versa; so that the operator always has accurate know. ledge of the state of the sections of line under his charge, no matter how far distant from him, or how widely separated the same may be. There are many ingenious points about the system, which lack of space forbids our describing. We may mention, however, the device partially shown

at F, in Fig. 3, which consists of the winding stem for the signal weight, and also other mechanism, which compels the turning of the stem and the consequent winding of the cord, before the door of the case in which the signal is contained can be unlocked to admit of the insertion of the lamp at night. Another ingenious device is that used for drawbridges, which consists of a lock on the crank, which withdraws the locking pin of the bridge. It is impossible to do this until a button is pressed, which sets a danger signal for approaching trains, nor can that signal be reversed or tampered with until the bridge is again securely locked in place.

One of the most important localities where that system is necessary is at the crossing of several tracks, similar to that at 53d street; and here also is used the new switch appar atus, which forms the third and last portion of our subject. Fig. 5 shows the interior of the switch house with the working levers. Each lever is connected to a weighted arm, A, Fig. 6, and also, by suitable interposing connections, through the rod, B, to the locks, the signals, or switches. Attached to the shank of the lever, at C, are jointed rods, which are secured to a series of square shafts, D, Fig. 7. Just above the shafts are the locking plates, E. These are flat iron plates hung in journals at each end. In the edge of each are notches, which hold the levers and prevent them from moving from the ends of the slots in which they work when the latches lay flat, as shown. If, however, a latch be tipped by pressing on a foot piece in front of the lever, the rod of which bears against the point, F, Fig. 7, the lever will be freed from the notch. The interlocking arrangement is found in cams on the square shafts, D. These are so disposed as to be immediately under the edge of the latch plates. When a shaft is so turned that the cam presses on the plate from below up, then, obviously, the plate cannot be tipped by the foot piece, nor the lever disengaged; so that the latter is thus securely locked. It is impossible to set a signal at safety if the switch points are not properly placed and locked, nor can the latter be altered after the signal is set. Any combination of interlocking is possible: in other words, any lever can be made to lock any other lever, so that it becomes a simple problem to adjust the apparatus in conformity with the number of track requirements at any particular situation. The lock for the rails consists of a hollow cast iron sleeper placed under the ends of the switch rails, and having other two crescent-shaped pivoted latches connected by a rod. By moving the latter, the points of the latches are lowered beyond the bottom of the



rails, so that the same can be moved sideways, or raised so as to prevent any similar motion. The construction is such that, unless the rails are properly placed, it is impossible to raise the latch, which thus offers an additional means of safety. Taken as a whole, the ingenuity, simplicity, and utility of this perfect system of communication, and the contrivances invented to accomplish it, are truly wonderful. The mechanical appliances are the joint inventions of Mr. J. M. Toucey, the General Superintendent, and Mr. William Buchanan, Superintendent of Machinery, of the Hudson River Railroad.

The electro-magnetic signals are the invention of Mr. Daniel Rousseau of this city, and are the subjects of several very recent patents. The depot arrangements are the results of the combined skill of Superintendent Toucey and Depot Master Franklin. To all the above named gentlemen we are indebted for much courtesy in facilitating our obtain ing the interesting facts here presented.

ACIDEMETRY APPLIED TO THE TESTING OF VINEGAR.

In order to determine the value of a vinegar, it is necessary to discover in what proportion acetic acid is present and to assure oneself that no foreign mineral acids are contained. The chemist executes these various operations with acidimetric liquors, reagents, and apparatus; but there has been for some time needed a simple and practical process availasources of a laboratory. MM. Reveil and Salleron have rein the annexed engravings (taken from La Nature), and which can be readily understood and the directions for its manufacture and employment followed.

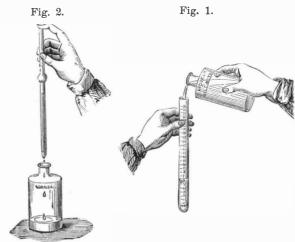
The necessary apparatus consists, first, in a tube of glass closed at one end as shown in Fig. 1; near said extremity, at the zero mark, the word "vinegar" is inscribed to indicate the amount of vinegar to be employed. Above the zero, the tube is divided off, and the divisions are marked 1, 2, 3, etc., so as to show the richness in acid, as will be described below. Second, there is a small sponge attached to a whalebone to be used to clean the tube after each experiment. Third, a pipette (Fig. 2), is marked to show a quantity of 0.25 cubic inch of liquid, so that the amount of vinegar for each test can be accurately measured. Lastly tent Agency. For further particulars address Messrs. Johna flask of liquor, used as a standard acidimetric reagent, is added.

One fourth of an inch of vinegar is taken into the pipette is allowed to flow into the graduated tube and the acidime- feet, and a flow of 1½ cubic feet of water—924 lbs.—per mitric liquid, colored blue, is slowly poured in. The fluid soon nute, will deliver 0.010 of a cubic foot of water per minute becomes red when the tube is agitated by being turned over, at a hight of 38 feet.

the thumb stopping the opening. More of the test liquid is added, the mixture a second time shaken, and so on until the fluid in the tube becomes of the color of the red outer skin of an onion. The graduation on the tube, corresponding to the level of the liquid, is then read off, and this shows the centesimal proportion of acetic acid contained in the vinegar.

The reaction can easily be followed. The acidimetric liquor, prepared in advance, is a solution of borax and caustic soda. The proportion of these ingredients is calculated to correspond to a certain quantity of crystalizable acetic acid. The liquor is colored blue by litmus, and indicates by its change to violet red the moment when the saturation of the acid by the base is effected.

Vinegars are sometimes adulterated with sulphuric and other mineral acids, which may be detected as follows: The vinegar to be tested is boiled with a few fragments of starch.



It is then cooled, diluted, and a few drops of iodine tincture dropped in. With pure vinegar, the blue color of iodide of starch should show itself; if no coloration ensues, a foreign mineral acid is present. Wine vinegars are frequently falsified with wood vinegars (pyroligneous acid): this last product almost invariably contains small quantities of sulphate of soda, the presence of which may be detected by the addition of chloride of barium, which yields a white precipitate, sulphate of barvta.

KING'S IMPROVED SUPPORT FOR PRINTERS' GALLEYS.

The annexed engraving represents a simple little device designed to support a printer's galley when the same rests upon the case, during the process of making corrections in the type or during the transfer thereinto of type from the stick. Ordinarily the galley is rested against the ledge of the case or else placed diagonally across the latter, thus covering several letter boxes and necessitating its being moved whenever the types contained in such receptacles are required. The present device sustains the galley in such a position that none of the boxes are wholly closed, so that access into any one of them may easily be had.



As shown in the engraving, it consists simply of a meta casting, forming a straight grooved piece between two parallel pieces, disposed at the ends and at right angles thereto. The groove in the central portion and notches in the cross pieces fit over the transverse partitions of the case, and the galley rests against one crosspiece while the other presses against the longitudinal partition or edge. The in vention is a handy convenience for compositors.

Patent now pending through the Scientific American Pa son & King, 100 11th street, Brooklyn (E. D.), N. Y.

THE hydraulic ram is especially useful where there is a and retained therein by the finger, as shown in Fig. 2. This small stream of water and only a slight fall. A fall of two

NEW DOUBLE SHAPING MACHINE.

Messrs. R. Fernau & Co., of Vienna, Austria, have recently put in market a double-acting shaping machine, of which the specialty consists in the arrangement of the feed motion, which will be understood by reference to the perspective sketch and the detail. The boss of the driving pinion is extended, and has a curved slot formed in it, which imparts an oscillating motion to a lever; this motion is transferred to a horizontal shaft, through which it is conveyed to the tool holder. On the front end of this shaft is a cast iron cap, which serves as a lever and also as a cover. In a slot in the cover (see Fig. 2) is placed a bolt, which can schools established for the purpose, under practical as well

be moved up or down at will, the end of the bolt projecting, as shown in Figs. 1 and 2, into a triangular opening in the piece within the cap, so that the oscillating move ment of the cap gives greater or less motion to the piece above mentioned, which carries at the upper end a pawl and ratchet driving a toothed wheel, that in its turn conveys motion to a worm and wheel. The spindle of the latter carries a horizontal pinion gearing into a rack, and gives motion to the wheel.

Skilled Labor.

The richest mines of wealth of a nation are its workshops, its factories, and its farms, filled with men of highly trained and skilled labor, it being a universal law that the world's great prizes go to the best. This is not simply an abstract question, but one affecting us all in our prosperity and

success every day and every hour of the day, and every day | as theoretical masters of the particular industry sought to be | cular. in the year. France, Switzerland, Prussia, and Germany have laid us, and are laying us, every year under contributions of millions of dollars for very superior workmanship. taste, and skill. Their silks, their laces, their cloths, their china and porcelain, their bronzes, their fabrics in metal and wood, and their objects of vertu and art could be largely produced in this country if we had developed and educated our artisans and mechanics up to the same perfection in workmanship that they have in those countries.

Their mode of thorough instruction in their workshops and manufacturing establishments produces men of the highest order of training, ability, and skill. If we take, as an example, the small State of Wurtemburg, in Germany, with a population of 1,778,000, we find that they have fortynine industrial and technical schools for the training of boys and educating them in all the industrial arts. In these schools there is a mercantile and commercial course, and one for the application of chemistry to the chemical arts and manufactures, where there are fifty-one professors and same quantity of land

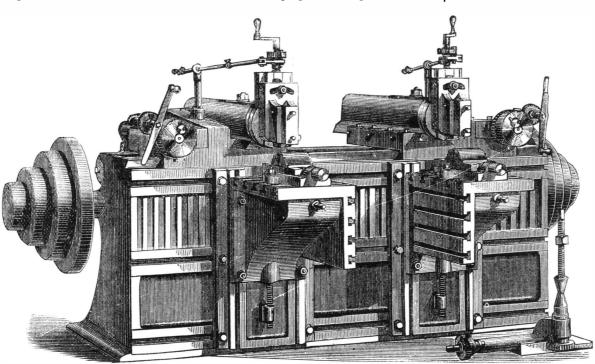
teachers of chemical and physical mineralogy, modeling rooms, mechanical workshops, rooms for drawing, botanical garden, and astronomical observatory. There are other schools for building instruction and tradesmen, where builders are trained for masters and constructors of public works, etc., and plasterers, carpenters, grainers, painters, smiths, etc., are educated for fore men and masters; and the schools are crowded with those for whom they were intended, while the graduates are eagerly sought everywhere on the Continent for their superior excellence.

There are also schools for education in all agricultural pursuits, in which practice is combined with theory, they having under their care four hundred square miles of territory. These schools are largely attended, for in one year 12,040 persons, in 523 places, were getting a thorough, complete, and practical agricultural education. nected with these schools are institutions for practical training in anatomy, physiology, and diseases of animals; and a smithy is attached, in which 4,000 animals were shod per year.

of the workmen, the excellence of all their works in the arts and sciences, and the harmony existing among them. thorough acquaintance with a particular industry necessitates a wide range through the field of knowledge, and makes a familiarity with all the causes which produces such effects. The brain is the motive power as well as the guide, for it points the way, and all things move as it points. Skilled labor is its own protection. While its progress may be temporarily impeded by the glittering tinsel of some superficial work, yet its final success is conclusive proof that "all is not gold that glitters," for merit in all things must win.

Carelessness and ignorance are the most fruitful sources of loss of life and property. Proportionately, as the mind becomes trained and disciplined, carelessness ceases; greater | the pressure the larger the volume, and the greater the care is manifested in the management of all the affairs of pressure the less the volume.

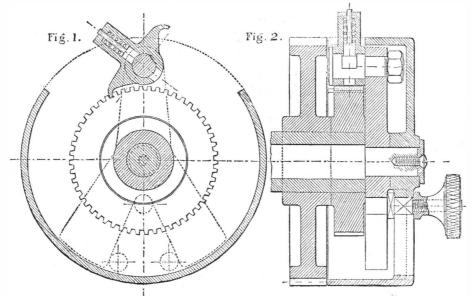
life and the products of our workshops. The great hurry, which has characterized our people, to reach results and to accumulate riches causes that neglect and superficial workmanship which is so prevalent. Scarcely a paper is published that does not contain in its columns some startling accident, accompanied by great loss of life, occasioned by defective machinery or ignorance in its management. Railroad collisions nearly all result from these causes. The disastrous errors which frequently occur in many cities among chemists and druggists arise from an ignorance which never would or could exist if a compulsory and skillful training in



DOUBLE SHAPING MACHINE.

acquired, had been gone through. We often read of the falling of a floor filled with people. This shows an ignorance of building and of the strength of different materials, a knowledge of which is so indispensable in this important branch of industry. Schools established for a thorough training in mining would not only save life and property, but cause a more profitable development of our mineral resources.

"Knowledge is power." It is the limiting director of the productiveness of all labor. As a knowledge of all the arts, a thorough acquaintance with the laws of nature exists, so will be the progress in improvement in all the affairs of life. Its application to all the industries causes a greater productiveness from the same labor. It has decreased the labor of farming, and increased its producing power. The superseding of the scythe and the cradle by the mowing and reaping machines has enabled a much greater number of acres to be tilled; at the same time a larger value is realized from the



DOUBLE SHAPING MACHINE-SECTIONAL VIEW.

The greater the skill, the greater the wages. Every hour The result of this discipline is shown in the superior skill spent in improving the mind is a bid for increased pay. 'The laborer is worthy of his hire," and that worth is en-A hanced just in proportion as a knowledge of his work is great or small. The foreman of a workshop receives greater compensation than any other workman. Why? Because he possesses greater intelligence on all matters connected with the work. This subject is capable of being drawn to a great length; but enough has been said to show the benefits arising from knowledge and skill in all branches of industry, and that industrial and technical schools should be established everywhere.—Philadelphia Inquirer.

> THE volume of a confined mass of gas is inversely proportional to the pressure to which it is exposed; the smaller

Sir Isaac Newton's Experiments.

When Sir Isaac Newton changed his residence, and went to live in Leicester Place, his next door neighbor was a widow lady, who was much puzzled by the little she had observed of the philosopher. One of the Fellows of the Royal Society of London called upon her one day, when, among other domestic news, she mentioned that some one had come to reside in the adjoining house, who, she felt certain, was a poor crazy gentleman, "because," she continued, "he diverts himself in the oddest ways imaginable. Every morning, when the sun shines so brightly that we are obliged to draw the window blinds, he takes his seat in

front of a tub of soapsuds, and occupies himself for hours blowing soap bubbles through a common clay pipe, and intently watches them till they burst. He is doubtless now at his favorite amusement," she added; "do come and look at him." The gentleman smiled, and then went up stairs, when, after looking through the window into the adjoining yard, he turned round and said: "My dear madam, the person whom you suppose to be a poor lunaticis no other than the great Sir Isaac Newton, studying the refraction of light upon thin plates, a phenomenon which is beautifully exhibited upon the surface of a common soap bubble."

This anecdote serves as an excellent moral not to ridicule what we do not understand, but gently and industriously to gather wisdom from every circumstance around us. - Druggist's Cir-

Corner Lots. To persons about to build a residence in the city, the following article from the Land Owner, on the most desirable corner to locate on, will be read with interest:

When a lot is on the northwest corner of two streets, it is best, in a sanitary point of view, for its frontage to be on the west side of the street and the depth on the north side. The house thus gets the sun in the front bed rooms in the morning, and on the side of the house, looking south, nearly all day. When a lot is on the northeast corner, it is best that its frontage should be on the east side and its depth on the north side of the street. The east side of the street looks west, from which quarter our prevailing cold summer winds come. All rooms looking west are very cold at night, especially at the time of year when sudden changes of temperature are common. If the front bed room windows face the east side of the street, they can be kept closed at night and air secured from the sheltered side windows on the north side of

the street, on which the sun shines nearly all day. If a lot is on the southwest corner, it is better that the frontage be on the south side, and its depth on the west side of the street. The rays of the sun do not strike the south side of the street, while they do strike the west side in the early half of the day—thus getting the sunshine and heat in the front bed rooms at the most desirable hours. When a lot is on the southeast corner, it is best that it should have its frontage on the south side and its depth on the east side, for the reason, before stated, that the sun does not strike the south side of the street, while its rays are poured on the east side from about noon till 5 p.m. The cold winds of night can be kept from the best (the front) bedroom by having the windows closed on the east side and by opening them on the south side. These are important facts to be reembered by those who are sub-dividing large lots for sale, or by those who are erecting houses on large corner lots, where they are in a position to front them either way.

No one looking for a residence site, who can afford to buy a corner lot, should fail to do so. By having a corner all difficulty about securing abundant sunshine and air in each room is avoided. Of almost equal value with sun and air is the cheerfulness of rooms in a corner house. The effect upon women, who have little exercise or change, is exceedingly beneficial. There is, from a corner house, an outlook that whiles away many an hour which would otherwise be dull to the dweller in the house. The average cost of a corner lot over a middle one in a residence location is 40 per cent, and it is worth more than this difference. A corner house will rent for nearly enough more than a middle one to justify the purchase of the former from an investment point of view alone. Those who wish a sunny, well aired, and really cheerful dwelling should strain every point to secure a corner. Better a corner and poorer house than a fine house hemmed in between other dwellings.

