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## Improved Turbine.

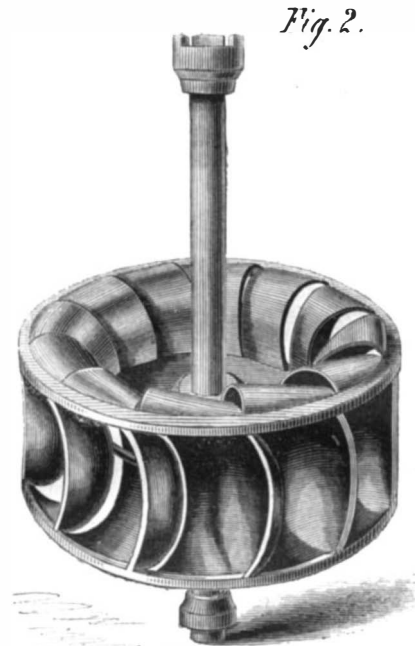
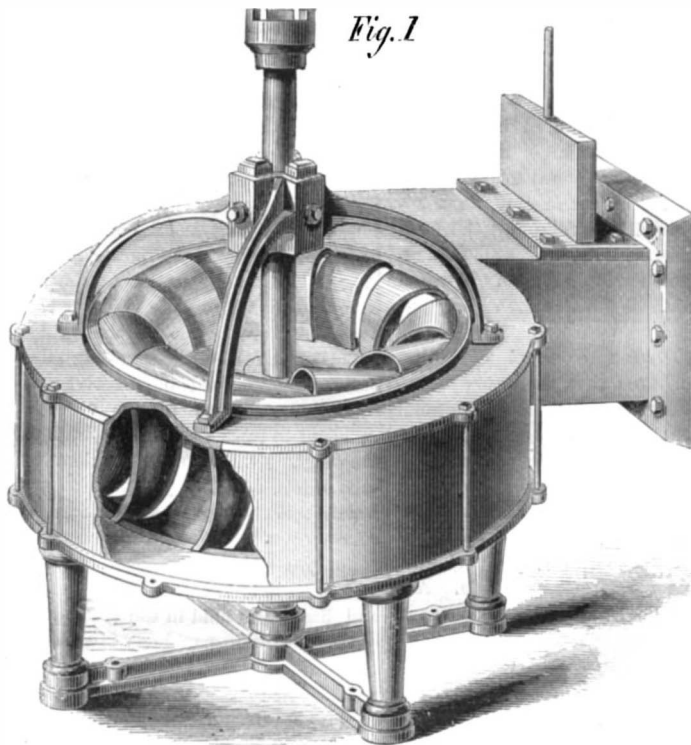
The employment of turbine wheels seems to be on the increase, and numbers of manufacturers are investigating the merits of the several kinds brought before the public with the view of adopting those which yield the largest percentage of the water power. For factories of all kinds, and in places where steady power is required, turbines are fast superseding breast and over-shot wheels. The engravings here published (Figs. 1 and 2) represent a turbine wheel of peculiar construction. The wheel itself, shown isolated in Fig. 2, gives a clear idea of the

progress there are firms who build side-lever engines. A new French vessel built in Scotland has just received a pair of the dimensions stated below:—The *Europe* is 3,400 tons B. M., and a sister ship to the *Washington* and *Lafayette*, at present plying between New York and Havre. The machinery of the *Europe*, like her sister ships, was made by the Greenock Foundry Company. The engines are side-levers of 800 nominal horse-power. The diameter of the cylinders is 94½ inches, with a stroke of 108 inches. The levers are 24 feet long, and 7 feet broad at the center. The paddles are 37½ feet in diameter.

apex of the octagonal boss. The main shaft is driven by a vertical direct-acting engine-cylinder, 23½ in. internal diameter, 19 11-16 in. stroke, worked high-pressure. A wall is built on each side of the fan, giving about 1 in. clearance to the side of the vanes.

Outside of one wall the engine is fixed, and in the other an inlet orifice of proper size is left—in the Elswick arrangement 10 feet diameter, such inlet being connected with the upcast-shaft.

“An arch is carried over the face, giving about 2 in. clearance to the vanes, and in continuation of



## GALLAGHER'S TURBINE.

conformation of the buckets—the principal feature—and the case broken out discloses the wheel as it stands when in use. The advantages of it are thus set forth by the inventor:—

“One of the principal advantages of this turbine is the construction of the buckets, as plainly seen in the engraving, which, being the most important part of the whole machinery for the water to act upon, are prominently shown. In order to gain more power with the same quantity of water used in other turbines, and more fall or head of water, the friction must be reduced and the pit made deeper. To obtain a wheel of the class specified, the buckets must be so constructed that they will admit of the water being discharged immediately after it has acted upon or against the bucket, and without coming in contact with any part of the wheel which would detract from the effect or power of water obtained by its first impact with the buckets.

“This cheap and economical wheel can be put in the place of another wheel of its class in the same scroll or case without any trouble.”

This invention was patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency on the 23d of September, 1862, by H. N. Gallagher. For further information address Messrs. Fuller & Lafely, manufacturers, Cohoes, N. Y.

## A New French Steamer.

It seems that even in these days of engineering

The fact that the start of these three vessels' engines was so successful, and that no after alterations had to be made on them, reflects credit on the engineering department of the company. The boilers of the *Europe* are six in number; four of them are for working the engine, the other two are donkey boilers. The four large boilers weigh, when empty, 60 tons each. They are 22 feet long, 14 feet high, and 12 feet broad. The four boilers have collectively 1,131 brass tubes, each 7 feet long and 3 inches in diameter. They are fired by 24 furnaces, each 10 feet long.

## How the Elswick, Eng., Colliery is Ventilated.

The *London Mining Journal* has the following:—“The ventilator is upon the principle of an exhausting fan; it consists of eight vanes, each of which is formed of 1½ in. oak cleading, secured by bolts to a pair of bars and angle irons, which are bolted to two cast-iron octagonal bosses, keyed on the main shaft, and interlaced, as shown in an accompanying drawing, forming a very firm structure, at the same time simple and inexpensive, admitting of a speed of as much as 150 or 200 revolutions per minute without danger.

“The outside diameter of the vanes is 23 feet, the width 6 feet 6.75 inches, and each vane extends about 8 feet into the interior of the fan, being inclined at an angle of 67.5° to a radial line through the

this arch an invert to a point about one-eighth of the circumference below the center line, at which point the 2-in. clearance is increased gradually, expanding the lower curve of the casting till it ends in the sloping side of a chimney formed between the continuation of the side walls of the fan. A sliding shutter is fitted into cast-iron grooved rails for about one-fifth of the circumference, which enables the concentric circle of the top arch to be completed nearly round the fan—that is, giving the 2-in. clearance to the vanes. This shutter is worked by a chain passing over sheaves at the top of the chimney and to the outside. For convenience a man-hole door is left at the foot of the sloping side of the chimney. The fan being set in motion, the air is drawn through the inlet from the mine, and discharged below the shutter into the chimney, from the top of which it is seen to issue at no great velocity. This system, called from the inventor the Guibal Ventilator, possesses important advantages over other machine ventilators—1. In the simplicity of construction;—2. In the arrangements for covering in of the fan;—and 3. In the shutter chimney. Experimental trials, however, are necessary to determine the best size of outlet for any particular mine. The fan at Elswick was constructed specially for the circulation of 50,000 cubic feet of air per minute, with a water-gage of 1.5 in., which is guaranteed to yield at 60 revolutions; and the generally satisfactory working of the ventilator has been established.”

## CAPILLARITY.

When your cup of tea is all gone but a spoonful, rest your hand upon the edge of the cup and gradually lower your spoon till the point just touches the surface of the liquid. You will see the bits of leaves floating in the fluid immediately dart toward the spoon, converging from all directions.

Again, take two plates of glass, bring the vertical edges on one side in contact, and separate the two opposite edges by a thin wedge; then place the lower edges of the glass plates in a shallow pan of water. You will see the liquid rise up between the plates, ascending the highest where the edges are nearest together. The height of the column will be inversely as its distance from the angle of contact between the plates, and the surface will consequently describe a hyperbolic curve.

The following facts in relation to capillarity are stated by Professor Miller:—

"The elevation of the column of liquid in tubes of equal diameter varies with the nature of the liquid, the variation depending partly on the difference of cohesion between the particles of the liquid, partly upon the difference of adhesion between the liquid and the glass. In consequence of the decrease of both these forces by heat, the height of the column diminishes as the temperature rises.

"In liquids, such as mercury, where the force of cohesion preponderates over their tendency to adhere to the sides of the tube, the capillary action is reversed; the surface becomes convex instead of concave, and the height of the column within the tube is depressed below the general level. In a mass of liquid, each particle is maintained in its place by the mutual attraction of all the surrounding ones; but if a column be isolated from the mass of liquid by the interposition of the walls of the tube, the sides of which exert little or no equivalent adhesive force, the cohesion of the mass below draws down the upper particles, and produces a depression of the column. This depression of mercury in glass renders a certain correction necessary in reading off the height of the mercurial column in the barometer, which always stand a little lower than the elevation due to the atmospheric pressure. The narrower the bore of the tube the greater is the depression. Experiment has shown that this capillary depression is nearly one-half less in tubes that have had the mercury boiled within them, than in unboiled tubes, as the process of boiling expels the film of air, which adheres to the glass in unboiled tubes. By employing a tube of  $\frac{3}{4}$  or  $\frac{1}{2}$  an inch in the bore, this correction becomes so trifling that it may be neglected. In a tube of  $\frac{1}{2}$  of an inch in diameter, in which the mercury had been boiled, the depression is 0.02 inch, while with a similar tube of  $\frac{3}{4}$  an inch in diameter it is only 0.003. The capillary depression of mercury is slightly increased by elevation of temperature.

