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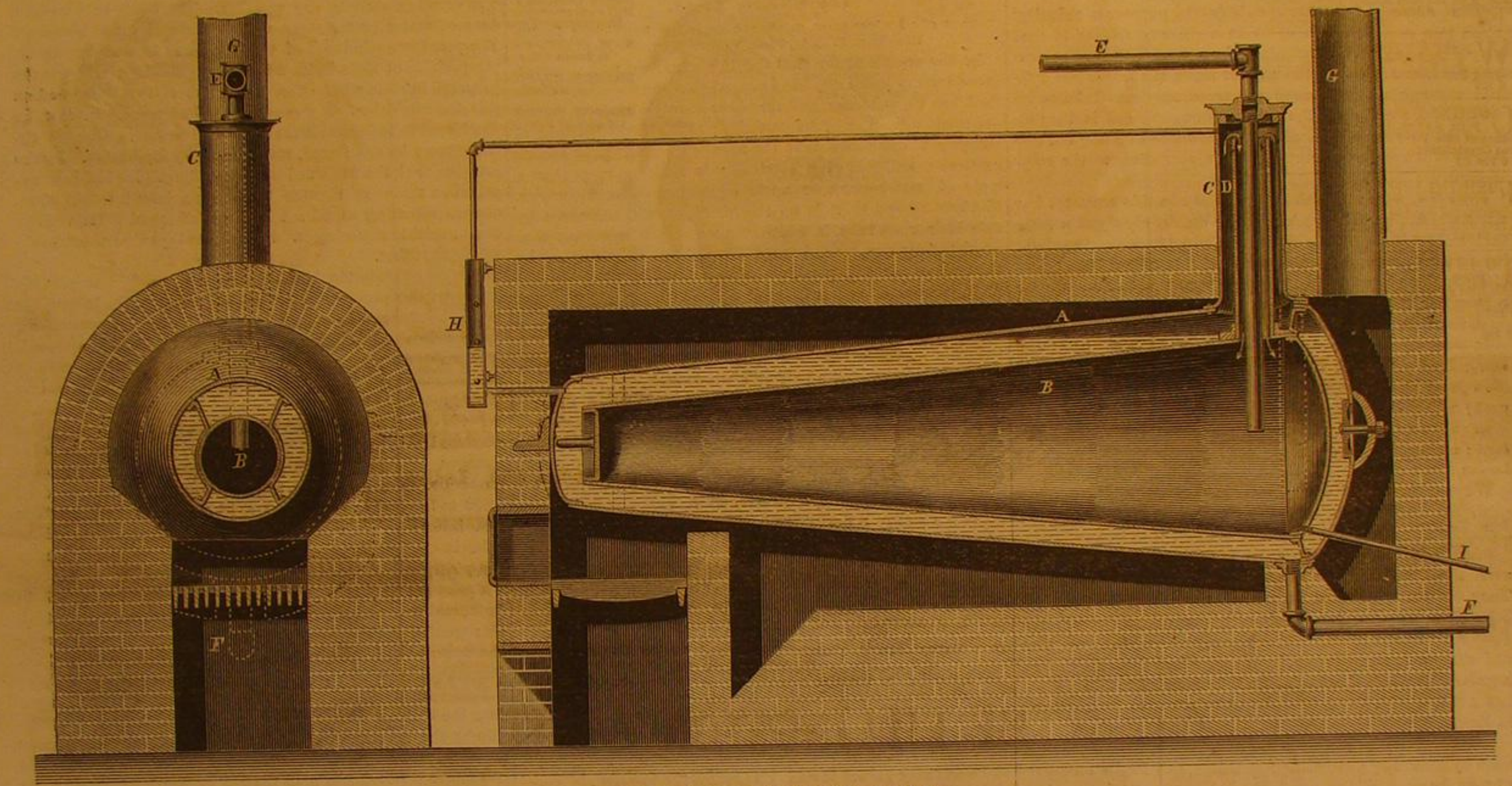
Improvement in Steam Generators.

When it is considered that only a small percentage of the heating properties of coal, when released by combustion, are made available for the production of mechanical power, it is evident that any improvement that will increase the ratio of the power delivered, as compared with the fuel consumed, is a valuable one. This object has been sought for years by engineers and inventors, who have experimented upon almost every conceivable form of boiler and arrangement of its parts.

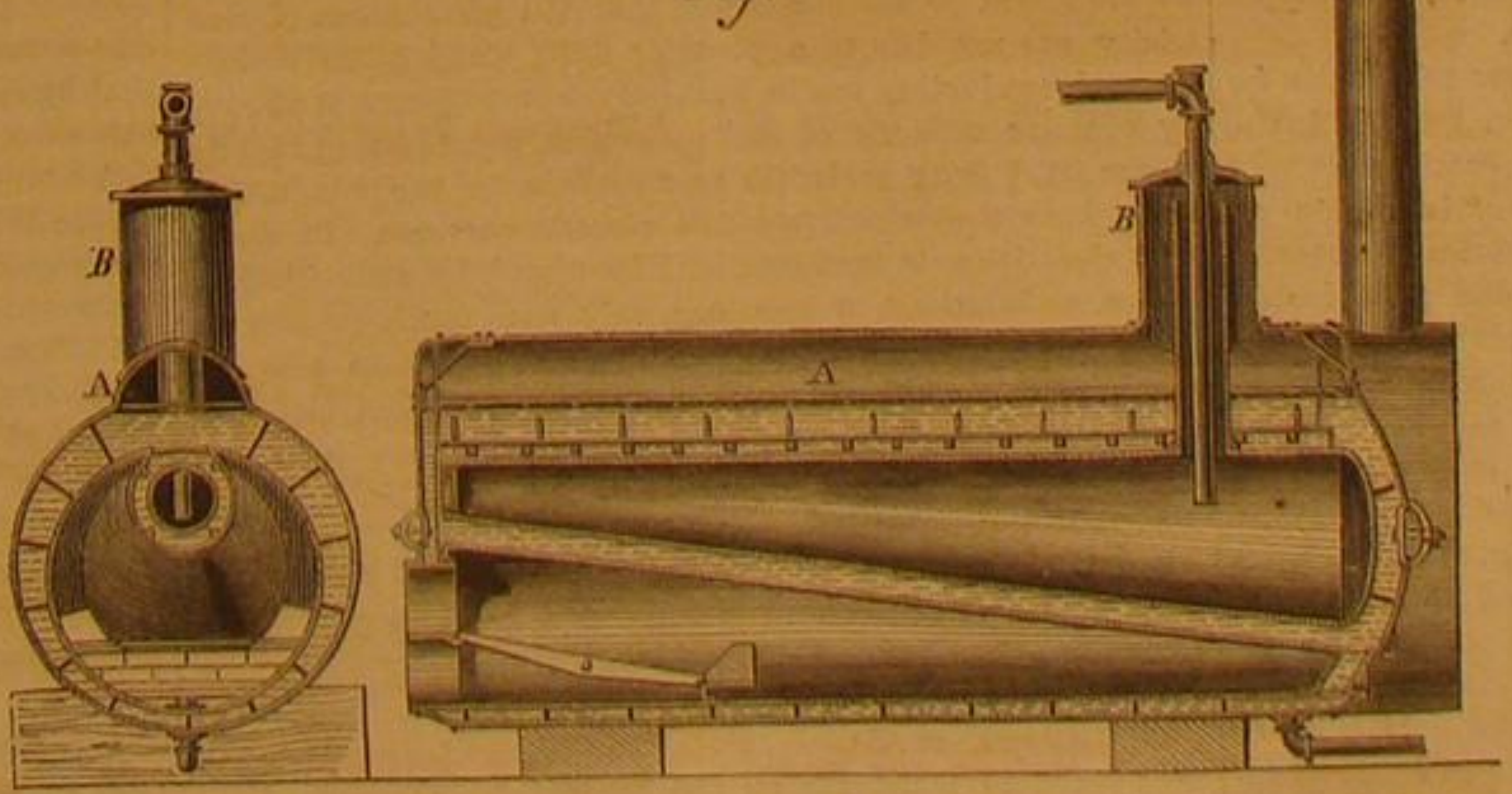


THE GERNER PATENT BOILER.

At the Fair of the American Institute, held in New York in the fall of 1867, a new form of boiler, known as the "Gerner," from the name of the patentee, attracted great attention, especially among practical men, for its peculiarities of internal structure and its apparent extraordinary results. We publish herewith representations of this boiler in three forms—stationary, portable (both horizontal), and upright.

Fig. 1 is the stationary boiler, one view being a longitudinal section, and the other a transverse vertical section near the front end through the fire box. The boiler proper consists of two cone like shells, one inside the other, leaving a space between the two of several inches, varying according to the dimensions of the boiler, which is almost entirely filled with water, completely enveloping the inner cone, as will be seen by reference to the engraving. The interior of the internal shell is wholly devoted to steam, which is thus enveloped with a non-conducting material. A reference to the parts by the following letters and the arrows will render unnecessary a detailed description: A is the outside shell; B, the steam reservoir; C, the steam dome; D is the pipe conducting the steam to the reservoir, B; E, the outlet, or delivery pipe; F, the feed water and blow-off pipe; G, the chimney; H, the water gage on front of the boiler; and I, the pipe for testing the dryness of the steam, leading from steam reservoir.

Fig. 2



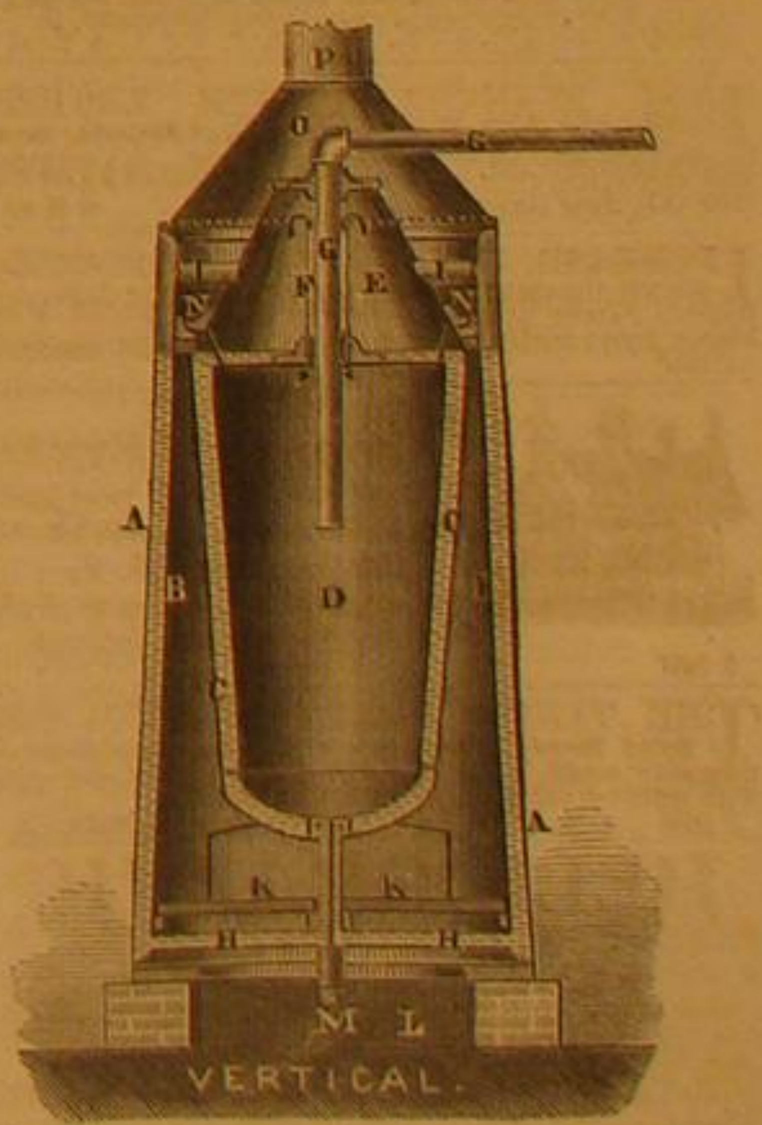


Fig. 2, shows similar sections of the portable horizontal boiler. We gave a brief description of this boiler on pp. 233–4 in No. 15, Vol. XVII., SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. This differs somewhat in its details from the stationary, which is set in brick work. The outer shell is simply a cylinder like that of an ordinary cylindrical boiler, but double, both sides and ends affording a water space, as seen in the engravings. Inside this shell are the two cones, so placed, however, that the upper surface stands on a level. The outer cone is not entire but is open at the top along its whole length, and surmounted with a longitudinal dome, A. This arrangement gives communication between the space between the two walls of the outer shell and that between the two cones, both being water spaces. B is the steam dome similar to that on the stationary boiler, and the other parts and appendages will be understood by a reference to corresponding parts in that engraving.

Fig. 3 represents the vertical form of this boiler, and the following letters of reference will explain its construction fully: A, first cylindrical shell; B, second shell; C, third shell; D, steam reservoir; E, dome; F, connecting pipe into D; G, outlet or steam pipe; H, water connection pipes; I, steam connection pipes; K, grate; L, ashpit; M, feed and blow-off pipe; N, brackets; O, smoke box; P, chimney.

It will be seen that the objects intended by this improved form of boiler are perfect circulation of the water, quick and even generation of steam, entire combustion of the fuel, utilization of the heat evolved, dry steam, and prevention of unequal heating and consequent expansion of the material of the boiler. The arrangement, form, and construction of the parts as shown in the engravings will enable any practical man to decide as to the success attained in the objects sought.

The form of the interior cylinder, or cone, and its position, as regards the fire, the protection of the steam by a water jacket from atmospheric influences, seem to insure equable heating of the water-containing surfaces and pure dry steam. The inventor claims an evaporation of over twelve pounds of water to one pound of coal consumed, and one horse power of effective force yielded by from four to eight square feet of heating surface according to size. These claims seem to be established by experiments witnessed and substantiated by practical engineers. Among those who have given their approval to this boiler are Edward Faron, superintendent of the Morgan Iron Works, and Charles H. Haswell, formerly chief engineer U. S. Navy; W. W. Wood, U. S. Navy; W. Vanderbilt, Pacific Mail Steamship Company, and J. H. Lewiness, of the U. S. Revenue Service—these three last, judges of steam boilers at the Fair of the American Institute—T. W. Kennard, of the Atlantic & Great Western R. R., and many other engineers, who speak, in their reports of experiments which they witnessed or conducted, in the highest terms, of the boiler and its performances, fully substantiating all the claims made by the inventor, Capt. Gerner. This style of boiler is adapted in its form and application to marine and land service, to stationary and locomotive purposes; indeed, to all situations in which steam boilers can be used, either for generating steam for power or heating purposes.

The engravings of marine and locomotive boilers are reserved to a future number.

The United States patents bear dates July 18, 1865, and January 21, 1868. Patented also in the principal European countries. Further information may be obtained by addressing Kasson & Co., General Agents, 119 Broadway, or P. O. box 5,195 New York city. See advertisement on last page.

THE MANUFACTURE OF BRONZE POWDERS.

Prepared for the Scientific American.

The waste material of the beating of metals (an art which took its rise in the fourteenth century, in Nuremberg, Germany) was thrown away till 1750. In that year a mason in Fuerth, by the name of Huber, conceived the fortunate idea to grind this material called "Schabig" on a stone, and to sell the metallic powder thus obtained as a color. The gold-beater Martin Holzinger succeeded subsequently in imparting to the powder various lusters by exposing it to different degrees of heat; and in 1781, Courrier, a Frenchman, discovered the mode of preparing gold bronze from leaves, consisting of an alloy of zinc and copper. Although this bronze powder was offered for one florin (fifty-one cents, currency) per pound, it was but little in demand; but since the preparation of various colors, from red down to nearly white, is no longer a secret, the manufacture of bronze powders has attained considerable importance, and is now practiced in several towns in Bavaria and Westphalia, and in the capitals of France and England. The refuse of goldbeating being no longer sufficient, special alloys are flattened. When in Fuerth, Bavaria, in 1864, we counted not less than fourteen bronze powder establishments. In Munich and Nuremberg the value of this article is said to reach yearly $255,000 in currency.

The process of flattening metals for the purpose of reducing them into powder is carried on in a manner similar to that of goldbeating. When obtained in a thickness so as to permit the transmission of the rays of light, the leaves are rubbed through an iron sieve of exceedingly small holes by means of a wire brush, the powder thus produced is then allowed to pass through a mill under addition of some oil, and finally it is heated to a certain degree, according to the color desired.

Prof. Wagner, a chemist well known in this country, has ascertained that all bronze powders consist chiefly of a fatty matter, oxygen, copper, and iron. The composition used for light shades consists of 83 per cent of copper and 13 per cent zinc; for deep ones, of 94 to 90 copper, and 6 to 10 zinc; for copper red, pure copper is used. The amount of copper in various colors was found to be the following:

In French copper red, 97·32 per cent; orange, 94·44 per cent; light yellow, 81·29 per cent.

In English orange, 90·82 per cent; deep yellow, 82·37 per cent; pale yellow, 80·42 per cent.

In German copper red, 98·92 per cent; violet, 98·81 per cent; orange, 95·30 per cent; deep yellow, 81·55 per cent; lemon, 82·34 per cent.

Wagner discovered a small per centage of iron in the English bronzes, but tin, silver and nickel, or smalt, carmine and indigo, as often asserted, were not met with in any.

Recently various methods have been suggested in order to avoid the dividing of the metal leaves by means of a brush. They are partly founded on mechanical, partly on chemical principles. It was, for instance, attempted to prepare the powder by means of files, but it was discovered to be angular and without luster. When, however, passed through rollers, it gained its original luster again. In Germany, this method has not met with any approval, but it is said to be employed in England.

In 1850, Rostaing proposed to divide metals in their melted state by means of a centrifugal machine, and Fuchs announced that he succeeded in preparing bronze powder by amalgamation. The highly injurious effects of mercury vapors do, however, not allow the introduction of this latter method.

Copper powder may be prepared chemically in various ways which results in forming, with one single exception, crystalline and brittle products, which, in crushing, are converted into a dull powder. In reducing oxide of copper with rhigoline and gasoline, the two lightest products of the distillation of petroleum, Prof. Wagner, for the first time, obtained copper in minute scales. In conducting the process, it is necessary that the metal be left to cool in the vapors of these hydrocarbons. The bronze color is thus obtained is somewhat dark, but may perhaps be changed into brighter hues, by passing vapors of zinc or cadmium over them. In one instance where gasoline containing sulphur was used, the copper bronze exhibited a fine iridescent appearance.

It is only within the last decade that various substitutes for the above described bronze powders have been brought to the notice of consumers. We mention

1. *The Tungsten bronzes.* Of these the "tungstate of oxide of tungsten and soda" is the most important. It forms beautiful crystals of a golden-yellow color and gold luster. The potassa salt, discovered by Laurent, forms violet needles with copper lusters, and possesses great similarity with sublimed indigo. The lithian salt appears in prismatic scales and leaves of the color of slightly tempered steel. In glowing the potassa salt, a brilliant dark blue steel color may be obtained. The tungsten, or wolframium bronzes first appeared at the World's Fair in London, in 1862, and they then attracted considerable attention. The soda compound appeared under the denomination of saffron bronze, the potassa compound under that of magenta bronze. At the exhibition at Paris, in 1867, these bronzes were only present in small quantities. The reason for this fact is stated by Prof. A. W. Hofman as follows:

"It appears, that in order to cover well, and reflect the light with intensity, it is necessary that the smallest particles of the bronze powders should possess the property to split in lamellæ. If their crystalline structure shows this glimmer-like character, their covering capacity remains the same when reduced to a finer state. If these bodies, however, crystallize in cubes, they are in being crushed, not reduced into lamellae but again in cubes. A certain quantity of such a powder covers a much smaller surface, than an equal weight of bronzes consisting of scales. They also reflect the light not in the same degree as purely metallic bronzes."

2. *The tin bronze, or Mosaic gold.* This variety may, as regards brilliancy, well compete with the lighter bronze colors. It is also more durable. Kletzinski proposes to prepare it, by subliming the amorphous sulphide of tin, which is obtained in boiling a tin-salt solution with dilute oil of vitriol and saturating the liquid with the gas of burning sulphur. The sulphid of titanium also deserves attention; it forms scales of a brass color.

3. *Chromium bronze,* or chloride of chromium, forms brilliant violet foliæ, which, in transmitted light, appear blood red. It may be rubbed into the skin like all bronzes.

4. *Crystallized iodide of lead,* a beautiful yellow substance, is proposed for decorative purposes; gold-inks, shell-colors, as a mass for pencils, for the painting of fabrics, wall paper, for filling glass pearls, etc.

5. *Organic bronze colors.* To these belong the derivates of the haematoxylin, already extensively employed in the manufacture of bronze paper, the numerous tar-pigments, of which the corallin is one of the most recent discoveries, the murexide and the green hydrochinon.

The Latest Novelty in Electricity--Non-existence of the Electric Fluid.

(Extract of a Lecture given before the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institution, Troy, N. Y., by Prof. Vander Weyde, M. D.)

In the same manner that the investigations and discoveries of twenty years ago have proved that the so-called caloric fluid has no existence, and that heat is only a state of matter—a mode of motion of its particles; so the investigations of the present day prove that the so-called electric fluid has no existence, and that even electricity is nothing more than a state of matter—another mode of motion of its molecules. Without matter there is no electricity, as will be proved by this little glass tube, in which the vacuum is so perfect that no electricity can possibly pass through it, notwithstanding the ends of the two platinum wires melted in the glass and projecting outside on both ends, and which conduct the electricity interiorly, are only one quarter of an inch apart. I have here a similar tube filled with common atmospheric air, the ends of the wires are also one quarter of an inch apart, and may be separated a half or a whole inch, but the electric current will be seen in the form of sparks to pass easily between the wires, and to charge this Leyden jar. I have here also a so-called Geisler tube, in which the ends of the wires are separated to the distance of twenty inches, and through which the electric current could not pass at all while filled with air; but the air in it is rarefied to such a degree as to make it a good conductor of electricity, and you see the current pass not in sparks, as in the second tube filled with common air, but as a glowing fire, resembling the northern light; through this tube also we can charge this Leyden jar. Through the first tube, in which, by great precautions, an almost perfect vacuum has been produced, there is not only no current seen to pass, but it is impossible to load this Leyden jar when the tube is interposed between the jar and the machine developing the electricity.

The verification of the passage or non-passage of the electric current by means of this charge in the jar, obtained or not obtained, is important, as otherwise it would be doubted if the electricity passed invisibly through the vacuum.

This striking and novel experiment, demonstrating the impossibility that an electric current can overlap a really empty space, even to the small distance of only one quarter inch, proves that there are two errors in our present theory of electricity. First, that the transmission of electricity in vacuo, so-called, is really a transmission through rarefied air or gas, these being good conductors; common air, we know, is a bad conductor. The vacuum is proved by this new experiment to be an absolute non-conductor. Secondly, this experiment proves that if that which we call electricity was really a fluid distinct from common matter, there is no reason why it should not overlap the small empty space of a quarter of an inch. As we saw, however, that electricity cannot possibly overlap that small space, nor be transmitted where no matter exists, we are forced to the conclusion that the phenomena of electricity are not due to a peculiar fluid, which move rapidly through conducting media, but that the propagation is effected by peculiar motions of the molecules, which, being rapidly transmitted from molecule to molecule in the conducting body, form that which we call electric currents. In short, that electricity is transmitted like sound, by some kind of waves, undulations, or rotations, only with much greater velocity. In fact, there exists as little necessity to adopt a special electric fluid to explain the electric phenomena, as there exists to adopt a special sonorous fluid to explain the acoustic phenomena.

Opals--Iridescence--Economy in Using Coal.

The Lyceum of Natural History met, January 18th, at its rooms, Madison avenue. Numerous donations of pamphlets and reports were presented.

Dr. Dailey showed some specimens of chalcedony which had been found in Honduras, on the border of Guatemala, by a friend of his, who, when riding over a section of that state, was attracted by red objects on the ground, which he took to be fruit. On examination, he found that they were pieces of chalcedony.