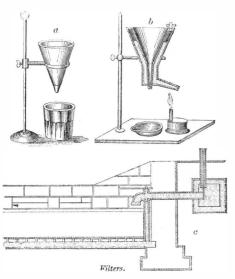
FILTERS AND LIQUID METERS.

In many localities, where the water supply is drawn from rivers adjacent to cities or from sources liable to be contami nated by decaying organic substances, filtration of the fluid, before using it for drinking or cooking, is an important sanitary precaution. To this end various devices have been invented, all so constructed that the water passes through certain substances which, while arresting the passage of matter mechanically suspended, are sometimes of such a nature as to absorb deleterious gases and effete substances. In the annexed engravings, from Knight's "Mechanical Dictionary"*, will be found representations of several different inventions in the filter line.

LABORATORY FILTERS,

used by chemists, are of the simplest construction, and are represented at a and b, in Fig. 1. The first is made of a circle of bibulous paper, folded and opened into a quadrant and inserted into a funnel of glass or paper. For filtering matters which become viscid on cooling, such as gelatin, tallow,

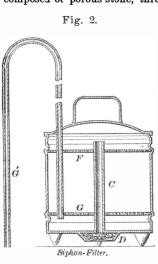
Fig. 1.



wax, etc., the apparatus shown at b is used, in which the filter is placed within a water bath which has a leg heated by an alcohol lamp.

DOMESTIC FILTERS

are frequently made in the form of a submerged jar or box composed of porous stone, through which the water passes



and is withdrawn by an ex terior faucet, as represented at c, Fig. 1. In another form the filter is placed within a barrel, and the water passes through a coarse filter, D, Fig. 2, and up a central tube, C, to an upper chamber and thence through filtering material placed between two perforated diaphragms, F G. The water is drawn from the lower annular chamber by a siphon, G', having a stop cock at its lower end. A good domestic filter is easily constructed of a deep wooden tub divided by a tight vertical partition

Reversible Filter

through the middle, the partition being perforated near the bottom. The tub should be nearly filled on both sides of the partition with granulated charcoal, made from sugar maple and screened through a mesh of one sixteenth of an inch, the fine dust being separated by bolting. The foul water enters the tub on one side, passes down and through the holes in the partition, and rises up on the other side, leav ing all its impurities in the charcoal. Fig. 3 is a

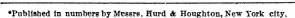
REVERSIBLE FILTER

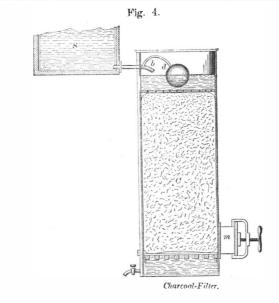
interposed in a length of pipe. The water flowing from A to the filtering surface, T, has its impurities detained, while the strained water runs off at B. When the filter surface. has become foul, the handle, H, is turned, throwing the dirt to the delivery side, where it carried off by the current of passing water. A

CHARCOAL FILTER

in shown in Fig. 4, which is used for sugar refining. Upon the bottom of a high cylindrical vessel, which is charged with animal charcoal, C, a filter cloth is spread, and upon this the lower

charcoal layer is tightly packed, while the remainder of the filling is left loose. Another cloth and a perforated plate complete the column. The sirup to be filtered is let in from the cistern, S, the supply being regulated by the ball cock, bd. t is a tube by which air is allowed to escape, and m a manhole for giving access to the interior for cleansing, etc. An arrangement of a filter in connection with a cistern is represented in Fig. 5. The water passes down through the





charcoal or other filtering material in a permanent chamber, on one side of an axial division, and, after passing beneath

the latter, rises up and is drawn off from the other side.

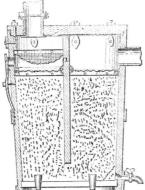


Fig. 5.

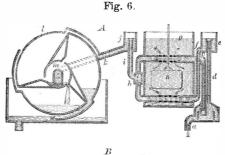
an orifice. MECHANICAL LIQUID METERS of various forms are employed, the principal being known as the diaphragm, the balanced(in which compressed air is used), the piston, the

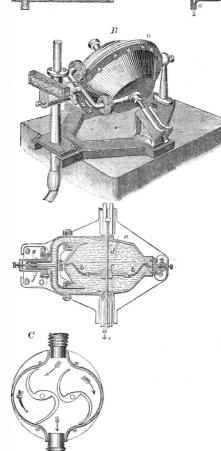
In order to ascertain the quantity of a liquid dis charged or received through

tube and roller. In Fig. 6, at A, is shown THE SIEMENS AND HALSKE SPIRIT METER,

propeller, and the flexible

which registers the quantity of spirit discharged and also the amount of absolute alcohol contained therein. The liquid entering at a passes through the pipes, c d, one of which terminates in a chamber, e, whence it is carried by the pipe, f, through the vessel, g. The other conducts it directly to the upper part of g. The parts of the pipes passing through g are perforated so as to make currents in the vessel in order thoroughly to mingle the spirit, and the two pipes meet at h, whence the liquid is led by i into a chamber, j, and thence to the volumeter,





which is a hollow drum, l. having a concentric cylinder, m the space between the two being divided into three compart ments. Three slits in the central cylinder permit the liquid to flow successively into each compartment, as it in turn occupies the lowest position, and the apparatus remains sta- directs the induction flow from one to the other. The valve

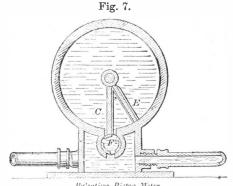
this then begins, while the aperture through which it received its supply is carried, by the rotation, above the liquid in the central chamber. The registering dials are actuated in the usual manner. The amount of pure spirit is determined by a hydrometer, n, in the tank, q, the instrument being filled with alcohol, and rising and falling according to the density of the spirit. Its motions actuate suitable registering devices which give an indication each time the volumeter is emptied, and to an extent showing the quantity of pure spirit contained therein.

DUBOY'S WATER METER

is represented at B. A diaphragm, b, in a casing, a, carries a closely fitting metallic disk, c, held in position by the rod, d. Water enters through either duct, c or f, raises the diaphragm, and forces out the water on the opposite side until the vessel is full, when the diaphragm fits against that side. When the weight rises to the top, that side is given a preponderance, causing the vessel to turn on its pivots until the relative places of the sides are changed. At the same time, the supply opening is closed and that for discharge opened. Payton's meter, C, same figure, contains two S-shaped arms, whose extremities are during rotation in close contact with each other and with the sides of the box. The arrows indicate the direction of the current.

ATWILL'S PULSATING PISTON METER.

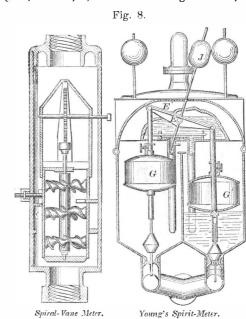
Fig. 7, has a piston, E, which turns on an axle shaft com



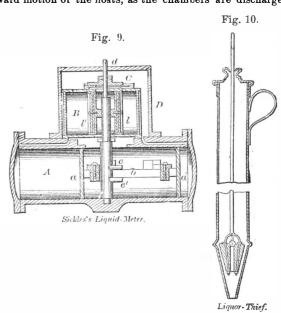
municating motion to the register and carrying an arm which, at the end of each stroke, changes a cylindrical valve. F2, so as to cause the water alternately to enter and discharge from the measuring chamber at opposite sides of the internal partition, C. The spiral vane meter, shown in Fig. 8, is simply a water wheel within a pipe connected to a register to indicate the flow of water. The flow is regulated by a sliding valve. In

YOUNG'S SPIRIT METER.

same figure, a float, G, in the measuring chamber, is at-



tached to each end of a pivoted beam. The alternate downward motion of the floats, as the chambers are discharged,



tionary until the lower chamber is full. The discharge of stems have a limited sliding motion in the floats, so that each

of the latter will rise to a sufficient hight without raising the valve to permit of emptying the chamber. At the point of discharge, the weighted rod, J, is thrown past the vertical and, closing the valve to one chamber, opens the induction pipe to the other, depressing that float sufficiently to close the escape valve. In

SICKLES' METER,

Fig. 9, the liquid flowing into the chamber, D, is, by means of the valve, C, admitted alternately to each end of the hollow valve, B, which is divided into compartments by the partitions, l l'. From these the fluid flows alternately through appropriate ports behind the pistons, a a', on the rod, b, which has tappets that strike the pins, e e', on the upright shaft, d, causing its partial rotation and operating the slide valve, C, which admits the fluid into the compartments of the valve, B.

We add, in Fig. 10, one more device used in connection with liquids, to which the name of

LIQUOR THIEF

has been applied. It is simply a tube which is let down through the bung hole of a cask and then closed, so as to withdraw liquid therefrom. It is closed at the bottom by a plug, actuated by a rod passing through the top, as shown.

PRACTICAL MECHANISM.

BY JOSHUA ROSE.

NUMBER XXXVIII.

MARKING OUT ENGINE GUIDE OR MOTION BARS.

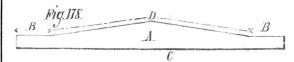
If an engine guide bar is to be made parallel in its breadth and thickness, it may be marked off from the directions already given for marking a scale. Such bars, however, should always be made thicker in the middle than at the ends (as they are always made in English locomotives) for the following reasons: If the strain upon the bars is equal at all parts of the stroke, the middle of the bar will be subject to deflection because of its distance from the blocks or supports at the ends. Again, towards and at the end of the stroke, the connecting rod stands nearly parallel with the center line of the bore of the cylinder, and then the strain upon the guide bars is very slight; but as the stroke proceeds, the angle of the connecting rod increases until (near the center of the stroke) it becomes the greatest, and therefore places the most pressure upon the guide bars. If, then, the latter deflect in consequence of this pressure, the gland and packing ring in the cylinder cover act as a fulcrum, and the piston rod as a lever, forcing the piston against the top and bottom of the bore of the cylinder, tending to wear it oval and also to wear it to a larger bore in the middle than at the ends, because the deflection of the bar is inappreciable at the ends, whatever it may be in the middle. That the deflection of such bars is sufficient to be of practical importance will be perceived from the following:

During the years 1864, 1865, and 1866, I fitted up under contract nearly one thousand guide bars (for locomotives) their average size being about 30 inches long, 31 inches broad, and 18 inches thick or deep at the ends, and 3 inch es thick in the middle of their length. They were filed up in the vise, and made practically true to a surface plate. When the first few sets were delivered to an inspector for examination, they were rejected on the ground of being hollow in their length, to a degree plainly perceptible in the surface plate marks, which showed very plainly at the ends of the bar, and graduated away until, in the middle of each bar, they were barely perceptible. This difference was obviously in the wrong direction, since the middle of the bar should, if there be any difference, mark the plainest, because it sustains the most abrasion. I was sent for by the inspector, who had a bar placed upon the bench, supported by a block of wood under each end; and by request, I applied the surface plate, and found, to my astonishment, the marks to be as above stated. As a consequence, the whole of the set of eight bars were returned to me to be refitted. Upon replacing them in the vise and applying the surface plate, I found each bar to mark as true and even as could be desired, junction of the lines, A and D, mark off with the other point and hence returned them untouched, perceiving that the bars, stout as they were, deflected from their own weight, the amount of the deflection being doubled by supporting them, in the one case in the middle and in the other by the ends. The inspector claimed that, by testing the bars while supported at their ends, he had tested them in the position in which, and supported them as they would be, when in their working places: but since no provision had been made for holding them (while being filed up) in that position, and since the top bars stand upside down when upon the engine, it was plainly impracticable to file them up in such a position. The bars were passed, the controversy having served to demonstrate their appreciable deflection, and also that the bottom bars should be filed up a little rounding and the top ones level in their respective lengths. To mark off such a bar as is here described, one face must either be first trued up, or the marking-off must be performed at two separate operations. The better plan is for the marker-off to examine the bar as to size, and have one face planed off. If either face appears defective, it should be the first planed. If the bar appears sound all over, the outside edge face of the bar should be the one to be planed off preparatory to marking off; and in setting it to surface it, care should be taken to set it true with the top and bottom faces, if they are parallel to each other; and if not, to divide whatever difference there may be between them. The bar may then be placed upon the marking off table in the position shown in Fig. 177, A being the marking-off plate, B the guide bar, C C pieces of sive chuckings.

wedges, the planed face, B, of the bar is set at a true right angle to the surface of the plate, and tested by a square. The next operation is to mark off the top or uppermost face and the question here arises: Shall it be so marked that there will be an equal amount of metal taken off the top and bottom faces, or otherwise? First, then, since the quality



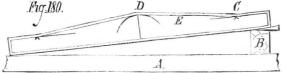
of the metal is the best towards the surface, it is a consider ation to take off as little as possible, so as to leave a hard wearing surface; this may appear a small matter, but it is always right to gain every superiority attainable without cost. Therefore, all other things being equal, we should prefer to take as little metal off the top face as would be sufficient to make it true, and should therefore mark it out with that view. Here, however, another consideration arises, which is that the outline of the bottom face is not straight, and cannot therefore be planed lengthways from the center of the bar to the ends; and if such bottom face is to be shaped across its breadth, instead of lengthways, it is a comparatively slow operation, and much time will be saved by so marking off the bar that the bottom will only just true up, so that all the surplus metal will be cut off the top face, which, being done in a larger machine, and lengthways, is a much more rapid operation. There is, however, a method of obtaining both the advantage of taking as little as possible off the top face, and planing the bottom face for the most part lengthways. It is shown in Fig. 178, A being the bar;



the two faces, BB, may be first planed parallel (as required) with the face, C; the back of the bar may then be planed in two operations from the point, D, to the junction with B at each end. Were the method of procedure employed, it would pay to leave the most metal to come off the back of the bar: but there are vet other considerations, which are the facilities in the shop. If the shaping machines are not kept fully occupied, while the planing machines are always in demand, it will pay (if there are not many bars to be planed) to leave as little as needs be to be taken off the bottom of the bar and the remainder off the top. If, however, many bars are to be planed, the most economical of all methods will be to plane the backs by placing, say, 8 of them at a time across the table of the planer, cutting off the ends at the same chucking. Supposing this plan to be adopted, we set the scriber of the marking block just below the lowest part of the surface of the bar, and draw a line along its planed surface, and then another line along each end, to denote the thickness of the parallel parts at each end, making this line longer than is necessary, as a guide in setting the bar in the shaper (in case the ends are shaped and not planed). We next mark off the length of the bar at the ends, using a square and allowing about an equal amount to be taken off each end; and then, still using the square, we mark a line equidistant between the end lines, to denote the center of the length of the bar, which will then present the appearance shown in Fig. 179, the inside line, A A, being for the top



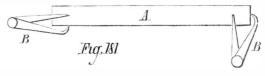
face, the lines, E, for the parallel ends, the lines, B B, for the ends, and the line, D, denoting the middle of the length of the bar. We now turn the bar so that its planed face is uppermost; and setting a pair of compasses to the required thickness of the middle of the bar, we set one point at the a half circle, and then (turning the bar over) adjust it upon the table, as shown in Fig. 180, A being the table, and B a



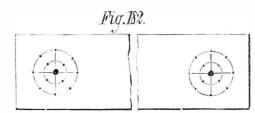
block of wood and wedge to adjust the bar so that, if the scribing block be applied along the table, the needle or scriber point will mark just fair with the top of the circle at D and the mark, C, at the end of the taper part of the bar, A (the mark, C, showing the required distance from the end of the bar). Having made the adjustment, we draw the line, E, thus completing the marking of that half of the bar. We next remove the block of wood and wedge to the other end of the bar, and repeat the last operation, when the marking of the bar will be, so far as its outline is concerned, complete. It will be observed that we have drawn the lines in each case on the one planed surface of the bar only, and not all around the work. The reason for this is that the planed face is a guide, whereby to chuck the work and ensure its being set true. In the absence of one true face, it would be necessary, in marking off the first face, to mark the lines all around the work, which, when planed up, would serve as a guide whereby to set the work during the success

wood to lift the bar off the plate. By means of small thin! After the faces and ends are planed up, the holes in the out 1,000 barrels of flour per day.