"Capillary action plays an important part in the operations of nature, and in a variety of ways has been rendered subservient to the wants of man. A familiar illustration of its employment is seen in the wicks of lamps and candles, which, being composed of a bundle of fibrous materials, furnish hair-like channels by which the oil or melted combustible is elevated to the flame, and supplied as fast as it is consumed. Capillary action influences the circulation of the liquids in the porous tissues of organized beings, and it is the principal mode in which water, with the various substances which it holds in solution, is supplied to the roots of growing plants. By its means, during the droughts of summer, fresh supplies of moisture are raised towards the surface, for the maintenance of vegetable life; and in the same way, when during winter the surface is hard bound by a long dry frost, water is constantly finding its way from beneath, is solidified upon the surface, and remains stored up until a thaw ensues; when this occurs, the accumulated moisture mellowes the soil and produces the well known soft and plashy state of the ground which follows long-continued frosts, and which extends deeper, the longer the duration of the freezing temperature, although neither snow nor rain may have fallen. Few persons are aware of the immense force which may be developed by capillary action; if a plug of dried wood be fitted into a strong glass tube, and the end of the plug be immersed in water, the wood becomes swelled by the

imbibition of liquid owing to capillary action, and the tube is split. In some parts of Germany this force is turned to account in splitting millstones from the rock: holes are bored into its substance in the direction in which it is to be split, and into these holes wedges of dry wood are driven tightly; when exposed to moisture they swell, and large blocks of stone are thus detached with little labor or expense.

"As adhesion takes place solely between the surfaces of bodies, it is evident that any circumstance which increases the extent of that surface must materially facilitate the exertion of this force. Minute subdivision, by thus increasing the extent of surface, greatly exalts the effect of adhesion:—for example, a cube of 1 inch in the side exposes a surface of 6 square inches, i. e., there is a square inch upon each of its six faces; if this cube be subdivided into a number of smaller cubes, each of which is only  $\frac{1}{1000}$  of an inch in the side, it would furnish 1,000,000,000 of these minute cubes. Now as each little cube has 6 sides, the surface which it will expose is  $\frac{6}{1000}$  of a square inch, 1,000,000 of them will expose 6 square inches; that is, as much surface as a solid cube of an inch in the side; the 1,000,000,000 cubes will consequently expose 1000 times as great a surface, or upwards of 41.7 square feet. The force of adhesion, therefore, by such subdivision, should be increased somewhat in this proportion.

"The influence of this kind of subdivision in exalting the effect of adhesion is strikingly exhibited in the case of charcoal. The structure of the wood from which the charcoal is procured is cellular: when heated in vessels from which air is excluded, the volatile constituents of the wood are expelled; and the charcoal, which does not fuse, remains behind in a very porous condition, retaining the form of the wood which furnished it. Mitscherlich calculates that the cells of which a cubic inch of box-wood is formed expose a surface of not less than 73 square feet.

"Adhesion occurs between charcoal and other bodies with degrees of force that vary very much. For the coloring matters of vegetable and animal origin this adhesion is extremely energetic; so that if these bodies be dissolved in any liquid and agitated with charcoal, nearly the whole of the coloring matter will be retained by the charcoal, and on separating the latter by filtration, the liquid will run through colorless. Ordinary vinegar, and port wine may thus be obtained in a colorless condition. Advantage is taken of this fact in the refining of sugar, in which process the sirups are deprived of color by filtration through a column of charcoal twelve or thirteen feet in thickness. The species of charcoal which is most extensively employed for this purpose is that obtained by burning bones in closed vessels; and it is hence termed *bone black* or *ivory black*, or frequently *animal charcoal*. The charcoal is in this case in a state of extreme subdivision; it does not constitute above a tenth or a twelfth of the weight of the mass; the remainder consists of earthy matters, chiefly phosphate and carbonate of calcium. When bone black has been used for filtering liquids, and has ceased to take up any more coloring matter, it is thrown aside and allowed to ferment; if then it be well washed and re-burned, it may be used again with nearly equal effect. Other animal matters, especially dried blood, furnish, when calcined and well washed, a charcoal which is still more efficacious. The addition of carbonate of potassium to the mass before calcination, still further increases the discolorizing power.

## Steam in France.

The Government of France has just issued a decree materially altering the regulations laid down in 1843. These were not in accordance with the growth of machinery and trade, and very irksome to those against whom they operated. In 1850 there were but 6,832 steam engines in all France; in 1863 there were 22,516, representing a force of 617,890 horse power, or nearly that of two millions of horses in reality, and which is set down as more than the force of all the men in the kingdom capable of labor. Under such circumstances, and the greatly extended practice and increased knowledge of engine-makers, the old regulations had become quite inapplicable. The new decree greatly simplifies the legislation on the subject. The testing of the various parts of the machinery of-

ficially, till now imperative, has been done away with, except as regards the boiler, which will, in future, have to be proved up to twice the effective pressure of the steam. Steam engines are to be no longer regarded as dangerous machines, and may henceforth be set up without authority from the Government officers and without any other form than a declaration of the fact. Boilers are, as heretofore, divided into three classes, according to their capacity and the pressure to be employed; the regulations concerning the first class are greatly simplified, those of the second class may be set up in any factory or workshop not connected with the dwelling houses of other parties than the proprietor, his family and workpeople, and the least dangerous class may be introduced even into houses occupied by any number of separate families; and even with regard to other cases, the consent of the neighbors is sufficient to set aside the regulations. Another important provision of the new law is, that all steam boilers shall consume their own smoke, six months grace being, however, allowed for the necessary arrangements to be made. There are other clauses well worthy the attention of governments and sanitary boards.

## The Thames Embankment.

The works next to Westminster Bridge are those which attract the greatest amount of public attention, for there everything can be watched from the pumping out of water to the puddling in of clay between the timbers of the coffer-dam, and here, also, can be seen the whole plan of struts and cross timbers which enables the iron caissons to keep out the whole flood of the Thames for a depth of 40 feet above them, and resist a pressure of no less than 120 tons on each caisson. The caissons are elliptical tubes of wrought iron rings or belts, each ring or belt being 12 feet long by 7 feet wide and 4 feet deep, with a flange or edge that admits of the rings being bolted one to another. Three or four of these rings are bolted together and sunk between guiding piles to their proper position in the bed of the river, then others are similarly added on till the height of the whole is sufficient to raise them above high water mark, and the weight of the whole is sufficient to sink the hollow tube of iron which they form through the soft mud on which they rest and keep them water-tight from below. When this result has been attained the water is pumped out and the tube gradually weighted with iron to force it lower till it has reached a fair depth, and has a firm hold in the ground, when the agency of the pneumatic machinery is called into play. After the workmen have descended and dug out the gravel and shingle to a depth of some two or three feet below the lowest internal edges of the tube, a weight of sixty tons of iron is placed upon it from the inside, with an air-tight iron cover, which closes in the top. Through an aperture in the top of this cover the air is forced in by steam power till it has reached a pressure of 8 lbs. to the inch—a pressure which dilates the tube more than half an inch, when the air is suddenly released, and the cylinder as suddenly contracts and sinks through the earth which it has itself enlarged to a depth of two or three feet lower. This process has to be repeated over and over again till all the superincumbent mud and silt and gravel has been penetrated, and that mysterious geological compound, like heavy, brown plaster of Paris, though hard as marble, and known by the name of the London clay, has been reached, when no effort of modern engineering can contrive to get anything much further. The presence of this London clay on the banks of the Thames varies in an almost unaccountable degree. In some cases it crops up close under the mud; in others it can only be found after a laborious penetration of 40 feet below it. Thus one caisson may only penetrate 10 feet below the surface, and its next neighbor may have to go to the depth of 40 feet or 45 feet. Once, however, that it is reached the sinking of the caissons stops, they are merely filled up to the level of low-water mark with solid concrete. The lower parts of these iron banks are never to be removed. The upper parts, which now shut out the Thames at Westminster, will, of course, be taken away, as the wall of the real embankment is built behind them. To take this part as exemplifying the process of construction, we have here a length of 240 feet of iron caissons towards the river, shut in by a cross dam near Montague House, which reaches