Mr. E. G. Squier supposed that these specimens were found in the neighborhood of the opal region. Being answered affirmatively, a conversation sprung up about opals, Mr. Squier remarking that he had found many specimens of opals in the region alluded to. They generally occurred in pockets formed, as it were, by the roots of trees. He presumed the matter of which they were formed had filtered through. In answer to a question about the value of the Honduras opals, he stated that an English company engaged in collecting them was making large returns on its capital.

Dr. Feuchtwanger mentioned some instances in which persons similarly engaged had not met with a similar good fortune. He also mentioned cases to show that opals often deteriorated in cutting, and that very few valuable opals could be secured. He knew of a large opal in London which, when rough, was valued at £3,500, but which, when polished, brought only half that sum.

Mr. E. G. Squier explained how so many opals were found fractured. The Indians who collected them worked in bands. When they found an opal it was placed under a hammer and broken, each member of the band taking his share. He gave the history of an opal possessed by a friend of his, which was considered the largest in the world. It was, unfortunately, broken in polishing. The larger piece was polished, and sold to the wife of the Captain-General of Cuba, Serrano, for a large sum.

Professor Eggleston, of the School of Mines, stated there were two kinds of opal, the Mexican, or soft opal, and the precious opal, which retained its luster for a century. He had noticed a curious property of these stones, viz.: that the Mexican opal showed its "fire" according to the dampness of the season, being dull in dry weather. The effect of putting a drop of water on the stone was to make it quite iridescent The peculiar appearance of the stone was caused by the decomposition of light in its miscroscopic fissures. He was not prepared to state what effect the action of the water had on this decomposition. It was certain it had some. In fact, he considered it indubitable that the opalescence, under the circumstances he mentioned, was caused by hydration. In the precious opal the fire was lost by handling. He had been engaged on some experiments to ascertain how it might be restored. Heating would not do. He had found alkaline solutions useful in restoring it. He had used cyanide of ammonia with good effect.

Professor Eggleston further explained how it was possible to impart this peculiar iridescence to plaster. The iridescence was to be accounted for by either of two causes. It was caused by superficial oxidation, which disappeared when scratched. It was also caused by the decomposition of light by means of the microscopic fissures alluded to. Both at Berlin and in Washington the iridescence had been transferred to plaster.

Dr. Newberry (in the chair) pointed out that fractured glass possessed this property of decomposing light, which was also common to substances formed in laminæ, such as a certain sea-shells. Mr. Rutherford had cut on glass microscopic lines 7,000 to the inch, and these were iridescent. A friend of his had informed him that the Honduras opals were found in veins in trachytic rock. The largest he had ever seen was in the possession of Mrs. Aspinwall, of this city.

Professor Newberry exhibited a concretion, spherical in form, and presenting a curious appearance at one pole, which he regarded as quite puzzling. He mentioned the fact that in the sub-carboniferous system of Kentucky he had found numerous silicious concretions of a very singular form.

Professor Joy presented some of the refuse of refined sugar from the Hudson River Sugar Refinery. He proposed to ascertain by the spectroscope whether there was any caesium or rubidium in it. He called attention also to the invasion of the salt mines of Wieliczka near Cracow by water, supposed to be from a subterranean lake. The water had already risen as far as the famous chapel of St. Anthony, cut from the solid salt, in 1690. The people were leaving the neighborhood for Cracow.

Professor Newberry announced the death of two distinguished naturalists, Dr. Carl Frederick Philipp Von Martius, Professor of Botany in the University of Munich, and Mr. John Cassin, of Philadelphia, another well-known scholar. Professor Newberry spoke in high terms of the scientific labors of the deceased gentlemen.

Professor Eggleston spoke of some of the means adopted to economize coal, and in the course of some very interesting remarks he pointed out that when coal contained a greater quantity of ash than twelve per cent, it was useless for metallurgical purposes. The large proportion of ash in coal was due to the presence of silicate of alumina. It had been found that by crushing the coal and washing it, a large portion of this silicate might be removed, and the coal fitted for coking.

A conversation ensued, in which Dr. Newberry spoke highly of the Western coals as particularly free from ash, containing in many instances so little as two per cent. The Nova Scotia coals contained as much as thirty per cent.

Professor Eggleston, on the other hand, remarked that many of the coals taken from the neighborhood of Pittsburgh contained a large portion of ash, hence the importance of the crushing, washing, and coking process.

Professor Seeley and Mr. Walling discussed the ordinary formula given in the school books for momentum, Professor Seeley arguing that the school books were incorrect.

Removing Foul Air from Wells.

A correspondent gives us an account of an ingeniously extemporized apparatus for removing carbonic acid from wells. It was simply an umbrella let down and rapidly hauled up a number of times in succession. The effect was to remove the gas in a few minutes from a well so foul as to instantly extinguish a candle previous to the use of the umbrella.

A Species of dwarf fossil elephants has been discovered in the island of Malta by Mr. Busk. According to a communication made by him to the British Zoological Society its height is only from two and one-half to three feet. Another species previously discovered by Dr. Falconer had a height of only four and one-half feet.

Correspondence.

The Editors are not responsible for the Opinions expressed by their Correspondents.

Superheated Steam.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—In No. 4, current volume of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, it is stated editorially that "ordinary steam contains, mechanically suspended, a large amount of water, it is saturated not pure steam. Superheating or additional heating sufficient to convert this water into steam, pure and simple, is undoubtedly economical, if it can be done without such an expenditure of fuel as to neutralize its economy." Having given much attention to the subject, and from an experience of three years in the practical use of superheated steam for many purposes, I have found it to be economical and otherwise beneficial under all circumstances. Of course, the less the cost of the superheating, the greater will be the gain, but this is always considerable, though variable.

I can also assert that where such steam is properly used, it is impossible for it to exert any injurious influence (but quite the reverse) upon the working surfaces of the engine. A blessing, however great, may become a curse if misapplied, and superheated steam, like the elements, though a good servant, is a bad master. Steam superheated directly to 400 deg. as a maximum, or mixed, so as to have that temperature, is entirely beneficial in its action, as it keeps the cylinder free from water, which is a nuisance for many obvious reasons.

The full economy due to the expansion of steam can only be realized by superheating, which prevents the enormous condensation occurring under such circumstances. Experiments made by Messrs. Geo. Hecker & Waterman in this city (see SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, Aug. 13, 1864) with the greatest care, showed that the loss from this source was from 20 to 40 per cent of the total amount of steam used, and these results are confirmed by the application of the indicator to almost any engine. The best results from superheating accrue during the first 50 degrees, when experiment shows that the expansion of the steam from its saturated condition is very great, and after this it follows the law of expansion of gases by heat.

Most of our river, sound, and ocean steamers superheat considerably by means of their steam chimneys, and indeed could not obtain the results which they do, without them. Careful thermometrical tests, extending over many weeks, showed that the steam was superheated to 400 degrees on several of these steamers, and to any one who has seen the looking-glass appearance of the interior of their cylinders, the idea that such superheating is injurious, seems wholly impossible.

Steam, as used in manufactories, is almost invariably "wet," containing "spray," unavoidably carried over, or produced by premature condensation. To superheat this steam will save fuel and time in boiling, drying, etc., and often economizes dye stuffs and bleaching powders, owing to the liquids being boiled with less increase of water. For refining petroleum and other liquids, superheated steam is substituted for open fire, with advantage, thus reducing the risk from over-heating, etc. The power of a boiler, as you remark, cannot be doubled by superheating its steam, but (unless the steam is already superheated) an economy in fuel, etc., of from 12 to 25 per cent, is made by the application of a good superheater; this can be seen in this city and elsewhere. The common defect in superheaters, viz., want of durability, may be overcome by a judicious construction and arrangement; while with a liberal amount of superheating surface, they need not be exposed to a heat which would result in damage and final failure. Many of the heaviest manufacturers and steamship owners in Europe have used superheated steam for years with most economical results, and when its merits are more thoroughly understood, there can be no doubt but that its employment will be general. HENRY W. BULKLEY.

New York city.

Steam from Water and from Maple Sap.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—In No. 4, current volume, under the head of "Increasing the Power of Steam by Superheating" you say that, "Ordinary steam (the vapor given off by boiling water in a closed vessel) contains, mechanically suspended, a large amount of water; it is saturated steam, not pure steam."

I understand by this, that simple steam, say at a pressure of sixty pounds, as it rises, carries with it a large amount of unchanged water which is not steam, and which it fails to precipitate afterwards, or before it leaves the boiler. Every spring, to economise fuel in concentrating the sap of the maple tree to a syrup, I use in my constantly running, factory engine boiler, the sap of the maple instead of pure water, and in this way reducing its volume fifty per cent before drawing it off into my sugar kettles.

Now if the sap is taken up and held in "mechanical suspension" by the ascending steam, am I not the loser of saccharine product just in proportion to the quantity of unchanged sap so carried off? In boiling down a full barrel of the water from the condensed steam of this sap to the volume of a single quart, in the open air, not a trace of saccharine product could be detected in it. If in the first boiler the unchanged sap in large quantities is carried off by the steam, what becomes of its saccharine product if it cannot be found in the steam condensed?

I am preparing for the usual spring sugar-making, but if I am largely the loser by using my factory boiler for partial condensation, I shall this spring return to the old plan of open kettles and wood at $9·00 per cord. Will you be kind enough to advise me which to do. JAS. W. WADSWORTH.

Durham, Conn.

[We did not state that maple sap is "taken up and held in mechanical suspension," but that water was. The reduction of saccharine liquid by boiling under pressure is too common to be the subject of discussion. Cane juice as well as maple juice is thus treated; but to imagine that the saccharine matter is carried off with steam is "begging the question." The specific gravity of sugar is greater than that of water, as is also that of salt. In fact distillation is the only proper way to obtain chemically pure water. Pure water is thus obtained on shipboard. It is not surprising that our correspondent did not find a trace of sugar in his quart of condensed steam from a barrel full. He may, however, find a trace of acid, but his condensed steam from maple sap will be otherwise as pure as that from water.—EDS.

Degree of Heat to Bake Bread.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—It is stated by various authorities, Prof. Hosford among others, that the heat required to bake bread varies from 212 deg. to 450 deg. I do not write this communication to confound the doctors, but having made bread the subject of various experiments for the past three years, and having eaten the fruit thereof with great satisfaction, I am able to say the degree of heat required, is in round numbers, not over 220 deg. to 240 deg. In the statements made by the authorities alluded to, it seems to me that the question of *time* has not been considered, and that while destructive distillation of the flour, or in other words, forming the crust, cannot go on at a lower degree than 400 deg. within a certain time, it *can* be induced at a lower temperature extending over a longer period. To introduce a loaf of bread to an oven heated to 400 deg., or even 300 deg., would be to burn the exterior hard and dry, while the interior would be "slack." At 450 deg. tin melts, and the result of exposing a loaf of bread one hour to a heat that would melt tin can be imagined.

EGBERT P. WATSON.

A Suggestion for Inventors.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—There are some of your readers, no doubt, who have inventions that would be valuable if brought before the public, but many of them, like myself, are unable to defray the expenses, and therefore do nothing with them, when they might be of value to many of your readers who would be glad to bring them before the public if they possessed merit. Now, I propose to all such persons to make their improvements public property by giving a brief description in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. Let those who have plans or improvements of any kind that they cannot avail themselves of, give them to those who can, thereby benefiting mankind. Mind and time are both money. "Give freely of what ye have." I have a plan (it may not be new) for making an automatic musical instrument. It is to have the keys acted upon directly or indirectly by strips of any suitable material with perforations or projections formed in lines, and corresponding to the music to be played; said strips of music to be passed through the transmitting or conveying machinery by any desired power said perforations or projections to give motion through the transmitting machinery to the keys of the instrument, and the distances between them to decide the time in the music. A. B. C.

[We suggest, instead of the personal sacrifice, so generously proposed by our correspondent, judicious advertising to attract the attention of possessors of unemployed capital.—EDS.

Tempering Taps.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—Most of your readers are aware of the difficulty in tempering taps and reamers without springing, especially long and large ones. To accomplish this let the blacksmith select his steel for the job and forge the tap with a little more than the usual allowance, being careful not to heat too hot, nor to hammer too cold. After the tap or reamer is forged, heat it and hold it on one end upon the anvil. If a large one hit it with the sledge, if a small one the hammer will do. During this operation the tap will give away on its weakest side and become bent. Do not attempt to straighten it. On finishing and hardening the tap it will become perfectly straight. If any are doubtful a simple trial will convince them. GEORGE JONES.

Portland, Me.

Editorial Summary.

WE understand that the Senate Committee have reported in favor of legalizing two bridges over the Connecticut River, one at the mouth and the other further in, known as the Shore Line bridge. This report will meet with very sturdy and protracted opposition in both houses, and its passage at the session is considered doubtful. It always takes a good deal of time to carry such big enterprises, but in the long run opposition gives way.

IT is reported that the employés of the Patent Office cannot get their salaries. From July to December Congress had appropriated $250,000 for current expenses, which have absorbed the sum. During that time the receipts were $303,000, all of which, by legislation, goes into the Treasury, and though thus $52,000 in excess of its expenses, not a cent of the same can be applied to pay the clerks. An appropriation will be needed to pay them.

A MILD WINTER has been felt in Europe as well as in this country. The Paris journals in their endeavors to console those who enjoy the ice and chill of winter, state that in 1822, 1807, and, further back, in 1791, the temperature was as unusually warm as it is this year; that in 1692 the Germans never lighted their stoves; that 1617, 1612, 1607 were likewise wonderfully mild; that in 1538 the gardens were full of flowers in the month of January; that in January, 1421, cherries ripened, and grapes in May; and that in 1172 the trees were covered with leaves, flowers bloomed, and birds built their nests, while the little ones fledged in the month of February.

THE Mercantile Library of this city has now 100,000 volumes, embracing the best works on every topic. Popular works are largely duplicated, and about 10,000 volumes are added yearly. The Association has a yearly income of $60,000, and holds real estate valued at $500,000, and books at $150,000; number of stockholders 2,000, and of members 10,000. Reading-room is large, well-warmed, well-lighted, and supplied with 3,000 books of reference, and over 400 periodicals, foreign and domestic. Young men expressly should be encouraged to read books, and to make this a place of resort. It is peculiarly their institution, yet it provides for all. Clerks are charged $3, a year; others $5, a year.

JUSTUS VON LIEBIG, the celebrated German chemist, recently told a friend that, during the last ten years, he had received seven calls from American universities, and that twice he felt strongly tempted to go to the United States and accept there a professorship. We trust that Liebig will visit this country and give our people the benefit of his varied stores of information; but we cannot advise him to cover up his light under the bushel of a college professorship. If the Baron wishes to make his name and fame conspicuously useful he had better accept a position upon the editorial staff of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, through whose columns he could reach and educate a hundred thousand minds each week.

SAN FRANCISCO is to be supplied with ice from the summit of the Sierra Nevada, in a very novel way. A party of speculators have constructed an ice-house, capable of holding eight hundred or nine hundred tuns of ice, near the Pacific Railroad track. From a stream on the hillside above, a flume has been run to the top of the ice-house, where the water is allowed to fall in small jets or spray into the building below. In this manner they expect to gradually form a mass of solid ice which will fill the entire building.

BRIGHAM YOUNG is said to have a telegraph wire leading to his office and connecting with every hamlet in Utah—a line of 500 miles long. Every settlement of half a dozen houses has a telegraph office with female Saint operators, and in charge of a Bishop of the Mormon church, who can report at any time all that takes place to Young. From his private office in Salt Lake City, like the watchman in the fire telegraph, Brigham may give an order or ring an alarm from Idaho to New Mexico.

A RECENT number of the *Comptes Rendus* states that according to Herr Fritsche, tin exposed to a temperature of 40° below zero was converted into a semi-crystalline mass containing cavities like basalt. In masses of tin weighing from 55 to 60 lbs. these cavities had in some cases, a volume of nearly 24 cubic inches. According to M. Dumas, facts of this kind are not new in Russia; for instance, in one case, the pipes of a church organ were so altered by cold as to be no longer so norous.

AN EXCHANGE congratulates itself upon an invention just out in Paris which should earn for its author the gratitude of millions. It consists of an apparatus, which, applied to any piano, will deaden the sound emitted. There are few persons who have not been sometimes distracted by the practicing of some too persevering player, and who would have paid any price for such a "mute" as that described.

THE FRENCH ACADEMY has received a report from M Duchartre on certain plants which vegetate without roots. In South America people suspend such plants from a balcony by a thread, without their being in contact with anything else, and yet they grow and blossom in this strange position. Duchartre tried several experiments to find out how they lived, and decided that they existed by the absorption of water.

A PHYSICIAN writes to the Dublin *Journal of Medicine* in support of the old notion that people sleep much better with their heads to the north. He has tried the experiment in the case of sick persons with marked effect, and insists that there are known to exist great électrical currents, always crossing in one direction around the earth, and that our nervous systems are in some mysterious way connected with this electrical agent. Let the beds all head towards the north pole.

THE WORK on the artesian well at St. Louis which has been going down for so many years is approaching its close, and a few weeks will determine whether the undertaking is to prove a success or an expensive failure. The drills are now in what is called the pink sandstone, under which lies granite rock. Should the latter be reached without finding water, further attempts will be hopeless.

ARTIFICIAL ICE BLOCKS.—M. Toselli says that large blocks of ice can be obtained in a few minutes, by producing small pieces of ice at a temperature some degrees lower than zero. These small pieces will then adhere together as soon at they are placed in contact, and blocks of immense thickness can be thus obtained.

A NEW engineering feat is talked of at Chicago. It is proposed to cut off the river several miles above the city, and conduct its entire volume of water to the lake by a canal, and convert the channel into a system of railroads, where all the lines converging in the city might meet in one grand central station.

THE merchants of Bremen have resolved to fit out another Arctic expedition, and place it under the charge of Captain Koldewey, of the *Germania*. They are to furnish a steamer and defray expenses.

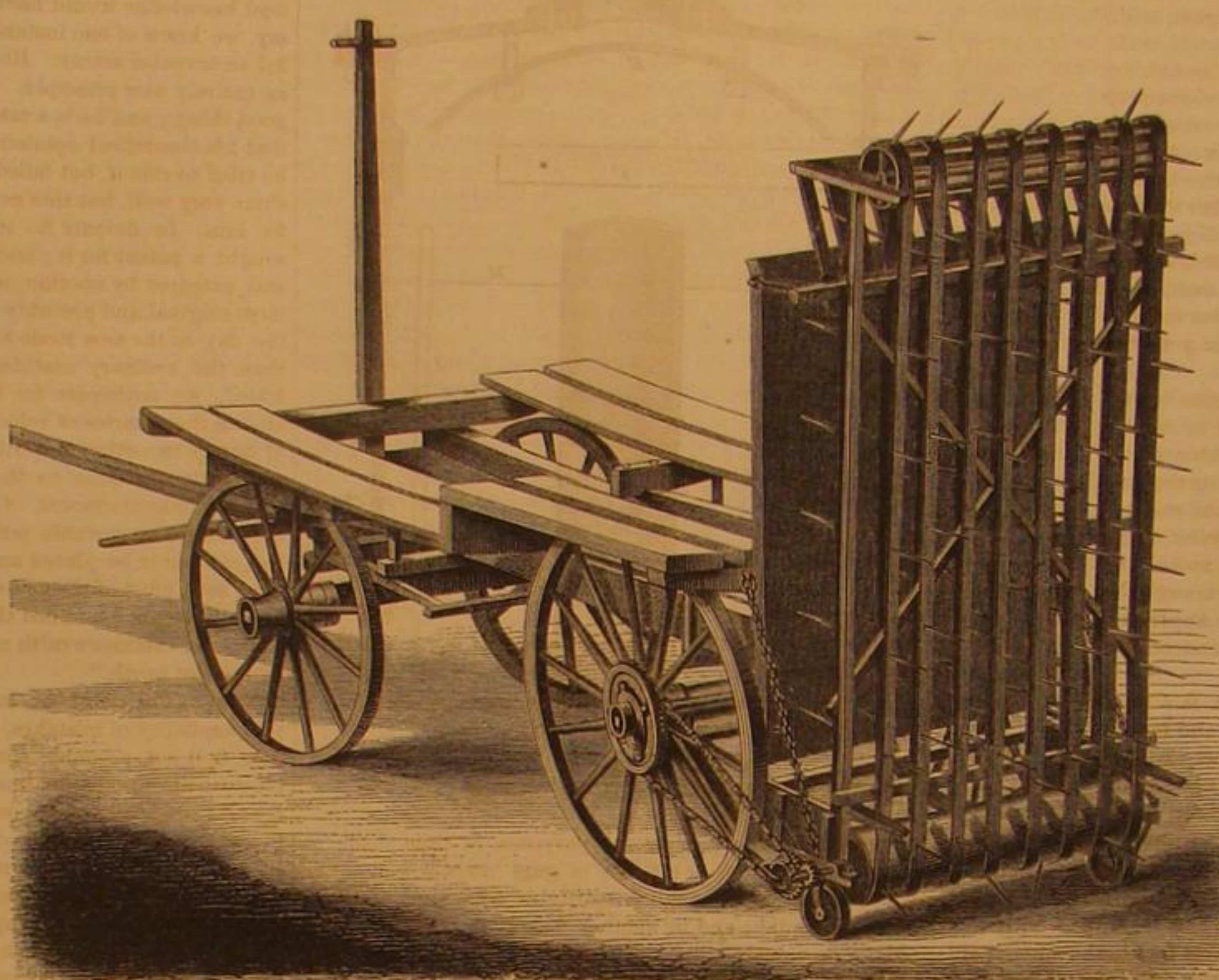
Automatic Hay Loader.

The object of the contrivance shown in the engraving is to gather the crop of hay, already heaped into windrows, without the expense of manual labor in pitching it on the wagon, the only hand work required being that of arranging the hay on the wagon and making up the load.

At the rear of the wagon is attached a frame consisting of a solid apron of boards, at the top of which is a reel extending across the width of the wagon and at a hight sufficient to discharge the hay to make a good load. From this reel extend downward a series of belts armed with rake teeth the belts passing around a cylinder that receives its rotary motion from the hind wheels of the wagon, by means of a machine chain on each wheel running from a suitable chain pulley on the outside of the wheel, secured thereto, and on to a smaller pulley or wheel connecting by gears with the lower cylinder. All this can be understood by reference to the engraving. The shaft of the lower cylinder is furnished with clutches to prevent its twisting when one of the rear, or driving wheels, turns faster than the other, as in rounding a curve. Sheet iron circular plates are also secured to the boxes of the shaft to prevent the hay from winding around it when the machine is in operation. Under the rear end of the upright frame are small wheels or trucks to keep the lower or driving cylinder from impinging upon the ground when the wheels of the wagon pass into a depression in the surface of the field.

In operation it will be seen that, as the vehicle is drawn along a windrow of hay, the rotating lifting rake is driven so that the hay is swept from the ground inward toward the upright apron, or guard, and discharged by the belts and teeth passing between inclined slats at the top. The gathering frame is properly strengthened by braces, and is so connected with the wagon as to be attached and detached in a moment. The device has received the approval of gentlemen interested officially in the development of agricultural interests and also of practical farmers.

Patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency June 30, 1868, by N. B. Douglas, of Cornwall, Vt. The entire right may be purchased. Address as above.



DOUGLAS' PATENT HAY LOADER.

CHEMICAL CLEANLINESS.

From Chambers' Journal.

One of the most active-minded and ingenious experimentalists in physics, Mr. Charles Tomlinson, has recently called attention to the importance of a chemically clean surface in the performance of many experiments, and to the influence of dirt in modifying their results. His views were discussed in the Chemical Section of the British Association, at the late Norwich meeting, and led to an amusing conversation as to what *dirt* really is; and the conclusion the philosophers arrived at was, that they could not do better than indorse Lord Palmerston's petty and comprehensive definition, that "Dirt is matter in the wrong place." Butter, for example, as one of our leading chemists observed, is matter, and very good matter too, in its proper place—namely, a piece of bread; but butter at the end of one's beard is matter in the wrong place, and consequently falls under the category of dirt. In his most recent article on this subject, Mr. Tomlinson defines a chemically unclean surface as "anything that is exposed to the products of respiration, or of combustion, or to the touch, or to the motes and dust of the air, and so becomes covered with a film more or less organic." One of the most important discoveries is, that the supersaturated solutions of a number of salts contained in chemically clean vessels can be kept for a long time without crystallizing, and even be reduced to temperatures much below the freezing point of water, provided they are protected from the motes and dust of the air and other chemically unclean bodies, by closing the mouth of the vessel with cotton wool, which filters the air. Any of our readers can easily repeat this experiment with sulphate of magnesia (Epsom salts), sulphate of soda, or phosphate of ammonia.