^ends may be marked by the compass calipers and compasses, as shown in Fig. 181, A being the bar, and B B the compass



calipers set to the required distance. At the junction of the marks thus made, we make a light centerpunch mark, and mark off the circles for the holes, first marking a circle of the requisite size and defining its outline by other light centerpunch marks. We next draw from the same center a circle smaller in diameter, and define its outline also by small centerpunch marks; after which we take a large centerpunch, and make a deep indentation in the center of the circle, which will appear as shown in Fig. 182. The philosophy of



marking the holes in this manner is as follows: If the outside circle alone is marked, there is nothing to guide the eye during the operation of drilling the holes (in determining whether the drill is cutting the holes true to the marks or not) until the drill has cut a recess nearly approaching the size of the circle marked; if the drill is not cutting true to the marks, and the drawing chisel is employed, it will often happen that, after the first operation of drawing, the drill may not yet cut quite true to the marks; and it having entered the metal to its full diameter, there is no longer any guide to determine if the hole is being made true to the circle or not. By introducing the inside circle, however, we are enabled to use the drawing chisel, and therefore to adjust the position of the hole during the earlier part of the operation; so that the hole being cut is made nearly if not quite true before the cutting approaches the outer circle, which shows the full size of the hole. If, on nearly attaining its full diameter, the outer circle shows it to be a little out of truth, the correction is easily made. It is furthermore much more easy to draw the drill when it has only entered the metal to, say, half its diameter than when it has entered to nearly its full

The object of making a large centerpunch mark in the center is to guide the center of the drill, and to enable the operator to readily perceive if the work is so set that the point of the drill stands directly over the centerpunch mark. This is of great importance in holes of any size whatever, but more especially in those of small diameter, say, for instance, 1 inch, because it is impracticable to describe circles of so small a diameter whereby to adjust the drilling; and in these cases, if the drill runsout at all, there is but little practical remedy. The centerpunch marks for such holes should therefore be made quite deep, so that the point of the drill will be well guided and steadied from the moment it comes into contact with the metal, in which case it is not likely to run to one side at all. If a motion or guide bar requires to have one corner rounded off, as it should have to prevent its leaving a square corner on the guide block, which would weaken the flange of the latter, the corner cannot be marked off, but a gage should be made as shown in Fig.183, A in the left hand

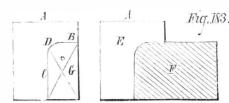
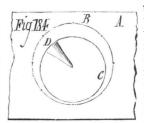


figure being a piece of sheet iron,say $\frac{1}{3}\underline{\imath}$ inch thick, with the lines, B and C, and the quarter circle, D, marked upon its surface. The metal, G, is then cut away, and the edges carefully filed to the lines, thus forming the gage, A, which is shown upon the bar, F, in the position in which it is applied when in use. It is obvious that such a gage will scarcely suffice to get up a very true round corner; this, however, is accomplished by leaving the corner of the work a little full to the gage and then filing it up to the piece of work fitting against it.

Reference having been made to drawing the position of the recess formed by a drill before it has entered the metal to its full diameter, we may as well explain that process. Suppose A, in Fig. 184, to represent a piece of metal requiring



to have a hole of the size of the circle, D, drilled in it, and that the recess cut by the drill is out of true, as shown by the circle, C. A round-nosed chisel is then employed to cut, at D. the groove there shown, running from the outside to the center of the recess, and which will have the effect, when the

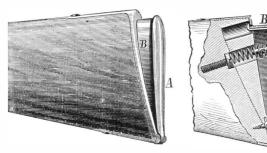
drill is again introduced, to draw the recess toward that side, thus causing the recess to be true with the marks.

THE largest flouring mill in America, it is said, is owned by Hon. C. C. Washburn, of Minneapolis, Minn. It is seven stories high, and crowded with machinery from top to bottom. Its cost was \$300,000, has 40 run of burrs, and turns

MILLER'S RECOIL CHECK FOR GUNS.

We illustrate a novel invention which is quite sure to be appreciated by soldiers, sportsmen, and all who handle firearms to any extent. Regulation rifles frequently kick with tremendous vigor, and there are few of our hunting readers who will not be able to recal lame shoulders and perhaps a few bad bruises, produced by the unexpectedly forcible recoils of their guns, especially in duck and pigeon shooting. The present device is intended to check this backward blow by neutralizing the same through the medium of a spring, and thus to admit of the use of much heavier charges in the piece and to insure steadiness of aim.

The exterior of the invention is shown in Fig. 1. From the section, Fig. 2, it will be seen that the hinged check plate, A, is applied to the lower part of the stationary butt



plate, and is guided by the portion, B, entering a suitable recess in the stock. Its outward movement is regulated by the flanged edge of said portion, B, which catches on the butt plate, as shown. C is a center pin on the check plate, which is surrounded by a coiled spring. The latter holds the device out from the butt, and also yields before the shock, thus breaking the force of the same, and rendering its effect upon the shoulder a mere push instead of a sharp blow. By means of the screw which holds the spring, the tension of the same may be regulated at will.

The invention is readily constructed, and may be applied to any gun. Patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency, November 2, 1875. For further information address the inventor, Mr. W. D. Miller, care of J. H. Johnston, Great Western Ganworks, Pittsburgh, Pa. A working model is on exhibition at the jewelry store at 843 Broadway, New York city.

IMPROVED UNIVERSAL WHEELWRIGHT'S MACHINE.

We illustrate here with a new universal wheelwright's machine, which is designed for planing the rims of vehicle wheels on three sides after said rims are driven on the spokes. of the wheel tenoner is much greater. The wheel tenoner

sists of short sections, it is necessary that each section shall conform to a circle greater than the circle of the wheel, so as to give a rise at the joints, which the tire will bind down, thus strong. ly arching and bridging these weak points. In order to produce this rise, the fellies are generally shaped out to the desired circle be fore they are driven on the spokes. They always, however, need redressing by hand, as the aforesaid work cannot be performed with sufficient accuracy to insure the meeting of the joints either on the periphery, the face, or the rear sides. It

When the rim con-

is also necessary the spokes than under the tire. This labor, in common with the foregoing, has also heretofore been accomplished by hand. With the present machine the whole is quickly done in a single operation.

In construction the apparatus resembles a "two-sided sticker." having a horizontal and vertical mandrel with selffeeding arrangements. It has also a buzz planer table over the horizontal cutter head. Extending out from the front side of the machine is an arm, upon which suitable devices are mounted for carrying a self-centering chuck, in which the wheel is held by the point of the hub during the planing of the rim. To this chuck, a cam-shaped disk is attached, which has as many faces as there are joints or sections in the wheel rim. The wheel is fastened in the chuck, so that the joints in the rim correspond with the high points of the cam. The wheel now being elevated to the proper hight by means of a screw, friction gears, and lever, it is

moved toward the machine, the chuck, to this end, being mounted on a collar, loosely fitted on a sleeve and having about ten inches to-and-fro play. The face of the wheel rim then resting over the horizontal cutter, the buzz planer table is lowered to give the required depth of cut, and the wheel is rotated and planed to a true face. The table is raised so as to taper out the cut gradually, leaving a true surface. The wheel and chuck are then moved back to allow the rim to clear the buzz planer, when they are both lowered until the rim rests on three stops. The operator now pushes the wheel toward the machine, the rim sliding under the horizontal cutter head and feed roller, and the periphery coming in contact with the vertical cutter, which is composed of bevel saws. The nut on which the chuck is mounted rests against a stop, preventing the movement of the wheel toward the machine. The feed roll then rotates the wheel, the horizontal cutter planes the rim to thickness and the required bevel, and the vertical head dresses the periphery.

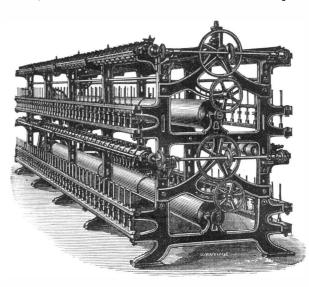
The cam-shaped disk resting against a stop gives the wheel a vibrating motion to and from the vertical cutter head, by which the rise at the joints is produced. The wheel is so placed in relation to the line of the feed roll shaft that the latter is inclined to draw the wheel toward the machine, always keeping the cam against the stop, causing a uniform vibration. Bent rims are dressed to a true circle by removing the stop, so that no vibration whatever is imparted.

It is stated that with this machine the wheels are made with certain uniformity, that all ordinary material can be planed straight out of wind and square on the buzz planer table, and to thickness on the sticker table. A saw board or table, can be substituted for the buzz planer table, and a saw for the cutter head, when all kinds of straight sawing can be done. If it be desired to perform a still greater range of work, one of Messrs. Bentel. Margedant, & Co.'s universal wood-worker tables, with back top, bevel rest, gaining frame, etc., may be attached.

On the reverse side of the machine, a spoke-sawing wheel and a tenoning and boring apparatus is arranged, the whole of simple construction. The hollow auger is secured to the mandrel and carries a dished saw which, at one rotation of the wheel, saws off the spokes and bores the tenons. Wheels from 30 inches to 6 feet in hight may, we are informed, thus be tenoned as desired. The change from a wheel tenoner to a boring or routing machine may be quickly made without the use of a wrench, and all kinds of boring may then be done. Two men may operate, on opposite sides of the machine, on different work at the same time. A horizontal shaper may be made of the rim planer which will shape, round, and corner all ordinary work. The capacity of the rim planer is 35 to 50 sets of wheels in ten hours; that nufacturers.



It is estimated that 6,000 persons are employed and over \$10,000,000 capital invested in the extensive silk factories of Paterson, N. J. The process of silk making begins with the assortment of the skeins of raw silk, which are imported from Japan, Italy, China, and France; then follows washing in soap and water to get rid of the gummy material left by the worm, and then drying in an ingenious apparatus which throws out the water by centrifugal force. Winding next follows, when the silk is wound off from the skeins upon



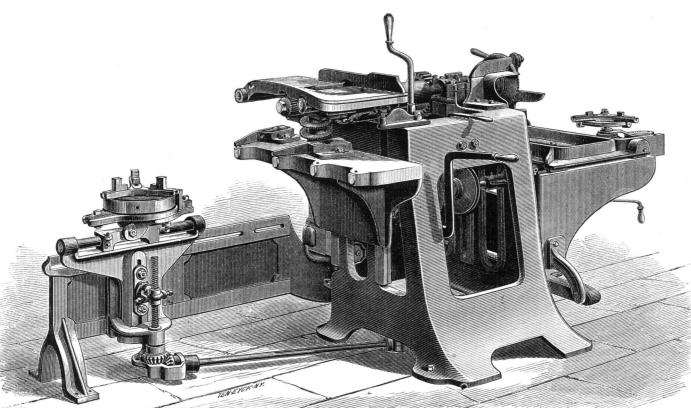
bobbins, after which the bobbins are taken to the doubling rooms, and there the silk from two, three, or four spools is wound together upon one. Finally the silk is spun, and this is done upon spinning frames of two or three stories and containing hundreds of spindles which revolve at a very high velocity.

The manufacture of these frames has recently been begun by the Danforth Locomotive and Machine Company, of Paterson, N. J., and numerous improvements have been added. We give herewith an engraving oft he two story frame, which is adapted to either tram or organzine, and is made of any desired length and to contain any required number of spindles. The latter are adjusted with nicety, and are capable we are informed, of running at a speed of from 7,000 to 8,000 revolutions per minute without perceptible wear. The machine also has a longer drag than is usual, which gives the thread a better opportunity to become properly twisted, and thus free from the kinks or curls so annoying to silk ma-

Silk making in Paterson, in Hartford, Conn., and in some

localities in this city is an industry of which the growth has been more rapid than is generally realized throughout the country.

The exhibition of silk machinery of American production, which, it is promised, will be made at the Centennial, will, we believe, attract the attention of manufacturers the world over, and perhaps serve to emphasize the fact that already excellent silks of American make are found on the counters of the dry goods warehouses, in close and in some cases successful competition with those from celebrated foreign looms. It is very much to be regretted that a



BUFFINGTON AND FORNEY'S WHEELWRIGHT'S MACHINE

to form the rim, when finished, thicker where it rests upon is, if desired, made separate, and with or without the boring attachment. The varied capabilities of the machine apparently fully justify its title of universal. In point of econo mizing room and in combining the functions of several usually distinct machines, the invention will prove one of much utility to wheelwrights and wood workers generally. Manufactured by Messrs. Bentel, Margedant, & Co., Hamilton. Ohio. For further information, address the patentees. Messrs. Buffington & Forney, Burlington, Iowa.

> An article called fish flour has been brought forward in the last few years. The flour is prepared from dried fish, thoroughly desiccated, and then ground in a mill.

Von Bulow, the pianist, says beer drinking is the great fault of his countrymen. They do not get drunk, but drink till their blood becomes sluggish and their brains stupid.

recent confiagration in Paterson has destroyed a large amount of very fine silk machinery, including two large looms especially constructed for exhibition at the Centennial.

New Mode of Illumination for Lighthouses.

Professor Batestrieri, of Naples, proposes for this purpose an apparatus composed of several disks of polished silver or copper, so arranged as to transmit successively the light received, so that all the rays falling upon the disks are concentrated into one powerful beam. The invention resembles the system of Fresnel, but the latter utilizes only about one third the light received, while M. Balestrieri's device, it is said, utilizes the greater portion. With an oil lamp having a burner 2.7 inches in diameter, at a test of the above described apparatus, a beam of light was transmitted which enabled a newspaper printed in ordinary type to be read at the distance of 0.6 of a mile.

plants. The margin is fringed with isole pis gracilis, used ex-

pressly to tone down the harshness of the metal work. Two

or three plants of the palm-like curculigo, says a correspon-

select the engraving, are placed in the center; and these, by

GREENHOUSES AND HOTHOUSES.

The long winter of our Northern and Middle States tries the patience of our gardeners, and renders doubly acceptable any hints and directions for the construction of greenhouses, wherein plants can be nurtured till the advent of spring; and where propagation can be carried on, so that a large supply of plants, both for flowers and fruit, may be

Where the horticultural operations are extensive, the plan shown in our Fig. 1 is perhaps the best that could be adopted. The buildings can be constructed of any required size. and the heat is well confined to the back of the house by the brick wall. Flues are built in the wall with furnaces at the ends; or steam or hot water pipes are used for heating. Grape vines are usually trained under the sloping roof, and thus enjoy the maximum of light and sunshine. The

Fig. 1

RECENTLY CONSTRUCTED HOTHOUSES

wall is very handy in a fruit garden, even when not covered | deep-toned greenness forms a pleasing contrast to the chawith glass. Fruit on trees trained against a brick wall (as shown on the left of Fig. 1) ripens much earlier; indeed, in England peaches and nectarines will hardly sipen at all in ordinary seasons unless the trees enjoy the reflected heat from a wall, which, by the way, should be painted black. Gardeners who devote much time to the cultivation of the

racter of the stand itself. Heaths and similar hard wooded plants are added, and with good effect.

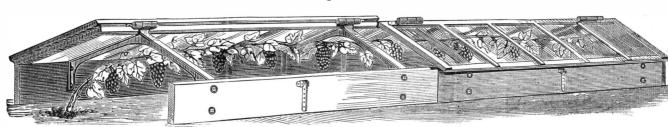
Take the Poles out of the Streets.

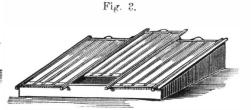
Complaints are frequently made against the objectionable practice of the telegraph companies in placing their poles in lines are situated. Now, these telegraph wires are placed

a bronze tazza, ornamented with well known decorative streets and placed above the buildings, as in some cities, and we hope the time is not far distant when this desirable change will be made. As to underground wires, they cannot be easily worked, even when carefully insulated, on account dent of the English Garden, from the pages of which we of the interference of static induction. All telegraph wires, without regard to their position, are thus affected, but wires furnishing bold and graceful foliage, contrast well with the placed underground or in water are affected 50 times as much ready for planting out as soon as the frost leaves the ground. | horizontal lines' of the tazza below, while their cool and as those which pass through the air, the amount of the

static charge in aerial wires being inversely proportional to the distance of the wires from the earth. The amount of the static charge in all telegraph wires, whether they are stretched through the air or buried under the ground, is proportional, also, to the length of the wire; and consequently an underground wire of half a mile to a mile in length may be worked without any inconvenience from the presence of the static charge, while one of greater length may give rise to the

most serious trouble. In London, all the railroads have stations centrally situated, most of the roads coming into the heart of the city. The South-Eastern Railway, for instance, has a station at Cannon street, which is only one third of a mile from the General Post Office, where the headquarters of the English telegraph





GRAPE VINE AND HOTBED FRAMES.

grape will find the glass frames, shown in our Fig. 2, eco- the streets of cities; and the popular belief is that the wires on poles and follow the lines of the railroads into the stanomical and efficient. The timber used in making them is ought to be put underground. It is true that the main small in quantity, and the glass is well placed to ripen the fruit. Air is readily admitted to the vines by raising the glass frames, the hight of which can be adjusted by the attachment shown in the engraving, which displays the construction so clearly that no further explanation is necessary.

Another convenient form of glass frame is shown in Fig. 3; it is especially suitable for use on hotbeds. Being of little depth, the sun's heat is concentrated by the glass on the rich earth of the well manured bed; and the frames, which are well suited to cucumbers, melons, and early tomatoes, are so constructed as to slide open for purposes of ventilation.

Winter is the time when people are most apt to feel the need of a greenhouse; and if they do not construct one then, they usually get their plans perfected, and begin building in the early spring. We have published illustrations of more elaborate and expensive greenhouses than the one represented herewith; but we have seen none in which the arrangement is better, and the cost of construction less, than the one shown in Fig. 1. While Fig. 2 and 3 present no special novelty, they are each well adapted for the different purposes for which they are intended, and can be built cheaply.