back from the caissons to the shore, so as to enclose a water-tight space of nearly an acre and a quarter. From this place the water has been pumped and the mud flushed out, and here in this space next week the labor of building the embankment proper will begin. The first operation will be to clear out all the shingle and gravel to a depth of 14 feet behind the caissons, or more than 40 feet below high-water mark, additional and still more powerful timber supports being added to the caissons as the men get lower down beneath the river, and the pressure of the great mass of water overhead increases. This somewhat hazardous work will be done in short sections at a time, and as fast as the required depth is reached—that is to say, on a level with the concrete with which the caissons are half filled—the excavation will cease, and the space is then to be filled up rapidly with solid concrete. On this will be laid the brickwork, and over all, the river face, the solid blocks of granite, which are to rise in a massive wall to a height of 30 feet above the river. It may give a good rough general idea of the gigantic proportions of this work if we merely mention the quantities with which Mr. Furness, the contractor for the first portion only, from Westminster to Waterloo Bridge, has to deal. First, then, 71,000 cartloads of earth have to be excavated, and 60,000 cartloads of concrete have to be “tipped in,” 4,000 rods, or nearly 70,000 tons, of brickwork have to be laid and faced with 30,000 tons of granite, and the whole has afterwards to be filled up behind with 400,000 cartloads of earth. To those who are now so often blocked up in the Strand by the long, slow-moving, dismal string of carts laden with earth for the embankment it will be sorry tidings to hear that at the least 200,000 more cartloads have yet to pass that way. We fear however, that the nuisance is unavoidable. For the present, therefore, we fear that an abatement of this nuisance, however ardently to be desired, is not yet to be looked for. Another section of the embankment besides that we have mentioned, and which Mr. Furness is hurrying forward with the utmost possible speed, is that between Montague House and Hungerford, where the steam pile-drivers are busy every minute of the day. This section is composed entirely of wood. The coffer-dam is formed of wooden piles in two rows 7 ft. apart, and driven through the shingle as close as they can be got together. The interval between the first and second row is then “puddled” in the usual manner with stiff clay till it is water-tight, when the water is pumped out, the coffer-dam strengthened with struts, as in the case of the iron caissons, and the work of excavation, filling in concrete, and, finally, building will go on as behind those we have already mentioned. Altogether, no less than 1,300 feet out of the 2,000 feet of the first section to Waterloo Bridge have been dammed in with piles or caissons, and this length will be subdivided by nine cross sections leading backwards, so as to render the work of pumping and subsequently building as easy as possible. The length, however, already inclosed towards the river, and over which the water now flows behind the coffer-dam only on sufferance, is very great, and will, when the Thames is entirely shut out, give a space of nearly eleven acres reclaimed from an unsightly, muddy, foreshore into one of the noblest, and the most needed, thoroughfares in Europe.—*Times*.

#### A Canal with a Leaky Bottom.

The *London Engineer* says:—

“An unexplained accident happened at Soho, near to Birmingham, on Wednesday evening, which for some time occasioned considerable alarm to the owners of property there and to the authorities of the Great Western Railway. That line between the Soho and the Hackley station runs under a tunnel, 100 yards long, of an arm, about a quarter of a mile in length, of the Birmingham canal. At about 5 o'clock in the afternoon the driver of a train saw some water running through the tunnel on to the line. Soon a stream of water poured out, and a channel was cut by a number of workmen through the embankment on which the station is built, so that the water might run off into some waste ground. The stream, however, increased in volume, and sweeping through this opening carried with it many tons of the embankment. Subsequently it threw down about one hundred yards of the substantial

stone wall which bounds the line from the Park road, and rushing on to the road tore up the roadway and inundated much property. The water seems to have percolated through the bottom of the canal under the wall of the towing path and the roadway beyond, a width of about twenty-six yards, and then found its way out principally at the bottom of the wall on the down line. As the water poured down it carried with it the whole of the sand that had formed the covering of the tunnel, and broke down the solid brickwork (about eight feet wide) which formed the towing path. This fell in masses on the roof of the tunnel, which, although bared by the water, withstood the pressure, and the roof remains quite solid.”

#### Steam on Common Roads.

Between traction engines and pleasure carriages driven by steam on common roads there is a very wide difference, and those who have the greatest good of the greatest number at heart will continue to urge the claims of the former class over the latter. The *London Engineer* in a leading editorial, headed “Steam on Highways,” very properly condemns high speed pleasure carriages in the following language:—

“It is to the last degree unlikely that any practical advantage whatever could follow on the general introduction of high speed road locomotives, and up to the present moment every exertion to produce such machines represents but so much mechanical skill wasted which might have borne good fruit if devoted to a better purpose. The advocates of the traction engine should now more than ever be careful to avoid giving even the semblance of offense; and we know of nothing garbed with a thin veil of science so offensive to the tastes and likings of those who use our highways as ‘experimental trips’ as they are grandiloquently termed, with machines whose only merit consists in running on crowded roads at a pace too fast to serve any good or useful end. Legislation under such circumstances becomes a necessity. We can hardly feel much surprise that it is very sweeping and indiscriminate.”

#### Hot Ashes.

Fire-Marshal Blackburn, of Philadelphia, in his annual report, thus speaks of the danger from hot ashes:—

“Next to that strange and mysterious process of nature, chemical action, in the production of fires, the most insidious agent is hot ashes. They will retain heat for weeks, and start combustion at the moment least anticipated. Neither an ash box nor an ash barrel is ever safe an instant on one's premises, especially if placed on a wooden floor or against a frame wall or board partition. I have been actually amazed in witnessing the carelessness exhibited by people in getting rid of their ashes, and this, sometimes, too, in places, such, for instance, as large storehouses filled with stocks of goods of great value, important manufactories, depots, etc., where I had a right to expect better things of the good sense and forethought of the proprietors, or other persons in charge of them. I am convinced that many of the fires, the commencement of which is wrapped in mystery, come from depositing heated ashes in wooden vessels.

“The owners of dwellings and other buildings in which fire is required, should be compelled to construct bins of brick, stone, or other incombustible material, in their cellars, for the deposit of ashes which the occupants ought to be obliged to have removed, whenever necessary, at their own expense, and all ash carts employed for the purpose should be covered. This would soon diminish fires, and the abominable arrangements we now have for ridding our residences, counting-houses and workshops of ashes would no more annoy us, or mar the beauty and cleanliness of our metropolis.

“Another treacherous promotor of combustion is a cigar stump that has retained fire, thrown into a wooden spittoon containing sawdust, or allowed to smolder among the same ignitable material in a stove box made of boards. I have had some remarkable cases of burning from this cause. If spit-boxes of wood must be used, they should be filled with sand as an absorbent instead of sawdust. But when iron and earthen spittoons are so plenty, and can be bought

so cheaply, I can see neither wisdom nor economy in having the wooden utensil in any one's place. As for stove boxes in bar rooms, and other places where there is much smoking, where sand to fill them can be had so readily, there is certainly no excuse for the use of sawdust.”

#### Hydraulic Coal-Cutting Machine.

This machine is intended to take the place of manual labor in “nicking” or “kirving,” or as it is termed in Yorkshire, “baring” the coal. It is now regularly at work in the Kippax Colliery, near Leeds, where it has been in successful operation for some months. The only portion of the seam removed by it at the Kippax Colliery is a band of shale, which is also the usual place for baring by hand labor; no portion of the seam is, therefore, reduced to small coal by its action. The direction of the workings is toward the rise. While the machine proceeds with the baring, completing the work at once going over, square pieces of wood and wedges are inserted loosely into the baring, at intervals of four or five feet, to keep the coal in position till the colliers come to remove it. This slight support does not, however, prevent the coal so bared from detaching itself from the unbarred part of the bed; the line of fracture being a few inches beyond the extremity or back of the baring, and in one even straight line. The quantity of coal obtained for every yard face is about two tons, and the yield of small coal produced by the breaking up the detached coal and the bottom coal about 6 per cent. Water is the force employed to work this machine, and being for all actual purposes incompressible, it exerts its full power, allowing for the friction in its passage through the pipes, even when transmitted from great distances. This self-acting apparatus consists of an hydraulic reciprocating engine working horizontally, or at any angle to suit the inclination of the coal-seam, or at any required height above the floor. The piston rod is a hollow trunk or ram, into which is fitted a cutter bar, easily removed, carrying three or more cutting tools. These tools can be adjusted so as to enter the coal at an angle with the line of the face; the actual length of the cutting stroke into the coal is 16 inches and, consequently, the three cutters conjointly give a total depth of four feet. The length of the cutting stroke can be varied according to circumstances. The cutting action of the tools being a steady push or thrust, without any percussion, it is necessary that the machine should be firmly held upon the rails during the cutting stroke, and be released so as to traverse forward at the end of the return or back stroke. This rigid fixing of the apparatus on the rails during the stroke is effected by means of a vertical self-acting holder, on which is a prolongation of the piston rod of another cylinder, mounted upon and becoming a part of the apparatus itself. The piston rod of this cylinder is actuated by means of the same self-acting valvular motion as that of the cutting cylinder, and the “holder-on” retains its “grip” by means of a small keep-valve, which retains the water during the cutting stroke. At the return or back stroke, the valve motion opens the keep-valve and releases the water, thus enabling the holder-on to descend and to slacken its pressure against the roof, and thus the machine is free to traverse upon the rails the requisite distance for the next cut. The traversing or progressive motion is also self-acting. The results, as at present obtained, give an average rate of cutting of about ten yards on the face per hour, with a maximum under favorable conditions of thirteen yards. The amount of pressure required for working the machine varies from 150 to 300 lbs. per inch, according to the hardness of the metal.—*London Mining Journal*.