The extreme facility with which a chemically clean glass on a water surface may become chemically unclean, is illustrated by the following experiment with the camphor test, which may be thus described: If a few fragments of camphor be scraped from a fresh cut surface, and be allowed to fall upon water, they rotate with extreme velocity, and sweep over the surface, if the water be chemically clean; but if not, the fragments lie perfectly motionless. On a bright and sunny morning, with a dry air, "conditions highly favorable to the camphor motions, which depend as much on evaporation as on solution," Mr. Tomlinson filled four shallow, clean vessels, A, B, C, D, with water from the cistern tap. Camphor was very active on all four surfaces. He put his finger into A, and his tongue into B. Fresh fragments were motionless on A, but as active as before on B—showing that the finger was unclean, and that the tongue, instead of depositing a film, absorbed water and any possible film with it. The water was emptied from C, which was refilled from a so-called clean jug from the kitchen, filled from the same cistern tap; but the camphor fragments thrown on C were now motionless, showing that the jug had imparted an impurity to the water now in C. The water from D was also thrown away, and the glass rubbed and polished with a so-called clean glass-cloth. On again filling D from the tap, and throwing in fragments of camphor, there was no motion, the cloth having imparted a film to the water.

After these appalling revelations regarding the universal presence of dirt in apparently the cleanest of the vessels from which we eat and drink, it is with great satisfaction that we learn that some liquids (as ether and absolute alcohol) carry with them certain purifying influences of their own, and impart them to the water and the vessel; and strong wine (in consequence of the alcohol and vinic ether which it contains) thus possesses the property of making the wineglass into which it is poured chemically clean. If we take off about a third of the wine, the part of the glass between the original and the reduced levels remains completely wetted, and the phenomenon known as "weeping of the wine," or "tears in the cup," may be observed, which, as our author thinks, was referred to by the wisest of men when he wrote of the wine that "moveth itself aright" in the cup. The supply of liquid in the glass between the two levels is kept up for a considerable time by a twofold action, which Mr. Tomlinson describes as follows: In the spaces between the tears will be seen an ascending wavy current of liquid, which rises (1) by the adhesive action of capillarity (there being strong capillary action between the reduced level and the plane of liquid left in the glass), and (2) by the formation of a back current, in consequence of the downward flow of the tears, just as a back-water is formed at a place where two currents of a river meet; and this action in a glass of wine will be rendered more apparent if there are any specks or floating particles moving on the surface to show its direction.

In some cases, Mr. Tomlinson finds that tears are due to the evaporation and condensation of the liquid in the glass. This effect may be shown by filling a long tube with spirits of wine, and then nearly emptying it, so as to clean the surface. If the tube be now fixed vertically, and the flame of a spirit lamp applied below for a short time, tears will form at different hights.

Another phenomenon connected, with a glass of wine is readily explained by the doctrine of chemically clean surfaces; but in this case we must take a sparkling wine, supersaturated with gas—champagne, for example. (Soda water will do, if champagne is not at hand.) If a sparkling wine or other fluid supersaturated with gas, "be poured into a chemically clean glass, no bubbles of gas will form on the sides, because the adhesion between the sides and the solution is perfect, and the sides may be regarded as a continuation of the liquid itself." If a clean glass rod is immersed in the glass of wine, no bubbles will form around it, for it merely acts as an additional portion of clean side would do. If, however, the rod be dirty, "there will be little or no adhesion between the water of the solution and the dirty surface; but there will be an adhesion between the gas of the solution and the unclean surface, and hence there will be a liberation of gas." Here we have the explanation of the well known fact, that by dropping a bit of bread into a glass of champagne that has ceased to effervesce, we excite a fresh evolution of gas. All bodies that have been exposed to the touch of what society would deem clean fingers, become chemically unclean, as has been shown by the camphor experiments which we have already described. They become covered with an organic film, and act as nuclei in liberating gas, like, and for the same reason as, the dirt on the unclean glass rod.

The importance of the presence of solid nuclei of some sort or other (even a speck of dust will suffice) in setting up the process of crystallization in saline solutions, is known to every smatterer in school-room chemistry. In connection with this subject, Mr. Tomlinson was told the curious fact, that in crystallizing saline solutions on a large scale in chemical manufactories, the workmen stretch clean white strings across the large vessels into which the solution is to be poured; and they find practically that the strings act best as nuclei when they draw them through their hands, which, as he was informed, "are *not particularly clean*." How little do we think, in admiring a splendid mass of gorgeously tinted crystals, that so magnificent a structure may have been started into existence by a pair of extra-dirty hands!

Mr. Tomlinson has shown us that we and all our surroundings are unclean; that our fingers, on whose cleanliness we relied, are so dirty as to defile the water they come in contact with, and our snow-white table linen is as "filthy rags." Has so great a philosopher no concluding words of consolation? He has told us of our impurities; cannot he also tell us how to become clean? Alas, no! If we were "flasks or other apparatus," which we don't suppose we are, although old Buchan, in his *Domestic Medicine*, tells us that "a young baby is a bundle of delicate pipes," our surfaces might be chemically cleaned by washing them "with strong sulphuric acid, or with a strong solution of caustic potash, and then rinsing with water." This, we are told, "is generally sufficient." Should any of our readers, over-enthusiastic in the cause of cleanliness, venture to try these appliances on their own surfaces, they would find them more than "sufficient." The sulphuric acid would convert the skin into a black charred matter, while the potash would be scarcely less destructive.

How the French Fatten their Poultry.

Any of our countrymen who, from rheumatic gout, or any other ailment, may be sent to Vichy, would do well, as soon as they have sufficiently recovered the use of their legs, to pay a visit to the Villa Belvedere, where a very singular mode of fattening poultry has been for some time successfully pursued. A large circular building, admirably ventilated, and with the light partially excluded, is fitted up with circular cages, in tiers rotating on a central axis, and capable of being elevated, depressed, or rotated, which are so arranged that each bird has as it were, a separate stall, containing a perch. The birds are placed with their tails converging to a common center, while the head of each may be brought in front by a simple rotary movement of the central axis. Each bird is fastened to its cell by leathern fetters, which prevent movement, except of the head and wings, without occasioning pain. When the feeding time comes, the bird is enveloped in a wooden case, from which the head and neck alone appear, and which is popularly known as its "paletot," by which means all unnecessary struggling is avoided. The attendant (a young girl) siezes the head in her left hand, and gently presses the beak, in order to open it; then, with her right, she introduces into the gullet a tin tube about the size of a finger. This tube is united to a flexible pipe, which communicates with the dish in which the food has been placed, and from which the desired quantity is instantaneously injected into the stomach. The feeding process is so short that two hundred birds can be fed by one person in an hour. The food is a liquid paste, composed of Indian corn and barley saturated with milk. It is administered three times a day, in quantities varying according to the condition of each bird. The food seems to be very satisfactory, for if any chances to fall they devour it all as soon as they are released from their paletots. The poultry house is well ventilated; but, of course, it is impossible for any place where six hundred fowls are confined to be entirely free from smell. It takes about a fortnight to fatten a bird by this method. Before being killed the birds are left in a dark but well ventilated chamber for twenty-four hours without food. Each fowl is then taken up by its feet, is wrapped up so as to prevent all struggling, and then bled so adroitly in the throat that its death seems instantaneous. The blood is then allowed to flow from it, and finally, after being plucked, washed, and cleaned, it is wrapped in a damp cloth and is ready for sale. From forty to fifty fowls are thus killed and sold daily.

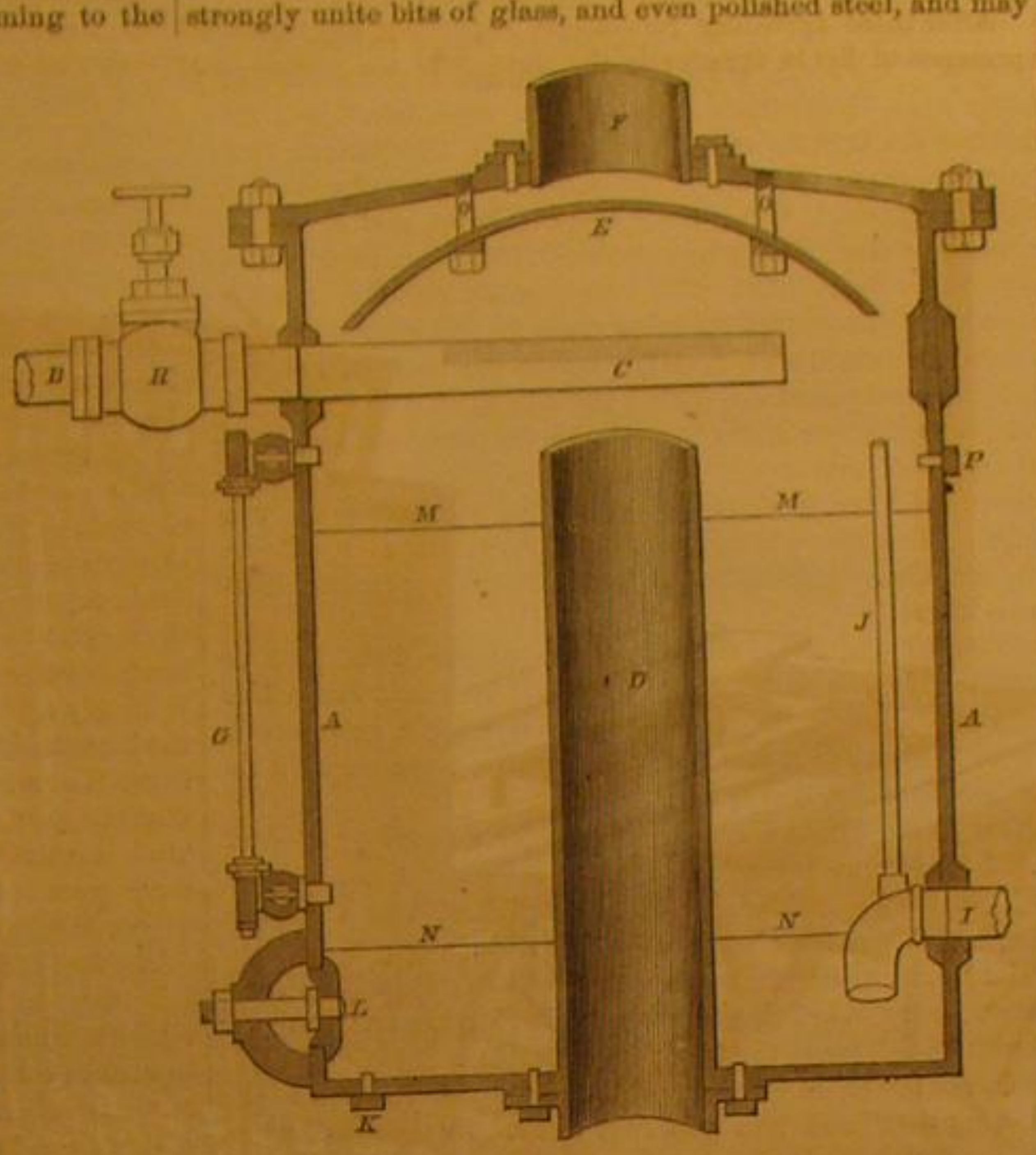
A New steam stone crusher now at work upon the new Capitol grounds at Albany, is said to be a success. It crushes large stones with ease into a size suitable to be used in making concrete for the foundation of the new Capitol.

Improved Device for Heating Feed Water for Boilers.

Among the many devices designed for heating the water before being thrown into the boiler, and for condensing the exhaust and depositing the salts held in solution by the water, the one herewith shown in section is among the simplest. A reference by letters to the engraving will be a sufficient description of the apparatus.

A is a cast iron or plate iron reservoir for the water, either circular or of any other form desired. B is the water supply pipe, perforated at C, on the top, through which perforations the water is forced by its head, or a pump, in fine jets. D is the pipe through which the exhaust steam from the engine enters. E is a concave plate, circular, or conforming to the form of the reservoir, against which the jets of water are thrown and from which they are deflected. F is the exhaust pipe for the escape of the surplus steam. G is the glass gage to denote the hight of water in the heater. H is the gate by which the supply of water through the pipe, B, is regulated. I is the pipe connecting with the pump. J is an air pipe connecting with the feed pipe, I, for arresting the flow of water to the boiler pump when reduced to the line, N, thereby preventing oil, tallow, or other floating substances from entering the boiler. K is a plug for carrying off sediment or for drawing off the water to prevent freezing. L is a handhole for cleaning; M, the highest point of water line; N, lowest point. O are bolts for detaching deflector, E, and P plug for overflow.

The exhaust steam from the engine enters through t e pipe, D, and, coming in contact with the cold spray from the sprinkler, C, instantly heats it to the boiling point, or the temperature of the steam. A portion of the steam is condensed and forms part of the boiler water supply, while the surplus passes off around the edges of the deflector and escapes through the pipe, F. The other portions of the apparatus, with their operation, are readily understood by a reference to the engraving.



WATERS' FEED-WATER HEATER.

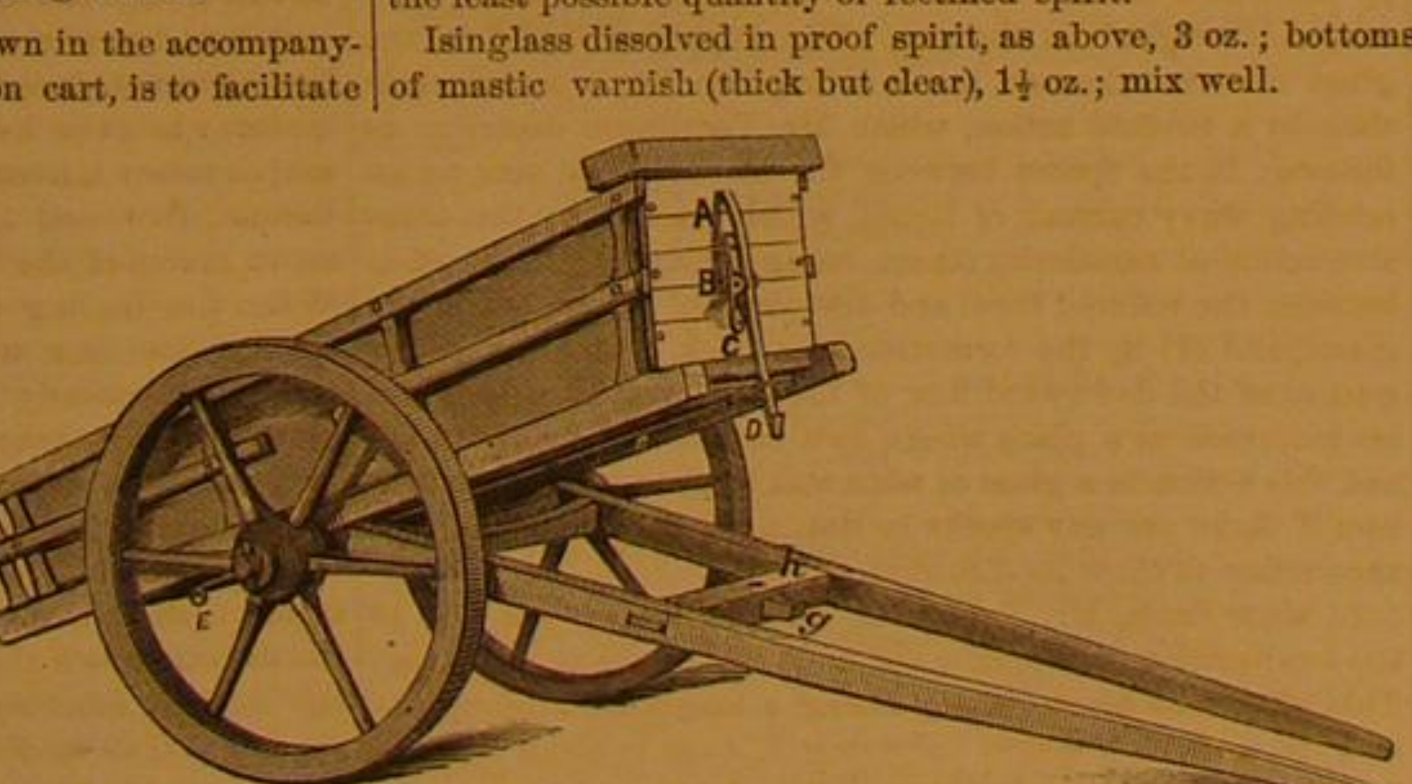
The patentees, having given it a fair trial, under many varying circumstances, and in connection with boilers of various types, believe that it furnishes the boiler with a full and steady supply of thoroughly heated water, raised to 212 deg. by means of the exhaust,, without producing any back pressure on the engine; that it prevents incrustation in the boiler by separating lime or other impurity from the water and retaining it in the heater, from which it can be readily removed through the hand-hole, L; saves fuel to the amount of from ten to twenty per cent by furnishing the water at a boiling heat or nearly so, relieving the engine of back pressure, and supplying water to the boiler pure and free from sediment, a bad conductor of heat; beneficial to the boiler for the causes above mentioned and because preventing unequal expansion of the iron by differences in the temperatures of the water. It is evident that the objects, if attained, will serve also, as a safeguard against explosions. Engineers and owners of boilers would do well to examine this heater

Patented April 5, 1864, and Feb. 18, 1868. All communications should be addressed to the Waters' Patent Heater Co., 41 Trumbull st., Hartford, Conn., or to the office of the company, 116 Nassau st., N. Y. city See advertisement on another page.

Improved Device for Tipping Carts.

The design of the simple device shown in the accompanying engraving as attached to a common cart, is to facilitate the tipping of a cart and the dumping of its load, being operated either at the front or rear by the simplest mechanism, not liable to get out of order and always at hand to perform its work.

A, in the engraving, is a catch lever pivoted at B to the front of the cart, having a spring, C, to hold it to its work, and terminating in a pawl or latch at D, that engages with a staple, *g*, secured to the cross bar or brace, *h*. To the lower end of the lever, A, is connected a rod passing under the cart and terminating at E, by which the catch may be worked by the driver when at the back of the cart.



APPLEGATE'S PATENT CART CATCH.

Attached to the lever or catch in front, and just above the latch, D, is an L-shaped slide, or rather a slide forming three sides of a square that serves to keep the catch, D, disengaged from the staple, *g*, after the catch has been unlatched, and locks it when in contact with the staple, it sliding freely, by its own weight, on the lever. This is not shown in the engraving. In operation the catch may be disengaged at the front by pressing upon the lower part of the lever catch, or by pulling the rod at the rear. The advantages of this device are apparent, and its simplicity is such that any country blacksmith can make, attach, or repair it readily.

Patented by Joseph H. C. Applegate, Dec. 29, 1868. Orders for state and county rights may be addressed as above, or to Garrison & Woodruff, P. O. Box 338, Bridgeton, N. J.

Cement for Glass and Metals.

This article, so much esteemed for uniting pieces of broken glass, for repairing precious stones, and for cementing them to watch-cases and other ornaments, is made by soaking isinglass in water until it becomes quite soft, and then mixing it with spirit in which a little gum mastic and ammoniacum have been dissolved.

The jewelers of Turkey, who are mostly Armenians, have a singular method of ornamenting watch-cases, etc., with diamonds and other precious stones, by simply glueing or cementing them on. The stone is set in silver or gold, and the lower part of the metal made flat, or to correspond with the part to which it is to be fixed; it is then warmed gently, and has the glue applied, which is so very strong that the parts thus cemented never separate. This glue, which will strongly unite bits of glass, and even polished steel, and may be applied to a variety of useful purposes, is thus made in Turkey: Dissolve five or six bits of gum mastic, each of the size of a large pea, in as much spirits of wine as will suffice to render it liquid; and in another vessel, dissolve as much isinglass, previously a little softened in water (though none of the water must be used), in French brandy or good rum, as will make a two ounce vial of very strong glue, adding two small bits of gum galbanum, or ammoniacum, which must be rubbed or ground till they are dissolved. Then mix the whole with a sufficient heat. Keep the glue in a vial closely stopped, and when it is to be used, set the vial in boiling water. Some persons have sold a composition under the name of Armenian cement, in England; but this composition is badly made; it is much too thin, and the quantity of mastic is much too small.

The following are good proportions; isinglass soaked in water and dissolved in spirit, 2 oz. (thick); dissolve in this 10 grains of very pale gum ammoniac (in tears), by rubbing them together; then add 6 large tears of gum mastic, dissolved in the least possible quantity of rectified spirit.

Isinglass dissolved in proof spirit, as above, 3 oz.; bottoms of mastic varnish (thick but clear), $1\frac{1}{2}$ oz.; mix well.

When carefully made, this cement resists moisture, and dries colorless. As usually met with, it is only of very bad quality, but sold at exorbitant prices.—*Cooley's Receipts.*

A CIVIL ENGINEER on the Pacific Railroad writes that he has seen a remarkable curiosity—a natural hot spring—up in Nevada, which he describes as situated in a crater one hundred and fifty feet long in one direction and seventy-five in the other—a mammoth bath tub in shape. The depth of the water is unknown, no lines brought here having been long enough to reach the bottom. In one part the water is just hot enough to enable the hand to be held in it, and the remainder varies from this to lukewarmness. The walls are nearly vertical, and you can imagine the luxury of a plunge into it, with no fear of striking bottom. Just think, too, of swimming about on a cold November day, with the rising steam deposited in frost upon the rocks, in water which is of a temperature perfectly luxurious. The water tastes slightly of sulphur, iron, and lime

NOTES ON THE VELOCIPEDE.

Thus far, the two-wheeled velocipedes maintain their ground sturdily against all rivals. While allowing the as yet superior grace and speed of this style of machine, we still are compelled to believe that *the* velocipede, destined to become a fixed fact as much as locomotives and steamboats, is not yet born. Our inventors are striving hard to bring forth this ideal vehicle, and from the combined efforts they are putting forth, it will be strange if they do not at last hit upon it.

Our enterprising neighbor, the *Sun*, is, as Sam Weller would say, "rather sewere" upon some of the new devices, it says:

"Before inventing a new velocipede, it would be advisable to become expert in riding those now in existence. Generally, our inventors have proceeded upon abstract principles, and have fallen into absurdities from which a little previous practical knowledge would have saved them. And yet, strange to say, we know of one instance in which practical knowledge led an inventor astray. He devised and built a velocipede on an entirely new principle. Theoretically he saw that it was a good thing; and he is a man of science as well as of sense, so that his theoretical opinion is of value. Having got it done, he tried to ride it, but failed. He could ride the ordinary machine very well, but this new-fangled apparatus was too much for him. In despair he took it to pieces, and never even sought a patent for it; and yet the same machine, invented and patented by another, is now regarded by experts as the most original and probably the most valuable contribution of the day to the new mode of locomotion. It is harder to learn than the ordinary machine; but though it is not yet fully tested, we anticipate for it a long and brilliant popularity among the votaries of velocipedestrian science. We hear also of one or two other novelties that are not without promise, and little additions to the comfort of riders are constantly made by manufacturers. One of the most valuable of these is the triangular movable pedal of Pickering, with which the feet can never be placed amiss upon the cranks. But, as we have said, most of the new contrivances are nonsense; though, as we have not examined those of Indiana, we still hope that so great a commonwealth may produce something of real and permanent worth."