PLANT VASES FOR INDOOR DECORATION

The votaries of floriculture are now turning their attention indoors, and inquiries as to proper and tasteful modes of parlor and dinner table decoration are beginning to reach us. The usual way of keeping plants in houses is to place them in vases or tazzas, of wood or pottery, although some are now made in bronze or iron, of very handsome designs; terra cotta is also employed, and, although cheaper than metal, is capable of equally effective ornamentation. Filled with a light earth, and covered with the moss called sphagnum, hardy and half hardy plants will thrive well in these vases; care must, however, be taken not to water them too profusely, as (there being no way of escape through the bottom of the vase for superfluous water) too much moisture will rot the roots.

The accompanying illustration represents

streets of New York are sadly disfigured by the clumsy wooden poles, and probably no improvement can be expected until we have a better city government. But the idea that it is a mistake. They could, however, be taken out of the tributing telegraph offices which are connected by wires



ORNAMENTAL PLANT STAND.

tions, where they first pass under ground, running as subterranean lines only from the railroad termini to the central telegraph station. Hence, the quantity of underground wire in London is comparatively small. In addition, it may be would be easily practicable to work the wires underground stated that in all parts of the city there are certain large dis-

> with all the sub-stations in the city-of which there are 400 to 500-and every wire from each of these distributing offices to the several hundred sub stations is carried over the house tops; where there are several wires running to the same station, they are insulated on poles which are fastened to the tops of houses. In addition to those that have been mentioned, there are in London 800 private lines, running to all parts of the city. They use what are known as the Wheatstone dial instruments. There is not a single rod of wire working all these instruments that is under ground, the wires all being carried over the house tops. Frequently 40 to 50 insulated wires are made into a single cable, which is suspended on fixtures attached to the roofs of

> In 1854 a telegraph company was organized in England which constructed an underground line between London and Liverpool, 210 miles, the cable containing 10 wires. But in less than two years after the line was built, its insulation became so much impaired that the company was obliged to take up and replace a considerable portion of the cable. One wire after another still continued to fail, until there were only five of the ten that would work at all. After this, as others failed, sections of the underground line were abandoned, and wires placed on poles were substituted, until, finally, so much of the underground system had failed that the company decided to place the whole line on poles. The copper and gutta percha which constituted the valuable portion of the underground cable were taken up and sold for enough to replace the whole system with a good overland line. All similar lines that were ever constructed in England have been abandoned, except one of thirty miles, constructed by the government nearly three years ago as an experiment, which is the only line outside of the cities.

In like manner, says Mr. G. B. Prescott, 20,000 miles of popened here and there, and one block was over from the top underground lines in En-gland, France, and Germany have been abandoned. In the city of New York there are over 5,000 miles of telegraph wires in operation, four fifths of which are used for local communications, stock-reporting instruments, and private lines.

If a law should be passed compelling the companies to place their wires underground, the whole system of communication would have to be changed. But, even were it practicable to work our system upon the underground lines, it would be impossible to place all the wires in the city of New York lone underground in less than four or five years.

The Manora Breakwater.

At a recent meeting of the Institution of Civil Engineers. the paper read was on "The Manora Breakwater, Kurrachee" (the design for which was illustrated on page 99 of volume XXVII. of the Scientific American), by Mr. William Henry Price.

It was stated that the Manora Breakwater was the most important feature of the Kurrachee Harbor Works, which were commenced in 1860, from the design of the late Mr. James Walker, assisted by Mr. William Parkes. Besides the breakwater the chief works were: In the lower harbor a stone groyne 8,900 feet long, dredging and removal of rock; and in the upper harbor, an increase of one fourth to the area of the backwater, involving a new tidal channel 21 miles long, crossed by a screw pile bridge 1,200 feet long, and an embankment 2,780 feet long, to close the old channel, also of a jetty 1,400 feet long, with quays. All these works were now nearly completed, and had already produced great benefit, the entrance having been made direct instead of circuitous, deepened 6 feet and sheltered, the anchorage space enlarged, and the internal accommodation improved. The trade of the port was \$17,500,000 per annum, and railway communication with the Punjaub would further develope it. About \$2,250,000 had been expended on the whole of the harbor improvements.

The Breakwater projected from Manora Point for a length of 1,503 feet, into a depth of 5 fathoms of water, in order to shelter the entrance from the southwest monsoon seas, and to prevent their tearing up sand from the bottom and depos iting it as a bar. The characteristics of the sea, wind, and tides, as bearing on the design, were alluded to, and it was stated that the bottom was irregular near the shore. The structure consisted of a base of rubble stone, leveled off generally to 15 feet under low water; and on this concrete blocks, each weighing 27 tuns, were set on edge, leaning back at a slope of 3 inches to 1 foot, and without bond, two blocks forming the width and three the hight, and together making a square of 24 feet in cross sections, the top being about the level of high water. The rubble base was deposited from native boats, and was leveled for the superstructure by helmet divers. Two European mason divers were employed, and six native divers trained on the work, the latter chiefly for shifting the rubble. No accident occurred, and the party generally did not suffer in health. After mentioning circumstances which determined the use of concrete blocks and of Portland cement, particulars were given of the composition of a 37-tun block, the materials being cement, river sand, shingle, and quarry lumps, with salt water. The ratio of the bulk of the cement to that of the finished block was nearly $\frac{1}{11}$. About 3,500 tuns of cement were used. The mixing station, block ground, and molding of the nineteen hundred and seventy-two blocks, including three hundred and twenty-five of special smaller sizes, were then described; and it was remarked that the Messent mixers had been found very efficient. The blocks were sometimes used one month after being made, and once, as an experiment, a 27-tun block was safely lifted in seven days. When the work was fairly established, the blocks cost for current expenses \$3.75 per cubic yard, though the average total rate was raised beyond this by extra expenses in the earlier stages.

The blocks were lifted on to the trucks by a steam hydraulic traveling crane of 50 feet span; each truck carried one block, and was taken separately by a tank locomotive to the breakwater. The blocks were set by a steam traveling crane, called the Titan, which ran on rails laid on the finished work, and overhung the end, so as to carry the blocks of three tiers in advance to their places, thus dispensing with staging. The framing of this crane supported a traveler and crab, worked by an 8-horse power engine on the top, which also drove the traveling gear of the entire machine. The cost of the Titan, delivered and erected at Kurrachee, was \$14,395. The rate of setting was limited by the progress of the foundation and by the supply of blocks, but during the last season ten 27-tun blocks were set daily on an average, while on one occasion six blocks were laid in one hour and forty minutes without special pressure.

The base was commenced on the 17th of March, 1869; and later in that year the shore end stump, 45 feet long, to make a starting place for the Titan, with other preparatory works, was completed, after some unavoidable delays, and the first block was set on the 1st of November, 1870. The delays of the foundation were merely felt in the first season's work, but a length of 225 feet was built in four months, taking the breakwater out to 270 feet from the shore. During the second season, 1871-72, after a few days spent in repair of monsoon damages, a length of 523 feet was built in about four months, making a total of '793 feet. During the third season, after the repair of monsoon damages, a length of 710 feet was built, completing the breakwater on the 22nd of February, 1873, to its full length of 1,503 feet, which had thus been barely twelve months in actual building.

The action and effect of the monsoon sea, and the repair

course on the harbor side. Slight damage also occurred to the shore end in the sea angle. The nature of the settlement was described, also a curious rocking action, and the closing up of the cross joints under the action of the sea. The repairs of the damage, in the first season, cost \$925. During the second monsoon, 1872, twenty-five blocks were washed out from the top course on the harbor side, eighteen of these block being, in one length, 86 feet. The damage was again traceable to inequality of settlement. The sea side did not suffer, nor did the shore end, though both showed evidence of the force of the sea. The damage was repaired in a few days at a cost of \$2,560. 'The monsoon of 1873, the first after the completion of the breakwater, did trifling damage, and was confined to the shore half length, still pointing clearly to weakness of foundation. The repairs cost \$995. In the monsoon of 1874, the outer end and scar, which had not then been in any way specially secured, lost five blocks during unusual weather, though no other part of the outer half length suffered, but the shoreward half opened here and there. The repairs of this season cost \$2,090, and included the re-erection of an iron beacon on the outer end. The nature and extent of the subsidence (which in some parts amounted to 3 feet, but without dislocation), were then noticed, also the action of a mollusk, the pholas, on the concrete blocks, and the effect of the sea on the rubble base, which did not, however, affect the stability of the superstructure.

The cost of the breakwater had been \$467,825, or \$311.25 per lineal foot, but this amount included preliminary charges, the current expenses during the last season being only \$170 per foot. This sum included the repair of damages during the progress of the work, and during the two monsoons since its completion, but not the expense of engineering and office establishment. The work had been carried on in the Bombay Public Works Department by the author and his assistants, advised by Mr. William Parkes, as consulting engineer, and without employment of any general contractor. The completion of the work was favorably noticed by all the government authorities concerned.

Recent American and Horeign Latents.

NEW CHEMICAL AND MISCELLANEOUS INVENTIONS.

IMPROVED HORSE-HITCHING DEVICE

John Schoonmaker, New York city.—This consists in attaching to the reins rings which are caught upon hooks on the forward part of the wagon body, so that, should the horse attempt to run away the whole weight of the wagon will come upon his mouth and hold

IMPROVED STILL.

Henry Deymann and Edward Melchers, Toledo, Ohio.-This inventor proposes an improved column for refining stills, in place of the so-called French column, so that a finer spirit, with less steam pressure, is produced by means of simpler construction, which prevents leakage, decreases the trouble and expense connected with the repairs of the French column, and which may be put in the space of one story, with a considerable saving in copper plate. The essential features consist in arranging the chambers of the columns on opposite sides thereof, with alternating horizontal and vertical partition plates and connecting overflow pipes and draining stop cocks. The intercommunicating arrangement of the chambers virtually produces two columns in one, so as to require about half the hight and material only, and offers the advantage of having all the overflow pipes at the outside.

IMPROVED INKSTAND.

Herman Schirmer, Wheeling, W. Va.-This is an ink vessel with an inverted conical tube extending nearly to the bottom of the vessel, and having an orifice at the lower end in connection with an air regulating device by which the hight of the ink in the tube is regu-

IMPROVED PHOTOGRAPHIC PLATE HOLDER.

Frank A. Howson and William S. Howson, Brooklyn, N. Y.-This s an improved combination holder for the ground glass and plate for photographic cameras, by which, in every case, the exact image that was focused on the ground glass is obtained with perfect certainty on the sensitized plate. By its use the ground glass door of the camera may be dispensed with. The device is provided with lower grooved glass holders, glass buttons or stude at the top, and a side support, on which the ground glass and plate are insulated, and ecurely fastened by a spring top plate.

IMPROVED MONUMENT.

John N. Wallis, Fleming, and Theodore Wallis, Scipio, assignors to themselves and James A. Moore, Auburn, N. Y.—This inventor pro poses gravestones of a more tasteful form than those commonly used. He suggests making the monuments of stone and glass, having inclosed chambers for the preservation of flowers and other objects.

NEW HOUSEHOLD ARTICLES.

IMPROVED CURTAIN FIXTURE.

William H. Maine, Abington, Mass.—This is a spring curtain roller provided with a device for preventing the unwinding of the spring when the roller is removed from the brackets. A spiral roller spring acts on a spindle, revolves the same, and throws a pin instantly ou of its seat against a cam of a sleeve, so as to retain the spindle and prevent the unwinding of the spring. The roller thus remains in locked position as long as it is out of the brackets, and is instantly available for use when replaced in the brackets.

IMPROVED COMPOSITION FOR SOAP.

William F. Darnoby, Nashville, Tenn., assignor to himself and Edward B. Stahlman, of same place.—This compound, the inventor states, is an excellent article both for laundry and toilet, and is very cheap. It is made of Kirk's double extract, Colgate's soda soap sal soda, water, spirits of ammonia, ether, and oil of sassafras.

NEW AGRICULTURAL INVENTIONS.

IMPROVED CHECK-ROW ATTACHMENT FOR CORN PLANTERS George C. Flagg, Columbus, Ill.-This includes several new and ingenious devices, so constructed that wheels mark the rows in one direction and marker arms mark it in the other direction. The machine is so guided that the ends of the inner markers may meet, or nearly meet, the ends of the marks made by the outer markers upon the previous crossing, so that the ground is marked in accuof damages, were then detailed. In 1871 the center joint ate check row by the machine crossing the field in one direction. I together.

NEW MECHANICAL AND ENGINEERING INVENTIONS.

IMPROVED CAR COUPLING.

Oscar E. Ford, Meridian, Miss., assignor to himself and Min or B. Clinton, Dallas, Tex.—1his coupling consists of drawheads with forward-projecting parts, which are recessed at their inner sides. and provided with laterally sliding spring-acting jaws that inter-lock by the entering of the projecting parts of the drawheads into the space formed by the shorter part. The drawheads are thus firmly connected without chance of getting detached, while the jaws have play in vertical direction by the widening of the recesses at the rear part, which allows the coupling of cars of different

IMPROVED CRANK STOP.

William H. Phillips, Bridgeton, N. J.-The cranks of windlass and other shafts have been heretofore disconnected by the backward rotation of said shafts, but the shafts required to rotate several times in order to effect such result. This inventor effects the disconnection at the first backward rotation of the shaft, and to this end provides a pivoted catch, which engages a sliding piece that locks the crank to the shaft.

IMPROVED SPARK CONVEYER.

Charles K. Cullers, Bunceton, Mo.—This device is principally a kind of ball-and-socket joint for connecting the sections of pipe for conducting the smoke for the locomotive back along the top of the train to the rear end, the said joint being free to oscillate to any required extent, and allowing the necessary contraction and extension of the pipe, and at the same time keeping tight.

IMPROVED SADIRON SHOE.

Victor C. Thebaud, Buffalo, N. Y.—A large number of inventions are in existence for getting rid of the unnecessary weight of metal in flat irons, most of which accomplish their object by abolishing the fixed handle and substituting an adjustable one which will serve for several bodies. The present inventor suggests a very different plan, and proposes a shoe for the iron, which is easily attached and replaced at will, so that an effective ironing surface is always obtainable. The device is made with external flange, having curved side extensions at the front and a fastening screw at the rear part to be readily applied to the iron.

IMPROVED TREADLE FOR MACHINERY.

Andrew N. Hagerty, West Alexander, Pa.—This is an auxiliary treadle and connecting rod, in combination with the main treadle and connecting rod, to work a pawl for starting the machine by a ratchet wheel. The object is to insure the turning of the machine in the right direction, and to avoid the necessity of starting the balance wheel by hand, thus leaving both hands free for managing

IMPROVED RAIL JOINT.

George A. Mead, Salem Center, N. Y.—In this device, the tongue or tenon of one rail enters a slot in the other. The slotted part is bolted together by a couple of bolts, arranged the same as in fishplate joints. The object is to make an endless joint, and to dispense with the fishplates commonly used.

IMPROVED WATER REGULATOR AND INDICATOR FOR STEAM BOILERS.

Dexter Cook, Elmira, Ohio.-This is a cylindrical tank traveling in vertical guides and supported by a spring. It is connected at top and bottom with the steam and water spaces of the boiler. When the water in the boiler falls below a certain level, the tank, becoming lighter, is raised by the spring, and the fact is indicated by a graduated scale and pointer and by a whistle allowed to sound by mechanism connected with the tank. The latter is also connected with a feed valve, so as to open the same, and thus allow water to enter the boiler when a deficiency is indicated, and closes the valve when the level is reached.

IMPROVED FEATHERING PADDLE WHEEL.

Peter Gregerson, Wauzeka, Wis., assignor to himself and Phillip Miller. same place.—The paddles are hung by pivots above their centers, and are held to their work by stops. The latter are controlled by sliding rods which, acted upon by a cam on the wheel shaft, push said stops beyond the outer edge of the paddles, and then retract them by springs. There are other devices which allow the cam to shift right or left, as the wheel is turned in either direction, and an ingenious mechanism is provided for purposes of adjustment.

IMPROVED GATE,

Robert Samuel Rinker, Mount Jackson, Va.-The object of this invention is to provide an improved automatic or self-opening gate; and it consists in an arrangement of elbow levers and catch hooks, controlled by a cord or wire, with a weighted lever, upon one end of which lever the wheels of the vehicle pass to raise the weight and set the gate, so that it can be readily opened from either side by the person in the vehicle by pulling a tripping cord, arranged upon both sides of the gate, within convenient reach, upon a post, each vehicle serving to raise the weight and set the gate for the next succeeding one.

IMPROVED BRICK KILN.

Holland B. Evans and Earnest G. Kemper, St. Charles, Mo.-The invention relates to a new construction and arrangement of the several compartments of the kiln and their flues, which cannot be made plain without the aid of drawings. In general the flues are so made that their heat can easily be controlled, and by using the invention it appears that as many more bricks as are contained in the compartments can be burned with the same or less amount of fuel than with a kiln of the same dimensions constructed in the old way

--NEW WOODWORKING AND HOUSE AND CARRIAGE BUILDING INVENTIONS.