#### Pyroligneous Acid in Chimneys.

A correspondent of the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* inquires whether there is any remedy for the condensation of moisture in a chimney, produced by burning wood in a close stove. The *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* knows no remedy and only comforts its correspondent with the assurance that the moisture is a solution of pyroligneous acid, and will destroy his chimney.

We beg the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* to note and publish the following remedy, for which we have long been indebted to a first-rate practical mason. Pyro-

ligenous acid is always formed in the burning of wood, as the pungency of wood-smoke, sufficiently shows. When wood is burned in open fire-places, the acid evolved has no noticeable effect on the mortar of the chimneys. Why not? Simply because it is largely diluted and rendered harmless by mixture with air. But where wood is burned in a stove with a checked draught, and the smoke-pipe enters a chimney with no other opening than at the top, the acid vapor collects and hangs in the chimney till it is condensed on the walls and destroys the mortar. The remedy is simply to make an opening into the chimney-flue somewhere below the entrance of the smoke-pipe—the lower the better, even if in a lower room. The air drawn through this opening will serve the double purpose of ventilating the room and of diluting and carrying off the acid vapor from the stove. If the chimney-draught is weak, it is well to have the opening into the flue controlled, so that it can be closed when there is need of draught to start the fire; but it should be opened again as soon as the fire will bear to be checked. Many years ago our good mason assured us that he had never known a flue injured where there was such an opening for the passage of air; and our experience since tends to confirm the fact.—*Waltham, (Mass.) Free Press.*

#### FARMERS' CLUB.

The Farmers' Club held its regular weekly meeting at its Room at the Cooper Institute, on Tuesday afternoon, March 7th, the President, N. C. Ely, Esq., in the chair.

#### EFFECT OF FREEZING FRUITS AND ROOTS.

Mr. Bergen remarked that turnips might be frozen and thawed without injury, but if the operation were repeated a number of times the root would be destroyed. The same is the case with the onion. But the potato is destroyed by a single freezing.

Mr. Carpenter disputed the statement in regard to the potato. If it is thawed gradually in the ground the freezing will not injure its germinating power.

Mr. Bergen said that the same statement was made in the Club a few years ago, and after that he found two fields of potatoes belonging to lazy farmers who did not finish their harvest before frost set in, and in both cases the tubers were utterly destroyed.

Mr. Carpenter still continued to contend for the correctness of his view of the matter. He said that he knew that it apples were frozen and then thawed suddenly in the air, they were ruined, but they might be frozen as solid as pebbles in tight barrels, and if they were left undisturbed to thaw in the barrels, no man could detect the least sign of their ever having been frozen.

#### SHORT LIFE OF THE PEACH.

Mr. Forest said that persons of the largest experience in the cultivation of the peach, had come to the conclusion that the best style of pruning, when the tree is transplanted, is to trim off all the side branches leaving the central trunk in the form of a whip-stock.

Mr. Carpenter remarked that the peach tree should always be transplanted at the age of one year from the bud. He also explained that the fruit of the peach grows on the wood of the previous year's growth, and hence the advantage of shortening-in, by cutting off one third or one-half of the new wood every year.

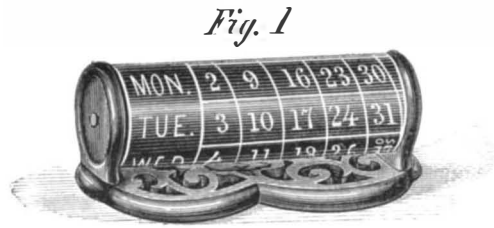
Mr. Quinn, of Newark, N. J., said that for the last six years he had set from 100 to 600 peach trees every year. He always sets the trees of one year's growth from the bud, and trims off all the side branches at the time of transplanting. The ground is well cultivated, the branches are shortened back every year one-third to one-half of the year's growth, and the trees are carefully examined every spring for worms; notwithstanding this care the trees invariably die at the age of four years.

Mr. Carpenter observed that this mortality is due to the borer, the worm which destroys ninety-nine of every hundred peach trees that are set out in this country. Were it not for this destructive pest we should have peaches in such abundance that we should feed them to the hogs, as was done forty years ago.

Several other subjects were discussed but we select the above for our columns.

#### HOLLY'S PEN RACK AND CALENDAR.

These engravings represent a neat and ornamental pen rack and inkstand combined with a perpetual calendar. The inventor says, concerning this affair, that the calendar consists of two independent cylinders of equal diameters, hung on a common axis. The circumference of one cylinder has upon it the days of the week; the other the dates of the month. The dates are arranged spirally, in such manner that when Fig. 1 is placed opposite to the day of the week on which any given month begins, the date of any day of that month will be found in the division opposite to that day. The spiral arrangement aids the eye in



following the dates in regular succession, and relieves the calendar of the intricacy common to the several calendars hitherto in the market. The calendars can be readily used in combination with various articles. A few of the varieties are shown in the accompanying illustrations. Fig. 1 is a calendar in combination with a paper weight. The base of the paper-weight is perforated, and may be hung on the desk or wall if preferred. Fig. 2 is a calendar, pen rack and inkstand. Other sizes of pen racks are manufactured, and a sponge cup is also introduced in some of the varieties, with a pen rack. The calendars are



furnished in plain japan or in bronze, and are decorated with gold leaf. The artistic skill displayed in the several designs will render them ornaments to any desk or table, while their merits will doubtless make them standard articles. We are using these calendar pen racks in our office and find them admirably adapted to the purposes for which they are designed. The invention was patented January 3, 1865, through the Scientific American Patent Agency. For further information address the assignee of the patent, John T. Fanning, of Norwich, Conn.

#### New Bituminous Substance from Brazil.

At a recent meeting of the Royal Society of Scotland, Professor Archer read a communication on a new bituminous substance, imported at Liverpool from Brazil, under the name of coal. The Professor stated that the substance—a few specimens of which were presented to the meeting—had been submitted to chemical analysis, and had been found to yield a much larger percentage of oil than any of the bituminous coal which had been examined in Great Britain, not even excepting the Torbanehill mineral. It had little of the appearance of ordinary coal, but seemed to be indurated clay, and yielded a similar series of products to those afforded by other bituminous coal. It was very light, extremely buoyant in water, and was exceedingly inflammable, burning at a very low temperature.

#### PHOTOGRAPHIC ITEMS.

*The Steaming of Albumen Paper* prior to sensitizing is said to result in marked advantages. The albumen paper, prepared in the ordinary manner, is placed in a perforated box, within a chest, into which a jet of steam at 30 lbs. pressure is admitted, for 100 seconds. Albumen paper thus steamed will keep much longer, and is said not to discolor the sensitizing bath, the albumen being rendered partially insoluble. Another advantage is that the steamed paper, when sensitized, will keep in good condition twice or three times longer than the ordinary sensitive paper.

*The Wothlytype.*—This new process has met with but little favor thus far, having been voted "worthless" in the discussions of some of our photographic societies. Those who are so ready to condemn have probably had little practical acquaintance with the subject. Before long they will doubtless be glad to practice an improvement which just now they do not hesitate to reject. We have lately seen some most beautiful specimens of Wothly or uranium pictures. They compare with the best silver prints, and would do honor to any photographer. In London the Wothly collodion, also sensitized paper, which will keep in good condition for months, is now on sale; and at some of the photographic galleries negatives are taken, printed on paper by the Wothlytype process, and delivered to the sitter the same day.

*New Intensifying Salt.*—In Seely's *Journal of Photography* we find the following article by M. Carey Lea:—

"The extreme opacity of a strong red color to the actinic rays of light, renders it peculiarly adapted for negatives. Images of this color may be obtained in the following easy manner:—After fixing and washing the negative in the usual way it is first to be iodized to a bright yellow color. This may be effected in any convenient manner. It may be simply placed in a bath of iodine dissolved in water, or in a solution of iodine in alkaline iodide; or tincture of iodine may be poured over it. Or the negative may first be treated with bichloride of mercury, and subsequently with iodine solution, or both may be applied together in the form of a solution of corrosive sublimate in iodide of potassium. The conversion of the yellow picture to scarlet is effected by Schlippe's salt, the sulphantimoniate of sodium. A tolerably strong solution of this substance is poured over the plate, and moved backwards and forwards till its action is uniform. The color produced varies slightly in shade; when the operation has been properly performed, a brilliant scarlet color is obtained. The red coloring matter which gives the scarlet tint to the picture is probably the sulphantimoniate of silver, a substance of sufficient permanency to justify its employment, especially as it is to be further protected by varnish. The scarlet image thus obtained may be again modified by new treatment. An ammoniacal solution of nitrate of silver brings it from a scarlet to a purple color. This I mention merely as a matter of curiosity, the advantage being manifestly in favor of the first color.

"As Schlippe's salt is not everywhere to be had, and as many photographers may desire to prepare it for themselves, I give the following directions. Place in a closed vessel the following mixture, viz.:—

Gray sulphide of antimony.....	22 parts.
Crystallized carbonate of soda.....	44 "
Well-burnt lime.....	17 "
Water.....	48 "
Flowers of sulphur.....	4 "

"The lime is slaked with the water, and the whole is then mixed in the vessel, 140 more parts of water added; a large bottle is best, corked, and well shaken from time to time. At the end of twenty-four hours it is filtered, water poured on the filter to carry the soluble parts through, and the filtrate is evaporated to the crystallizing point. An abundant crop of large lemon-yellow crystals of beautiful forms (regular tetrahedral) is obtained. These should be dried and secured in a well-closed bottle. They are less permanent in solution, a ten per cent solution will however keep for some days; in proportion as the solution is weaker it becomes less stable.