Now, as our neighbor, in the above extract acknowledges the possibility of mistakes, even by theoretical and practical men, is it not probable that many of the devices which now meet its disapprobation, may turn out to be just the thing after all? It criticizes the one-wheeled velocipede, an English invention, an engraving of which we present below, as being liable to give its riders broken noses, but we might remind it of the feats of balancing performed on equally as unstable a basis as this contrivance appears. Would it be more difficult to keep upright upon such a wheel, than to sit in a chair balanced upon two legs, resting upon the rather uncertain substratum of a slack rope?

The engraving needs little explanation. The feet are placed on short stilts connected with the cranks, one on either side of the rim, while the rider sits upon a steel spring saddle over the center of the whole wheel. The inventor modestly limits the diameter of the wheel to twelve feet, and the number of revolutions at fifty per minute. Twenty-five miles per hour is the speed expected to be reached.

We also give an engraving of a steam velocipede. The cylinders and their attachments to the two driving wheels are not shown. They are placed vertically in front of the boiler, between it and the seat, and connect with cranks on the shaft of the driving wheels. The engraving shows the position of the boiler relatively to the other parts of the machine. The engine is a direct-acting compound engine of two cylinders, each cylinder $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter, and 5 inches stroke. The steering gear consists of an endless chain over a grooved wheel on the engine shaft, and passing over a corresponding wheel, fixed between the forked shaft just over the front wheel. The latter grooved wheel is a wide one, and over it passes another chain. This latter chain works round the boss of the front wheel. This arrangement gives power to the front wheel, so that in turning a corner, this wheel takes a wider sweep than the two driving-wheels, which go first. In traveling on a straight road (backwards) the machine is turned to either side by turning the steering wheel to the opposite side. The boiler is a vertical one, with four tubes 1½in. internal diameter, hanging down by the side of the firebox. The firegrate is cast with four holes in it to receive the bottom ends of the tubes, so as to help to hold them firmly. Hight of boiler, 2ft. 6in.; hight of firebox, 15in.; diameter of firebox, 11in.; diameter of boiler, 14in. The firebox and tubes are copper, pressure 200lb., but 25lb. of steam will be equal to a velocipede propelled by the feet. Great speed is expected from this velocipede.

Our attention has been called to the fact that notices of infringement are being served by the proprietors of a patent granted by the United States, in 1866, to Pierre Lallement, Paris, France, assignor to himself and James Carroll, of New Haven, Conn., upon various velocipede manufacturers throughout the country.

We herewith give the claim of this inventor and an engraving of the velocipede, taken from the report of the Commissioner of Patents.

VELOCIPEDE.—Pierre Lallement, Paris, France, assignor to himself and James Carroll, New Haven, Conn.—Dated Nov. 20, 1866.—The fore-wheel is axled in the jaws of a depending bar, which is pivoted in the frame, and turned by a horizontal lever bar. This wheel is revolved by a treadle-crank.

Claim.—The combination and arrangement of the two wheels, A and B, provided with the treadles, F, and the guiding arms, D, so as to operate substantially as and for the purpose herein set forth.

The inventor of this velocipede being an alien, proof that a velocipede similarly constructed had been introduced into this country previous to the date of application would render the patent void.

Proof that the patentee had neglected to put and continue the invention on sale within eighteen months after the date of the patent would also render it null.

The above patent does not cover the idea of making two-wheeled velocipedes, nor of applying the propelling power directly to the front wheel, nor of pivoting the wheels. It remains to be seen whether the use of foot-cranks, which appears to be the novel point, can be sustained.

Two-wheeled velocipedes, having the front wheel pivoted in the frame, and guided by a horizontal bar, were in use forty years ago, of which we will give an engraving in our next. These vehicles had no foot cranks, but were propelled by the hands by means of a toothed lever acting on the front wheel, also by pressure of the rider's feet upon the ground; either method separately, or both combined could be employed in propulsion, and a very high speed attained.

It is by no means certain that the "coming" velocipede is to be a two-wheeled vehicle. What is very much needed is a velocipede which shall be light, graceful, easy to mount, and easy of propulsion—something, in short, which everybody, young or old, can use with satisfaction, and without the constant fear of capsizing.

We lately saw on Broadway a very successful four-wheeled velocipede; the wheels were about as high as an ordinary buggy, and the rider moved it about with the greatest ease and rapidity.

There is a very wide field for study and improvement of the velocipede. The demand is far greater than the ability of makers to supply.

So far as we can ascertain, the following is a correct list of the patents granted in the United States for velocipedes up to January 1, 1869:

NAME.	RESIDENCE.	DATE.	No.
W. K. Clarkson	New York city	June 26, 1819	—
G. Parker	Providence, R. I.	November 21, 1825	—
L. Kelner	Brooklyn, N. Y.	January 12, 1858	19,092
S. W. Barr	Mansfield, Ohio	October 2, 1860	30,192
H. Boyd	Watertown, Wis	June 17, 1862	35,583
A. Longett	New York city	August 12, 1862	36,160
P. W. Mackenzie	Jersey City, N. J	January 19, 1864	41,310
J. Goodman	London, Eng	September 13, 1864	44,256
H. A. Reynolds	New York city	March 7, 1865	46,705
W. Quinn	Philadelphia, Pa	April 11, 1865	47,229
J. G. Wilkinson	Quincy, Ohio	March 13, 1866	53,209
H. A. Reynolds	New York city	April 24, 1866	54,707
P. Lallement	Paris, France	November 20, 1866	59,915
F. G. Hoeppner	New York city	May 7, 1867	64,416
C. A. Way	Charleston, N. H	November 26, 1867	71,561
"	"	"	71,562
M. Newman	Unadilla, N. J	January 7, 1868	73,029
L. Deroyter	New York city	February 4, 1868	74,058
W. G. Crossley	Cambridge, Eng	March 17, 1868	75,531
O. F. Gleason	Farmington, Me	May 5, 1868	77,478
B. P. Crandall	New York city	July 7, 1868	79,583
Hanlon Brothers	"	July 7, 1868	79,654
H. A. Reynolds	Brooklyn, N. Y	July 28, 1868	80,425
A. Christian	New York city	September 1, 1868	81,606
D. Hunt, Jr	Worcester, Mass	September 22, 1868	82,319
C. K. Bradford	Lynnfield, Mass	October 13, 1868	83,025
C. N. Cutter	Worcester, Mass	November 3, 1868	83,686
E. H. W. Blake	Chicago, Ill	November 17, 1868	84,163
S. M. Skidmore	Brooklyn, N. Y	December 29, 1868	85,277
S. A. Wood	Manitoc, Wis	December 29, 1868	85,501

The *Times*, of this city, has been taking a velocipede census, and announces that there are five thousand pupils in various stages of advancement in this city. The rooms of the numerous velocipede schools are open almost, like the restaurants, "at all hours," but still disappointed applicants for admission have to be turned away. The greatest difficulty is, however, to get the velocipedes, the demand being far ahead of the supply.

Philadelphia has recently produced a velocipede of an entirely new style. There are but two wheels, the seat sitting quite low between them. The novelty consists in a cog attached to the guiding-post, by means of which the rear wheel is made to follow directly in the track of the forward wheel. No matter how short the turn, both wheels make it at the same time, and the seat always remains parallel with the driving-wheel. In other machines there is no guide to the rear wheel, and consequently the machine cannot be turned so readily when a collision is threatened. The new machine, which is called the "Keystone," in honor of its native State, is substantially built, and so far as it has been tested in the riding school, is pronounced a success. How it will operate on the roads and in the parks, remains to be seen.

A correspondent of the *Evening Post* says:

"The velocipede fever continues to create excitement in Chicago. Two riding schools for instruction in the art of balancing upon these vehicles, have been established, and the machines are kept for sale at various places. Its perfectly level streets—many of them paved with wooden blocks—are admirably adapted to this species of propulsion, and several of its business men, living two or three miles from their offices, make their daily trips with two-wheeled vehicles, quickly leaving the discomfited horse-car men in the distance. The demand for velocipedes greatly exceeds the supply, and the smaller cities around are taking the contagion and sending in their orders. The lucky manufacturers must be reaping a rich harvest, and ought to reduce the present extortionate price of $100 and $125, as they doubtless will have to do eventually. Meantime Chicago hails any invention of a *fast* nature, and the velocipede is likely to become a practical institution there."

Hoosick Falls, N. Y., claims to have produced the first velocipede. It was built in 1821 by David Ball and Jason Burrill, and was an undoubted success. It was in existence as late as 1866, when it was destroyed by fire, together with the building in which it was kept.

New Bedford had a velocipede race for a silver cup recently. A large number were present and there was much excitement. The distance to be accomplished was a quarter mile, which was ten times around the rink.

The "velocipede mania" has also broken out in Rome.

Rev. Henry Ward Beecher, in a recent lecture on "Rational Amusements," made the following remarks:

"One of the great questions of the day was in relation to the "coming man" and how he was to come. He thought he was coming on a velocipede—a new machine that was bound to play a prominent part in the category of amusements—a toy to some, an instrument of pleasure and great use to others. He had purchased two for his own boys and there was every probability of him riding on one himself. He was not too old to learn, but he hoped it would not be said that the velocipede was his hobby. His auditors were not too old to learn, and he would not at all be surprised to see, in a short time hence, a thousand velocipedists wheeling their machines to Plymouth church."

A riding school for ladies hasbeen started in this city, on Fifth avenue corner of Fourteenth street, at what is known as the Somerville Art Gallery, which has two fine halls, each with an area of over 3,000 square feet. One of these halls will be set apart for beginners and the other for those more advanced. An exchange says:

"With a proper teacher of their own sex, and with suitable dresses for the preliminary practice, ladies can obtain such a command over the velocipede in one week's practice, of an hour daily, that they can ride side-saddle-wise with the utmost ease."

From the New York Sun.

HANS BREITMANN'S SHTORY APOUT SCHNITZERL'S PHILOSOPEDE.

Herr Schnitzerl make a philosopede
 Von of de newest kind;
It vent mitout a vheel in front,
 And hadn't none pehind.
Von vheel was in de mittel, dough,
 And it vent as sure as ecks,
For he shtraddled on de axel dree
 Mit der vheel petween his lecks.

Und ven he vant to shtart id off
 He paddlet mit his veet,
Und soon he cot to go so vast
 Dat avery dings he peat.
He run her out on Broader shtreet,
 He shkeeted like de vind,
Hei! how he bassed de vancy craps,
 And lef dem all pehind!

De vellers mit de trotting nags
 Pooled oop to see him bass;
De Deutschers all erstaunished saidt:
 "*Potztausend! Was ist das?*"
Boot vaster shtill der Schnitzerl flewed
 On—mit a gashtly smile:
He tidn't tooch de dirt, py shings!
 Not vonce in half a mile.

Oh, vot ish all dis eartly pliss?
 Oh, vot ish man's soocksess?
Oh, vot ish various kinds of dings?
 Und vot ish hobbiness?
Ve find a pank note in de shtreedt,
 Next dings der pank ish preak;
Ve folls, und knocks our outsides in,
 Ven ve a ten shtrike make.

So vas it mit der Schnitzerlein
 On his philosopede;
His feet both shlipped outsideward shoost
 Vhen at his extra shpede.
He felled oopon der vheel of coorse;
 De vheel like blitzen flew;
Und Schnitzerl he vos schnitz in vact
 For id shlished him grod in two

Und as for his philosopede,
 Id cot so shkared, men say,
It pounded onward till it vent
 Ganz teufelwards afay.
Boot vhere ish now der Schnitzerl's soul?
 Vhere does his shpirit pide?
In Himmel troo de endless plue,
 It takes a medeor ride.

CHAS. G. LELAND.

A MUSEUM OF THE ELEMENTS OF MACHINERY.

The Massachusetts Institute of Technology, having successfully organized its Society of Arts and its School of Applied Science, is now about to organize and establish the third department of the Institute, namely, a Museum of Arts. The Society of Arts has been in successful operation for six years; the School opened in 1865, has already twenty teachers and one hundred and seventy-five students, and is the largest scientific or technological school in the country. The creation of the Museum of Arts, contemplated from the beginning, is just now taken in hand. The whole scope and range of usefulness of such a Museum is by no means to be foreseen at its start. It must be developed gradually; and its best growth will not be favored by too rigid plans at the outset.

But in the mechanical department of the Museum, using the term "mechanical" in its most comprehensive sense, a general plan of a certain novelty and of much interest to inventors, has already been adopted and promulgated by the Curator of the Museum, Mr. S. P. Ruggles, of Boston, a gentleman well-known to many of our readers as a successful inventor.

Mr. Ruggles and the Committee of the Institute upon the Museum do not propose to copy the unwieldy collections of models of complete machines, which have elsewhere been made at such cost of time and money, and with such feeble results in facilitating new invention. Machines are incessantly superseded in whole or in part; the models of to-day are not the working patterns of to-morrow; most machines, if not in work, deteriorate rapidly. To keep a printing press in order requires the constant attention of a skillful workman. A model of a locomotive, or of a sea-going steamer, just finished, is next year only a bit of history. An inventor who wants to study the best machine in any department of industry, will not go to see it at a museum where it is not in operation; he will visit the shop, mill, or forge where the newest machine of the kind is most successfully working. Moreover, such collections soon outgrow all reasonable limits of space, and the proper care of them drains the deepest purse.

The Institute of Technology, therefore, proposes to make a collection of the elements of machinery, and the simple combinations of those elements. Machines consist of infinitely various combinations of simpler parts which repeat themselves in different proportions or modifications. Mr. Ruggles wishes to make a tangible encyclopedia of these elements of machinery. He proposes to collect and make working models of all the elements, of all the varieties of reciprocating motions, for example, of all the devices for converting a reciprocating into a rotatory motion, or a rotatory into a reciprocating, of all the varieties of cam motions, of quick and slow screws, so combined as to give both speed and power, of eccentric gear combinations, of reversing movements, of contrivances for pressing by means of screws, toggle-joints, cams, and levers, of the different escapement arrangements for watches and clocks, of universal joints like the gimbal and ball and socket joints, and of all other primary mechanical devices by which force and motion are transmitted, directed, or modified. These models are to be classified by subject, catalogued with precision, and placed in cabinets in the order of subjects.

The singular advantages of this plan for a Museum of Machinery are apparent at a glance. In the first place, it would be of manageable bulk. Secondly, it would never grow old. The elements of machinery are worked over and over again into new machines, just as the words of a language are constantly run into new sentences. The writers change; style and usage are insensibly modified from generation to generation; but the roots of the language remains for centuries. Thirdly, such a collection can always be added to with ease; as is the case with a card catalogue in a great library, additions, from time to time, as new inventions of elements were made, would make it more comprehensive without rendering the older material less accessible or less useful. Lastly, a collection of models of the elementary parts of machines would be more profitable for study than a collection of models or pictures of complete machines. The simpler should go before the more complex. The real object is far more intelligible than a drawing or a description. The students of the school, inventors, and the public generally would get more genuine instruction from such an analytical museum than from a much larger and more costly collection of actual machinery. A machine can rarely be fully seen and comprehended by persons not experts without being taken apart; in very many machines the really peculiar and significant parts are overlaid with less instructive appendages; the characteristic idea is hidden under a mass of commoner stuff. Yet it is the characteristic invention in each machine which is its most instructive portion.

The proposed classification of models of the elements of machinery would be of especial service to inventors. A mechanical invention consists generally in a new combination of mechanical elements, so as to produce a machine having some new capacity or functions; but the inventor is too often unacquainted with the known elements and simple combinations of machinery. No collection contains them in an accessible form; no catalogue or index directs him to the movements which he needs in his new design. The elements of machinery are not in every day use among all people, like the elements of language in common speech and familiar writings, but are hidden away in the machinery of scattered shops and factories. The inventor too often has to re-invent, at great expense of thought and money, elements or combinations which have long been in use, but which he has never seen. Even then he may not devise as good methods of producing the desired effects as have been previously invented and are at his disposition if he only knew of them. The work of the inventor, like that of the author, is emphatically brain-work. But inventors have no such aids in their labor as literary men have. The proposed museum, with its catalogues and indexes would aid inventors, somewhat as libraries, dictionaries, and gazetteers help authors. An inventor, meditating upon his design, sees that he has need of some peculiar movement; but he knows no means of producing that movement. He consults Mr. Ruggles' classified collection of elementary movements, and sees at once among the various screw movements, for example, that a combination of quick and slow screws is capable of producing the particular movement which he has need of. He is thus saved the labor of inventing for his purpose. This is not an imaginary problem, but one which often actually occurs. Many simple and familiar contrivances are constantly re-invented. Examples will occur to all inventors. Who can tell how often the Archimedean screw has been discovered? Even the cam is constantly invented anew. Inventors have hitherto been too much left to their own unaided mental resources. Dictionaries and glossaries do not replace genius, nor make one talent go as far as ten; but they are important aids to genius, and they enable common men to do much accurate and useful work. So the collection of elementary models, which Mr. Ruggles proposes to bring together, will not diminish the field for inventive genius; but it will instruct inventors as a class in what has already been done, and it may be expected to prevent in some measure the waste of time and strength involved in re-invention.

People believe in a vague way that inventors are an important class in the community; but few fully realize the importance of lending them every possible aid in their civilizing work. The American community is made possible by American and foreign invention. The crops of the West could neither be harvested nor brought to their distant markets without the mechanical reapers, rakes, threshers, hullers, elevators, and cheap railways by which they are handled. The American dwelling-house is full of devices, great and small, to promote the comfort or luxury of its inmates. Education and liberty owe much to the inventors of power printing-presses. By the telegraph, the railways, and the swift steamers, this continental republic is made practically smaller than little England was fifty years ago. One man, with the aid of coal and the mechanical appliances which inventors have created, can do more work, or produce more wealth in a day than a thousand could without these aids.

The Massachusetts Institute of Technology is therefore undertaking an important work in establishing this Museum of Arts. It appeals with confidence to inventors, and constructors of machinery for working drawings, not of entire machines, but of the *characteristic parts* of their inventions or constructions; and it asks all men who are interested in promoting the progress of the mechanic arts for such aid, in money or influence, as they can give.

Inventors, constructors, and all persons interested, are earnestly requested to contribute to this Museum detailed drawings of the peculiar elementary features of such inventions as are within their knowledge, accompanied by the necessary descriptions. If working drawings cannot be furnished, sketches with full descriptions will be available substitutes.

THE HADROSAURUS ON THE STAGE.

From the New York Evening Post.

At the lecture of Professor Waterhouse Hawkins, before the American Institute, on the evening of January 27th, the audience were taken completely by surprise by the unveiling of the restored skeleton of a huge reptile called the "Hadrosaurus." The restored monster, supported by strong iron braces, was fourteen feet eight inches high, entire length along the back twenty-five feet, and length of tail alone, twelve feet. He had been skilfully concealed behind curtains, which, covered with diagrams, left no suspicion of anything behind them. At the proper moment, the curtains were dropped and the animal stood out in full view.

The Hadrosaurus was described and named by Joseph Leidy, of Philadelphia, who gives the following account of its discovery:

"Attention was first called to the discovery of the remains of the Hadrosaurus in the autumn of 1858, by W. Parker Foulke, of Philadelphia, member of the Academy of Natural Sciences, a gentleman who has always displayed a great interest in the advancement of the objects of the latter institution. While passing the season at Haddonfield, Camden county, New Jersey, Mr. Foulke learned from one of his neighbors, John E. Hopkins, that in digging marl upon his farm twenty years back, there had been found a number of large bones. These were said to have consisted mainly of vertebræ, and had been gradually distributed among visitors who were curious in such objects, so that none remained in the possession of Mr. Hopkins. In the hope of finding additional portions of the skeleton, with the permission of the latter gentleman, Mr. Foulke employed men to search in the place of the old excavation. This was situated in a narrow ravine, through which a brook flowed eastwardly into the south branch of Cooper's Creek. At the depth of nine feet from the surface the men were successful in finding numerous bones. These were imbedded in a stratum of tenacious bluish black micaceous clay, in association with a multitude of shells, an echinoderm, several small teeth and vertebræ of fishes, acoprolite, and some fossilized coniferous wood.

After a careful examination of the osseous remains, Leidy came to the conclusion that the Hadrosaurus Foulkii was a reptile of huge proportions, and of the same habits of life as the great Iguanodon of the wealden and cretaceous deposits of Europe. A study of the teeth showed it to be a vegetable feeding reptile, one which masticated its food like the herbivorous mammalia.

The few scattered bones of the fossil were preserved in the Museum of Natural History in Philadelphia, and after careful measurements during the past summer, a labor requiring nearly six months of the closest study, Mr. Hawkins has been able to restore the animal in the exact size and proportions of life. It is doubtful whether any other living man could have accomplished this remarkable feat, but Mr. Hawkins brings to bear the experience acquired in the restoration of thirty-six extinct animals for the gardens of the Crystal Palace at Sydenham, and we can place entire confidence in the accuracy of the work. The Commissioners of the Central Park propose to erect a grand geological saloon, in which are to be placed the restored figures of the animals found in our own country. Upon the walls of the saloon, or building, will be fresco paintings illustrating the vegetation of the period during which the animals lived, and along the sides will be placed the actual geological specimens and fossil remains found with the skeleton.

A stuffed specimen of the nearest living representative of the genus will also be preserved in the museum of the Park. The Commissioners are worthy of the highest praise for the conception of a plan so fraught with instruction and amusement to the citizens of New York, and they are to be congratulated upon having secured the services of an artist, naturalist, and mechanic, so capable as Mr. Hawkins of carrying their wishes into execution.

The other animals to be restored are two specimens of Laelaps and the Elasmosaurus platyarus—all of them very comfortable to look at in a defunct state, but very inconvenient to have about if clothed in flesh and blood. We hope that the work, when completed, will give such an impulse to the study of geology and the natural sciences in our city as to arouse our citizens to a consciousness of the fact that there is no public museum of any sort in New York in which studies of this kind can be carried on, and that whoever now wishes for information upon such subjects is obliged to seek for it in Boston or Philadelphia. When our citizens fairly comprehend the disgrace of such a condition of scientific destitution, we may hope for steps to be taken to remove it, and the labors of the Central Park Commissioners will greatly aid the good work.

Mr. Hawkins' style of lecturing, combined with his graphic illustrations on the blackboard, added very greatly to the interest of the occasion. Without interrupting the flow of ideas, and while explaining the unity of plan in creation, and the anatomy of reptiles, he would, with a few strokes of his pencil, make each bone and joint grow under his hand, simultaneously with the description, so that when the story was ended the restored animal was completely delineated upon the canvas. The marvelous skill with the crayon, combined with the profound scientific knowledge of the lecturer, fixed the attention of the audience and frequently elicited spontaneous bursts of applause. The lecture was full of valuable information, and was one of the most interesting of the course.

The appearance of the Hadrosaurus upon a New York stage must be pronounced a great success, and we congratulate our neighbors of New Jersey upon being well rid of such specimens of natural history.

Curiosities of Minute Handicraft.

Sometime ago, there dwelt not far from Lambeth Palace, in London, an ingenious mechanic named Thomas Smith, since dead, who devoted a large portion of his valuable life to the production of machines and models of almost microscopic dimensions. A writer in the *Gentleman's Magazine* visited Smith's workshop and furnishes the following interesting account of what he saw:

Beginning with the larger of his productions, the first object to which he directs our attention is a small steam-pumping engine for working a table fountain. All the adjuncts that pertain to a great pumping engine are to be found in this diminutive model. There was even the gage glass on the front of the boiler, as slender as a good sized needle, and fitted with taps at each end, in the nozzles of which a pin could hardly be inserted. The whole thing worked to perfection, without rattling or any escape of steam from the engine or water from the pumps, and will throw a small jet of water in a distant part of the room to a height of twelve feet. The majority of working models of small dimensions are usually clumsy affairs, whose parts are made more according to the convenience of the workman than with reference to the work they have to do, and the strength that is expected in them; but to the credit of our micro-mechanic, be it said, that he scorns this rule of thumb style business. Some of his screws are not more than the eighteenth part of an inch thick, and these are furnished with hexagon-headed heads, and nuts perfectly shaped. Mr. Smith's powers enable an inventor to exhibit to his patrons the real working machine on a small scale.