IMPROVED RECORDING AND SIGNAL FARE BOX.

Edward Henry Schnell, South Norwalk, Conn.—Another machine for enforcing honesty in car conductors is a recording and alarm fare box, in which the record is made by punctures or slits formed in a piece of paper at the same time that the signal is sounded. There is also a separate compartment in the case of the instrument for depositing tickets as they are collected by the conductor, with a door which only opens when the signal and recording devices are actuated. So that in order that the tickets shall agree with the record the conductor is obliged to collect and deposit all the tickets.

IMPROVED BARREL

Leslie E. Sunderland, Williamsburg, Va.—The object of this invention is to provide a barrel for the shipment of produce, which shall be capable of transformation after the said produce is delivered, so as to occupy a comparatively small space, and be returned to the sender at the rates of solid freight and at a comparatively trifling cost. It consists in a series of staves, connected by hoops which have peculiar fastenings, which adapt the staves to be disposed flat for return transportation, or rolled up and fastened to form a barrel. The sides of the barrel are straight, and the heads are held in place by lugs alternating, when the barrel is set up upon opposite sides of the head. The heads are thus of less diameter than the inside of the barrel, so that the barrel, when returned, may be packed full of heads, and the rest of the barrel sides packed flatly

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- H. M. D. will find directions for making fireproof artificial stone on p. 113, vol. 24.—M. H. can fasten emery to wood by the method for emery and iron, described on p. 363, vol. 33.—H. J. will find directions for making nitro-glycerin, dualin, dynamite, etc., on p. 212, vol. 33.-H. F. S. can brown his gun barrels by using the recipe given on p. 11, vol. 32.—F. F. will find a recipe for stove blacking on p. 57, vol. 25.—T. should French polish his pianoforte work. See p. 11, vol. 22.—M. H. K. will find a recipe for white fusible metal on p. 374, vol. 32. The process of repairing desilvered mirrors is described on p. 346, vol. 25,-8. N. will find directions for staining glass on p. 390, vol. 30; for etching glass, on p. 379, vol. 33.—H. A. S. will find directions for making clarified eider on p. 204, vol. 33; for preserving cider, on p. 139, vol. 33.-S. & B. will find on p. 139, vol. 32, directions for making paste that will probably answer their purpose As to State laws regulating the sale of patents, see p. 187, vol. 33.—S. T. S. can mold rubber by following the directions on p. 283, vol. 29.-W. T. can clean shells by the method described on p. 122, vol. 27.-H. D. M. will find a recipe for Babbitt metal on p. 26, vol. 33.-C. B. will find directions for silvering glass on p. 340, vol. 33. Full directions for nickel plating have frequently been published in these columns. See pp. 155, 235, vol. 33. This also answers E. J. C.-R. R. M. can make a mold, for use on type, of plaster of Paris. The metal that is lightest in water is the lightest out of water. B. H. C. will find full directions for putting a white enamel on iron on p. 362, vol. 32. This also answers A. F.-C. S. F. will find an account of the oleomargarin process on p. 23, vol. 32.—P. D. R. can fasten rubber to iron by the method given on p. 42, vol. 26, for leather. A good recipe for paste that will keep is published on p. 219, vol. 30.-D. G. F. will find a description of the phosphorus lamp on p. 10, vol. 27.—V. can read the inscriptions on coins by following the directions on p. 246. vol 26.-H. G. W. will find directions for making spongy platinum on p. 330, vol. 25.—H. N. M. can cement glass to brass by the method described on p. 1, vol. 33.
- (1) N. S. asks: How can I unite the mercury in a thermometer which has become separated by agitation? A. Fasten a string 3 or 4 feet long to the instrument, and swing it round your head. The centrifugal force will cause the mercury to unite.
- (2) R. F. L. asks: How can I stick leather on the face of iron and wood pulleys? A. Glue the leather to the wooden pulley. Paint the iron pulley with a good coat of white lead in oil, and letit dry; then glue the leather on.
- (3) L. B. asks: What is black rosin, and is it known by any other name? A. Black rosin is also called colophony, and is the residue left after the distillation of turpentine.
- (4) H. L. M. asks: How can I get a white metal that will flow perfectly into an iron or brass mold, and which, when turned out, will stay bright? A. Melttogether 4½ lbs. of tin, ½ lb. bismuth, ½ lb. antimony, and ½ lb. lead. This alloy uses at a low temperature and does not tarnish.

Can the color be taken out of horsehair, so as to make it white? A. Wash in weak lye, and fumigate with the vapor of burning sulphur (sulphur ous acid).

- (5) G. G. B. asks: What do pattern makersuse to blacken their patterns with? A. Lamp black mixed with copal varnish and alcohol.
- (6) J. N. J. asks: Why do iron and steel weld with less heat with than without borax? A. The use of borax is as a flux, to make the steel heat evenly, and to prevent the corners or edges from burning before the rest of the metal is of the proper heat.
- (7) M. D. F. asks: How can chilled iron instead of water.
- (8) C. R. asks: What pressure per square inch is required to crush pieces of ice together so as to form one clear homogeneous mass? A.Consult Professor Tyndall on "Forms of Water."
- (9) J. H. asks: In what quantity, and at what intervals, should quinine be taken as a remedy for chills and fever? A. In many cases two grain doses are recommended to be taken before each meal, whenever an attack of chills is antici-
- (10) E. C. & Co. ask: Would it be beneficial to soft maple lumber, for building a large friction pulley, to boil it in olive oil? A. Yes. 2. Would it harden the timber, and make it less liable to split? A. Yes. 3. Would the gear slip more after such treatment? A. Yes.
- (11) H. A. S. asks: How is bromide of cam ohor made? A. Triturate the camphor first with a drop or two of dilute spirits of wine, and then digest with bromine water. The bromine unites with the camphor to form an unstable bromide of camphor, which is crystalline, and is decomposed by heat, by contact with air, and by action of ammonia.

- (12) D. C. G. asks: Is there any preparation phosphorus, either fluid or dry, that is luminous in the dark when hermetically sealed? A. A. full description of the phosphorus lamp will be found on p. 299, vol. 33. It consists of a strong solution of phosphorus in olive oil. The solution is kept in a small, glass, stoppered bottle, and when required for use the cork is removed and the solu tion agitated.
- (13) W. J. H. asks: What would be the difference between suspending a weight (that works such machinery as clockwork) direct, and hanging the same weight around a pulley attached to weight? Would there be any difference in effect upon the train of wheels, providing the amount of pressure on drum (not the weights) were same in both cases? A. Neglecting friction and rigidity of cordage, if the weight required in the second arrangement were 100 lbs. that in the first need only be 50 lbs.
- (14) T. D. W. If two persons are in a top wagon, about 500 lbs. weight rests upon the two axles, which are as stiff as they are usually made. Now if the axles can be made 2½ times as stiff, how many lbs. will the change take away from the load drawn by the horse? A. The question is rather indefinite, but we do not imagine that there would be much difference in the two cases.
- (15) C. P. asks: How many lbs. strain will there be on a rope which has a horse at each end. pulling in opposite directions, supposing each horse to be pulling 1,000 lbs.? A. One thousand lbs. This question is anything but new. See p. 186,
- (16) M. B. asks: Is centrifugal force of a wheel in motion a radial or a tangential one A. Radial, as we understand your question, that is, in the direction of a radius.
- (17) J. G. says, in answer to N. K. B's query as to the area of a polygon: If A be the area of the circle and P the perimeter of the reg ular polygon, the area of the latter is

 $2\sqrt{\frac{\Lambda}{31416}} - \frac{\Gamma^4}{4n^2}n$ being the number of sides which must be given. If these be given, A and P, as before, and B, the area of the regular polygon, the

number of ides= $2\sqrt{\frac{\Lambda}{3.1416} - \frac{4B^2}{P^2}}$

(18) S. says, in reply to W. J. E., who is troubled with dreams: If you abstain from sleeping on your back you will not dream. It is very rare that a person who is not laying on his back

(19) L. C. Jr. says, in reply to H. J. E. who asked how to apply wax to stove patterns: As the stove plates of to-day are more or less or nemented with designs, having well defined de pressions or elevations, the casting must be heated till it is hot enough to melt the beeswax and not burn it. Then apply the wax by rubbing it here and there over the surface of the plate; a small quantity only is required. After which, and hile the wax is in a liquid form, give the casting a thorough brushing with a new shoe brush; this will spread the wax uniformly over the entire surface and at the same time remove all the surplus wax. Then allow the casting to cool, and, with a second shoe brush, give it a thorough brushing, and you will have a surface to your pattern that will give you a mold with as sharp corners as your pattern.

(20) W. J. R. says, in answer to T. D.'s inquiries as to compound gears: I judge from T.D.'s list of gears and pitch of lead screwthat be has got a Pratt & Whitney lathe, which, unlike most other lathes, has, on the inside gear on the stud double the number of teeth that the cone gear has. Therefore, with gears on stud and screws having the same number, the revolutions of cone and screw will be as 2 to 1, and the pitch of lead screw is made practically 16 instead of 8. The SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN'S rule will work by counting thescrew as 16. The following index is useful for T. D.'s lathe:

	Thread.	Stud.	Screw,	Thread.	Stud.	Screw.
	2) (2)		cut with	4	112	2 8
	3 (Ca)	mor be	cut with	5	"	35
	Alba link	of ~oo.		6	"	42
	the list of gears.			7	"	49
	8	"	56	9	"	63
	10	"	70	11	"	77
	12	"	84	13	"	91
	14	"	98	15	"	105
	16	44	112	1 8	56	68
1	2 C	56	70	22	56	84
	24	56	77	28	56	98
	32	56	112	36	28	63
	40	28	70	1 44	28	77
1	48	28	84	52	28	91
	56	28	98	60	28	105
	64.	28	112	İ	~	
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COMMUNICATIONS RECEIVED.

The Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN acmowledges, with much pleasure, the receipt of original papers and contributions upon the following subjects:

- On Screw Cutting Gears. By R. H. B. On the New Force. By H. M. P. On Solar Heat. By W. L. S.
- On the Contraction Policy. By F. A. L. On Reissues of Patents. By G. E. B. On the Hydro-Pneumatic Puzzle. By M. P., by C. M., and by N. B. J.
- On Spiritualism. By E. P. M., and by F. G. F. On the Orbit of the Sun. By J. S.
- On Making Rifles. By B.
- On Poisons. By H. S. W.
- On Carbonic Acid Gas. By C. W. S. On Oceanic Currents. By T. L.
- On Electric Whistles. By L. S. W.
- On Chemical Action. By E. V.

Also inquiries and answers from the following: -G. W. P., Jr.-T. B.-J. M.-A. J. B.-A. C.-G. E. C. S.-S. H.-S. R. H.-C. S. D.-S. E. H.-F. S.B. J. A. W.-F. E. E.-R. B.-J. Q. R. B.

J. A. W.-F. E. E.-R. B.-J. Q. R. B.

HINTS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Correspondents whose inquiries fail to appear should repeat them. If not then published, they may conclude that, for good reasons, the Editor declines them. The address of the writer should always be given.

Enquiries relating to patents, or to the patentability of inventions, assignments, etc., will not be published here. All such questions, when initials only are given, are thrown into the waste basket, as it would fill half of our paper to print them all; but we generally take pleasure in answering briefly by mail, if the writer's address is given.

Hundreds of inquiries analogous to the following are sent: "Who sells alligator leather? makes an engine run by burning crude oil in the cylinder? Who makes the best gas meter? Whose s the best process for preserving shingles? Who sells papier mache cornices and centerpieces for ceilings? Who makes reflecting drawing boards and other drawing apparatus? Who sells phosphorbronze? Who sells haircloth for pressing eider?" All such personal inquiries are printed, as will be observed, in the column of "Business and Personal," which is specially set apart for that purpose, subject to the charge mentioned at the head of that column. Almost any desired information can in this way be expeditiously obtained.

[OFFICIAL.]

INDEX OF INVENTIONS

Letters Patent of the United States were Granted in the Week Ending

November 16, 1875. AND EACH BEARING THAT DATE.

[Those marked (r) are reissued patents.]

 Alarm etc., low water, T. Hass.
 170,261

 Amalgamator, Bancroft & walker
 170,329

 Ashes, sifting coal, J. Waldron
 170,317

 Auger handle, J. Swan
 170,413

 Bagasse, saturator for, A. W. J. Mason
 170,180

 Bale band stretcher, J. Z. Stocker
 170,411

 Barrel, Flye & Watson
 170,162
 Bed stone, oscillating, E. Armitage...... 170,825
 Bedstead, sofa, W. R. Hamilton
 170,258

 Bedstead, sofa, J. Schoen
 170,403

 Bee hive, O. Colvin
 170,237

 Billet loop, K. W. Holmes
 170,264

 Binder, temporary, H. B. Stephenson............ 170,202 Boiler steam, R. Dempster. 170,348
Boiler injector, W. Randall 170,299

 Boot, T. R. Evans.
 170,359

 Boot tip, Merrill & Hoitt (r).
 6,762

 Building block, B. A. Berryman.
 170,331

 Burner, gas, A. M. Silber.
 170,407

 Butcher's saw, W. Millspaugh.
 170,181

 Butter package, A. J. Dibble 170,242 Cable etc., electric, G. W. F. Hoogeveen 170,266

 Camera obscura, T. A. Kellett.
 170,271

 Car axle box, L. Brauer.
 170,338

 Car brake, P. Klunzinger...... 170,379 Car platform, E. Tilp...... 170,415 Car seats, lock for, E.S. Scofield...... 170,193

 Car starter, G. S. Knapp.
 170,175

 Cars, wind wheel, A. W. Woodward.
 170,215

 Cars, ventilating, E. E. Hargreaves
 170,364

 Carboy, A. H. Fatzinger.
 170,246

 Carbureter, feed, etc., J. Austin.
 6,754

 Card, playing, R. R. Landis.
 170,381

 Carpetrag looper, W. H. H. Wyckoff.
 170,323

 Caster, furniture, L. F. Cerf.
 170,156

 Chair, reclining rocking, J. R. Newman
 170,293
 Chairs, bellows for rocking, E. E. Sells...... 170,308 Chronometer, solar, M. Wheeler...... 170,423
 Clothes dryer, F. M. Clark
 170,235

 Clothes dryer, G. W. Green
 170,253
 Cooking apparatus, H. M. Smith...... 170,199

 Cracker machine, C. S. Fowler.
 170,250

 Cradle, W. V. & N. W. Van Dervort.
 170,418

 Crosshead, J. W. Hill
 170,370

 Cultivator, Price & Hunt
 170,395

 Curd cutter, A. & E. H. Sedgwick.
 170,404

 Curry comb, C. E. L. Holmes
 170,265
 Curtain fixture, E. B. Lake.... 170,277
 Curtain fixture, G. W. Peirce
 170,298

 Curtain roller, Taylor & Donahue
 170,205
 Dental engine attachment, Buckingham et al.... 170,342