"In preparing Schlippe's salt, the process may be very much expedited by heat. The materials may be placed in a large flask and boiled together for two or three hours. The test of the completion of the oper-

ation, whether heat is used or not, is that the gray insoluble powder at the bottom becomes white.

"The keeping properties of a solution of Schlippe's salt may be greatly increased by rendering it alkaline, for example, with a few drops of ammonia. But the brilliancy of the color produced is thereby greatly impaired. So, too, the mother water from which the Schlippe's salt has crystallized out, may be used. This produces a sort of deep red-black picture very opaque to the active rays. In fact it has occurred to me, latterly, that when it is merely wanted to produce an effectual strengthener, and a scarlet color is not especially sought for, it is scarcely necessary to crystallize the salt. This materially simplifies the operation. The ingredients already mentioned might simply be placed together in a large bottle, and set aside for a day or two until the whiteness of the insoluble portions indicates that the whole of the gray sulphide had been decomposed. It then might be simply filtered and placed aside for use. This liquid would doubtless keep well. I have not tried it, but as the mother water after crystallization does, it can scarcely be doubtful that this would also. I must repeat, however, that if a scarlet color is desired, the crystallized Schlippe's salt must be employed.

"I directed in the foregoing part of this paper to flow the plate with the solution of the salt. But I latterly prefer to use a rather weaker solution, or to drop the plate into a sufficient quantity to cover it, placed in a porcelain dish.

"There exist various compounds of a nature analogous to Schlippe's salt which would doubtless produce results very similar to it. The sulphantimonite of sodium, for example, would probably afford a very similar coloration. So, too, the various compounds of arsenic, sulphur and alkali, alkaline hyposulpharsenite, sulpharsenite and sulpharsenate. The reactions of these substances were not examined as there seemed no reason for expecting better results from them than from the sulphantimoniate, which is more easily prepared and less poisonous.

"In conclusion, I may remark that while a proper proportion of caustic soda is essential to the stability of the salt, an excess would be likely to be very injurious; the proportions I have given may be used with advantage. Red stains on the hands and on vessels, occasioned by the use of this substance, are easily removable with weak caustic alkali."

#### On Drops.

Mr. Guthrie, Professor of Chemistry and Physics at the Royal College, Mauritius, has made to the Royal Society an elaborate communication on Drops, from which we extract the "laws" which he deduced from his observation:—

**Law 1.**—The drop size depends upon the rate of dropping. Generally, the quicker the succession of the drops, the greater is the drop; the slower the rate, the more strictly is this the case. This law depends upon the difference, at different rates, of the thickness of the film from which the drop falls.

**Law 2.**—The drop size depends upon the nature and quantity of the solid which the dropping liquid holds in solution. If the liquid stands in no chemical relation to the solid, in general, the drop size diminishes as the quantity of solid contained in the liquid increases. The cause of this seems to be that the stubborn cohesion of the liquid is diminished by the solid in solution. When one or more combinations between the liquid and solid are possible, the drop size depends upon indeterminate data.

For example: certain variations in the drop size of solutions of chloride of calcium of different strengths point to the existence of definite hydrates; while the regularity of the variation of drop size in the case of nitrate of potash points to the absence of hydrates.

**Law 3.**—The drop size depends upon the chemical nature of the dropping liquid, and little or nothing upon its density. Of all liquids examined, water has the greatest, and acetic acid the least drop size. It is remarkable that butyric acid, which has sensibly the same specific gravity as water, gives rise to a drop less than half the size of the water drop.

**Law 4.**—The drop size depends upon the geometric relation between the solid and the liquid. If the solid be spherical, the largest drops fall from the largest spheres. Absolute difference in radii takes a greater effect upon drops formed from smaller, than

upon those formed from larger spheres. Of circular horizontal planes, within certain limits, the size of the drop varies directly with the size of the plane.

The fact that the drop increases in size according as the radius of the sphere increases from which the drop falls, and that the difference from this cause may amount to half the largest drop size, the author regards as important to dispensers of medicine. The lip of a bottle from which a drop falls is usually annuloid. The amount of solid in contact with the dropping liquid is determined by the size of two diameters, one measuring the width of the rim of the neck, the other thickness of that rim. In most cases the curvature and massing of the solid at the point whence the liquid drops is so irregular as not to admit of any mathematical expression.

**Law 5.**—The drop size depends upon the chemical nature of the solid from which the drop falls, and little or nothing upon its density. Of all the solids examined, antimony delivers the smallest, and tin the largest drops.

**Law 6.**—The drop size depends upon temperature; generally the higher the temperature the smaller the drop. With water the effect of a change of temperature of 20° C. to 30° C. is very small.

**Law 7.**—The nature or tension of the gaseous medium has little or no effect upon drop size.—*Druggists' Circular.*

#### Mining Phenomenon.

The effect of a current of warm air issuing from a mine in a cold day is sometimes quite remarkable, often giving the mouth of the mine the appearance of a huge steam discharge pipe. The phenomenon is properly described, as follows, by the Virginia *Union*, in an account of a recent visit to the Savage mine near Virginia city:

We stopped a few minutes to watch the operations at the old hoisting works of the Company. Every moment or so a car, loaded with ore or waste dirt, would come rushing up the shaft to the surface, to be rolled out and sent thundering down the dump, where numerous heavy quartz teams were waiting to transport the ore to the mills. But to one uninitiated in such things the strangest phenomenon was the immense volume of steam which came rushing forcibly up and out the mouth of the shaft, enveloping the brakeman and the hoisting machinery in a dense fog, which, condensing, kept everything dripping with water. One would naturally suppose that some heavy steam machine was blowing off away down in the bowels of the earth. The philosophy of it is simply this, which we would state for the benefit of those who are not familiar with such things. In all shafts consisting of two or more compartments, a strong current of air invariably and unceasingly pours down one compartment and up another. Even when there is no air stirring on the surface, this current will pour up with such force that a newspaper, or other article, will not drop down that part of the shaft, and if thrown will immediately return to the surface. The air in the depths of the mine, is many degrees warmer than at the surface, and like all heated air has a tendency to rise; therefore, gathering in from the different drifts and chambers, it finds egress through the shaft—the supply and circulation being kept up by air shafts in different parts of the mine. This warm air, on arriving at the surface during the cold weather, and especially on a frosty day like that on which we made the visit in question, assumes the form of steam, and being condensed by the cold air, drips from everything which it envelops. Of course in warm weather none of this steam would be seen, for obvious reasons. It is decidedly an interesting sight to stand and see car after car come swiftly up to the surface, on the "cage," or little square platform, at the end of the big rope; and occasionally, while you are looking, a man will come bouncing up on a cage from the bowels of the earth, with startling suddenness, reminding you of one of those wonderful little painted boxes to be seen at any toy shop, which, if you unhook the lid, it flies back and a hideous little witch pops up before your astonished vision.

A MECHANIC of Milwaukee has manufactured two wonderful pieces of cabinet work intended as presents for the President and Mrs. Lincoln. One is an ordinary sized center table, of octagonal form, composed of twenty thousand different pieces of wood.

#### The British Army and Navy.

The British army and navy estimates for the year 1865-6 have just been announced. The cost of the army is £14,348,447—a reduction of £495,000 from last year; of the navy £10,392,447—a decrease of £316,000. Total estimates for the military and naval establishments for the coming year, £24,740,671; or, in American currency, \$123,703,355.

In the naval estimates, a million of dollars are appropriated for the completion of the iron-clads *El Toussin* and *El Monassar*, which have cost heavily already. The officers and seamen in the navy number 88,000. There are also 7,000 boys in the service and 7,000 men in the coastguard service.

The navy consists of 540 vessels classified as follows:

Steamships, 445, of which 357 are screw, and 88 paddle; 26 screw ships are building; 69 effective sailing ships are afloat; making the total of steam and sailing ships 540. The building of three line-of-battle ships, 1 corvette, 4 gun vessels, and 4 gunboats is suspended. The classes into which these vessels are divided; deducting those which are suspended, are as follows: Screws—armor-plated ships, iron, third-rates, afloat 6, building 3; ditto, iron, fourth-rates, afloat, 2; ditto, wood, third-rates, afloat 6, building 1; ditto, wood, fourth-rates, afloat 4; ditto corvettes, wood, sixth-rates, afloat 1, building 1; ditto sloops, wood, afloat 2; ditto gunboats, iron, building 3; ditto floating batteries, iron, afloat 3; ditto ditto, wood, afloat 2; ships of the line, afloat 55; frigates, afloat, 37; building 1; block ships, afloat 8; corvettes, afloat 26; sloops, afloat 35, building 3; gun vessels, afloat 37; gunboats, afloat 105, building 2; tenders, tugs, etc., afloat 7; mortar ships, afloat 4; troop and store ships, afloat 15; yachts, afloat 1. Paddle: Frigates, afloat 6; sloops, afloat 19; small vessels, afloat 13; dispatch vessels, afloat 4; tenders, tugs, etc., afloat 40; troop and store ships, afloat 1; yachts, afloat 5.