At the time of our visit a number of diminutive garden pumps, small enough to be carried in the waistcoat pocket, are scattered over the work benches in various stages of completion. These are for the use of agents and commercial travellers trading with such articles. But the above-described curiosities are huge compared with those next set before us. We are introduced to a model of the famous Great Britain, made to a scale of 1-40th of an inch to the foot, so that the length of the model is about eight inches, and breadth about 1½ inch. It is full-rigged, with six masts and their accompanying spars, and all the hatchways and deck fittings. The deck of this tiny vessel is lifted off and a magnifier is handed to us; this resolves a little heap of metal scraps into an accurate model of the original engines with which the Great Britain was fitted. So small is this model that it stands upon less space than the area of a shilling. The idea of such a model working seems preposterous, and we hesitate about asking whether it does or not. We are not long left in doubt. An annular trough of water is produced, and the ship is launched into the watery circuit. A tap is turned, and compressed air rushes through a tube and off goes the tiny ship to circumnavigate its little sea. There is no illusion, no trickery in this exhibition, the diminutive engines as really and truly work and drive the boat as do those of any steamer on the seas. The total weight of the boat, with deck and rigging, engines, boiler, and all entire, is less than a troy ounce! The actual weight of the working part of the engines—that is all excepting the boiler—is just that of a sovereign.

Having examined some other "practical models," one of which, the writer says, was "enshrined in a small pill-box," he proceeds to give "a few details concerning the microscopic edition of the Warrior's engines. "This tiniest working model in the world is now in the possession of John Penn (of Greenwich), the eminent maker of the great engines of which it is the infinitely reduced counterpart. It will stand on a threepenny-piece; it really covers less space, for its base-plate measures only 3-8th of an inch by about 3-10th. The engines are of the trunk form introduced by Penn; the cylinders measure 1-8th of an inch diameter, and the trunk 1-20th. The length of stroke is 3-40th of an inch. They are fitted with reversing gear, and are generally similar in design to the great machines with which ships of the Warrior class are equipped. From the extreme smallness of this model a few minutiæ—such, for instance, as the air pumps—have necessarily been omitted; there is a limit beyond which human skill and minuteness cannot pass. Still, so small are some of the parts that they require a powerful magnifying glass to see their form. The screws which hold the members together are only 1-80th of an inch diameter, and these are all duly furnished with hexagonal nuts, which can be loosened and tightened by a Liliputian spanner. The whole weight of the model is less than a threepenny-piece. It works admirably, and when working its crank-shaft performs from twenty to thirty thousand revolutions in a minute. It was made at a time when Mr. Smith, who suffers from a trying disease, was unable to move from a sitting posture; and the time spent upon it is reckoned at about three months ordinary labor. For such works as the above what must the tools be? We are shown drills and files of his own manufacture; our wonder is how any but a fairy's hand can wield them. The digits of our micro-mechanic are flat and large, and those of a workman usually are. We have heard a dancer described as a being with brains in his toes. Mr. Smith albeit has plenty of brains in his head, and must have, in addition, a very large proportion in his finger ends."

More Room for the Interior Department.

Mr. Fessenden, from the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds, reported to the Senate a joint resolution authorizing the Secretary of the Interior to so change and alter that part of the Interior Department building known as the north wing thereof, on the floor occupied for the storage and exhibition of patent models, as to convert the same into rooms for use of the officers and clerks of the said Department; and appropriates $50,000 for such purpose, to be expended under the direction of the Secretary and the Architect of the Capitol extension, upon plans and estimates to be furnished by said architect and approved by the said Secretary. The second section authorizes the Secretary of the Interior to lease for a period not exceeding one year, with the privilege of continuing the same from year to year for five years, at a yearly rent not exceeding $10,000, the fire-proof building on G street, for the use of the Department of the Interior, and appropriates $10,000 for that purpose. Section third authorizes the Secretary of the Interior to remove from the floor of the said Department building now occupied for the storage and exhibition of models, whenever, in his judgment, the accumulation of such models may render the same expedient, all such models as relate to applications of patents not granted, and all such as may be or may have been in said Department for a longer period than seventeen years; and to store such as may be deemed worth preserving in such parts of said Department building as may not be wanted for other purposes, and to dispose of the residue as he may think best, by sale or otherwise.

Enameling of Iron Vessels.

The enameling of saucepans and other articles in wrought or cast iron has long been practiced, a very fusible enamel reduced to powder being sprinkled over the surface of the iron when heated to redness; but as the mixtures employed consist of highly alkaline silicates, the enamel is not very durable, and will not withstand acids or even salt liquids. An improved process has been introduced in France. The metallic surface is brought in contact with the ingredients of ordinary white glass, and heated to vitrification; the iron is said to to oxidize by combination with silicic acid, and the glass thus forms one compact body with the metal. The coating of enamel may be laid on as thinly or as thickly as desired, but a thin coating is better as regards the effect of expansion or dilatation. Experiments are being made in coating the armor plates for ships in the manner above indicated.

AT the recent meeting of the Royal Dublin Society, in Ireland, the subject of introducing beet root sugar manufacture in Ireland was discussed in a very able paper read by Sir Robert Kane. He showed that it could be raised there in such quantities as to supply Great Britain and other countries with sugar. With the great advantages that Ireland possessed for the growth of root crops, he had been assured by many leading agriculturists that the prices paid on the Continent would be remunerative in that country, the soil and climate being preëminently favorable.

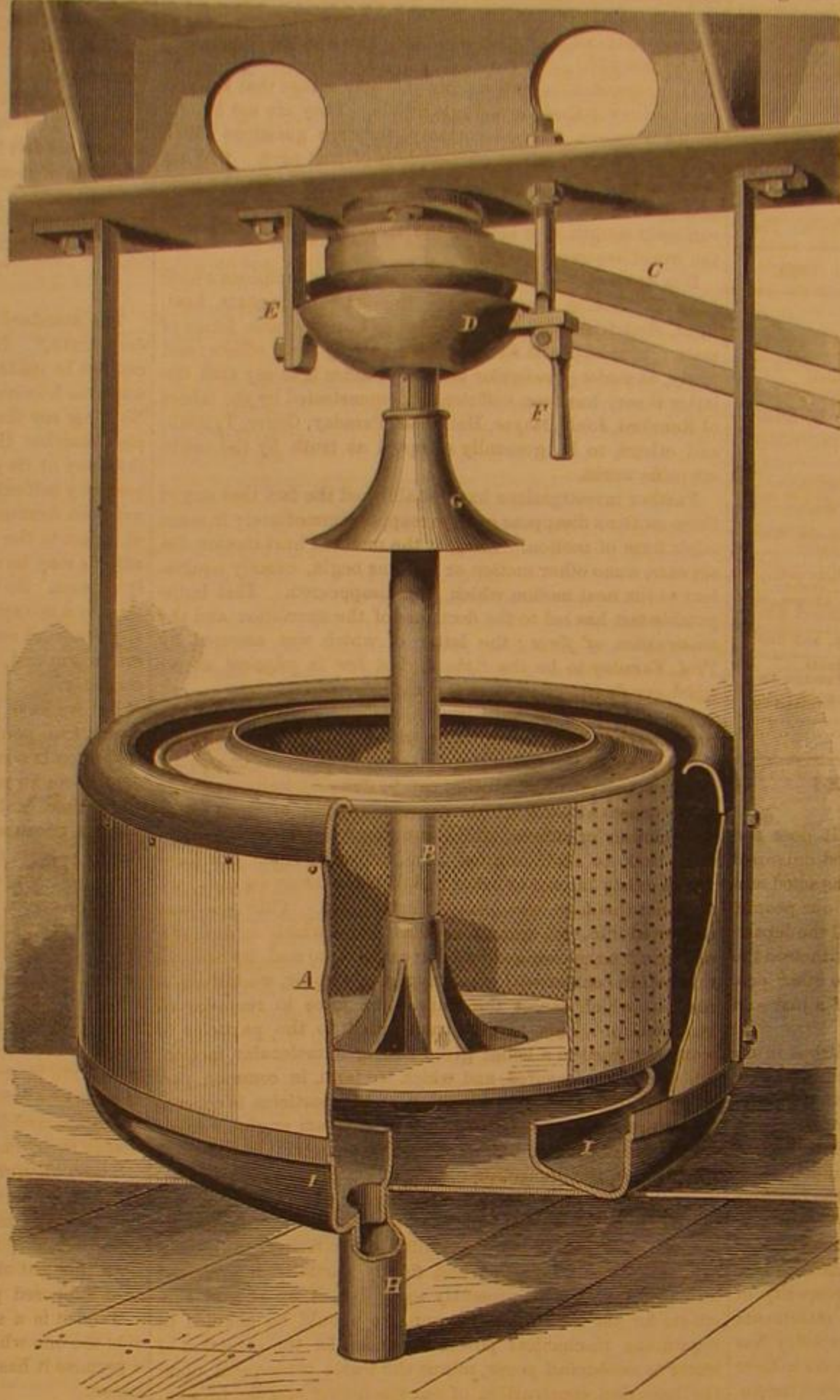
Improvement in Centrifugal Machines.

On page 9, No. 1, of Vol. XIX. Scientific American, we made some statements in regard to centrifugal machines designed for separating the molasses or sirup from sugar, and for other purposes, and gave some facts showing the advantages of Weston's improved machine over those in common use. These machines are used not only for graining sugar, but for drying clothes in laundries, for drying wool after being washed and colored, for bleaching, extracting tannin from spent bark, and for many other similar purposes, and are known as "Hydro-Extractors." The published article to which we refer gives a very good idea of the machine and its advantages. The accompanying engraving gives a view of Weston's improved machine.

Inside the suspended case, A, is hung a cylinder composed outwardly of sheet cast steel, perforated, as seen, and inwardly of brass-wire gauze. This cylinder is suspended by the spindle, B, which is hollow and receives an interior fixed spindle around which it revolves. The fixed spindle has a bearing near its lower end consisting of a series of convex washers of hardened steel filling the area of the inside diameter of the revolving hollow spindle, and diminishing friction by its distribution through their number. At its top this spindle is headed, the head bearing on a sleeve of india rubber held in an iron socket or bracket. This gives a chance for vibration of the cylinder in its revolutions. A pulley at the top of the spindle driven by a belt, C, gives rapid motion directly to the cylinder, and under it, and revolving with it, is a bowl-shaped casting turning inside a similar bowl, D, that is lined with wood or leather and fixed to a stud, E. At its opposite side is a snug resting on a hand lever, F, by which the dishing piece, D, may be brought in contact with that inside it, operating as a brake to stop the machine when a charge is to be removed. This removal is effected simply by dumping the sugar through openings in the center of the cylinder, which, when the machine is in operation, are covered by the cone, G, seen in the engraving raised and held by a spring catch. The outer case, A, is suspended by bars bolted either to beams or iron girders overhead. As the molasses or sirup is thrown off from the sugar, it is forced by centrifugal motion through the interstices of the net or gauze, and the holes in the steel casing, and discharged through the spout, H, to which the inclined bottom, I, of the shell leads.

The elasticity of the rubber allows a certain amount of gyration to the suspended cylinder due to the unequal distribution of the load when the machine first starts. This gyration or eccentric motion soon ceases, and the machine finds its own center, and runs without jar. The friction, inseparable from the old style of machine, is greatly reduced, and also the amount of power necessary to drive it.

This improvement was patented by D. M. Weston, and the machines are manufactured by Merrick & Sons, 430 Washington avenue, Philadelphia, Pa., to whom, or to their agent, George Birkbeck, 62 Broadway, New York, all orders should be addressed.



WESTON'S PATENT IMPROVED CENTRIFUGAL.

Manufacture of the French Atlantic Cable.

The manufacture of the telegraphic cable, which it is proposed to submerge between France and America next summer, proceeds with satisfactory rapidity. The cable is to start from the French coast at or near Brest, and to be laid across the Atlantic to the French island of St. Pierre, off the American continent, a distance of 2,325 miles. Communication with the main land will be effected by means of an additional line, which will be laid from the island to probably some point in the State of New York. This will represent a further distance of about 722 miles, so that the whole length of two sections of the system will be about 3,047 nautical miles. These figures, however, only indicate the length in miles as it would be calculated without reference to submergence. A certain amount of slack cable will be necessary for the process of "paying out," and also a provision against such an accident as that which caused the failure of the Cuba and Florida expedition. With the addition of slack line, then, the deep-sea cable—the longer section—will be about 2,788 miles, including 145 miles for shore ends, and the auxiliary line, 776 miles, so that, altogether, a total length of 3,564 nautical miles of line will be manufactured for the purposes of the proposed expedition. The consistence of the deep-sea cable will be similar to that of the Atlantic lines already submerged. The insulated core is strengthened with "a serving" of tanned jute, and is protected with ten galvanized homogeneous iron wires, served helically round the core, each iron wire being first strengthened with strands of Manilla hemp saturated with tar. The shore ends attached to the deep-sea cable will be of different weights, an intermediate section next the main line weighing about six tuns, and the heavy end of the shore about twenty tuns. The heavy shore end will be of great strength, as it will have an ordinary sheathing served with hemp, and another with stranded wires, servings of hemp and asphalt forming an additional protection. An ordinary wire sheathing of ten galvanized iron wires will be used in the construction of the section which will connect the island of St. Pierre with the continent of America. This covering will be also protected with servings of hemp and asphalt. In the construction of the cable the greatest care is observed that all the materials employed in its manufacture be of unquestionable excellence. The copper wire received at the gutta-percha works, where the insulated core is being made, is first tested that its quality and conducitivity may be ascertained. When it has passed the necessary tests, it is forthwith prepared for forming the conductor, which consists of a strand of seven wires. In this part of the manufacture, the center wire is passed through a bath containing a mixture of tar and gutta-percha, known as "Chatterton's compound," before it receives any of the remaining six wires, which are subsequently woven round it—the object of this process being to prevent water permeating through the strands of the conductor. The stranded conductor then receives alternate coats of Chatterton's compound and gutta-percha until it assumes the required consistence. The core for the deep-sea cable is to be of the following weight: conductor, 400 pounds; insulator, 400 pounds; total, 800 pounds per mile; for the shallower section, conductor, 107 pounds; insulator, 150 pounds; total, 257 pounds per mile. It may be incidentally remarked that the insulated core is larger than that of any other cable hitherto reconstructed, if the old Malta and Alexandria line be alone excepted. When the core has been insulated it is kept for twenty-four hours in water at a temperature of 75 deg. Fah., and is then subjected to a series of electrical tests. Having passed this examination, it is wound round drums and forwarded to the works, where the final sheathing is put on, and it is then coiled away in tanks until its removal to the ship from which it is to be "paid out." Most favorable reports of the progress of the manufacture have, we understand, been given by the electricians who have tested the portion of the cable already constructed. Joints in the core have frequently presented serious difficulties to engineers, and others engaged in the extension of submarine telegraphy; in the case of the new line it is probable that these difficulties will be almost entirely obviated, for, of 320 joints examined, only one has been found in any degree defective. About 600 miles of the deep-sea cable have been already manufactured, at the rate of about eighty-five miles a week. The *Great Eastern* is being fitted up with tanks for the reception of the cable. These will be three in number, of which the largest will be 75 feet in diameter and 16½ feet high. The cable will be conveyed to the "big ship" in hulks filled with water-tight tanks.—*New York Tribune.*

Proposed Tunnel Under Dover Straits.

The project of tunneling a passage from England to France is still discussed in England, and plans have been submitted to the Emperor Napoleon for his approval. Probably the success with which the Mount Cenis tunnel has been worked through the solid backbone of the Alps has attracted new attention to a scheme which, on the face of it, seems far from being impracticable. It must be remembered, however, that the difficulties to be encountered in tunneling beneath the Straits of Dover are of a totally different character from those which the French engineers have had to meet with in tunneling through the Alps. The soil to be traversed in the former instance would probably be the "second chalk formation," which may be assumed to extend in an unbroken course from the place of its uprising in England to the place in which it makes its appearance in France. It need hardly be said that the difficulty of perforating this soil would be very much less than of perforating the hard and complicated material which has been encountered by the French engineers. On the other hand, however, there are dangers and difficulties in tunneling under the Straits which more than make up for the comparative ease with which the mere process of perforation could be pursued. It needs but a slight acquaintance with the history of the construction of the Thames tunnel to enable one to recognize the fact that the workers in the suggested tunnel beneath the Straits would be exposed to enormous risks from the effect of the pressure of the sea upon the stratum through which they would have to work. Again and again the water burst into the Thames tunnel, and drove the workmen out. Brunel himself nearly lost his life during one of these irruptions. Now if this happened beneath the Thames, what might be looked for from the effects of the enormous pressure of sea—to say nothing of the increased danger during heavy storms? And then the workmen in the Thames tunnel had but a comparatively short distance to run, when they were threatened with an irruption of water. If such an event threatened workmen engaged nine or ten miles from either outlet of the suggested tunnel, escape would be hopeless. In a short time the whole length of the tunnel would be filled with the waters of the sea, and the labors of years would be rendered useless.

We urge these considerations, however, not as deprecating the suggested attempt. Doubtless the dangers which we have pointed out may be surmounted by a judicious choice of the stratum to be worked through and by cautious progress—defences being continually prepared around every fresh portion tunneled. The experience gained during the tunneling of the Thames shows that much can be done in that way; and we also have every reason to believe that once a tunnel was constructed it would be as safe as the Thames tunnel now is. There are difficulties in the way of ventilation, but such difficulties as these have to be dealt with (and have been most successfully dealt with) in the construction of the Mount Cenis tunnel. Three eminent engineers, Messrs. Hawshaw, Brunlees, and Lowe, have pronounced the plan to be feasible; and the estimated cost—nine millions sterling—though large, is still reasonable when the value of the tunnel is considered.

Certainly the idea is at once a bold and an attractive one. Nature's barriers are being, one after another, overcome. Now a mountain is tunneled, then an isthmus is cut through, next the Falls of Niagara are spanned by a railway bridge. Hitherto, however, sea straits have not been successfully attacked, except where—as in the case of the Menai Straits—they are of very moderate extent. When voyagers can pass to France without encountering the terrors of sea-sickness, a veritable triumph will have been achieved over nature.

Bleaching Wood Pulp.

A process of bleaching wood pulp has been made known by M. Orioli. He has recognized that chloride of lime however little in excess, has a tendency to produce a yellow tint; that all the strong acids turn the paste red under the action of the sun, or in some time without sunlight, in the presence of moisture; that the slightest trace of iron is sufficient to blacken the paste in a very short time. These objectionable results are obviated by the following mixture: For 100 kilogrammes of wood pulp 800 grammes of oxalic are employed, this serving the double purpose of bleaching the coloring matter already oxidized and of neutralizing the alkaline principles favorable to oxidation; 2 kilogrammes of sulphate of alumina, perfectly free from iron, are added. The principal agent in this new process is the oxalic acid, the energetic action of which on vegetable matters is well known. The sulphate of alumina added does not bleach of itself, but it forms with the coloring matter of the wood a nearly colorless lake, which enables the brilliancy of the product to be heightened.

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(Illustrated articles are marked with an asterisk.)

IS OUR PATENT SYSTEM DEFECTIVE?

The American patent system, recognizing as it does the rightful claim of the first inventor, has challenged universal admiration. Since its re-organization in 1836, it has acted as a great stimulator of the latent inventive power of our people, and the influence of this system has been felt in all the departments of art and industry. No other nation has witnessed the same degree of rapid material development, and no other people have more signally experienced the benefits of a just and generous protection of the claims of inventors.

Commissioner Foote, in his valuable report published in our last number, in speaking of the rapid advance of improvement, says: "New fields for exploration have been constantly opening, and so far from reaching any limit of invention, we seem but on the way to other advances and improvements beyond our present comprehension," a statement which is undoubtedly true, and forces the Commissioner to declare that the business of the Patent Office has outgrown the several acts creating it. He urges upon Congress the necessity of several much needed reforms to enable the office to meet the requirements of its rapidly augmenting business. In alluding to the prosperity of the Patent Office, the Commissioner qualifies his statements by the declaration, that much of the apparent prosperity has arisen from the allowance of patents that ought never to have been granted, and proceeds to give his reasons for such irregularities, which doubtless have more or less contributed to bring about the evils of which he complains.

It appears to us that the time has come when our patent system should be made the subject of a careful investigation with the view to determine what reforms are necessary, and more especially to inquire whether the present practice of examining applications is not productive of more evil than good, and whether we may not safely adopt the systems now prevailing in England, France, and other European nations, which allow patents to issue without previous examination. Commissioner Foote says worthless patents are now issued in large numbers, thus virtually acknowledging the failure of the attempt to carry out a rigid system of examination, a complication which is growing more and more serious every day.

Patentees do not thoroughly understand this matter; they take it too much for granted that, when their patents are issued—especially after a supposed careful examination by an expert, the validity thereof is fully established, and therefore they can confront all infringers with the perfect assurance that the patent will be sustained, some going even so far as to believe that Government is bound to warrant and defend the patent. The official machinery of examination, as at present organized, is cumbrous and expensive, and as results show, is far from being satisfactory; beside the present system tends to corrupt practices, especially when practitioners before the office make their professional services contingent upon success. Shall this system be continued? This subject is one of so much importance that we urge Congress to institute a searching inquiry into the whole question.

Inventors have a right to demand all the safeguards which law can provide to protect their patented interests, but in view of what Commissioner Foote asserts, it appears to be mockery and injustice to compel them to pay for an examination which often amounts to nothing. They would infinitely prefer to rely upon an experienced attorney, who is competent to make the investigation and to prepare such claims as in his judgment will stand the test of law.

CAN HEAT EXIST AS HEAT, AND AT THE SAME TIME PERFORM WORK?

A correspondent asks the question, "Can heat exist as heat at the same time it performs work?" In others words, "Can I use the same heat that drives my steam engine for warming the building in which it stands? I do not mean now the surplus heat which passes out of the smoke pipe, nor that radiated from the boiler, cylinder, etc., but the heat which is in the steam that drives the engine and the machinery. I wish to know what becomes of this heat after the work is performed." Another correspondent asks us "What becomes of the light in a room when all the apertures, windows, and doors are suddenly closed?"

These questions are so similar in their nature that we propose to answer them in a single article. They are not by any means frivolous. On the contrary, they are questions which have puzzled the wisest philosophers of past ages. "What becomes of force after it has performed work?" was the general form of the inquiry, the answer to which was long and earnestly sought by a host of the most philosophical minds the world has ever produced.

It is unnecessary to review here the different opinions which have obtained in regard to the imponderable agents, heat, light, electricity, etc., first regarded as imponderable forms of matter, next as occult forces, known only by their effects; and lastly, *as modes of molecular motion*. Suffice it to say that the latter theory has been sufficiently demonstrated by the labors of Rumford, Joulé, Mayer, Helmholz, Faraday, Grove, Tyndall, and others, to be generally accepted as truth by the entire scientific world.

Further investigations have established the fact that any of these motions disappear only to reappear immediately in some other form of motion. Thus, at the moment heat-motion disappears, some other motion or motions begin, exactly equivalent to the heat motion which has disappeared. This indisputable fact has led to the doctrines of the *correlation* and the *conservation of force;* the latter of which was asserted by Prof. Faraday to be the "*the highest law in physical science which our faculties permit us to perceive.*"

We start then in answering the above inquiries from the broad basis, that nothing can be added to, or substracted from the sum of all the forces (motions) in the universe, except by creative power. And all that can be done by finite power is to set causes at work which will convert one or more forces into another or others, which can be reconverted again in turn back to their original form. Tracing then, the force which exists in coal or other fuel, back as far as we may, we find that this force was formerly solar heat. This heat was converted into the organic or vital forces which formed the *sigillaria*,* since changed by other causes into coal. By heating this coal in contact with the oxygen of the air, we initiate a reaction which causes the imprisoned force to reappear as heat-motion. This motion transmitted to the particles of water confined in a boiler gives rise to a molecular motion, which can be measured, and which we term, in common parlance, temperature. The motion of the particles is concentrated upon the area of the piston of a steam engine forcing it along backward and forward, and this motion is transmitted through the connecting rod to the crank. The crank converts this rectilinear motion into a rotary one without changing its character as mass-motion, and so on to the lathes, planers, etc. It is in many cases difficult to recover the motion thus so often transferred, and finally partially reconverted into heat, as we shall presently see. But if we should substitute for the lathes, etc., a pump, we should be enabled to regain the mechanical power expended in the elevation of water *as mechanical power*, minus the waste consequent upon the imperfect construction of our machinery and the friction.