410	
Detergent, J. W. Munger Digger, potato. W. P. Martyn	
Door pull, sliding, H. H. Elwell	170,357
Drill. mining, J. S. Fleming	170,249
Earthenware, bailed, B. F. Roberts	170,827
Engine frame, steam, W. S. Finney Engine, rotary, W. Haven	170,365
Engine bucket, rotary, B. T. Babbitt Engines, valve box for, H. W. Adams	170,149
Envelope opener, La Blanc & St. Pierre Equalizer, draft, H. Cartwright	170,232
Eraser, etc., protector, L. L. Tower (r)6,766 Fabrics for skirts, etc., A. Komp Fare register, Watson & Knowlton	170,380
Fence, J D & F Hyberger Fence, iron, R. Rogers	170,269
Fences putting barbs on wire, W. Dulin Files and steel, testing. J. Garland	
Filter and funnel. druggist's, A. E. Garrison Fire escape, T. Jingras	170,167
Fire escape, J. E. Lindlau Fire kindler, C. F. Cushing	170,281 170,158
Fishing rod case, C. Perry	170,356 170,198
Fruit jar, E. S. Hunt	
Furnace door, puddling, J. Boyland	170,198
Furnaces, feeding air to, W. C. Ford Furnaces, superheating air for, W. C. Ford Furnaces, retort for, H. M. Smith	170,163
Furnaces, heated air to, W. C. Ford Furniture caster, L. F. Cerf	170,164
Game board, J. G. Thurber, Jr	170,429
Gas lighter electric, O. A. A. Boillion	170,303 170,221
Generator, steam, H. M. Smith	170,196 170,339
Glassware, making, T. B. Atterbury	170,241
Grate, J. Schroeffel, Jr	170,206 170,207
Hames, J. Thornton	170,209
Harness tug, B. S. Leonard	170,382
Harvesters, J. O. Brown	170,388
Harvester, corn, Townsend and Parr Harvester carriage attachment, J. O. Brown Harvesting machine, J. O. Brown	170,230
Hay loader, Perry and Manley	170,189
Hinge, F. Toedt	170,314
Horse detacher, D. E. Owen	170,389
Horse power, A. D. Manley	170,386 170,245
Horseshoe-calking vise, W. Weaver	170,155
Hose, lining hydraulic, J. U. Braman	170,397
Hydrant, J. O. Connor	170,213
Iron into steel, cast, C. L. Jeffords Iron, refining cast, A. Warner Jack, hydraulic, M. J. Walsh	170,420
Kiln, brick, H. W. Adams, Jr	170,148
Kitchen utensil, T. S. Page	170,295
Lamps, manufacture of, T B. Atterbury Lamps, wick raiser for, A. Albertson	170.219
Latch, locking, J. Drucklieb Latch, reversible, H. S. Pomeroy	170,393
Lightning rod, I. Johnson	170,877
Limb receiver, H. R. Allen Loom shattle, etc., J. Wolfenden Loom west stop, Jeherwood and Nuttell (r)	170,214
Loom weft stop, Isherwood and Nuttall (r) Lounges, attaching frames to, W. Seng Lubricators, C. H. Parshall 170,296,	170.406 170.297
Macaroons, preserve for. Heide and Wirtz Mail bag fastening, H. M. Smith	170,368
Mattress, wire, A. Z. Boda	170,334
Measure, graduated, Young and Davis	
Mechanical movement, E. Leslie	170,280 170,367
Mills, concentrating tailings from, F. E. Mills.	170,289
Millstones bearing for, C. Custer Mitten, A. P. Smith (r) Motion, converting, M. Crossman	6,764
Motor, volute spring, W. S. Shoemaker	170,310
Needle threader, P. E. Lambert	170,278
Paper collar, E. F. Bradford	170,336
Paper, perforating, W. Braidwood	170,337 170,243
Parchment, vegetable. A. G. Fell	170,184
Photographic background. Taber and Boyd Photometer, P. Munzinger	170,292
Picture frame clamp, etc., C. P. Poinier	170,185
Pipe, blow, C Rum'ey Pipe joint, J. Hyde Pipe trap. waste, T. Hudson	170,373
Pipe, water, W. H. Sampson	170,305 170,349
Planter, corn, J. B. Abbott	170,147
Planter, corn, G. W. Brown (r)6,755, 6,756, Plow, gang, F. A. Hill	6,757 170,262
Plows, furrow gage for, B. B. Hawes	170,256 170,179
Printing press, J. L. Firm (r)	6,760 170,400
Pump, etc., beer, D. S. Whitman Pump bucket, chain, Van Duzer et al. Pump, rotary force, A. Carlin	
Punch, conductor's alarm, Hill & Ruger	170,170
Purifier. middlings, J. F. Gandoifo	170,168
Register, T. B. Doolittle	170,351
Ruler, parallel, J. D. Hall	170.257
Saw, butcher's, W. Millspaugh	170,181

Scales, weighing, W. W. Reynolds...... 170,191

Scoop, sifting, W. S. Boon	
Screw cutting machine, G. Emig	
Screw tap, E. Reynolds	
Seaming machine, W C. Sharp	
Separating substances, A. B. Stanberrie Separator, grain. W. W. Johnston	170,812
Sewing machine, F. Chase	
Sewing machine, J. W. & R. H. Lufkin	
Sewing machine, overstitch, W. A. Polmateer	170,390
Sewing machine table, H. R. Tracy	170,416
Sewing machine tuck marker, A. Johnston Ship's births, swinging, E. P. S. Andrews Shirt front, W. J. & M. A. Duke	170,375
Ship's births, swinging, E. P. S. Andrews	170,324
Shirt front, W. J. & M. A. Duke	170,244
Shoe and stocking, rubber, J. M. Bibbins Shutter fastener, S. C. Tuckerman	170,332
Shutter worker, H. A. House	170,210
Sizing composition, S. B. Dorlan	
Skate, E. Murray (r)	6,763
Slate-cleaning block, A. H. Bryant	
Sofa and table, convertible, C. C. Harris	
Solvents, etc. recovery of vaporized, Whiting et al.	170,424
Spike machine, W. Haddock Spikes, machine for making split, A. Whittemore.	170.255
Spinning, adjusting spindles, F. A. Sterry (r)	6,705
Spirits P Griffin	170.254
Spirits. P. Griffin Stage plank and carrier, W. S. Booth	170,335
S eam whistle, King & McKiernan	170,274
S eam whistle, King & McKiernan Steel, manufacturing, F. Berchtold	170,150
Stove, cooking, R. Thomss Sylinge, W. Molesworth	170,206
Sylinge, W. Molesworth	170,182
Table, extension, G. Heyl	
Tailor's coat measure. J. S. Charch	170,157
Tailor's coat measure. J. S. Charch Telegraph. facsimile, J. C. Ludwig	170,385
Tenoning machine, E. H. Rees	170,396
Tide and current wheel, J. J. Hell	170,263
Tires, clip for broken, J. W. Hoddinott Toilet case and towel roller, D. Miller	170,371
Trap, fly, H. B. Earing	
Truss, H. A. Kimball	170,300
Tuck marker. R. G. Busn	170,154
Tweer, H. J. Chandler	
Tweer, P. H. Standish	
Type-setting machine, J. Hooker Type-writing machine, W. H. Case	170 283
Type-writing machine, L. S. Crandall	
Valve seats, refitting. C. F. Hall	
Ventilating churches, etc., W. Kingham	170,174
Vise, E. Caswell Wagon bådy, C. A. Dewolf	170,344
Wagon body, C. A. Dewolf	170,159
Wagon brake, A. L. Bartlett	170,220
Washing machine, F. Gittere Washing machine, J. D. Lawlor	170,302
Washing machine, J. I. Shotwell	
Watch case spring, A. S. Buckelew Water ejector, H. Coll (r)	6,759
Water meters, register dial for, J. C. Kelley	170,272
Water wheel, S. C. Lyons	
Well curb, C. M. Minor	170,290
Whistle, steam, King & McKiernan	170,290 170,274
Whistle, steam, King & McKiernan	170,290 170,274 170,326
Whistle, steam, King & McKiernan	170,290 170,274 170,326 170,203
Whistle, steam, King & McKiernan	170,290 170,274 170,326 170,203 170,417 170,401
Whistle, steam, King & McKiernan	170,290 170,274 170,326 170,203 170,417 170,401 170,267
Whistle, steam, King & McKiernan	170,290 170,274 170,326 170,203 170,417 170,401 170,267
Whistle, steam, King & McKiernan	170,290 170,274 170,326 170,203 170,417 170,401 170,267

8,800.-Boxes.-J. H. England, Baltimore, Md. 8,801.—Settes.—J. W. Fiske, New York city. 8,802.—Show Case.—W. H. Grove, Philadelphia, Pa. 8,803.—HAT HOLDER, ETC.—J. Hall, Newark, N. J. 8,804.—INESTANDS.—H. Lee, New York city. 8,805 to 8,807.-FLOOR OIL CLOTHS.-C. T. Meyer et al.

8,808.—Paper Weights.—C. Rowland. New York city. 8,809.—Coffin Hinges.—J. W. Vaughn, Peabody, Mass. 8,810.—Overshoes.—G. Watkinson, New Haven, Conn

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On each Caveat	3 10
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On assuing each or ginal Patent	826
On appeal to Examiners-in-Chief	810
On appeal to Commissioner of Patents	
On application for Reissue	
On filing a Disclaimer	
On an application for Design (3% years)	
On application for Design (7 years)	
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LLUSTRATIONS.	Florakinor lesser bustard, the. 231 Flower pots. 246 Freezing apparatus, Carré's. 82 Friction clutchpulley, Bean's. 214 Friction meter, Napier's. 227 Fuel economizer, Twibill's. 63	Riveting machine, hydraulic, Tweddell's	Atmospheric hammer	Calorimeter	Drawing, mechanical. Dress, a hint on healthy. Drifts* Drilling chilled iron(7) Drilling hard metals, etc*
A	G G	Sadiron, Hasenritter's 358	Aurora, an experimental. *197 Awl handles. *361 Awl, improved *70 Awnings *361 Axe tester *361 Axe tester, *361 Aze tagges, etc, *361 Azaleas, hardy *103	Cap, reversible	Drilling in the lathe
ulator 280 letry, Reveil and Salleron's thod 402 ervoir, Galibert's 66 ppe, Stevens' 280 r tripper 280	Gages, tide and river. 227 Galley support, printer's. 402 Garden, a Buddhist. 279 Gas from petroleum, making,Mc- Clarty's. 258	Scale, rafter, and bevel gage,	Azaleas, hardy*103	Carbonic acid motor, the	Dyed goods, improving
pe, Stevens' 280 t tripper 280 t tripper 180 ter, the scaly 135 pe, the brown Indian 343 um and wardian case,comed. 103 boats, tents, and imple-		Screw cutting die and holder, Wiley and Russell's	Babbitt metal (13) 26 Bacteria and vibrios . 185 Bag fasteners * 83 Baggage checks *361 Bale tie, Improved *115	Carlilon machine 210 Carnivorous plants 256 Car seat, auxiliary 338 Car starters, etc. 328 Cars, two-story railway 242 Car-washing machine 51 Catarrin, cure for (46) 204 Caterniliars to destroy (18) 42	Earth pits
100 100	Grapes, preserving	& Co's 403 Signals and switches, Rousseau's system 399, 402 Silk-spinning machinery, Danforth Locomotive Company's 406 Skimmia fragrans 311			
L an experimental 197 mith's 70 gs 361 ster 331 nachinery 31 s, hardy 103	Gun, the 81-tun, boring the trunnion coll	Sledge for the arctic expedition. 51 Slide valve calculator, Caldwell's 67 Sounding apparatus, deep sea.	Batrachia and reptilia in North America	Caterpillars, to exterminate. 121 Cattle, queer. 112 Cells, artificial. Traube's. 161 celluloid. 193 Celluloid. 193 Celluloid. 23 Cement, a new (64) Cement, a quarium (64) Cement, coating, for brickwork (14) 26	Electrical amaigam Electrical copyling machine. Electrical exhibition in Paris. Electrical fish bait, an. Electrical News, the Electrical phenomena, remarka-
B re checks361	Health lift, Knight's	Bunsen's	Battery cell, a new form of Le-	Cement for emery and leather 120 Cement for filling burrstones 323	Electrical speed recorder*
e, alloy	Horses, protecting, Lawton's	Steam cultivator, Fowler's	Battery for spark spectra, *329 Battery, poles in a	Cement for glass letters 4 Cement for lass letters 4 Cement for leaky roofs 183 Cement for leather (67) 3 Cement for leather (7) 409 Cement for leather and iron (2) 409 Cement for steam pipes 185	Electric force and magnetism,
ne, Marsden's. 367 etrograph 361 y cells, joining up. 115 y, charcoal, Blair's. 68 g feeler, Alley's. 76 ooler, Bohart's. 150 tel independence. 194 tightener and hanger,	Hospital for sick children, London	Steel ingots for ordnance, casting 290 Steel moids for casting 99 Steel process, the Bessemer Emptying a converter 290 Strong room, banker's, Hobbs &	Bedbugs, exterminating 11 11 11 12 12 12 12 1	Cement for teetn. 225	Electric force, the new phase of
hinge, Holbrook's	Ice cream carrier, Wyman's 306	Co's	Beer cooler	centennial buildings, from in the rentennial buildings, from in the rentennial clergyman, a	nation Electricity, discovery of another form of Electricity from the clothes(2) Electricity in hair
stop, Jones' 13: ipe, gas, Cougnet's 18: rag, Donkin's 8: , small steam, Blunt's 22: s, setting 33 s, setting, Keyes' method.	Mackay's 242 Mackay's 242 Iguana, an Australian 295 induction coil, Brush's 344 Innuction or electrostatic coil, the 115 Iris, the great sp. tted 227 Ironciad circular spin. Russian 87	Tea kettle, Gray's	Belting vs. frictional gearing 357 Belting vs. gearing 375 Belts, death 6 Belts, slip of 385 Belts, strain on 340	space at the	Electricity, origin of atmospheric Electricity, twisting iron by Electric light and heat, the * Electric light as a signal. Electric light for locomotives. Electric light for locomotives.
s, the heating surface of 15g pot, Hennaman & Shaw's 24g fotts 16g machine, vertical, Furness Co,'s 36ocket, tubular, Topliff's 37	Ironclads, English and American 359 Joint, frictionless, Tallbott's 69	grande's	Belt tightener and countershaft *150 hanger *150 Birds and the insect pests , 56 Birds, memory in 22 Birds' nests (dible , 201	Cereals and their chemical value. 336 Cesspool, a new	Electric light, the ** Electric machine, new Electric motor, a new Electric phenomena, remarkable 100,
ocket, tubular, Tophin's	K K Key holder, Coleman's	method	Bitters, about 257 Bicycle riding 35 Black for patterns (5) 409 Black stain for wood (32) 236 Blasting agents, modern 39	Chemist's narrow escape, an amateur	Electro-gliding and silvering (20) Electro-magnetic clock Electro-magnet, regulating speed of an
estern abutment	Knapsacks	Valve, stop, Whitton's	Bleach glue, to	Chinch bugs, to destroy	Element, a new Elephants, a plea for the wild Elephants, mortality among Elevator, a new grain Elevator, Körting's
n-sewing machine 32 es and other fastenings 8 s, projectiles, and cartridges 2 ar alarm, Poweil's 35	Lamp and oil can, Roberts' 128 Lathe, duplex wheel, New's 15 Lathe, hand and slide, Law and Duff's	Villa, design for a model 23 Vineyard, he Garston, England, 327 Vise, Penneld's 193 Vise, sudden grip, Hall's 118	Bleaching strup by charcoal(1) 26 Blind hinge	Chromatrope, a new 344 Chronometer, a solar 159, 228 Cider, clarifying (48) 204 Cider, purifying (58) 129 Cider, purifying (58) 129	Elevators, New York post office* Ellipsograph* Emery grinder, new Employer and employed, rights to nyentions.
er, Bunsen, solld flame 25 er, non-retreating Bunsen 38 C	Life-saving apparatus, Rogers' 194 Life-saving apparatus, Rogers' 194 Light, dioptric, Mergs' 355 Lighthouse, the Trinity shoals 391 Liquid mixer, Meyers' 207	Water closet, odorless, Smith's 326 Water closet, to put up a 57 Water pressure engine, Wyss &	Boler, admitting "Ir to steam. (8) 155 Boiler, admitting "Ir to steam. (8) 155 Boiler and feed water heater	Cincinnati exposition, the 278 City, a, 180,000 years old 64 C by pipes 266 Cleansing cloths and yarns 344 Cleansing goods by nanhths 344	Enamels, glass. Engineer, education of the mechanical
ium culture		water, sat, changing to fresh 214 Water, testing the color of, Bow- Twater wheel buckets. Wolcott's 260 Weatherstrip, Fleury's 227 Webl., Captain Matthew 227 Well, artesian, at Grenelle, France 54 Well, brown in memetis. 54	Boiler brickwork*339 Boiler explosion	Clouds, angular velocity of 330 Clouds, ascertaining the altitude of 164 Clouds as storm signals 35 Clouds thunger altitude of 65	Engineering, ancient. Engineering, progress of. Engineering structures. Engineer's education, an. (36) Engine for blooming mill use Engine, oil. Engine, oil. Engine, putting up an. (5) Engines and pumps. Engines, driving, at Americar Institute fair. Engines, portable. Engines, the Dittle Giant. Engines, the power of small. Engines, the power of small. Engines, the power of small.
onic acid, inquid, hask for 3. nnic acid, making liquid, 24 on machine, Gillett & Bland's 21 eat, Sheldon's	Macrozamia plumosa, the 71	Webb, Captain Matthew	Boiler explosions, experimental 113 Boiler explosions, mysterious. 86 Boiler furnaces, hot draft for. 10 Boiler incrustations 105 Boiler inspection, a years' experience in. 97 Boiler phenomena, steam 193, 244 26 Boiler, rag, rotary. 86	Clouds thunger altitude of 66 Clover, fecundation of (62) 13 Coal, consumption of, per horse power 10 Coal field, the Alleghany 155 Coal tar colors, practical deter-	Engines and pumps
washing machine, Lord althness'. ennual agricultural building. 19 ennual horticultural building. 19	Manatee or cow fish, the 263 Medicine, book on, Hermes Trismegistus' 376	Y Yucca stricta, the 327	Boilers 254 Boilers, aero steam 249 Boilers, chloride of barium in 66 Boilers for burning sawdust. *339 Boilers, proportion of. 224	mination	Engines, the power of small
er gages	Neser, pulsating, Atwill's		Boilers, talc in. 376 Boilers, the heating surface of . 152 Boiling pot, improved . 246 Bone black . (2) 33	Cochiostema Jacobjanum 10 Cochatoo, great black 29 Coffee plague in Ceylon 11 Coffins, wicker 45 Coke, anthracite 39	Ethers, silicious and aluminous (36) Ether, the, and ponderable matter Etching copper and steel
tatoo. the great black 22 ns, wicker	Miking tubes, Smith's	MISCELLANY. Figures preceded by a star (*) refer to illustrated articles.	Bones, buffalo	Colleges and the hard times 27 Colleges Smith 10 Collodion 19 Collodion 8 Collodion 90 parizer, a 32 Collogs new yehiole for 32	ter Etching copper and steel
n	Molding machine, Grosvenor's 166 Mortising and boring machine, Fay's 291	A	Boring bits. *65 Boring machinery, wood. *887 Boring tools	Color vision, on 18 Column, metallic 24 Combustion, spontaneous (4) Compass, a new circular 24 Compass, a new circular 14	ing
age, an ornamental. 1 tter and tell-tale, engine. 2 tail holder, Pedden's. 3 e, an eighty-tun e, steam, Taylor's. 2 nary apparatus, Randall's. 3	98 Motor, high pressure	Accumulator	Brake wagon	Concrete floors. (12) 2 Concrete flor walks, etc. 18 Cone plate for boring. 27 Conservatism vs progress. 24 Cookerv. cheap. 4	Expansion and contraction of moisture. Expansion, force of Explosion at the Fullman Ca Works. Explosion, remarkable. Explosion, singular. Explosion in gunpowder mills by electricity. Explosives. Trails of Explosives. Trails of Explosives.
essus nutkaensis	Nail extractor, Converse's 15 Napper and brusher, Tompkins' Nares, Captain G. S	Ethrioscops the 248 African explorations, new 248 A fastes, cutting (8) 42 Air, compressed, antiseptic properties of 105	Brass to resemble gold	Cooking chamber. * 16 Cooperation in building	electricity Explosions, powder mill Explosives, nuro-glycerin Explosives, trials of Exposition, the great interna
aboard, Schwaner'slorizing excavator, Johnson 2. Nettleton's	New York post office, the 13 New York United States Court, the 173	Æsthetics, the new department of 177 Æthrioscope. the. 248 African explorations, new 281 Afgates, cutting. (8) Air, compressed. antiseptic properties of 106 Air cushion for pipes. 224 Air for smelting iron (48) Air in houses, etc. 325 Air newrour, improved. 64 Air, temperature of, and compressed in of (44) 125	Bricks, damp-proof	Copper, test for	tional
E h pits	Onager, the	Alizarin, artificial, manufacture of	Brooklyn 86 Bridge building, a new system of 116 Bridge in Philadelphia, burnt 372 Bridge over the Waitaki, New Zealand *211	Corn-husking mplement. 7 Cottage architecture 10 Cotton mathematics 101 Counter and tell tale, engine 25 Cow tail holder 25	Fair, the oldest in the world Fastenings
rie light, the trie phenomenon, remarka- le	Petroleum, furnace for burning 18 Photographs, printing by ma- chinery	Alizarin, artificial, manufacture of	Bridges, mdern suspension. *255 Bridges, railway, iron in 69 Bridge, the East River. 309 Bridge, the St. Louis. *114 British Association notes. 216	Crane, a powerful	7 Fermentation from inorganic sul 0 stances
Tork post office ator, water. Hale's sograph, Toulmin's	78 Plants, carnivorous 25 256 Plants, the animalism of	American grape vines in France. 261 American Institute fair, opening of the	Bromide of Camphor	Crocodile, the hen	5 Field instrument, universal 7 File a new patent 4 Filter, chemical 4 Filters, etc 8 Filth as a source of preventible
neering structures	Plants, the animalism of	American inventions in Europe, 260 American inventions in Europe, 261 American inventions rediscovered in Europe	Bronzing cast from (11) 11 Broom heads. *88 Broom-sew ing machine. *88 Buckles *88 Buckles *88	Cupressus nukaensis. 24 Curtain fixture. 3 Cutters 16 Cycads, the 17 Cyclone, a disastrous 24	disease. 6 Finches, the
F d water heater and purifier, Berryman's	Propeller, new, Becker's 32 Propeller, screw, Griffith's Propeller, screw, Stevens & Miller's 127 Psycho mystery, the 25	2 Amusements, outdoor. 2666 Analysis, a human 133 Anchortripper 2984 Anemometer. 244 1 Angle joints. 398	(33) 347 Buffalo skins, to prepare. (24) 59 Buildings and railway cars, ext from	Dandruft	Filers, pineapple and banana Filers, pineapple and banana Filers, pineapple and banana File a new patent Fire bars, revolving Fire bars, locomotive Fire engines, floating Fire scapes wanted Fire fly, the chemical Fireproof nouses, plastering in Fireproofing fabrics.
d water heater, locomotive, Magoon's	18 Fodometer, or Walking distance 161	4 Aniline black by electricity 30 0 Aniline violet, new 18 1 Ant-eaters, the 13 5 Antelopes, the \$4 4 Antiseptic, another new 19	ridges	Dashboard, inproved	22 Fireproof pasteboard(26 55 Fireproof products, etc
er, charcoal. er, domestic er, laboratory. er, reversible ch family, members of the.	1014 Pump and shearing machine, 1014 Long & Co.'s	Ants, to destroy	Burner, Bunsen solid flame	Diamonds, veneered	ters. Fistula. treatment of, by ligatur Flamingo plant, the Flanging machine Flea, education of the.
bars, revolving, Schmitz' & boxs, locomotive, Dawson & Hughes	5 Raft, life, Parratt's	case	Buttons, white shirt	Discoveries, the treatment of	Files, what they do
nging machine, Hanson's ating apparatus, Lloyd's odway for warehouses, Mor- rell's	15 Railway tie, Reese's	Arctic explorations, recent. 29 Arctic explorers, work for 3 Arm, artificial 28 Arsenic in the air of rooms. 38 Astronomical notes 10 296 36	2	Diving bell and grapnel 2 Donkey street cars 3 Draft of a wagon, high or low (27, 98*) b.	riouring mill, the largest