#### Scale in Boilers. (For the Scientific American.)

As incrustation is the sole cause of the destruction of boilers, we do not see why owners do not employ some means to obviate the evil. The thickness of an eggshell between the water and the iron compels the use of 15 per cent more fuel to generate steam; and as a crust, one-fourth to one-half inch is no uncommon occurrence, the immense waste of fuel, and the more rapid burning of the iron, are readily seen. Repairs to some of the western boilers cost \$2,000 a year; this, and the fuel wasted, might both be saved if the boilers were kept clean, as iron cannot burn with water next it. Boilers using pure water have been run over thirty years without one dollar of repairs; hence will be seen the advantages and necessity of preventing scale. The item of stopping works "to scale boilers" is no inconsiderable amount; the apparent loss of the day is trifling, but in large establishments, where large capital is idle; the men off on a frolic, not to turn up when wanted, should induce every mill-owner to save this lost day, which need occur but once in six or twelve months if no scale formed. As proof, boilers in New York are cleaned but once a year, the water being pure enough to incur no risk of burning from incrustation formed in that time; boilers elsewhere could be run as long if kept free from scale. We, therefore, urge engineers and others to adopt some means to prevent scale, and as the Incrustation Powder, invented by Mr. H. N. Winans, of this city, has proved a reliable and unobjectionable article for this purpose during the last ten years, and many of our citizens recommend it, we are confident it will save time and money where scale exists. E.

THE Lydians were the first who coined money, and they used iron first, then copper. "Athelstan first enacted regulations for the government of the English mint, in A. D. 928." The first gold coinage in England was in the reign of Edward the Third. Tin was coined by Charles the Second, and pewter by James the First.

THE first bank formed in the United States, was the Massachusetts Bank of Boston, in 1784; the first in New York was the Bank of New York, in 1800; and next the Manhattan Company.



### Petroleum Gas for Engines.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—I propose to drive the engines in the oil regions by combustion of the gas arising at the mouth of the well, conveying it by a tube to the bottom of a tank of water under a tubular boiler, and inflaming this gas as it arises at the surface. The advantages of this plan will be, I think, these: No explosions from a volume of gas diffused in the atmosphere coming in contact with the furnaces; complete control of the amount of heat, which may be cut off in a moment, and as immediately re-applied, and an accumulation of force—the gas accumulating in the holders when the engine is not running; economy in the use of combustible material now wasted.

I propose to drive the machinery of a saw-mill, where there is but a small quantity of water but plenty of fall, by an overshot wheel with a drum beneath it, both covered by a band, to which the buckets shall be attached. In this case the weight of the water would act much longer than in the ordinary wheel.

I have read your paper for some years and have never met any suggestions of this kind. If in any way valuable I hope you will notice it in your next issue. W. S. H.

New York, March 4, 1865.

[Both good suggestions, but neither of them new. The plan of a water wheel, the same as a grain elevator reversed, has been a favorite one of ours for a small stream with great fall. In this situation we cannot see why it should not be a cheap, economical and efficient motor.—Eds.]

### Raw Pork and Tape-Worms.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—In your paper of Nov. 19th I noticed an article entitled "Beware of Raw Pork," and giving as the reason for the caution:—"Fortunately the tape-worm is very rare, but when it does occur, it is caused by eating raw pork."

Here in California the tape-worm is very common, and I should judge that two or three persons out of every hundred adults are troubled with them. All ages and both sexes, from 14 years and upward, and people of all classes and nationalities, are equally subject to them, so far as my observation extends. As for being caused by eating raw pork, that is about the last thing to which an intelligent observer who had resided any length of time in this southern part of California would attribute it. Many of the persons here who have a tape-worm have never eaten a mouthful of raw pork nor raw flesh of any kind. Not only this, but *herbivorous animals*—sheep, deer, antelopes, and neat cattle—after being killed, are frequently found with one or more tape-worms in the intestines. I once killed an antelope that had a tape-worm. In taking out the entrails, the small intestine was torn or cut, discovering the parasite still alive. Through this opening I drew out several yards of the worm. On inquiring of butchers who are reliable and observing men, I find also that they have frequently seen tape-worms in sheep and beef cattle.

Having been familiar with these facts for some time, it is difficult for me to understand how your Atlantic physicians could have adopted the theory stated by you. COLBERT A. CANFIELD, M. D.

Monterey, Cal., Dec. 26, 1864.

### The Problem of Two Wheels.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—I noticed in your paper some time since a "Problem of Two Wheels," upon which, however, I had not bestowed much thought until I saw a reply in your last number. Your correspondent says that:—"The periphery of each wheel will, in rolling, require to travel a distance equal to twice that which the center moves," etc. A point in the circumference of a rolling wheel (rolling on a plane) generates a cycloid, and while the center of the wheel travels a distance equal to the circumference, a point in the periphery travels over the arc of a cycloid. Now the arc of a cycloid is proved by the higher mathematics to be four times the diameter of the generating circle. The distances passed over by the

center and a point in the circumference of the wheel will therefore be to each other in the ratio of 3.14159 to 4. But this does not affect your correspondent's conclusions, and with regard to the motion of the two wheels I think he is right. For if two equal weights move over the same vertical space, impelled by gravity, one will perform precisely the same amount of work as the other, whatever may be their velocities. In the case under consideration, the work generated by the wheels in rolling down the plane, with the exception of the small amount necessary to overcome the rolling friction, is absorbed in imparting motion to the wheels, and will be given out when they come to a state of rest. As their weights are equal and the spaces passed over also equal, the amount of work accumulated will be equal. When the wheels roll along the horizontal plane, this accumulated work is used in overcoming the resistances, and, if the resistances encountered by each wheel are equal, both will come to rest at the same distance from the point of starting. As, however, more work is absorbed in imparting the rotary motion, and therefore less in imparting rectilinear motion to the wheel with the iron periphery than to the other, the former will reach the horizontal plane with less velocity and encounter less resistance from the air than the latter, and if the velocities be high enough for this difference to be appreciable, the former will be found to roll further than the latter along the horizontal plane. W. A. A.

Delaware Literary Institute, Franklin, N. Y., Feb. 27, 1865.

### Loss of Heat in the Steam Engine.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—In our present modes of converting heat into mechanical power, and vice versa, it seems that one of two facts must exist. Either that our present modes of converting heat into power by mechanical means are very defective, or else there must be some error in the tables set down for the reconversion of mechanical power into heat. There is an irreconcilable disparity between the two processes. For instance, according to Joule's equivalent, the heat expended in raising the temperature of one pound of water one degree is equivalent to the mechanical work of raising the same weight of water 772 feet. Now taking this as a basis, let us see how much power there is in a pound of coal. Some boilers evaporate as high as 12 pounds of water for each pound of coal. It requires not less than 1,000° of heat to evaporate each pound of water—making 12,000° of heat given out by one pound of coal in evaporating 12 pounds of water. Now if we multiply these 12,000° of heat by Joule's equivalent for one degree, we have 12,000° multiplied by 772 foot-pounds, which gives 9,264,000 foot-pounds—which reduced to horse-power is 4½ horse-power per hour for each pound of coal. Few engines give a better result than one horse-power for two pounds of coal; or, in other words, few engines give a better result than ¼th part of the above indicated power of fuel.

Joule's equivalent may be correct; if so, it does not seem possible that we are always to continue to use fuel on so wasteful a plan, and it looks quite improbable that we must remain content for all time with a fragment only. A few bushels of coal used on the basis of Joule's equivalent would indeed work wonders.

The same amount of power can be derived from a degree of heat expended on water to form steam as though the degree of heat were expended on atmospheric air. The idea that a degree of heat expended on air gives four times the effect that it does on water is fallacious. This I hope to conclusively substantiate in a future article. F. A. MORLEY.

New York, March 8, 1865.

[It is not claimed that a degree of heat expended on air will give four times the effect that it does on water, but that a unit of heat will. The quantity of heat that will raise the temperature of a pound of water one degree will raise the temperature of a pound of air four degrees. Still we shall be pleased to see our correspondent's argument.—Eds.]

### Burgh's Rules for the Steam Engine.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—Please correct the error in regard to "Burgh's Rules" recently noticed in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. The notice stated that the price is \$2 by mail, free of postage. The application for

free copies, *postage paid*, is becoming quite a nuisance, and I fear that those who have paid \$2 will imagine they have been swindled. I presume the balance of the demand—certainly the entire demand created by that notice—will be for free copies. The demand promises to be unprecedented, and thus far one man has sent about half money enough to pay postage. All others have preferred free postage.

HENRY C. BAIRD.

Philadelphia, March 9, 1865.

### RECENT AMERICAN PATENTS.

The following are some of the most important improvements for which Letters Patent were issued from the United States Patent Office last week; the claims may be found in the official list:—

*Riveting Buttons to Cloth.*—This invention consists in constructing an automatic machine for riveting buttons to cloth or other material, whereby the cloth is pierced to receive the body of the rivet and the various movements and operations necessary to feed the rivet and the button, and insert the rivet in the cloth and through the center of the button, and clinch them together are performed automatically. W. J. Gordon, of Philadelphia, is the inventor.