Friction produces heat, and must therefore be always understood to imply the production of heat. In the above case, therefore, we have the heat from our fuel again, partly as heat, and partly as mechanical work. If we now expend the mechanical work generated by the fall of the water raised by the pump in the production of friction by revolving disks or otherwise, we shall find that the heat produced by friction through the whole combination, added to that lost by radiation from boilers, pipes, etc., will exactly equal the heat derived from the coal. We have lost or gained nothing. In the case of the lathes, planes, etc., we have the friction of the tools and bearings which actually does convert the mass-motion partially back again into molecular motion or heat. This heat, if it could be collected and employed to warm the air of a room, would of course elevate its temperature, but it is usually expended in the expansion of the metals upon which work is done, in overcoming cohesion and in many other subtle ways. In the case where water is raised by the power of steam, the heat-motion is plainly seen to be converted into mechanical power. This power will, in its expenditure, give heat or other mechanical power, minus a certain amount of friction (heat). But it must be now evident to our correspondent that so long as it remains mechanical power it is not heat.

In dealing with light, we have to do with a still more subtle motion than heat; one not so easily traced in its various forms. Yet science has given us even here solid ground to stand upon

Bodies either absorb or reflect light, yet in every reflection there is more or less absorbed. Absorption of light is not the soaking it up as a sponge soaks water, it is the conversion of light motion into other modes of motion, precisely as we have seen that heat is convertible into mass-motion. Both these forces may be converted into electricity, chemical affinity, or they may be converted each into the other. So suppose the walls of a room to be composed of the best reflectors known, and a flood of light to be admitted, and then all ingress or egress of light to be suddenly cut off. A series of reflections would take place. The light would pass back and forth from side to side of the room; a portion being absorbed, that is, converted into other motion each time, until finally entirely absorbed. When the enormous velocity of light is taken into consideration, it will be easy to see how this phenomena would appear instantaneous in any apartment, unless its walls were so wide apart as to require a sensible time for the passing to and fro of the reflected rays.

We have thus endeavored to explain a subject, which to undisciplined minds is beset with difficulties. Its thorough comprehension is, however, a necessity to any who aspire to the mastery of the mechanical applications of either heat or light. "You cannot eat your cake and have it too." The sooner this fact is thoroughly understood, the sooner will the attention of men be turned from the delusive search after perpetual motions and like impossibilities, and directed to the only practical control man can ever have over the forces of nature—their conversion into different forms of motion.

* Sigillaria, or Seal-tree, one of those most abundant in the swamps of the carboniferous period. See Prof. Dawson's lecture on "The Primeval Flora," page 34, current volume of SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

WHAT IS AN AXIOM.

The standard acceptation of the word axiom is "a self-evident truth." If any proposition is self-evident, certainly it can not be made more evident by any amount of proof. There are some however that affirm an axiom to be an impossibility. Nothing say these philosophers is self-evident. As an example, examine the geometrical axiom "the whole is greater than any of its parts." To the majority of minds this seems perfectly self-evident, but would it seem so, if the fact had not been demonstrated in experience by the direct application of a part to the whole of a magnitude? Perhaps all so-called axioms may be susceptible of proof, and therefore not properly axioms. Be this as it may (and it is not our intention to go into a metaphysical discussion), it must be admitted that in any course of reasoning something must be taken in the outset for granted, if nothing more than the power of reasoning correctly.

But we have promised not to be metaphysical, and there is a practical point to which we wish to call special attention. Invention is a reasoning process. A result reached by accident is not an invention but a discovery. The patent laws of the United States and other countries do not make this distinction because such a distinction is impossible in the granting of patents to people, many of whom would be unable to say whether they were strictly inventors or only discoverers. It is however a real distinction.

Now admitting that an axiom is that which is to be considered as evident without proof, and that in every course of reasoning something must be taken as granted at the outset, it will at once be seen that great care is necessary on the part of inventors not to accept as an axiom that which is not entitled to be so considered. It is much better to err on the other side if errors must be made, and to accept nothing as true until a full demonstration of its truth is made. "Prove all things and hold fast to that which is good," is a maxim as useful in invention as in theology.

These thoughts were suggested by a case that has just come under our observation, where an inventor has spent a large sum of money in completing a machine, that is utterly worthless now that it is completed, and never would have been thought of had he not, as he said to us, accepted a certain supposed principle as an axiom.

True it is a subtle point and has misled many others beside the one whose mistake we now allude to, but accepted as a premise it has in this case led to much useless labor and expense.

It is important therefore that inventors should test every proposition, whether found in books or out of books, if the circumstances of the case permit such test, before applying it to any particular device. Works on hydraulic engineering abound; but every hydraulic engineer meets with phenomena seemingly exceptional to general principles contained in books.

Let us illustrate this by an example. Most are familiar with the Tantalus cup experiment described in nearly all elementary works on physics; the principle upon which it is based being that of a siphon which once filled continues to flow until the cup is emptied. If the siphon tube be small it will act, no matter how gradually the cup may be inclined; accepting this to be a principle applicable to siphons, an inventor of our acquaintance, made a machine to alternately fill and discharge by inclining it so that the water would flow over the bend of the curve. The tube in this case was a large one, and utterly refused to act as a siphon when the vessel containing the water was inclined slowly, and only acted when it was precipitately thrown from the perpendicular. But as anything like precipitate movement was under the requirements of the case inadmissible the invention came to nought. The failure in this case arose from supposing that siphons of all sizes act precisely alike, the effect of capillary attraction in small tubes being overlooked. Much money and time would have been saved in this instance if experiments with siphons of different caliber had preceded the construction of the machine itself. The fault committed in this case is one of common occurrence. It was the assumption of a general principle from a particular application of a principle.

Such blunders can only be avoided by considering nothing as axiomatic, or as demonstrated, until it is decided by actual test. When this can not be attained, a risk must sometimes be taken, but no risk is necessary under most ordinary circumstances.

SEAWEED CHARCOAL is now used as a substitute for animal charcoal, it is said, with good results.

HAIR OF MEN AND ANIMALS---WHY NOT GROW OUR OWN HAIR?

Among the kindest provisions of Nature is the clothing she has supplied to animals. Having given to man superior reasoning powers and that wonder of delicate machinery the human hand, she left him to provide for his own needs in this respect. But lest he might lack for material, she gave to some species of animals a large surplus, from which man constantly draws to supply his necessities. Annually the meek and submissive sheep yields his coat that man may be clothed, and although the last century has developed a very extensive use of vegetable fabrics; we still depend in temperate climates very largely upon woolen textures, to unable us to withstand the extremes of cold we are forced to encounter.

But the sheep, although the most important of animals from which we derive clothing, is by no means the only animal who doffs his coat for man's use. The ox furnishes us with hair to stuff cushions and mattresses. The horse also contributes long, shining threads from tail and mane to be woven into various textures, of which the well-known hair cloth is chief. Even the hog supplies us with material for brushes. The lowly goose submits to cruel pangs and pluckings, her protestations and complaints being smothered by a stocking ruthlessly drawn over her head, that unthankful man may be luxuriously pillowed. Beside these, thousands of animals annually are deluded into relentless traps, or receive the fatal bullet, that their beautiful furs may contribute to the comfort and luxury of man.

There is a delightful sensation derived from the touch of soft fur, and to this, as well as its beauty of color and its pleasant warmth, it owes the esteem in which it has always been held. Savages who know nothing of weaving, instinctively resort to the furred skins of animals for clothing, while kings and potentates array themselves in the rare and costly ermine. In all lands and in all times, furs have been valued as articles of comfort and ornament. Not only the furs of animals and the feathers of birds have been applied to articles of dress and ornament for man, but human hair itself has for a long period been an article of commerce. Wig-makers are an ancient craft. Of late years many articles of real taste and beauty have been made of human hair, and a distinct art—hair jewelry—has arisen. The latest application of human hair to the adornment of heads incapable of supplying their own demand is the "waterfall;" but why *waterfall* has, we confess, always been a matter of profound mystery to us.

The result of the enormous demand for waterfalls has been to exhaust the natural supply of hair, and consequently the hair of animals, imitations of hair made from vegetable fiber and even the exhumation of mummies to rifle their dead scalps for the benefit of live ones, have been resorted to in order to meet the demand. The supply is notwithstanding still so limited that a little hair is made to become a large waterfall by plunging it over submerged reefs of sawdust in silk bags, and sundry other mysterious devices which only female genius could invent, and female fortitude endure.

The attention of the country has been called to the questions, "Why not grow our own silk?" "Why not grow our own sugar?" We now ask the attention of individuals to the question, "Why not grow our own hair?"

Hair may be likened to vegetable growth, and "each particular hair" to a plant, the skin being the soil from which it derives its substance. A hair is a hollow tube containing in its cavity an oil which gives it color. The only conditions necessary for its perfect and luxuriant growth, is that the soil be good and the growth of the crop be kept unmolested by untoward circumstances.

It the soil is bad or has been deteriorated by disease, it must be renovated before good crops can reasonably be expected; but you might as well expect to improve the quality of land by carting stones upon it, as to renovate the scalp by the use of oils and pomatums. These compounds contain nothing to nourish the hair while they obstruct the action of the skin, upon the healthy condition of which, more than anything else, a full luxuriant growth of hair depends. The least harmful of oils, if any must be resorted to, is castor oil diluted with two parts alcohol and scented to suit the taste; but even this should be very sparingly used. A good healthy head of hair should supply its own oil. A preparation of alcohol one pint, pure glycerin two ounces, and water one half pint, scented with rose geranium, lemon grass, or any other essential oil suitable for the purpose, is an admirable dressing for the hair, and one that exerts a healthful influence upon the skin. A solution of borax is better for cleansing the hair than the bicarbonate of potash in common use by hair dressers for the purpose. The latter may be used to advantage, however, in warm weather, when acidity is apt to be generated by perspiration. Either of these will be rarely required if the hair and scalp are washed every morning in pure water, which is not only of great benefit to the hair, but the very best preventive of colds in the head. After such ablution the hair should be wiped nearly dry and then dressed, but exposure to cold winds before the hair is well dried is not advisable.

Another excellent detergent for the scalp is the white of egg. Two eggs will be sufficient for a cleansing of the hair, as ordinarily worn by men, but women who wear their hair as long as it will grow, will need four or more. The yolks should be carefully removed, and the albuminous portion rubbed into the roots of the hair very thoroughly for some time, when a thorough rinsing with water and drying with towels will leave the hair a beautiful luster and silky softness. Fine toothed combs are only to be tolerated under conditions which are happily rare in this country, and therefore unnecessary to mention. Brushing is good, if not carried so far as to irritate the skin.

A gardener places blankets or other covering over plants to protect them from the effects of cold, but should he cover them in this way for the greater part of the time he would not expect them to thrive. Precisely analogous to this is the wearing of hats to protect the head from cold. Better never wear a hat than to wear it indiscriminately in-doors and out, as is the habit of many, who sit in offices or work in shops. It is perhaps a matter of doubt whether the head, covered by its natural clothing, requires any further protection whatever, and we are confident that the principal part of the baldness met with in civilized countries is to be charged to the heavy hats and caps in vogue. That there is some foundation for this belief is obvious from the fact that savages, who wear nothing on their heads, and women of civilized lands, who wear next to nothing, are rarely bald, except the temporary baldness resulting from sickness.

There is no element of beauty more important than beautiful hair, and it is absurd to suppose that any alteration that can be made in its color by dyes, adds to the general effect. The hair is one of the elements of complexion, and the thin delicate skins that look pure and healthy, with the adjunct of very light-colored hair, would become ghastly if contrasted with very dark hair. No matter what color the hair may be, it will be beautiful if it is of full growth and in a healthy condition.

A healthy condition of the hair also depends very much upon the general health. The skin and the internal organs are very intimately connected in their action. Many eruptions upon the scalp result from improper diet and imperfect digestion, and it is true of the hair as of the teeth, and all the other components of beauty, that it never can reach perfection without due attention to diet, exercise, regular habits, and all the requisites to perfect health.

STUCCO WORK.

The method of finishing the outside of buildings in stucco, still prevails to some extent in this country, notwithstanding that in the Northern States the severe frosts of winter make sad havoc with it, unless, as is rarely the case, it be of the first quality in composition and workmanship. We are in receipt of inquiries from the Southern States as to its adaptability to the wants of that section, and the method by which it is applied.

With regard to the first point, we have little doubt that stucco will endure longer at the South than at the North, especially if it be of inferior quality. A stucco in common use is a compound of the grout or putty made of stone lime or burnt shells mixed with sharp grit sand. Its long exposure to the air has, however, a tendency to render it crumbly, and it is not an unfrequent occurrence to see it cleaving off in large scales, giving the building to which it is applied a most dilapidated appearance.

Much of this is to be attributed, as we have already said, to climate, but a great deal is to be charged to unskillful application and composition. The mortar should be most thoroughly beaten and worked before it is applied to the walls, and the strength of the lime should be well ascertained before the sand can be properly proportioned. Good rules for ordinary use in the mixing of this grout can not be given. Experience only can be relied upon as a guide for its composition. The lime may, however, be tested by slaking in the usual way. If fat it should slack rapidly and swell up from two to three and one-half times its original bulk, the rapidity of the slacking, and the bulk after being slacked, being an index of the strength or fatness. The fatter it is the more sand will be required.

The best sand for stucco work is drift sand, and it is advantageous to dry it on iron plates, being careful not to push the heat so far as to discolor it. The grout being mixed should be parceled out into small portions and allowed to mellow for some days. It should then be thoroughly mixed into a soft putty and spread thick upon the walls without any previous preparatory coat. It should also be thoroughly troweled down, as its durability depends very much upon the faithfulness with which this part of the work is performed. Too much stress can scarcely be given to this point, and thorough work should be insisted upon. Another coat should be put on before the first is dry, and this should also be well worked down. It will add much to the durability of this stucco if a coat of good boiled linseed oil be laid on after it is dry.

Various ingredients are recommended by good authority for the strengthening of stuccos, the basis of which is lime. Among these is sugar water in mixing, the proportions being about one pound of coarse sugar to eight gallons of water used.

There are many other preparations used for stucco work but although some of them are far more durable than the one we have described, they are for the most part too expensive to come into very general use. Among these are the well known Adam's oil cement, and the stucco made by mixing pulverized marble with lime or plaster and working it the same as ordinary plaster. A good cheap cement for stucco work may, however, be made by using good hydraulic cement and clean sand mixed in proper proportions and in such quantities that it may all be laid on before it has time to set. The sand should be dried and mixed in the proportion of one part of cement to two parts of sand by measure. In measuring, the sand should not be packed, but thrown loosely in the measure.

Previous to the application of any stucco, the joints between bricks should be raked out, say from three-eighths to one-half an inch. The surface should then be thoroughly swept to free it from loose dirt, and afterward wet with a hose or other convenient means, and the stucco applied before it dries. If difficulty is experienced in making the stucco adhere to the flat surfaces of bricks or stones, they may be chipped with a hatchet or mill-pick The first coat should not extend so far that a second cannot be laid over it before it dries, and the whole should be shielded from the direct action of the sun's rays while drying.

As soon as dried the surface should be inspected by raps with a very light hammer. The non-adherent spots may be thus detected, and should be immediately torn off and replaced. The most important of all these precautions is, however, the thoroughness in troweling mentioned above, without which any amount of pains in other particulars will prove vain.

THE LONDON UNDERGROUND RAILROAD.

The report of Mr. Calvert Vaux who was sent to London by the directors of New York City Central Underground Railway Company to examine into the construction and management of the Metropolitan Underground Railway of London, has been made public. The report is an interesting one and we gather from it some prominent facts which will interest our readers. The railway communications consist of the Great Western; London and Northwestern; London, Chatham and Dover; London, Brighton and South Coast; and Southeastern, on the south side. The total number of trains run each way, on the above roads, is 1,447, beside ninety trains run each way between Charing Cross and Cannon street. Part of the above trains carry passengers from one part of London to another; but it is estimated that the number of trains conveying residents to and from the suburbs to business is fully one thousand.

The suburban population accommodated by this number of trains on the north side is estimated at 325,000, and on the south side at 280,000.

The Metropolitan Underground Railway was projected about 1853, with the special object of lessening the great traffic through the streets of London, which was then becoming a very serious question, and also with a view to the establishment of a great central station for all the railways, and it was mainly through the exertions of the late Mr. Charles Pearson, a gentleman holding a legal position in connection with the corporation of London, that it was enabled to obtain a footing.

The length of the line from Bishop's Road to Moorgate street is four and a half miles, and from Edgeware Road to Brompton, at present opened, about two and a quarter miles, making six and three-quarter miles. From Brompton to Tower Hill, when finished, the length will be eight miles. From Brompton direct to Moorgate street, the distance is six and two-thirds miles.

Mr. Vaux gives an account of the connections worked by the Metropolitan Railway, by which it appears that a passenger from any station of the connecting roads can proceed to almost any part of London and its suburbs, or to England, Scotland or Wales, without going outside a station, and in many cases, without changing carriages.

About three miles, or two-thirds of the road is constructed underneath the streets, thus saving the purchase of property for that distance. The minimum depth of the rails below the surface of the streets is seventeen feet in covered way, and the maximum about fifty-four feet in tunnel.

There are fifteen stations on the Metropolitan Railway averaging half a mile apart.

As the works of the company are not yet finished; and the land purchases not all effected, the data for arriving at the cost of the Metropolitan Railway are necessarily incomplete; but as near as can be gathered from the half-yearly reports of the company, the cost of the line upon Bishop's road to Farringdon street, including land, works, rolling stock, etc., appears to be about seven and a half million dollars, or two million one hundred and forty thousand dollars a mile for two lines of way and a temporary station. Of this sum, one million a mile was for works of construction. If the company had been obliged to buy land for the entire route, it is estimated that the road would have cost over three millions and a half a mile.

Three hundred and one trains run over this road daily; one train every three minutes during the business part of the day. Each of the sets of trains is worked through from Moorgate street, without change of carriage or engine.

The number of engines employed is 35, and carriages 142. The engines have four coupled driving wheels and a bogie truck, and weigh, in working order, about forty-two tuns thirty tuns being on the driving wheels. This great weight is necessary to enable them to get up steam quickly on leaving a station

The fuel burnt is a coke of a very superior quality. To enable a line with so much tunnel to be worked at all it is absolutely necessary that the engines should not give out any smoke or products of combustion while in the tunnel, and the engines on the Metropolitan Railway have been especially designed to meet this requirement. The steam is got up to 130 or 140 pounds pressure at the starting point, where the line is open, and when the train enters the covered way the damper is closed and combustion is practically prevented. The engine then continues to run on the steam already made so long as it is in the covered way, the pressure being generally lowered to eighty pounds when it emerges again into the open cut. The steam, instead of escaping into the tunnel, is conveyed by pipes to a condensing tank, which is filled with cold water at each end of the journey. Four carriages are usually run in a train. They weigh about fourteen tuns when empty. The speed is usually fifteen miles an hour, including stoppages.

The line is worked by the electric telegraph, so that two trains cannot be on the same line at the same time between any two stations, thus preventing the possibility of collision.

The practical effect of this is proved by the fact that although there are twelve trains at a time between Brompton and Moorgate street, no accident has yet occurred.

The number of passengers carried during the half year ending June 30, 1867, was thirteen millions. Some idea may be obtained of the increasing popularity of the road, when it is stated that in 1863 the number of passengers carried during the same time was only 9,455,175.

IN WHAT DOES A PATENT CONSIST?

The inventor produces a new and useful machine, process, or manufacture, or improvement thereon, and receives from the Government a grant of an exclusive use thereto for a limited term, and with this grant there is created a monopoly by means of which the inventor is enabled to be paid for the labor and ingenuity involved in the origination of the invention. And this grant is made upon the implied condition that the invention is specified so as to enable the community to practice it after the monopoly ceases.

Such then is the consideration received by the community at large for this grant of an exclusive right by the Government.

In the invention itself there is no property, but under certain conditions and within certain limits of time, it can be resolved into such and is then represented by a Patent. Thereby to the public passes a full knowledge of the invention, and to the inventor is granted an exclusive right and control of same for a stated term. There may exist a mere right to property, but it is meant in the sense of the exclusive right to be conferred if application is contemplated or has been made for a Patent.

And when as stated, in Rathburne & Co. v. Orr and Hollister 5. Mclean 132, that the invention if valuable is property which may be sold in the market, he, the inventor, undertaking to procure a patent, the contemplated incorporal right is meant. Neither is there any property in the patent papers themselves, as they are only declarations of the nature and extent of this exclusive right.

To know that the property does not exist in the invention itself we have only to learn from the statute that if a public use exists for more than two years without applying for the right to the exclusive use, it cannot be obtained, or if improperly obtained by a concealment of the fact, it cannot be held when such concealment comes to the knowledge of the community and the courts. We have only to refer to another section of the statute to perceive that the patent itself is not property, as it cannot confer any rights by its being delivered from person to person like chattel personal or articles in common use, but there must be a writing which dedicates in law, not the patent itself but the exclusive privileges therein mentioned, *i. e.*, the right therein referred to. It is true some of these privileges can be conferred without written evidence thereof, as a license to do or perform that which would otherwise be unlawful; but these are rights of user of the invention in some limited and specific form.

Again, this exclusive and incorporal right thus obtained is of an arbitrary nature. It can be divided and subdivided in various ways and may be mortgaged. It can be divided into two or more parts, and if called undivided interests with no agreement between the parties, it then gives each owner an equal power over the exclusive right without accountability to the other owners, thereby making it only exclusive as to the community outside of the two or more owners. All the owners are equal as to each other in their privileges granted by the exclusive right, no matter how unequally they are represented by the fractional division; and could such a case be supposed to exist as enlarging the exclusive right until it includes the whole community, then it would cease to be exclusive and become in the nature of a case of abandonment or surrender of the privilege to the public. But so long as one person in the country is left out it is exclusive as to him and cannot be considered as an abandoned right.

Again, so peculiar is the nature of this exclusive right that, if instead of being transferred by undivided interest in the patent it is subdivided as to territorial interests, then such interests if made exclusive are independent of each other and as distinct as if a patent had been issued for each division of territory; and these territorial divisions may be unlimited in number.

The right to make, use, and sell to others to be used, under the exclusive right, may be restricted as it may suit the interest of the owner, but within certain limits; such limits in some cases determined by the courts, if it is attempted to bind others than the contracting parties which matters will be discussed hereafter.

Many of the attributes of an exclusive right are again varied as they enter into and combine with other rights, such as general and ordinary contracts, agreements and copartnernership interests, and present sometimes peculiar and complicated questions as to the rights of parties involved. And oftentimes it is found that general propositions of law already adjudicated upon are unsafe guides when the facts of the cases compared materially vary.

Inventors and parties who contract with each other are consequently misled when they attempt to apply to their own cases and business affairs, without the aid of good counsel, decisions reported as made in Patent cases.

It is proposed to disuss again and more at length the nature and extent of the exclusive right as secured by a Patent.

GLYCERIN---ITS USES AND ABUSES.

BY PROF. C. A. JOY, OF COLUMBIA COLLEGE.

A few years ago glycerin was only known to scientific men; now it is so extensively employed as to be familiar to everybody. Scientifically, it appears to be a species of alcohol; popularly, it is the sweet principle of oil. For many years it was thrown away, but now it is saved and converted to numerous uses. Few chemical compounds have increased so rapidly in public estimation as this. From being regarded as a waste product, it has grown to be as valuable as its former proud associates, and appears destined to take a most prominent place in the arts. It exists in oils and fats, and as it was not essential in the process of making soap and candles, and no use could be invented for it, it was either destroyed or allowed to flow away. We are sorry to say that at the present time a great quantity annually flows down the throats of a long suffering and much deceived wine-drinking public, instead of passing through the spout of the soap and candle maker. We do not propose to go into a long account of the way glycerin is manufactured, because any one curious upon that point can easily turn to an encyclopedia for information, but we know that it will interest our readers to learn something of the recent applications of this substance.