412		Scientific	American.	(Dr	ECEMBER 25, 1875.
Force, reducing	Ink, red-black (22) 894 Inks, colored (9) 815 Inks, gold and silver 103, 3) 894 Inks, marking, colored (42) 108	Mississippi, the jettles at the mouth of the	Petroleum, distilling	Salicylic acid for preservation 197 Salicylic acid, increasing solubility of	Telegraphing, cable
Franklin, Lady. 38 Freezing mixtures. (3) 26, 330 Freezing powders. 56 Freezing water in bottles 82 Friction, a curious fact 5	Ink, to prevent files eating (39) 188 Ink, white (33) 268 In memoriam (33) 268 In sect commission, a proposed 153 Insects, excommunicate d 166	Monads 185 Money, hard, what is 388 Monument at sea, a 5 Moon's revolution, the (50) 204 Mortar, hair in 211	Petroleum, distilling. (18) 188 Petroleum paraffin 103 Phœnix, a mechanical 371 Phonometer, the 116 Phosphorus oli, (16) 219 Phosphorus oli, (16) 219 Phosphorus poisoning, antidote for 113 Photo engraving 178 Photographic diagnosis, a 225 Photographic printing, bichromate. (11) 235	Salleylic and benzoic acids	the streets
Friction clutch pulley. * 275 Frictionless joint, a. * 69 Friction meter. * 227 Frost, subterranean. 287 Fruit, preserving. 169	Insects, the strength of 64 Inventions do, what 64 Inventions, miscellaneous useful 8 128, 8361 Inventions patented in England	Mortiar, to make (20) 42 Mortising and boring machine 291 Mosquito bar, a 129 Mosquitoes, bats as a remedy for 226 Mothers of scientific men 104	Photographic diagnosis, a 225 Photographic printing, bichromate	Sambur, the	Telegraph whes in tubes 273 Telegraphy — 199 Telegraphy, progress of American 273 Telegraphy, progress of -One
Fuel, economy in use or	76, 89, 107, 203, 200, 265, 296, 814, 330, 345 Inventions, useful and curious. 280 Inventions wanted	Moths from one fives, to keep(s) 112 Moths, the currant and raspberry 115 Moth, the cobweb apple *135 Motion, cosmical, a mechanical theory of	atin	Salicylic acid, increasing solubility of acid, increasing solubility of a salicylic and benzolc acids 151 Salicylic and bis 239 Salic for domestic animals 239 Salic for domestic animals 249 Salicylic acids 249 Sambur, the 343 Sand blast, new use of the 343 Sambur, the 345 Sawing and growing machine 353 Sawing and growing machine 353 Sawing and growing machine, creadle 358 Sawing hard and soft woods 368 Saw-making, remarkable feat in 359 Saw sharpeer 255 Saws, straightening 55 Saws, straightening 55 Science, American Association for the Advancement of .138, 152	Telegraphy, progress of American 273 Telegraphy, progress of American 273 Telegraphy, progress of —One wire for many instruments. 151 Telegraphy, quadruplex, in India 289 Telescope at Paris, the large. 229 Telescope lenses
Furniture, combination	Inventors, the monopolies of 367 Iris, the great spotted 247 Iron, bending heavy 1 Iron ceiling, enameled 134 fronclads, collision of 213	Mosquito bar, a 129	Photo sensitive paper, preserving 19 210 Phylloxera remedy new 48 Physiological problem, a 35 Pickerei, the voracity of 49 Picric acid in beer, detecting 161 Picric acid, profitable source of 167 Piceon post, a transatlantic 295 Pin, a new 387	Science, American Association for the Advancement of, 136, 152 Science on the Pacific stope, prospects of Facilities of Science of Pacific stope, prospects of Science pugnacious, 200 SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, back num-	Telescope, the million doilar. 257 Tellurium in Chili. 337 Temperature of a sick room 232 Temperature, underground. 232 Temperature, underground. 232 Tempering tooth chisels. (69) 379 Temples, God's first. 395 Terra cotta. (64) 43 Testing eggs 249 Testing eggs 249 Testing foundaries. 199 Textile industries. 199 Textile industries. 199 Textile industry, a new 147 Thermometer, mercury in a. (1) 409 Thermoscope new clinical. 66 Temprylene, synthesis of 3. Tides in the Gulf of Mexico. 116 Tiles, pictorial. 163 Time check, watchman's. 306 Timely suggestions. 401 Times, dull, in Great Britain. 71 Tin and lead foil. 82 Tin for tinning. 385 Tin, labels on. 53 Tin small castings, to. 279 Tire-upsetting machine. 246 Toads, do not kill the. 129 Tobacco, removing aroma from (12) 378 Tools, driving portable. 146 Tools, heavy vs. light. 161 Too much of a good thing. 295 Torpedo trials at Newport, R. I. 195 Torpedo system, is it useless? 272 Torpedo trials at Newport, R. I. 195 Trademarks, rise and progress of 273 Trademarks rise pinted
Gages, glass, on boilers	Ironclads, railway	Mouth, the human, plants and animals in the 184 Muclage, a new 374 Museum of natural history, Mrs. Maxwell's 264	Picric acid in beer, det-cting. 161 Picric acid, profitable source of 167 Pigeon post, a transatlantic. 295 Pin, a new 337 Pipes, bending, new method of 150	SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, back numbers of	Terra cotta. (64) 48 Testing eggs 249 Testing egm arabic. (1) 251 Textile industries 199 Textile industry, a new. 147
181 On	Iron horse, the	Nail extractor	Planer war, the Woodbury 320 Planetary atmospheres, the 17 Planets, new 72, 389 Planing machine, model 325 Planing machine pressure blocks 102	MENT, the	Thermometer, mercury in a. (1) 409 Thermoscope, new clinical, * 66 Therpylene, synthesis of
01 403 Gas explosion. 327 Gas for heating purposes. 389 Gas from cork. 305 Gas from dead animals, etc. 337 Gas from night soil, etc. 209 Gas from petroleum 258 Gas furnaces, natural 305 Gas fine natural 305	Irresolution	Nail extractor. 150 Napper and brusher, combined. 160 Nares, Captain G. S. 130 Nature, the uses of. 112 Nebulæ: a new theory of the. 372 New books and publications. 73, 153, 202, 249, 266, 314, 380, 385, 385 Newspaper circulation and styles.	Plants, artincial coloring of . *311 Plants, carnivorous	SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, value of the	Time check, waterman's 306
Gas from petroleum 258 Gas furnaces, natural 305 Gas fuel, natural 390 Gas, Lowe's new process for 276 Gas regulator, new 259	(31) 346	Newspaper circulation and advertising	Plant vases for decoration. *407 Plaster casts. preserving. 22 Plastering, new system of. 233 Plaster rubbish, u-ilization of. 373 Plaster, to make (21)	Scissors and ripping knife, combined	Tin small castings, to 279 Tire-upsetting machine 2446 Toads, do not kill the 129 Tobacco,removing aroma from (12) 378 Tools driving nortable 1446
Gelatin molds(16) 138	ĸ	Newton's experiments, Sir Isaac. 408 New York dock department, the. 65 New York geology. 158 Nickelization. 342 Nickel-plating from. (144 235 Nickel-plating, solution for(2) 155 Nitrification of arable earth. 113 Nitro-glycerin and water, difference between. 115 Nitro-glycerin preparations. 212 Noon, determining. (28) 59 North pole, how to reach the. 389 Norway, frem. 358 Notes and queries:	Plated goods, tarnished	Sebastopol, the allied attack on. 373 Sea, the level of the	Tools, heavy vs. light 163 Too much of a good thing 295 Torpedo system, is it useless? 272 Torpedo trials at Newport, R. 1. 195 Tortolses, land. 263
western explorations 256 Germination of seeds, action of sults on 279 Germination of seeds, the 358 Gilding, process of 166 Glacial motion, rate and cause of 49	Kalsomine a wall, to 40 Kansas City industrial fair 145 Keely, another rival for 358 Keely gas. the 165, 244 Keely motor decention the 218	ence between 81 Nitro-glycerin preparations 212 Noon, determining (28) 59 North pole, how to reach the 389 Norway, frem 388	Podometer, the, or walking distance indicator	Sewing machine monopolists, the 388 Sewing machines in Scotland 329 Sewing machines, sale of 24 Shaft, a 15 fuch, mending at sea 240	Trade in England
Glass bottles, to cut	Keely motor, gems from the 57 Keely motor, the *20, 36, 265	Notes and queries: 11, 26, 42, 59, 75, 91, 107, 123, 138, 155, 171, 187, 203, 219, 235, 251, 267, 283, 298, 315, 331, 346, 363, 378, 594, 409	Picric acid in beer, det-cting. 161 Picric acid, profitable source of . 167 Picreon post, a transatlantic. 205 Pin. a new. 337 Pipse, bending, new method of . *150 Planer war, the Woodbury 320 Planetary atmospheres, the . 17 Planets, new. 72, 389 Planing machine, model 325 Planing machine, model 81 Plants, artificial coloring of . *311 Plants, artificial coloring of . *311 Plants, insect-eating 192 Plants, insect-eating 192 Plants, insect-eating 192 Plants, insect fertilization of . 153 Plants, pot, management of . 71 Plants aces for decoration. 407 Plant vases for decoration. 407 Plaster casts. preserving. 22 Plastering, new system of . 323 Plastering, new system of . 333 Plaster to make . (21) 26 Plated goods, tarnished . 3) 251 Plate shearing machinery . *390 Pneumatic tubes so miles an hour in . 167 Pneumatic tubes in London . 163 Podometer, the, or walking distance indicator . *38 Polar expedition, the English . 178 Polar expedition, the experimental stance indicator . 21 Polson stories, curious . 52 Polishing moldings	Shafting accidents, preventive for 69 Shaping machine, double 4408 Shall, the water 201 Shingles, durable 342	Trade marks, retrievance of 273 Tradesmen's industrial Institute, the
Glass manufacture, recent improvements in 17 Glass, metal 166 Glass, soluble, for outdoor work 148 Glass, the Bastie 20 Glass, the Bastie 25 Glazings, colored 325 Glue, fireproof 69 Glue, liquid 24 Glue, to prevent from cracking 389 Glycerin, distilling 53 Gold and silver, melting 53 Gold, chloride of (1) Gold from ore, obtaining (22) Gold from ore, obtaining (22) Gold, new reagent for 323 Gold, obtaining from solutions Gold, obtaining from solutions	Keys, reverse *309 Kindling wood 241 Kite, a war 326 Kite, the crested black *231 Knapsacks *280	Oak stain for wood	Fortwine adulteration of	Ship, Circular, Russian	Trees, great, in Cantonia. 390 Trees in California. 390 Trichinosis, alarming spread of, 249 Tubes and water pipes, enameled 239 Tube Works Company's trophy, the
Glue, fireproof	Labor, skilled	OBITUARY: Blauer, Wilhelm	Postal and telegraph service 391 Pos al laws, the—Amendments needed	Sidewalks, India rubber. 22 Siege of Paris, the 374 Sight from science. 249 Sight, the education of. 160 Signal in the would the highest 29	Tunnel at Rio de Jateiro 388 Tunnel in Algiers, Roman 165 Tunnel,railway, under the English Channel 200 Tunnel, railway, under the Lon-
Gold, chloride of	Ladder, fire, breaking of a. 211 Lann and oil can. *198 Lamp shades, poisonous. 389 Lard for market, to prepare. 261 Lard, purifying. (37) 220	Logan, Sir William E. 89 Pot d, L. W. 273 Schneider, Eugene 389 Singer, Isaac M. 101 Tiliman, Samuel D. 223	city*175 Potato beeile, the Colorado	Signals and switches, Rousseau's system*\$99, 402 Silk harvest of the world	don Docks
Gold-plating solution. (28) 252 Gold, testing. (12) 283 Gophers, killing. 8 Gorilla a centing	Lathe, duplex wheel	Tra y, Eoward H. 180 Websier, Thomas. 19 Wheatstone, Sir Charles, 289, 311 Wilson, Henry 370 Winlock, Joseph. 149 Ocean level, constancy of the. 113 Oldium albicans or white plant. 184	Pottery, glaze for (boro-silicate of soda) (30) 92 Power, 4,000,000 horse, from a	Silver bath from ditch water	U
Graham flour, counterfeit 329 Grand Central Depot—The signal	Lepton it is	Oli car. new 281 i	coffee mili 105 Power of waterfalls 308 Practical mecnanism: 21*, 53*, 81*, 117*, 148*, 180*, 212*, 215*, 277*, 309*, 341*, 373*, 405* Preserves in jars 18	Silver, nitrate of(1) 187 Sink in the ocean, how far will	V
system. *399, *402 Grapes, preserving. *306 Grape vines in France, American 147 Grasshopper parasite, a. 15 Grasshopper plague, the. 132 Grasshoppers, destroving. 20	Lever power. **374 Life after death, Dhysical 80 Life preserver, a handy 52 Life-preserving mattress, new 295 Life-preserving mattress, new **134 Life-saving apparatus **194, 260 Life-saving devices 293, **372	Oil cloths to renovate	Press, drawing. *810 Printing press for woodcut printing. *259 Prism, liquid, substitute for 325 Prizes for designs for a villa. 388	bodies. 208 Skilled labor. 403 Skimmlas, the. 451 Skin, the season and the. 375 Slates, securing 227 Sledge, new arctic 51 Slide valve calculator 67 Slotting machine tools 277 Smoke condenser, new 294 Smokers, a mouthful for 3 Smokers, hyglene for 390 Snake within a snake, a 277 Snuff for insects 103	Vacuum, obtaining. (5) 267 Valve, safety, mercurial 198 Valve, stop 1147 Valve, test, square inch 214 Valve test, safety 191 Vanadi im in rocks 47 Vanguard, sinking of the 225 Vanilla from wo od pulp 145 Varnish for guns etc (23) 42 Varnish from mica 56 Varnish from 20