*Improved Padlock.*—This invention consists in providing a padlock with a series of tumblers, having hooks at each side of them, and arranged in such a relation with the eye of the shackle that each tumbler, in unlocking the lock, will require to be moved in a certain position relatively with the eye, in order to release the shackle, a slight deviation from this position rendering it impossible to withdraw the shackle. The object of the invention is to obtain a padlock of simple and economical construction which cannot be readily picked or illegitimately opened. Edward Coyle, of Albany, N. Y., is the inventor.

*Gas Stove.*—This invention relates to a stove for heating apartments, cooking, etc., by gas, such as is used for illuminating purposes. The invention consists in the employment of a gas-chamber or reservoir in connection with a combined air and gas receiver and a series of flues, all arranged and combined in such a manner as to insure the perfect combustion of all the gas which passes into the stove and the radiation of all the heat generated by said combustion. The stove is very simple in construction and may be afforded at a moderate cost, and will prove an economical heat-diffusing device. Luther Erving, New York city, is the inventor.

*Combustion Pump.*—This invention is an improvement on that class of pumps or water elevators in which, by the combustion of a hydro-carbon liquid, a vacuum is produced whereby the water or other liquid is caused to rise through the suction pipe and to discharge at the desired point. The invention consists in the use of steam combined with the hydro-carbon liquid in the interior of the reservoir or chamber, in which the vacuum is to be produced in such a manner that, by the condensation of the steam, the intensity of the vacuum is considerably increased and the raising or elevating of the water is materially facilitated. The water from which the steam is to be formed is placed in a shallow pan over a similar pan containing the hydrocarbon liquids in such a manner that the heat evolved by the construction of the hydrocarbon liquid volatilizes the water and a sufficient quantity of steam is obtained to produce the desired result. The hydrocarbon liquid is measured by means of a bell-shaped or other vessel or spout attached to the supply tube, and it is ignited by introducing into said spout, after the pan in the interior of the reservoir has been filled, a small quantity of hydrocarbon liquid, and lighting the same, so that it runs into the reservoir while burning, and ignites that portion of the liquid in the pan. The gaseous products of combustion are allowed to escape through the reservoir pipe, which is provided with a hinged drop valve fitting into a cavity filled with liquid in such a manner that, so soon as the gases have escaped, the valve can be dropped and an air-tight joint is obtained, whereby the operation of the apparatus is not disturbed. Thomas J. Linton, of Providence, R. I., is the inventor.

*Machine for Gathering Quicksilver.*—The water running off from amalgamators contains a large quantity of quicksilver mixed with the rock in a fine spray, and this quantity of quicksilver has hith-

erto been considered a mere waste. The object of this present invention is to collect this quicksilver and bring it to such a state that it can be used again and again. The invention consists in a vat provided with an amalgamated bottom and with a series of slats which do not extend close down to the bottom of the vat in combination with an agitator, or without, in such a manner that the water let into the vat at one side has to pass through all the spaces left between the slats and bottom before it is allowed to discharge through apertures in the opposite side of said vat, and during its passage under the slats the quicksilver is compelled to come in contact with the amalgamated surface of the bottom, and thereby it is caused to gather, so that it can be readily scooped out and used again and again in the amalgamating process or for other purposes. By the use of an agitator moving between the slats, and by imparting to the vat a reciprocating motion the process of gathering the quicksilver can be materially facilitated. M. B. Dodge, No. 21 Broad street, New York, is the inventor.

**Self-centering Chuck.**—This invention consists in the employment of wedge-shaped jaws fitted into the head of the chuck and acted on by a spring which has a tendency to force said jaws out in combination with inclined diverging ways and with a screw cap, in such a manner that by unscrewing the cap the jaws will open, and by screwing the cap down the cap jaws close concentrically, and a rod or tool placed between is centered without loss of time. In order to prevent the jaws from dropping out of their ways, these outer edges are spread or expanded and fitted in corresponding cavities at the outer ends of their ways. A chuck is thus produced which is easily operated, and which is not liable to get out of order. T. H. Worrall, of Manchester, N. H., is the inventor.

**Smoking Pipe.**—This invention consists in constructing a connection or bracket for a pipe which shall have a socket in one part for receiving the stem and in the other the bowl of the pipe, and at the same time have a chamber or cup for receiving the nicotine from the smoke before it reaches the stem of the pipe; to effect this the cup is made with a neck which fits into a socket directly under the bowl, the communication to it being through a small tube set in the bottom of the bowl. This neck has a slot cut in its side which, by turning the cup, is made to correspond with a tube leading to the stem of the pipe. By this arrangement the smoke on reaching the neck of the cup becomes somewhat cooler, and the nicotine falls therefrom to the bottom of the cup, and then passes through a small tube to the stem, and there is no possibility of drawing the nicotine up into the stem. The pipe, as a whole, is a very neat and pretty article and seems to answer the ends for which it is designed. The inventor of the above is Robert Nagler, of No. 40 John street (*Belletristic Journal* office), New York, who may be addressed for the purchase of the patent or patent rights.

**Hay Rake and Loader.**—The improvements in this hay-raking and loading machine, consist, first, in a wedge-shaped device situated at the top of the elevator, for clearing the hay from the elevating fingers when it arrives at the point from which it drops into the hay wagon; and, secondly, in an improved manner of suspending and holding each tooth of the rake so that, by a sliding vertical movement, they may readily pass obstructions, or accommodate themselves to any uneven surfaces of ground; and, thirdly, in combining and using, in connection with the rake teeth, a circular guard board, to prevent hay from escaping the elevating fingers by working through between the rake teeth, and also prevent hay from clogging and obstructing the rake teeth. William A. Duncan, of Syracuse, N. Y., is the inventor.

**Well Borer.**—This invention consists in the arrangement of an oscillating lever which has its fulcrum on a pivot secured in an upright post and which is provided with a roller at about the middle of its length to operate in combination with the rope from which the borer is suspended, and with a windlass and tappet wheel, in such a manner that when the rope, after having been wound round the windlass, is drawn through under the roller in the oscillating lever and over a pulley in the top of the upright post, any up-and-down motion imparted to the roller in the os-

illating lever, produces twice as much motion of the drill; that is to say, if the roller be depressed an inch, the drill rises two inches, and *vice versa*, and by these means the height of the stroke is doubled. A double gear is attached to the windlass and a hand crank to the pinion. By means of this crank the drill is easily raised or lowered, according to the pleasure of the operator, whether the machine is in motion or not, and the danger of breaking the drill is avoided, which arises either from too large an accumulation of drillings in the well or from the fact of the drill getting into bad openings in the rock. Furthermore, the height of the stroke can be adjusted to a fraction of an inch. For the purpose of holding the drill when the joints are loosened, a pair of shears are applied to the platform which are locked together by a catch, so that they hold securely all the weight below against any accident. Two windlasses are combined with the boring machine, one to contain the drill rope, and intended to be worked by a belt from the main or fly-wheel shaft of the machine, and the other to contain the bucket rope, and intended to be operated by hand, and a double windlass being applied in combination with a stirrup catching over pins projecting from the sides of the upright post in such a manner that the drill can be readily raised and the drill hole bored out at any moment. Walter Hyde, of 769 Broadway, New York, is the inventor.

**Machine for Cutting Stay Bolts, etc.**—The numerous stay bolts in the fire-box sheets of steam boilers are usually cut off, after their ends are screwed to their proper place, by a cold chisel and hammer. This method of cutting them off is slow and expensive work, and the rest of the bolt is usually injured by reason of the jamming of the thread, so as to require trimming before it can be again inserted in the sheet. Besides this, that portion of the bolt which enters the sheets and the sheets themselves are subjected to injurious strains by the old method, owing to the successive and violent blows of the workman in cutting off the bolt, and the bolts are thereby often loosened in their holes, and the holes altered in their outline, whereby it becomes necessary, in riveting them upon the sheets, to subject the bolts to an excessive amount of hammering which is injurious to them. This invention provides against these injurious tendencies and the disadvantages of the present method of doing this sort of work by means of a tool composed of an annular stock, whose base is to rest upon or over the fire-box sheet, and whose sides are slotted to receive a cutting tool having its head pivoted to the side of the stock. The tool is held to the work by a clasp sleeve. Joseph Renshaw, of Michigan city, Ind., is the inventor.

**Machine for Cleaning, Hulling, and Polishing Rice, etc.**—This invention consists in the employment of two cones, one inside the other and revolving in opposite directions or in the same direction and with different velocities (in contradistinction to two cylinders), said cones being provided with suitable rubbing surfaces arranged in such a manner that either one or both can be adjusted in a longitudinal direction, and the rubbing surfaces can thereby set closer together or further apart, as may be desired, to suit the operation to be performed. The rubbing surfaces consist of a series of short pieces of wire set endwise into movable frames, or of brushes or stones or other suitable material secured in said frames, in such a manner that each rubbing surface can be adjusted independent of the others whenever it is desirable or necessary, and different rubbing surfaces applied to the same cylinders or cones by removing one set of frames and substituting therefore another set. Chas. E. Rowan, 131 Seventh street, Brooklyn (E. D.), N. Y., is the inventor.