Housekeepers will be glad to know that if tubs and pails are saturated with glycerin they will not shrink and dry up, the hoops will not fall off, and there will be no necessity of keeping these articles soaked. Butter tubs keep fresh and sweet, and can be used a second time. Leather treated with it also remains moist, and is not liable to crack and break.

For the extraction of perfume from rose leaves, from scented woods, from bark, from gums, there appears to be nothing better than glycerin, and this use of it is constantly on the increase, as the most delicate odors are perfectly preserved in it.

A soft soap, in which glycerin enters as a constituent, is highly prized in cold weather where the hands become chapped, and can be used for washing in hard water.

For wounds and sores, and bites of venomous insects, glycerin is found to be a most valuable substance, as it either prevents the mortification of the parts, or it can be used to carry the remedies to counteract the effects of poison.

To preserve animal substances from decay, glycerin is now substituted for alcohol in collections of natural history, and it is employed to keep many articles of food from undergoing decomposition.

As it requires an intense cold to freeze it, even when mixed with its own bulk of water, it is largely employed to fill the wet gas meters.

Some kinds of candy, chocolate, confectionary, and fruit, which are preserved in tinfoil, are kept moist by a small quantity of glycerin.

Delicate chronometers, clocks, and watches, are lubricated with it. Copying paper and wall paper, for taking fancy colors, are also kept moist by a small amount of glycerin used in this manufacture.

In pharmacy for the preservation of pills, to mix with many substances, in compounding prescriptions, and in more ways than can be remembered, glycerin now plays an important part.

In the arts it finds its way as the best wash for the interior of molds in the casting of plaster figures, to prevent the gypsum from adhering to the sides of the mold.

In dyeing with some of our beautiful organic colors, glycerin is extensively employed with the best effect.

In chemistry it is used to prevent the precipitation of the heavy metals by the alkalies, and is thus a re-agent in analysis.

For making an extract of malt to improve or spoil, as the case may be, the beer manufactured in the usual way, glycerin has recently attracted a great deal of attention, and been the object of extensive speculations, if not of impositions, upon the public.

In the preparation of *liqueurs* it has been found to be admirably adapted for preserving the characteristic flavors of those compounds, and it has consequently become the great favorite of this class of manufacturers.

As glycerin is a remarkably stable compound, it is adapted to the preservation of wines, and this legitimate use of it has suggested to the adulterators of liquors an extensive fraud upon the community. Vast quantities of glycerin are annually manufactured, and as the known uses of it will not account for the consumption of more than a small fraction of what is made, it is difficult to explain the disappearance of the remainder. What takes place in the dark champagne vaults and cool subterranean wine cellars, evidently will not bear the light of day, and hence we neither see nor hear what becomes of the great stream of glycerin that is known to flow into them. Fortunately, it is not a poisonous substance, and its use for adulteration is consequently attended with less detriment to our stomachs than to our pockets. Whether the "coming man" will drink pure glycerin instead of wine must be left for future consideration.

It has been discovered that glycerin can be fermented into alcohol with chalk and cheese, and it may be possible hereafter to manufacture alcohol in this way. The discovery is an important one, and may suggest some improved and cheap method for obtaining alcoholic and acetic acid.

The last use of glycerin that we shall mention is, perhaps, the most important of all, its extensive application in the manufacture of nitro-glycerin. The explosive oil is made by treating glycerin with nitric and sulphuric acids in a peculiar manner. It has been known to chemists for some years, but it is only recently that a Swedish engineer has had the hardihood to propose it as a substitute for blasting powder. Its introduction has been attended with fatal consequences to many of the pioneer and earliest adventurers who have experimented upon its properties, but it is making rapid progress to public favor, and in a few years, will, beyond question, displace the old fashioned blasting powder and reign in its stead. By mixing the oil with sand, a solid explosive agent has been made, which is called dynamite. This is much less dangerous than the oil, and nearly as destructive in its effects, as it contains seventy-six per cent of nitro-glycerin. A patent percussion cap and safety fuse is required for the explosion of dynamite, and, according to all accounts, it appears to be less dangerous than gunpowder.

The glycerin, which has come into notice within a few years, has become an article of great importance, and as its conquests are daily extending, we may expect to become very familiar with it, and to learn to appreciate it as another valuable contribution of chemical science to the ordinary wants of man.—*Frank Leslie's New World.*

Our Bird Friends and Insect Enemies.

In 1862, at the great Exhibition at Paris, the French naturalist, M. Florent-Prevost, exhibited a large collection of the stomachs of birds, with their contents, spread out on sheets of paper, each accompanied with a written description. This display attracted the attention of the English naturalist, Mr. Edward Wilson, who, together with M. Florent-Prevost, afterwards prepared what is considered a complete list of articles of diet used by a great number of birds during each month of the year. We here append the bill of fare of such birds, or those very nearly allied to them, as we notice are found in this country, viz.:

Long-eared Owl.—January, February, and March, mice; April, cockchafers; May, rats, squirrels, and cockchafers; June, mealworm, beetles, and shrew mice; July, mice, and ground and other beetles; August, shrew and other mice; September, October, and November, mice.

Short-eared Owl.—January, mice; February, harvest mice; March, mice; April, crickets and harvest mice; May, shrew mice and cockchafers; June, beetles; July, field mice and birds; August, field and shrew mice; September and October, field mice and beetles; November, common and field mice; December, mice, spiders, and wood-lice.

Barn Owl.—January and February, mice; March, April, May, and June, field mice; July and August, mice; September and October, field and shrew mice; November, mice and the black rat; December, mice.

Sparrow.—Only lives near the habitations of man. It varies its food according to circumstances. In a wood it lives on insects and seeds; in a village it feeds on seeds, grain, and larvæ of butterflies, etc.; in a city it lives on all kinds of debris; but it prefers cockchafers and some other insects to all other food.

Great Titmouse.—January, beetles and eggs of insects; February, grubs; March, winter snails, beetles, and grubs; April, cockchafers, beetles, and bees; June, cockchafers, flies, and other insects; July, the same; August, insects and fruits; September, seeds, grasshoppers, and crickets; October, berries; and November, seeds.

Blackbird.—January and February, seeds, spiders, and chrysalids; March, worms, grubs, and buds of trees; April, insects, worms, and grubs; May, the same and cockchafers; June, the same and fruit; July, August, and September, all sorts of worms and fruit; October, grubs of butterflies and worms; November and December, seeds and chrysalids.

Jay.—January, grubs of cockchafers, acorns, and berries, February, chrysalids and different grains and seeds: March: grubs, insects, wheat, and barley; April, grubs of beetles and snails; May, cockchafers and locusts; June, eggs of birds, cockchafers, and beetles; July, young birds, flies, and beetles; August, the same, acorns, grubs, and dragon flies; September, the same and fruits; October and November, beetles, slugs, snails, and grain; December, the same, haws, hips, etc.

Golden Oriole.—January, various chrysalids; February, chrysalids and worms; March, grubs and beetles; April, ground beetles and weevels; May, beetles, moths, butterflies, and grubs: June, grubs, grasshoppers, bees, and cherries; July, cherries and beetles; August, weevels, chrysalids, fruits, and worms; September, beetles, grubs, worms, and fruits; October, grubs, herbs, chrysalids, berries, and barley; November, ants and worms.

Woodpecker.—January, ants; February, worms and grubs of ants; March, slugs, beetles, and grubs of ants; April, ants and worms; May, red ants and grubs of wasps; June, bees and ants; July, red ants; August, red ants and worms; September, ants and worms; October, grubs and ants; November, grubs of ants and bees; and December, ants.

Thrush.—March, grubs and insects; April, aquatic grubs; May, grubs of house and dragon flies; June, worms, grubs, flies, and May flies; July, beetles and dragon flies; August, worms, eggs of insects, and beetles; and September, aquatic insects.

An Invention made by M. Jenssen in France and Mr. Lockyer in England enables spectroscopic observations of the protuberances which appear during a total eclipse of the sun to be observed at any time, that is, they can produce the effect of a total solar eclipse, at will; and the experiment has already been sufficiently tested to show that the "protuberances" (conjectured to be masses of hydrogen gas) are constantly changing in form.

Knowledge of American geography is limited in France. A new work on the subject, used in many French schools, speaks of Toronto as one of the eastern cities of the United States, of Portland as the capital of New England, says the Germans constitute a large part of the population of Missouri, and declares that the Territory of the Rocky Mountains was conquered by the American troops under Gen. Fremont.

It is stated that Dr. Siemens, the director of the great telegraphic establishment in Berlin, is in Circassia, making arrangements for the building of an overland telegraph line to India, the route to be through Asia Minor, Armenia, Persia, and Beloochistan.

MANUFACTURING, MINING, AND RAILROAD ITEMS.

Gold Mining in Georgia.—The *Dahlonega Signal* reports that gold mining operations are generally at a standstill, awaiting the movements of northern capitalists, and that these are mostly inactive; that the Chestatee Company has suspended, and the Wood Mine is worked but little if any. About twenty-five hands are at work at Ive's mill, one mile east of Dahlonega, with great success; and small companies, composed of two to five in a group, are working about on the branches, making from fifty cents to two dollars per day to the hand, and more often fifty cents than two dollars. So numerous are these little parties, that the *Signal* believes the Dahlonega merchants are buying more gold now than they did when all the companies were in successful operation.

The Senate has passed a bill imposing on all copper imported in the form of ores, three cents on each pound of fine copper contained therein; on all regulus of copper, four cents on each pound of fine copper contained therein; on all old copper, fit only for re-manufacture, four cents per pound; on all copper in plates, bars, ingots, pigs, and in other forms not manufactured or herein enumerated five cents per pound.

The *New York Herald* gives the following schedule of the property belonging to the Erie Railroad Company: "Erie Railroad, main line; six old branch roads; one city railroad; two steamboat lines; one line of freight barges; one ferry; one opera house; one French opera company; one ballet company; lot of old wardrobe; twelve lawsuits."

Professor Budde has taken a singular geological formation from the old silver mines in Middletown, Connecticut. It consists of a large piece of the rock found in that section, imbedded in one surface of which is an almost perfect cross formed of mica. The upright is about four and ¾ inches in length, and the crosspiece four inches. The rock being white and the mica of a dark color, the cross is very distinct. It is a handsome specimen of nature's handiwork.

Mr. Fell, the English engineer, has offered to the Swiss Federal Council to undertake the construction of three railroads over the Alps for a guarantee of interest of 600,000 francs annually. He estimates the cost of that over the Simplon at from eleven to thirteen millions; of the St. Gothard, at from thirteen to fourteen, and at fifteen to eighteen for the Luckmanier.

There is a cotton mill at Macon, Georgia, which cost $160,000, and which paid last year 16 per cent in dividends. It gives employment to 125 hands, whose wages vary from $15 to $35 per week, consumes 2,000 pounds of cotton, and turns out 5,000 yards of cotton per day.

One silkworm nursery in Nevada already contains one million worms and has shelf-room enough for making two million cocoons. The capacity is to be still further increased.

One of the accompaniments of the Central Pacific construction party is a blacksmith shop on a wagon, which has to be pushed along three times a day to keep up with the tracklayers.

Gold to the value of about three million dollars was shipped from the New South Wales mines during the quarter ending with September last. The product of the Auckland gold fields in the same time increased two hundred thousand dollars.

Iron ore has been discovered in Saugatuck, Connecticut, in a vein said to be very rich. The ore is of the same class as the Salisbury ore.

he Cotton Company at Collinsville has fitted up the third story of its new building for a reading-room for its operatives.

Copper mining in Michigan employs a capital of fifty million dollars and about forty thousand workmen.

Answers to Correspondents.

CORRESPONDENTS who expect to receive answers to their letters must, in all cases, sign their names. We have a right to know those who seek information from us; beside, as sometimes happens, we may prefer to address correspondents by mail.

SPECIAL NOTE.—This column is designed for the general interest and instruction of our readers, not for gratuitous replies to questions of a purely business or personal nature. We will publish such inquiries, however, when paid for as advertisemets at $1 00 a line, under the head of "Business and Personal."

☞ *All reference to back numbers should be by volume and page.*

A. M., of Ind.—Oil of sassafras is obtained by distilling sassafras root with water in the same way that other essential oils are obtained

H. A. L., of N. C.—Theoretically the cost of running different engines should be directly as the work they perform, but owing to various causes, large engines are, proportionally to the work performed, more economical, when worked nearly up to their capacity, than small ones.

C. K., of———It is quite common to raise sunken vessels by bags inflated with air. The collapsed bags are attached at the required places upon the vessel and then inflated by means of air-pumps located on boats at the surface of the water.

H. O., of N. Y.—Glucose, made from starch by the action of sulphuric acid is not unwholesome, when taken into the stomach, unless it is contaminated with acid or other impurities. We do not recommend the use of the reagents you mention for the purpose specified.

J. N., of N. Y.—The fact that alkalies and their solutions act upon aluminum, renders that metal unfit for many purposes. On the contrary some acids attack it either not at all or at best but slowly, which renders it valuable for other purposes. Could it be very cheaply produced there is no doubt that it would be largely used in the arts.

O. S., of Md.—There are no metals with which we are acquainted that are luminous in the dark unless heated. Diamonds, white marble, fluor spar, and some other minerals are said to acquire phosphorescence by friction or long exposure to the sun, but they quickly lose it. Phosphorus and compounds containing free phosphorus, are luminous in the dark, but the atmosphere, soon converts the phosphorus into a non-luminous oxide.

S. A., of Ky.—Small brass articles like those you mention may be conveniently finished by dipping them first in dilute nitric acid to clean them, then into a solution of carbonate of soda to neutralize the acid, rinsing in running water, and drying in sawdust. As soon as dry they should be laquered in the usual way.

H. M. B., of Ill.—The composition for sky-rockets and Roman candles varies to some extent with manufacturers, and also with the diameter of the bore. For required information, consult Dr. Ure's dictionary of Arts, Manufactures, and Mines. No better electro-motor has probably been made than Page's Electro Magnetic Engine. We do not think a combination of a magic-lantern with a camera-obscura desirable. Your last query is not clearly put.

H. B. M., of N. Y.—To tin iron, clean by immersion in dilute sulphuric acid and scratch-brushing, or by any other convenient method, and immerse in melted tin. If sulphuric acid is used for cleaning, the castings, after being scratch-brushed, should be dipped in a bath of hot limewater to neutralize the acid and then dried. They will take tin better by being first dipped in melted tallow free from salt. The tin should also have melted tallow on its surface while the dipping is going on.

D. S., of Ohio.—"If I force air into a vessel through which water is passing from a hydrant, in order to raise the water to a certain elevation, will that compressed air remain as a power to elevate the water, or pass out through (with?) the water? In other words, if I measure water from a hydrant, will once filling my meter with compressed air be sufficient to force the water upward, after measuring to the required hight?" The compressed air will gradually pass out with the water. You get no permanent reservoir of power from it.

B. C., of N. H.—We cannot better answer your letter and accompanying diagrams, in regard to setting boilers, than to reply affirmatively to your question whether we approve of the plan in the illustrated article published in No. 9, Vol. XVII, Scientific American. We have received several letters from parties who followed the directions there given with success, cordially approving of the plan. Try it, following the proportions, and you will be satisfied of its utility.

G. W. M., of N. Y.—We know of no "bronzing acid for giving a dark blue color to brass like dark blue steel." A lacquer might answer your purpose. What this correspondent means by his question "how to find the magnifying power of a compound microscope," we do not comprehend. A compound microscope may be used from a low to a very high power. If the design of the interrogatory is to ascertain the focal distance of a lens this is simply a subject for ordinary mathematical calculation, or can be determined by experiment.

S. Y. O., of Iowa, asks how steel can be "laid" or welded on cast iron. "Can shears or scissors be manufactured in that way?" Certainly. Our best tailors' shears, household scissors, and smiths' anvils are made of cast iron and steel. We cannot describe the process in full in these columns, but the molten iron is poured upon the steel in a mold, until the steel is brought to the proper heat—that of welding or fusion, the surplus metal being allowed to escape—when the union is effected and the iron fills the mold. It is a process partaking of the weld by compression or percussion, and of a union formed by the fusion of metals.

J. T. S., of Ohio.—A good black paint for use on show cards may be made of ivory black, or lamp black separated from its oil by heating to a red heat in a closed vessel, and shellac varnish—shellac dissolved in alcohol. We do not recollect the published recipe to which you refer.

Business and Personal.

The Charge for Insertion under this head is One Dollar a Line. If the Notices exceed Four Lines, an Extra Charge will be made.

Punching and shearing machines. Doty Manufacturing Co., Janesville, Wis.

Specialties in the Machinists' line. Parties desiring work of a special character address S. W. Gardiner, 6 Alling st., Newark, N. J.

Manufacturers or venders of heavy steel coil springs please address John J. Rymal, Rochester, Minn., Box 429.

I would like to correspond with parties that would furnish money to bring out a new velocipede, for a share in the same. Address S. W. Wilcox, South Milford, Mass.

$500 will buy the whole right of a plow clevis. L. M. Stearns, Cardiff, Onondaga county, N. Y.

Wanted—one No. 1 Dicks' patent punch. Address Marvin & Co., 265 Broadway.

Manufacturers of perforated sheet iron for malt dryers will please send price list to M. & G., Postoffice box 831, New Orleans, La.

Nitrous Oxide, of absolute purity, at half the usual cost, by Sprague's new patent. Success guaranteed. Instructions free. A. W. Sprague, 138 Lincoln st., Boston.

Inventors' and Manufacturers' Gazette—February number enlarged to 16 pages. The cheapest paper in the world. $1 per year. Published at 37 Park Row. Postoffice box 448, New York City.

Wanted—a good surface planer, with strong feed. Address B. C. Smith & Co., Port Byron, N. Y.

Maleable iron fittings for gas steam, and water, manufactured by Phillips & Cluleys, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Wanted—Descriptive circulars of the most improved machinery for the manufacture of carriage bolts. K., box No. 4, Guelph, Ontario.

The Watch—history, construction, and third edition. Illustrated and improved, neatly bound. Price 50 cents. Address the author, H. F. Piaget, watch repairer, 119 Fulton st., New York.

See Wickersham's advertisement—American oil feeder.

For sale, in good order—a lot of first-class tools and machinery that have been used for pistol making. Apply to E. S. Renwick, 34 Beach st., New York.

A practical and scientific mechanic, competent for any mechanical undertaking, desires a position as superintendent or foreman. Address E. G. 34 Beach st., New York.

Broughton's Lubricators, which are the best, can be obtained of all the dealers in engineers' supplies, in New York and Philadelphia, at manufacturers' prices.

Ericsson's Caloric Engines.—Where a light, safe, economical power is required, these engines—of late greatly improved in construction as well as reduced in price—answer an admirable purpose. Apply to James A. Robinson, 164 Duane st., New York.

Scientific American.—Old and scarce numbers, volumes, and entire sets of the Scientific American for sale at the Scientific Purchasing Agency, 37 Park Row, New York. Postoffice box 448.

Peck's patent drop press. For circulars, address the sole manufacturers, Milo Peck & Co., New Haven, Ct.

Ask for Olmsted's oiler,—the best made. Sold everywhere.

The manufacture and introduction of sheet and cast metal small wares is made a specialty by J. H. White, of Newark, N. J.

For descriptive circular of the best grate bar in use, address Hutchinson & Laurence, No. 8 Dey st., New York.

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American Needle Company, general needle manufacturers, and dealers in sewing-machine materials. Hackle, gill, comb, card pins, etc., to order J. W. Bartlett, Depot 569 Broadway, New York.

See A. S. & J. Gear & Co.'s advertisement elsewhere.

For steam pumps and boiler feeders address Cope & Co., No. 118 East 2d st., Cincinnati, Ohio.

Responsible and practical engineers pronounce the Tupper Grate Bar the best in use. Send for a pamphlet. L. B. Tupper, 120 West st., N.Y.

Iron.—W. D. McGowan, iron broker, 73 Water st., Pittsburgh, Pa.

For sale—100-horse beam engine. Also, milling and edging machines. E. Whitney, New Haven, Conn.

N. C. Stiles' pat. punching and drop presses, Middletown, Ct.

Winans' boiler powder, N. Y., removes and prevents incrustations without injury or foaming; 12 years in use. Beware of imitations.

The paper that meets the eye of all the leading manufacturers throughout the United States—The Boston Bulletin. $4 a year.

Recent American and Foreign Patents.

Under this heading we shall publish weekly notes of some of the more prominent home and foreign patents.

Cultivator.—George W. Van Brunt, Horicon, Wis.—This invention relates to the mode of attaching cultivator teeth to the beams or drag bars, and consists in the employment of two screw bolts and nuts, in connection with a clamping plate and a locking device, the whole being used with a pivoted cultivator tooth having a curved arm which is held in position by the locking device.

Fire Board.—G. W. and W. H. Metcalf, Baltimore, Md.—The object of this invention is to construct a simple, cheap, and neat fire board which can readily be extended or contracted in length and width, to adjust it to fireplaces of different sizes.

Mortising Tool.—Thomas and J. H. Burdick, Albany, N. Y.—This invention relates to that class of mortising machine, which has its cutter so arranged that it can cut straight on both ends of a mortise, so that neat workmanship can be produced by very simple means.

Anchor.—Charles F. Brown, Warren, R. I.—This invention relates to a new anchor, which is provided with jointer flukes which adjust themselves automatically to the position of the anchor, and to the nature of the ground, so as to securely hold the anchor to the ground.

Turbine Water Wheel.—James Martin, Florence, Ala.—This invention relates to a new and useful improvement in turbine water wheels, and has for its object the obtaining, in a more perfect manner than hitherto, of power from the percussive and reactive force of the water.

Locking Device for Car Axle Box Covers.—Wm. R. Hunter, Erie, Pa. —The object of this invention is to provide a means for readily locking the covers of car axle boxes.

Self-lubricating Crossheads.—I. H. Congdon, Omaha, Neb.—This invention relates to improvements in crossheads for steam engines whereby it is designed to provide an improved means of lubricating them.

Carding Machine.—Edwin C. Cleveland and Joseph M. Bassett, Worcester, Mass.—This invention relates to improvements in carding machines whereby it is designed to provide a more improved arrangement of means for setting the feed rollers into or out of action.

Compound for Destroying Worms.—F. Sidney Townsend, South Seaville, N. J.—The object of this invention is to provide means for protecting fruit trees, and other trees and shrubs, from damage and destruction from worms and insects.

Quilting Frame and Clothes Dryer.—M. Simpkins, East Florence, N. Y.—This invention relates to a new quilting frame, which is provided with expansion arms, that are pivoted to stationary supports so that they can be swung up if desired to economize room, or to convert the apparatus into an effective clothes dryer.

Combined Door Bolt and Weather Strip.—A. Newcomb, Shipman, Ill. —The object of this invention is to provide a weather strip that may be actuated to open or close by the action of a common door bolt, when the same is moved to fasten or unfasten the door.

Washing and Rinsing Machine.—Martin R. Lemman, Wesson, Miss.— This invention relates to a new washing machine, in which the clothes to be washed are not in the least injured, and in which they are well tossed and agitated so as to be quickly washed. The invention also consists of an endless slat band, suspended from a roller which is hung eccentrically, so that the clothes which are placed into the band are well turned and tossed, not only by the eccentric motion of the roller, but also by the slats which are of different thicknesses.

Carpet Stretcher.—Charles Ruckert, New York city.—This invention relates to a new device for stretching carpets while the same are being put down, and it consists in the use of a jointed lever, which swings on a bifurcated support, and which carries a toothed tool, by means of which the carpet can be grasped. The support is forced into the ground and then the lever is caused to take hold of the carpet with its teeth, and is then swung downward, whereby the toothed part is moved forward to stretch the carpet.

Trunk.—S. Ullman, Norfolk, Va.—This invention consists in substituting for the straps commonly used, metallic strips jointed at one end to the body of the trunk and at the other to the cover, and having a rule joint in the center, so arranged that they will hold the cover rigidly when open, and fold down compactly when the cover is closed down.