Grape vines in France, American 147 Grasshopper parasite, a. 15 Grasshopper plague, the 132 Grasshoppers, destroying, 20 Grasshoppers, grass planted by 81 Grasshoppers, to the West. 52 Gras-hoppers, to utilize. 19 Grasshoppers, to utilize. 68 Grease from paper to remove(14) 35 Green, a new emerald 15 Grinder, universal 179 Great Eastern, barnacles on the 197 Great Bastern, barnacles on the 232 Grasshoppers were for 232	Life, the origin of 400 Lifting match, a. 889 Light, a brilliant. 136 Light, dioptric. *355 Lighthouses, floating. 337	Oilstones, truing	Prizes for metallurgical improvements 207 Proctor, Professor 178 Propeller, a new 322 Propeller, Griffith's 242 Propeller, recent improvements	Smoke condenser new 294 Smokers, a mouthful for 3 Smokers, hygiene for 390 Snake within a snake, a 277 Snuff for insects 103	Vanadi um in rocks 41 Vanguard, sinking of the 225 Vanilla from wood pulp 145 Varnish for guns. etc. (23) Varnish from mica 56 Varnish from mica 30
Green, a new emerald 115 Grinder, universal 179 Great Eastern, barnacles on the 197 Gruel, preparation of 232 Garbage, new use for 353 Gulf stream as a heat carrier, the 336	Lightning rod ignorance, heavy loss from 400	Orange crop, Californian	Propeller, the Hercules screw*134 Propeller, the screw, defects in (41) 172	Sum for insects. 203 Soda lakes in Wyoming. 203 Soda manufacture. 102 Solar engine, a. 203 Solarradiation,newphenomena of 69 Solder for silver (4) 38 Soldering, improvement in. 71	Varnish, insulating
Gun, new Russian 177 Gunpowder, power of 319	Lights, intensity of different colored	Oxuvitic acid	Protosulphide of carbon 113	Sounding apparatus	Ventilating by machinery 353 Ventilation common sense 265 Ventilation of a sick room 252 Ventilation, window 22 Vensels, vertical motion of 276 Villa, a model 215 Ventilation 276 Villa, a model 215 Ventilation 276 Ventilation 27
Guns and armor, cost of 23 Guns, recoil check for 406 Guns, recoil of 383 Gun, the elchty-one tun, eclipsed 337 Gun, the eighty tun. 239 Gun, the Krupp. 380 Gun, toy 102 Gun, 1,200 pounder. 391 Gutta percha and india rubber 9 Gutta percha, the supply of 229 Gymnasium, a pocket 341	Lime for oxyhydrogen light. (27) 315 Lime in the blast furnace. 261 Lining out work. 373 Liquid mixer, improved. 207 Liquor, cure for love of. 329	Paint, cracking of 308 Paint from coal ashes 79 Painting a wall (14) 363 Painting, practical 307 Painting woodwork (12) 25	Pump, donkey. *391 Pump, stram jet bilge *115 Pump, three-cylinder *4 Punch and shearing machine *143 Punctuality in all things 388	position, the 325 Space, what fills the interstellar 304 Sparks, weak 385 Specific gravity and dimensions of molecules 340 Spectral lines and atomic weights 340	Vessels, vertical motion of 276 Villa, a model 2115 Vinegar, etecting sulphuric acid in 22 Vinegar, testing 22 Vinegard, the varston, England 22 Vineyard, the varston, England 22 Violins, making 20 59 Vise, improved 198 Vise, sudden grip 118 Vivisection, the value of 218 Volcanic action, the source of 353 Volcanic revelations, some new 160
Gun, 1,200 pounder*391 Gutta percha and india rubber9 Gutta percha, the supply of229 Gymnasium, a pocket341	Lithorracteur 212 Locomotive, a model. 230 Locomotive engineers, brother- hood of	Painting wrought fron	Putty, the best 308 Pyrometer, new *50	spectific gravity and dimensions of molecules. 340 Spectral lines and atomic weights 340 Spectral, cold bands in the. 370 Speculum metal. (11) 288 Spider's web, the	Vise, improved
Hair header	Locomotive, the	Paramecia	Quartz crystals(8) 171 R	Spiritual Scientist, the 151 Sponge, compressed, for abscess 55 Sportsmen and hunters. 218 Spring, gang plow. 22 Square, laying out a 225, *372	W Wagner Free Institute, the 343
Hampton Court Palace and gar- dens	Locusts as food. 153 Lubricating device for sewing machines, etc. *322 Lucern. (17) 331	Bale tie	Rabbits, exterminating. (21) 28 Races, boar, horse, and human 105 Races, collegiate. 65 Raft, a living. 65 Rafter scale and boyel gage. 134 Raftroading in Switzeriand. 88 Rails, iron and steel. 3(2)	Stains, removing with magnesia of Stairs, aid in going up. 2:3 Stamp, rotary hand. * 19 Starch, polishing 185 Stealing brains 161 Stown as a five extinguisher 255	Wagner Free Institute, the
Health lift 215 Heat, effect of, on steel 281 Heater for dwellings, steam 294 Heater, ventilating 265 Heat specific 325	Magie. parlor	Box-nalling machine 78 Canned corn. 234 Collar, paper 9 Design patents 201 E. evator 169	Rails, fron and steel	Steam at 500 lbs pressure	Water and its injabitants 39 Warer and intro-glycerin, difference between 81 Water closet, odorless \$326 Water closet, to put up 8 57
Hell Gate excavations, completion of the	Magnetic railway locomotives. 114 Magnetism *184 Magnetism, effect of stress on 280 Magnetism of iron filings 185 Magnetism on watches, effect of 229	Fluting machine	Railway liability for freight. 18 Railway, new elevated 294 Railway rail, improved 19 Railway rail, street *55 Railways, comparative safety of 199	Steam horse, another	Water, dietetic effects of. 211 Water elevator, duplex \$25 Water for 11sh ponds, pipe for 4 Water, fresh, rudimentary exist ence in * 4 Water gas delusion again, the \$52 Water gas delusion again, the \$52
Hens, corn-fed. Honeycomb foundations, artifical clal. Hops, preservation of	Magnetization of gas spectra. 135 Magnetization of ilmenite, the 293 Magnetization, velocity of 47	Planer 296 Press 217 Pump 201 Runber pencil heads 136 Shade fixture 136	Railway station, Great Eastern, London 40 Railway tie *230	tion 144 Steel, compressed 175 Steel ingots, new method of casting 176 ing 176 Steel ingots, new method of casting 176 Steel ingots, new method of casting 176 Steel ingots, new method of casting 176 Steel from 176 St	Water gas delusion again, the 352 Water pressure engine
Horses, device for protecting 66	Magneto-electric light, the '85 Magneto-electric machine, a (19) 299 Magnet, the Jamin. *72 Man as an automaton. 321 Manatee or cow fish. the	Shade fixture	tain 217 Rains, the cause of profuse 144 Rapid city transit, progress of 160 Rapid transit in New York 64 Haspberry v negar 55	Steel manufactures, the Sheffield *291 Steel, polishing. (29) 284 Steel, vessels of	Waterproofing paper
Hospital construction, recent 274 Hotel, the Palace 244 Hothouses, recently constructed 4 Hot Springs, Ark 368 House how to locate a 468			Rat plague, a. 72 Rats, concrete to exclude 72 Rats, remedy for 210 Reading rooms, working men's 35 Reamers 180 Icaping and mowing machinery 119	the 18 Stove blacking 165 Strike, the Fall River 246 Strong room for valuables *316 Strychnin, death by 144	Water, testing the conor? Water through pipes, under pressure (21) 315 Water through pipes, under pressure (21) 315 Water wheel bearings (30) 315 Water wheel buckets (20) 315 Water wheel buckets (20) Water, when unit to drink (33) Water, when unit to drink (33) Water works, constant pressure (34) Wave motion, measuring (29) 176 Wave motion, propelling ships by 216 Waxing stove patterns (19) 409 Weather, plays, the (32) Weather plays, the (32) Weather, the recent wet (32) Weather, the recent wet (32) Welding fron, Belgian compound
Houses, occupation of new. 296 Hughes, El Baron de 151 Human remains in Texas 229 Hydraulic ram, the 402 Hydrofluoric acid 221 203	Mats, Makaroff's. 341 May bugs, new use for 21 Meat, preservation of 281 Meat, tainted. 2 Mechanical age, the. 376	10, 25, 40, 57, 74, 90, 101, 121, 137, 154, 169, 186, 202, 217, 234, 250, 266, 282, 297, 314, 330, 345, 362, 377, 393, 408 Patents, foreign—Reduction of	Reciping and mowing machinery *119 Recipes, userui: 24, 56, 69, 85, 120, 148, 169, 185, 257, 357 Red. poppy, die for flowers	Strychnin, poisoning by	Wave motion propelling ships by 216 Waxing stove patterns (19) 409 Wealth, uncertainty of Weather glass, the 230 Weatherstrip, Eureka 230
Hydrology of South Africa, the. 3 Hydrometers	Mechanical movement, a new 85 Mechanics, a word to young 8 Medical notes 5 Medical strike, a 5 Medical work, the oldest 776	costs Patents, foreign—Splendid opportunities for Americans Patents, Freoch Patents have done for us, what.	Red, staining wood 169 Refrigerating machine, the Tel- ller 294 Refrigerator and counter 278 Refrigerator steamer, proposed 322 Refrigerator the Fisher 186	Sulphuretted hydrogen(5) 45	Wells, artesian * 54
Horel, the Palace Hothouses, recently constructed * 447 Hot Springs Ank Houses, how to locate a * 488 Houses, how to locate a * 488 Houses, occupation of new. * 246 Hughes, El Baron de * 55 Human remains in Texas * 259 Hydraulic ram, the * 260 Hydrofluoric acid. * 212 Hydrofluoric acid. * 212 Hydroflogy of South Africa, the * 35 Hydrometers. * 616 Hydrophobia, treatment of * 617 Hydrophobia treatment of * 85 Hydroe, hints in * 85 Hygrometer, new * 116 Hygrometer, new * 116 Hypodermic injection of nutrinent. * 343	Melanosis	Patents, official list of: 12, 28, 44, 60, 76, 92, 108, 124, 140, 156, 172, 188, 204, 220, 236, 252, 268, 284, 300, 316, 332, 348, 363, 379, 395, 409 Patents, official list of Canadian:	Relics, ancient human 158 Residences, model *23 Rest, laborious 262 Rhinoceros, skinning a 356 Rice, to boil 121	Sugar machinery 25 Suicidal epidemic, a 25 Suicidal epidemic, a 25 Suiphuretted hydrogen 54 Sulphuric acid, action of, on lead, etc 18 Sulphuric acid, production of 53 Sun and the latitude 11 Sun, constitution of the 21 Sun spots and atmospheric forces 21 Sunstroke death by 13	Wheelwright's machine universal*406 Whistling, national differences as to
Iceboats sailing faster than the wind(20) 235, (21)* 331 Ice-making machine * 212 Ice, remarkable shower of 211, Ice water, to preserve 194	Metal industries, Russian	Patents, official list of Canadian: 12, 28, 44, 60, 76, 92, 108, 121, 140, 155, 172, 188, 204, 221, 237, 252, 268, 285, 301, 316, 332, 343, 380, 296 Patents, our debt to	Rice, to boil 221 Riding, fast. 321 Riding, fast. 321 Ride contest, the Irish-American *40 Riveting by hydraulic power. *47 Riveting coid metal 357 Rokitanski's farewell address 247 Ropes tree cataleptic. *147 Rope socket *18 Rope, strength of 294 Rope, wetring a (5) 251 (42) 294 Rope, wetring a (5) 251 (42) 294 Robes, growing 49 Rotary engines and pumps *371 Rubber boots, cracking (46) 379 Rust from steel, to remove. 56 Rust on Iron and steel, preventing 169	Sunstroke, death by (14) 188 Surfaces, flat 25' Suspended animation as a preserv- ing agent 22: Swans *18	Whistling, national differences as to 10 White finish on glass 8 394 Wind instruments 226 Wire fence, making 241 Wire fence, making 241 Wireindeep sea soundings, use of 81 Wood-carving machine 95 Wood preserving 265 Wood preserving 265 Wood sorrel in epithelioma 56 Wood sorrel in epithelioma 537 Woodwork the protection of, etc. 357 Worms, currant and gooseberry 148 Wrinkles and recipes 305 Yacht, steam, the Hermione 168 Yeast, compressed (47) 204 Yeast, Vienua 185 Yucca stricta, the 327 Zinc, cleaning (12) 11 Zinc pipes for water, etc. (48) 139 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 2
To e sheet, the great	Meters, liquid	ous industries	Rooster. the cataleptic	swedenborg as a chemist	Wood sorrel in epithelioma 56 Wood stain, walnut 537 Woodwork the protection of, etc 357 Wool, milneral 58, 334 Worms, currant and gooseberry 148
Improvements, needed	Microscopic bi-centennial, a 321 Milking tubes, improved 70 Milk, preserving in England 389 Milk, solidified 289 Milk, use of 332	Patent system, a defence of our. 9 Patent, the Woodbury. 176 Patterns for scroil saw works. 178 Peach borer, the (25) 303 Peach crop, an enormous 97 Peach edding 178	Rousiy engines and pumps	Swindles, the natural history of 1's wordfish exploits 4	WINKIES and recipes
Induction cort, a new 344 Induction or electrostatic coil. * 115 Ink, black (40) 92 luk, bluish green (24) 268 Ink, faded, to restore (8) 75 Ink, indelible (8)	Mill, the Grange farm	Pens, dotting. 342 Pens, dotting. 342 People, a queer. 44 Pepper, bird (48) 220 Perchloride of iron (8) 235 Perfume new 990a	Sadiron, improved	Tænia and raw meat	Yeast, Vienna. 185 Yucca stricta, the. 227
luk, marking, aniline black. 69 luk, purple black. (21) 42	Mississippi river, improving the m) th of the 197	Perspiration	(20) 285, (21)*331 Salicylic acid	Telegraph cable, the direct 16 Telegraph charges, to reduce	Zinc, cleaning

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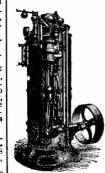


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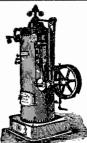
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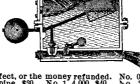
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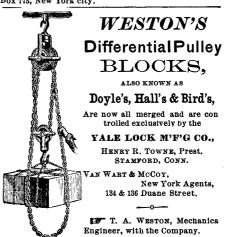
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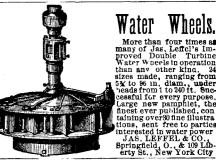
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