Washing Machine.—John Ringen, St. Louis, Mo.—This invention has for its object to furnish an improved washing machine, simple in construction, easily operated, and effective in operation, which will do its work quickly and thoroughly, turning the clothes, pressing and rubbing them, and without the least injury even to the most delicate fabrics.

Attachment for Plows.—Adelbert Osborn and Edward Wulzen, Streator, Ill.—This invention has for its object to furnish an improved attachment for plows by means of which cornstalks, weeds, grass, etc., may be brought into such positions that they may be covered by the soil turned over by the plow.

Grading Plow or Scraper.—A. P. Hopkins, Bentleyville, Pa.—This invention has for its object to furnish an improved machine for moving dirt, snow, and other substances, from place to place, as in grading roads, etc., clearing off snow or dirt from roads, pavements, yards, etc., and for similar uses.

Melody Attachment for Key-Board Instruments.—Carl Fogelberg New York city.—This invention has for its object to furnish an improved attachment for pianos and other key-board instruments by means of which a flute solo or other melody, either with or without accompaniment may be played upon the instrument by means of the same keys by which ordinary music is played upon said instrument.

Apparatus for Distilling Volatile Hydro-carbons.—C. M. James, New York city.—This invention has for its object to furnish an improved apparatus designed especially for the distillation of volatile hydro-carbons, but equally applicable for other substances, by the use of which the desired distillate may be obtained of a uniform density or gravity in a continuous process until the whole or nearly the whole of the substance being operated upon has been distilled.

Cultivator.—Wm. R. Blanchard, Hertford, N. C.—This invention has for its object to furnish an improved implement for cultivating corn and other crops planted in rows, and which shall be so constructed as to be easily and quickly adjusted for the different purposes for which it may be used and so as to do its work well.

Voltaic Piles.—John Jacob Geiger, Chicago, Ill.—The object of this invention is to provide a portable and convenient voltaic pile, and consists in the construction and arrangement of the parts of the same whereby cups or cells for the voltaic fluid are dispensed with and the said fluid held between the plates by capillary attraction.

Pump Valves.—Joseph C. Couldrey, N. Y. city, and Thomas Couldrey, Liverpool, Eng.—This invention has for its object to furnish an improved pump valve, designed especially for ship pumps, but which shall be equally adapted for use in other situations, and which shall be so constructed and arranged as to avoid the liability to become choked or clogged by substances that may find their way into the wells.

Hollow Stopple for Tanks, Bins, etc.—John A. Livingston, New York city.—This invention has for its object to furnish an improved device, by means of which sugar and sirups in sugar houses, and other similar substances, may be passed from an upper to a lower floor through tanks or bins filled with dry or liquid substances without becoming intermingled with the contents of said bins or tanks.

Hot Air Furnace.—James Martin, Florence, Ala.—This invection relates to an improved apparatus for heating air for warming buildings, and it consists in the combination and arrangement of the horizontal cylinders provided with suitable openings for the admission and discharge of the air

THILL COUPLING.—James L. Cole, Columbus City, Iowa.—This invention has for its object to furnish an improved coupling for connecting the thills or tongue of a buggy or other carriage to the forward axle, which shall be simple in construction, reliable in operation, not liable to get out of order, or to become accidentally uncoupled, and which may be easily detached, when required, without its being necessary to unscrew nuts or remove bolts.

CENTRIFUGAL AND SCREW PUMP.—John H. White, of Lima, Peru, South America, and William S. Henson, of Newark, N. J.—This invention relates to a new and improved construction for pumps for raising water and other liquids, and it consists in revolving a conical screw in a properly constructed shell, and in the arrangement of the supply valves in combination therewith, whereby the water is raised by the combined force of the revolving screw and centrifugal motion.

GRAIN FEEDING AND SCOURING APPARATUS.—John W. Ardinger, Mount Pulaski, Ill.—The object of this invention is to provide a simple and effective apparatus for scouring grain, which will also serve as a feed regulator, either for grain or ground stuffs, such as middlings, etc.

TRUSS.—J. R. Blake, Dyer Station, Tenn.—This invention consists in the application or use of an under strap of india-rubber or other suitable elastic substance, whereby the truss may be worn with greater ease and comfort and all the advantages of the improved truss retained.

GLOBE HOLDER.—Thos. Hay, Newark, N. J.—This invention relates to improvements in apparatus for holding glass globes upon gas burners and chimneys upon lamps, and consists in the arrangement of a coiled spring in a circle upon the top of the circular base which support the said globes or chimneys, in a manner to spring over the flanges at the bases of the globes or chimneys when they are placed thereon, and close down upon them above the said flanges, forming a secure holder.

PIANOFORTE TREBLE VIBRATION CHECK.—A. V. T. Barberie, Brooklyn, E. D., N.Y.—This invention consists in applying the weight of a lead bar, or pressure by any desired means, upon the treble edge of rest plank bridge, thereby producing a clear and brilliant tone free from any metallic quality.

NEW AND USEFUL ADJUSTABLE SOCKET FOR DOOR BOLTS.—G. W. Davis, Brooklyn, N. Y.—The object of this invention is to provide for the shrinking and settling of doors in the arrangement of door bolts, and to consequently so construct the socket for the bolt that, whatever be the displacement of the door, the socket can always be brought in line with the bolt.

Inventions Patented in England by Americans.

[Compiled from the "Journal of the Commissioners of Patents."]

PROVISIONAL PROTECTION FOR SIX MONTHS.

2,746.—STEAM LAND LOCOMOTIVE TRACTION ENGINE AND ATTACHMENTS.—Henry Cowing, New Orleans, La. September 7, 1868.

3,881.—MANUFACTURE OF CARPETS AND OTHER FIGURED FABRICS, AND WEAVING MACHINERY EMPLOYED THEREIN.—H. G. Thompson, New York city. December 21, 1868.

3,923.—MANUFACTURE OF CUT PILE CARPETS AND OTHER FIGURED FABRICS.—H. G. Thompson, New York city. December 23, 1868.

3,924.—PLATES FOR HOLDING ARTIFICIAL TEETH.—E. B. Goodall, Portsmouth, N. H. December 23, 1868.

3,928.—RENDERING COD LIVER OIL AND OTHER OILY OR FATTY MATTERS PALATABLE.—T. Hyatt, New York city. December 23, 1868.

3,952.—APPARATUS AND MANUFACTURE OF WROUGHT METAL PIPES.—J. B. Clow, Allegeny, Penn. December 29, 1868.

3,976.—APPARATUS FOR DRYING AND GROWING MALT AND ALL OTHER GRAINS, FRUITS, OR VEGETABLES.—Joseph Gecmen, Chicago, Ill. December 31, 1868.

37.—LAWN MOWERS.—A. M. Hills, East Hartford, Conn. January 5, 1869.

Official List of Patents.

Issued by the United States Patent Office.

FOR THE WEEK ENDING JANUARY 26, 1869.

Reported Officially for the Scientific American.

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In addition to which there are some small revenue-stamp taxes. Residents of Canada and Nova Scotia pay $500 on application.

Patents and Patent Claims.—*The number of patents issued weekly having become so great, with a probability of a continual increase, has decided us to publish, in future, other and more interesting matter in place of the Claims. The Claims have occupied from three to four pages a week, and are believed to be of interest to only a comparative few of our readers. The publication of the names of patentees, and title of their inventions, will be continued; and, also, as heretofore, a brief description of the most important inventions. We have made such arrangements that we are not only prepared to furnish copies of Claims, but full Specifications at the annexed prices:*

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86,119.—CATTLE TIE.—Wm. Allport, New Britain, Conn.
86,120.—SPRING BED BOTTOM.—J. H. Almond, Louisville, Ky.
86,121.—MACHINE FOR MENDING STOCKINGS.—Benj. Arnold, East Greenwich, R. I.
86,122.—MACHINE FOR MENDING STOCKINGS.—Benj. Arnold, East Greenwich, R. I.
86,123.—JOINING OR SPLICING BELTS.—John Ashworth (assignor to himself, John B. Cotton, and R. C. Reynolds), Lewiston, Me.
86,124.—SASH LOCK.—M. L. Ballard and R. B. Killin (assignors to R. B. Killin and Ballard, Fast, and Company), Canton, Ohio.
86,125.—LOW WATER DETECTOR FOR STEAM BOILERS.—E. S. Bennett (assignor to himself and Justus Smith), New York city. Antedated January 13, 1869.
86,126.—SAFETY VALVE.—E. S. Bennett (assignor to himself and Justus Smith), New York city. Antedated January 21, 1869.
86,127.—LIFE PRESERVER.—E. S. Bennett (assignor to himself and Justus Smith), New York city. Antedated Jan. 11, 1869.
86,128.—BEEHIVE.—Wm. Black, Harrisburgh, Penn.
86,129.—CAR COUPLING.—A. J. Braley, Berlin, Vt.
86,130.—AX HANDLE SHIELD.—Beauman Butler, St. Johnsbury Center, Vt.
86,131.—SHAFT FOR SLEIGHS.—C. H. Butterfield, Westborough, Mass.
86,132.—APPARATUS FOR PRINTING SKIRTS.—Thomas Byrne, Brooklyn, and T. Henry, New York city. Antedated January 11, 1869.
86,133.—FARM FENCE.—V. Calkins (assignor to himself and J. W. Johnson), Varysburg, N. Y.
86,134.—GALVANIC BATTERY.—Chas. T. Chester, Englewood, N. J. Antedated January 18, 1869.
86,135.—METHOD OF ATTACHING TEETH TO DENTAL PLATES.—A. Clark, Galesburg, Ill.
86,136.—SAW-MILL DOG.—J. Cobleigh, Morristown, Vt.
86,137.—HAMES FASTENER.—E. A. Cooper, Buffalo, N. Y.
86,138.—PIPE WRENCH AND CUTTER.—R. A. Copeland, Baltimore, Md., assignor to Justus Smith and E. S. Bennett, New York city. Antedated January 9, 1869.
86,139.—CLOTHES LINE STRETCHER.—S. Crowell, Philadelphia, Penn. Antedated January 4, 1869.
86,140.—CLOTHES FRAME.—J. Danner, Canton, Ohio.
86,141.—SEAT FOR CHAIRS, CARS, ETC.—B. M. Darling, Woonsocket, R. I. Antedated January 11, 1869.
86,142.—MANUFACTURE OF CARBONATE OF AMMONIA.—S. R. Divine, New York city.
86,143.—MACHINE FOR TRIMMING WALL PAPER.—S. Elder, Buffalo, N. Y.
86,144.—FLASK FOR MOLDING PIPE.—J. Farrar, Providence, R. I., and L. F. Whiting, Boston, Mass.
86,145.—LINING FOR MOLDS FOR CASTING METALS.—John Farrar, Providence, R. I., and L. F. Whiting, Boston, Mass.
86,146.—PRESSING OR EXPELLING THE WATER FROM CLOTHES.—T. Fowler, Seymour, Conn.
86,147.—MODE OF CONSTRUCTING THE LEGS OF STOVES.—John Gibson, Jr., Albany, N. Y.
86,148.—CLAY MACHINERY.—G. D. Goodrich, Chicago, Ill.
86,149.—TRACE FASTENING.—C. Graham, New York city.
86,150.—CARRIAGE COUPLING.—L. Grim, Fort Branch, Ind.
86,151.—MODE OF CONSTRUCTING LIGHTNING RODS.—G. B. Hamilton, Wellington, and J. S. Stevenes, Cleveland, Ohio. Antedated July 27, 1868.
86,152.—INJECTOR FOR BOILERS.—John T. Hancock, Jamaica Plain, Mass.
86,153.—VELOCIPEDE.—J. E. Hawkins, Lansingburgh, N. Y.
86,154.—FISH HOOK.—M. Hiltz (assignor to himself and L. A. Burnham), Gloucester, Mass.
86,155.—GASOMETER.—J. E. Hobbs, North Berwick, Me.
86,156.—SELF-ACTING SPINNING MACHINE.—Henry Holcroft, F. R. Pearson, and R. Shore, Philadelphia, Penn.
86,157.—FOLDING FRUIT BOX.—J. H. Hollingsworth, Philadelphia, Pa. Antedated January 11th, 1869.
86,158.—NOZZLE FILTER.—H. Houston, Pittsburgh, Pa. Antedated January 11, 1869.
86,159.—FOLDING TUB.—C. H. Hudson, New York city. Antedated January 11, 1869.
86,160.—CULTIVATOR.—J. Huff, Young America, Ill.
86,161.—CAR COUPLING.—O. Z. Hurd and John W. Ardinger, Mount Pulaski, Ill.
86,162.—DIE FOR CUTTING OUT PAPER COLLARS.—E. Jeffers, Boston, Mass.
86,163.—SEWING MACHINE.—John T. Jones (assignor to the Singer Manufacturing Company), New York city.
86,164.—SEWING MACHINE.—John T. Jones (assignor to the Singer Manufacturing Company), New York city.
86,165.—COMBINED BOOT JACK AND BLACKING CABINET.—L. P. Keach, Baltimore, Md. Antedated January 11, 1869.
86,166.—MACHINERY FOR CLINCHING HORSE SHOE NAILS.—David Kirk, Orleans, N. Y.
86,167.—PROCESS AND APPARATUS FOR SEPARATING MAGNETIC FROM NON-MAGNETIC SUBSTANCES.—Francois Alexandre Hubert La Rue and Octave Audet (assignors to F. A. H. La Rue and C. E. Panet), Quebec, Canada.
86,168.—STEAM SAFETY VALVE.—W. H. Low, New York city.
86,169.—SPRING BED BOTTOM.—D. Manuel (assignor to J. S. Paine), Boston, Mass.
86,170.—CULTIVATOR.—T. J. Martin, Willow Hill, Ill.
86,171.—MANUFACTURE OF SPITTOONS FROM RUBBER, GUTTA-PERCHA, ETC.—J. J. Mayall, Roxbury, Mass.
86,172.—TONIC BEVERAGE.—Dr. J. Mayer, Cleveland, Ohio.
86,173.—BALL AND SOCKET JOINT.—Edward Maynard, Washington, D. C.
86,174.—LUBRICATOR.—F. P. McCullon, Philadelphia, and W. Woodcock, Scranton, Pa.
86,175.—ANIMAL TRAP.—G. W. Merritt and H. S. Gibbs, Norwalk, Conn.
86,176.—BORING AND MORTISING MACHINE.—A. O. Neal, Hyde Park, Mass.
86,177.—WRITING SLATE.—Daniel W. Niles, Cambridgeport, Mass.
86,178.—HARVESTER RAKE.—H. F. Phillips, Auburn, N. Y.
86,179.—HAY ELEVATOR AND CONVEYOR.—Thomas I. Powell, Naples, N. Y.
86,180.—COLLAR.—Cyrus W. Saladee, Circleville, Ohio.
86,181.—WRENCH.—Pierre Augustin Samuel, Paris, France.
86,182.—MACHINE FOR SPINNING TAPERING TUBES OF SHEET METAL.—Frederick I. Seymour (assignor to himself and E. Miller & Co.), Meriden, Conn.
86,183.—FASTENING FOR CORSETS.—H. N. Sherman, Beloit, Wis. Antedated January 22, 1869.
86,184.—FARM GATE.—George Smith, Providence, R. I.
86,185.—CULTIVATOR FOR DIRTING COTTON.—James Scott Smith, Helena, Ark.
86,186.—HANGER FOR SHAFTING.—Henry F. Snyder, Williamsport, Pa.
86,187.—MANUFACTURE OF ILLUMINATING GAS.—Levi Stevens, Washington, D. C.
86,188.—HAMES HOOK AND CLEVIS.—A. Strever, Albany, N. Y.
86,189.—CONSTRUCTION OF SAFES.—T. J. Sullivan, Albany, N. Y.
86,190.—POTATO PLOW.—R. P. Terhune and B. J. Romaine, Hackensack, N. J.
86,191.—SASH HOLDER.—R. M. Thompson, Coshocton, Ohio.
86,192.—GRAIN DRYER.—Hiram Walker, Detroit, Mich.
86,193.—FLOAT FOR LIFE PRESERVERS, ETC.—James W. Weston, New York city.
86,194.—GRAIN CLEANER.—James E. Wheat, Rochester, N. Y.
86,195.—STEAM WHISTLE DRAIN-VALVE DEVICE.—Thomas Windell and John H. Dorst, New Albany, Ind.
86,196.—AUTOMATIC PLUG FOR BARRELS.—Thomas Windell and John H. Dorst, New Albany, Ind.
86,197.—ENDLESS CHAIN FOR HORSE POWERS.—Abram Wright and George F. Wright, Clinton, Mass. Antedated January 8, 1869.
86,198.—VAPOR HEATER.—C. M. Young, Philadelphia, Pa.
86,199.—GRAIN-FEEDING AND SCOURING APPARATUS.—John W. Ardinger, Mount Pulaski, Ill.
86,200.—MANUFACTURE OF SULPHURIC AND HYDROCHLORIC ACIDS.—Haydn M. Baker, Washington, D. C.
86,201.—MANUFACTURE OF SULPHUR AND CHLORINE.—Haydn M. Baker, Washington, D. C.
86,202.—MANUFACTURE OF STEEL.—Haydn M. Baker, Washington, D. C.
86,203.—CORN HARVESTER.—Moses Bales and William P. Bales, London, Ohio.
86,204.—TRUSS.—John R. Blake, Dyer Station, Tenn.
86,205.—CULTIVATOR.—W. R. Blanchard, Hertford, N. C.
86,206.—ANCHOR.—Charles F. Brown, Warren, R. I.
86,207.—STUMP EXTRACTOR.—Thomas J. Brown, Belvidere, Ill.
86,208.—JOINTER FOR CIRCULAR SAWS.—John R. Bullis, Bowling Green, Ohio.
86,209.—MORTISING TOOL.—Thomas Burdick and James H. Burdick, Albany, N. Y.
86,210.—STEAM HEATER.—John H. Clark and John B. Clark, Providence, R. I.
86,211.—CARDING ENGINE.—Edwin C. Cleveland and Joseph M. Bassett, Worcester, Mass.
86,212.—THILL COUPLING.—J. L. Cole, Columbus City, Iowa.
86,213.—PUMP.—John F. Collins, New York city.
86,214.—SELF-LUBRICATING CROSS HEAD FOR STEAM ENGINES.—Isaac H. Congdon, Omaha, Nebraska.
86,215.—HOP PRESS.—Miers Coryell, New York city.
86,216.—PUMP VALVE.—Joseph C. Couldrey, New York city, and Thomas Couldrey, Liverpool, England.
86,217.—ADJUSTABLE KEEPER FOR DOOR BOLTS.—George W. Davis, Brooklyn, N. Y.
86,218.—HARROW.—Thos. H. Eulass, Mason City, Ill.
86,219.—MELODY ATTACHMENT FOR KEY-BOARD INSTRUMENTS.—Carl Fogelberg, New York city.
86,220.—MALLEABLE CAST-IRON BOLT.—Pinckney Frost, Springfield, Vt.
86,221.—VOLTAIC PILE.—John Jacob Geiger, Chicago, Ill.
86,222.—MARBLE TOP WASH-STAND.—Pearson E. Gruger and John P. Gruger, Lancaster, Pa.
86,223.—ROAD SCRAPER.—Robert Hamilton, Franklin, Ind.
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U. S. Patent Office, Washington, D. C., Jan. 23, 1869.

Clement Russell, of Massillon, Stark county, Ohio, having petitioned for the extension of a patent granted him on the 1st day of May, 1855, reissued May 15, 1862, for an improvement in Double-geared Horse Powers, it is ordered that said petition be heard at this office on the 12th day of April next.

Any person may oppose this extension. Objections, depositions, and other papers, should be filed in this office twenty days before the day of hearing.
ELISHA FOOTE, Commissioner of Patents.

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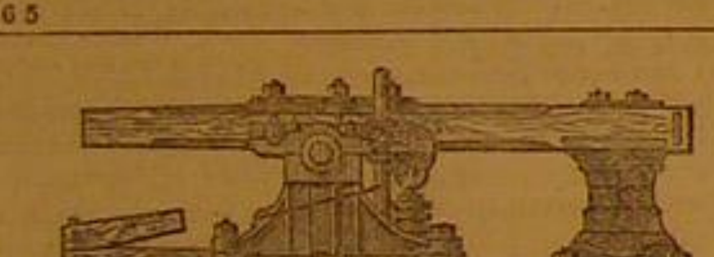

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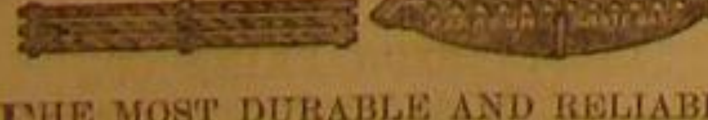

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U. S. PATENT OFFICE, Washington, D. C., Jan. 28th, 1869. Solomon E. Bolles, of Rochester, Mass., having petitioned for the extension of a patent granted him on the 10th day of April, 1855, for an improvement in Machine for Raising and Transporting Stones, it is ordered that said petition be heard at this office on the 7th day of April next.

Any person may oppose this extension. Objections, depositions, and other papers, should be filed in this office twenty days before the day of hearing. ELISHA FOOTE, Commissioner of Patents.

U. S. PATENT OFFICE, Washington, D. C., Jan. 23d, 1869. Lydia W. Litchfield (administratrix of the estate of Laroy Litchfield), of Southbridge, Mass., having petitioned for the extension of a patent granted him on the 1st day of May, 1855, for an improvement in Shuttles for Looms, it is ordered that said petition be heard at this office on the 12th day of April next.

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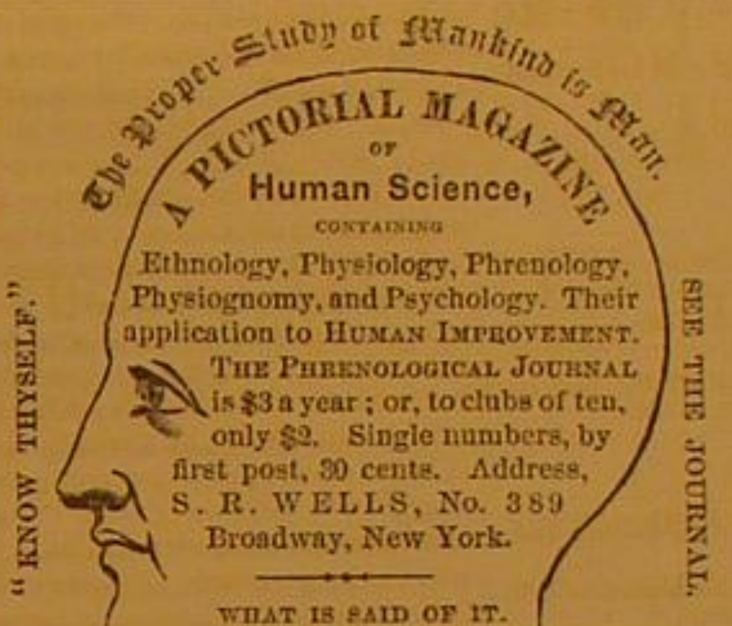

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ASSETS.

Cash, balance in bank	$145,705 43
Bonds and Mortgages, being first lien on Real Estate	1,178,965 00
Loans on Stocks, payable on demand	499,062 00
United States Stocks (market value)	1,404,743 50
State and Municipal Stocks and Bonds (market value)	451,305 00
Bank Stocks (market value)	128,976 00
Interest due on 1st January, 1869	38,503 17
Balance in hands of Agents and in course of transmission	95,619 20
Bills receivable (for premiums on Inland risks, etc.)	14,000 94
Other property, miscellaneous items	56,157 85
Premiums due and uncollected on policies issued at office	6,873 40
Steamer Magnet and wrecking apparatus	35,336 81
Government stamps on hand	144 00
Total	$3,966,282 30

LIABILITIES.

Claims for losses outstanding on 1st Jan., 1869	$104,097 48
Due stockholders for unpaid dividends	2,740 00
	$106,837 48

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1 3-ft. " 3 ft. " 18 in. "	200 00
1 Heavy-geared Slotter	400 00
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