#### On Silvering Surfaces of Glass.

[From the British Journal of Photography.]

The advantages of being able to produce reflecting surfaces are often very great, and it is desirable that the photographer should know how to produce them. On the Continent silvered specula are in many instances taking the place of the more costly achromatic object glasses of the telescope; and we have seen a large photograph of the moon, produced by a glass mirror silvered by one of the methods about to be described, which could not have been surpassed by an achromatic lens. All our astronomical and scientific readers are aware of the powers of such silvered

specula, but only few, perhaps, know how the silvering is effected.

The first process is that of Mr. Bird. The mirror or speculum to be silvered is suspended, face downward, in a silver bath prepared thus:—A large flat shallow vessel of glass or porcelain is provided to contain the solution. 750 grains of nitrate of silver are dissolved in six ounces of distilled water, and to this is added pure liquid ammonia, drop by drop, until the precipitate which is thrown down is redissolved. 2 ounces of caustic potash are dissolved in fifty ounces, by measure, of rain water; and fifteen ounces of this solution are added to the ammoniacal solution, when a brown-black precipitate will be produced. Ammonia is again added, drop by drop, until this precipitate is just redissolved; and 29 ounces of distilled water are then added to the whole. To this mixture is again added, drop by drop, stirring with a glass rod, a strong solution of nitrate of silver, until a precipitate, which does not redissolve, begins to be formed.

Previous to immersing the speculum, one part, by weight, of powdered milk sugar to ten parts, by measure, of distilled water must be prepared in a separate vessel, and filtered until a clear solution is obtained. Then, to ten parts, by measure, of the silvering solution must be added one part, by measure, of the milk sugar solution and, finally, fifty ounces of the compound solution will be sufficient to silver a speculum nine inches in diameter.

As the success of the process depends greatly on the glass surface being made chemically clean previous to immersion in the bath, the utmost pains must be taken to accomplish this object. The surface is first covered with thick whiting cream free from grit, which, when dry, is rubbed off with the purest cotton wool. The surface is then wetted entirely with dilute nitric acid, and afterwards thoroughly washed with distilled water poured over it; and, last of all, the piece of coated glass is suspended in a flat vessel containing alcohol, where it remains until the bath is ready to receive it.

To facilitate the suspending, a circular block of wood is very firmly cemented to the back of the speculum with marine glue or pitch, and three pins inserted at equal distances round the margin, to which strings may be fastened. On lowering it into the bath care must be taken that no air bubbles intervene, that the speculum be not deeper in the liquid than half its thickness, and that a depth of two inches, at least, intervene between the face of the speculum and the bottom of the vessel. In ten minutes after immersion a metallic film will be seen forming on the glass, and in an hour or two a compact silver coating will be laid over the whole surface.

The speculum should remain in the bath for four hours, by which time the process is completed; it is then carefully removed, copiously washed with distilled water, and placed on its edge to dry.

It is now ready for polishing. To accomplish this, rub the surface gently, first with a clean pad of fine cotton wool, and afterwards with a similar pad covered over with cotton velvet which has been charged with fine rouge. The surface will, under this treatment, acquire a polish of intense brilliancy, quite free from any scratches. The method employed by our correspondent is as follows:—

Make a solution of ammonio nitrate of silver, of the strength of three grains to the ounce. Render it very slightly turbid by excess of nitrate of silver, and then filter it. Just before using add to each ounce of the foregoing solution two and a-half grains of Rochelle salts.

Having scrupulously cleaned the glass intended to be silvered, place it in a convenient vessel about one inch from the bottom, supported on three little cones of white wax. The glass plate may be suspended; but in that case there is more difficulty in avoiding vibration, the absence of which is essential to success. Expose to a northern light, or any other subdued light, and in about two hours the deposit of silver will be sufficiently thick. It must now be carefully removed, washed, and dried.

In the processes which we have detailed, when the surface next the glass is to be used as the reflector the glass side should be cleaned by nitric acid if the state of its surface so require; and the silvered side should receive a protecting coating of a good tough black varnish.

**Machine for Applying Stamps.**

Some months ago a photographer wrote a letter to the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*, saying that a machine for applying stamps to *Carte de Visites* or other pictures, would be a very useful thing, and that one was much wanted by professional men. The inventor of the machine here illustrated has taken the hint thrown out, and in this engraving the means he has adopted to secure the end are shown. By a simple downward motion of the hand on the knob, A, the stamps are affixed as rapidly as the movement can be kept up, or the cards fed in. The stamps are inserted in the sheet, as shown at the roller, B. Below this roller there is another one, and the sheet is held between both; these rollers set in the carriage, C, which is made to slide in the frame, D, by a very simple arrangement. It is this. There is a rack, E, in the carriage which is held stationary (while the stamp is being stuck on) by the pawl, F; when the knob moves upward, after the stamp has been fastened by the block, G, this pawl is lifted and the carriage is drawn along the frame by means of the weight, H, at the end, thus carrying the stamp with it and presenting another to the action of the block, G.

Provision for moistening the stamps is made by the roll, I; this presses the sheet on a roller below which runs in a little tank of water, said under roll being operated by the pulleys, J.

When all the stamps on one row have been affixed, a new strip is presented by turning the rollers, B, in the direction of the arrow. The stamps are detached from the sheet by withdrawing the card, shown at K.

Thus all the requisite features in a machine of this class are provided for, and in its operation it answers the purpose. One of them, we are told, has been for some time used by Meade Brothers, this city. The machine is about two and a half times larger than the engraving. These machines can be used for applying stamps to labels, packages, envelopes, match boxes, or for any purpose where stamps are used. The inventor will sell State or shop rights to manufacture, and samples can be seen by applying to John Frank Smith, Box 5257, P. O., New York.

A patent is now pending on it through the Scientific American Patent Agency, by Robert L. Smith, of Stockport, N. Y.; for further information address him at that place.

**A Mud Sucker.**

M. Agudio, the Italian engineer, who has undertaken the railroad which is to cross Mont Cenis, has invented a machine intended to be added to the mechanical sweepers, which are daily at work during this very muddy season, in the streets of Paris. The machine consists in a cast-metal receiver on four wheels, to the lower extremity of which is fixed a wide tube. A small air pump attached to the carriage creates a vacuum in the receiver. It is only requisite that the tube should graze the surface of the street for the mud to be, as it were, inhaled into this receiver—a sort of rake, fixed to the lower end of the tube, receiving the mud and facilitating its ascension.

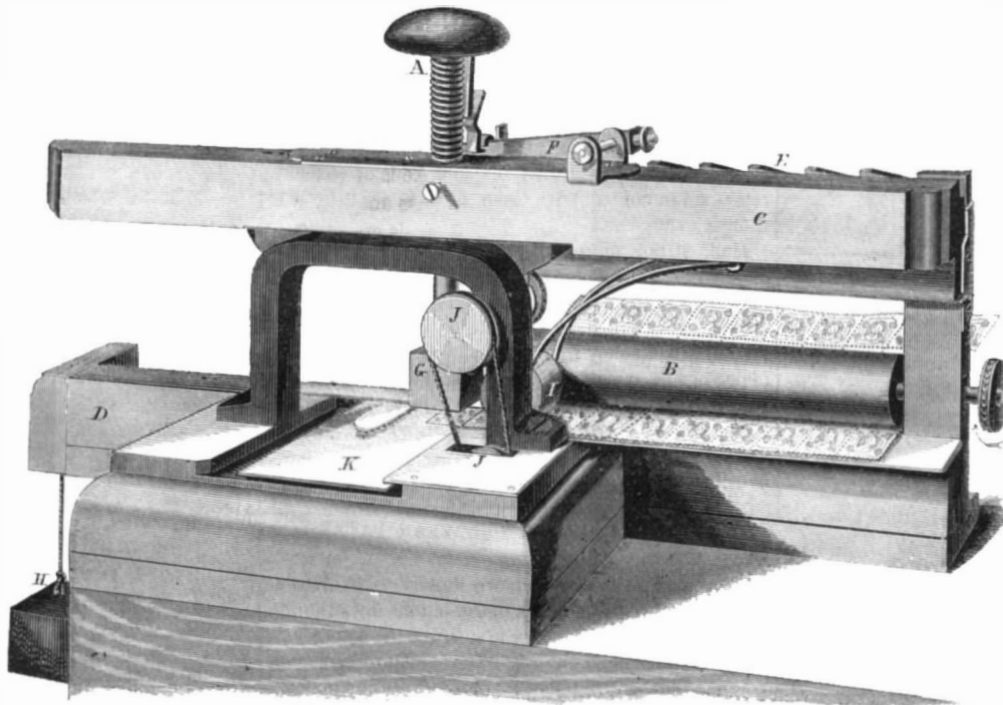
**New Method of Electro-Plating.**

M. Well, a French chemist, announces a new method of depositing metals. The baths he employs consist of metallic salts or oxides in alkaline solutions by means of tartaric acid, glycerine, albumen, or other substances, which prevent the precipitation of the oxide by the fixed alkali, in some cases with, and in others without, the aid of zinc or lead, and at

various temperatures, according to circumstances. He claims, also, to be able by like means, to give variety of color to articles covered with copper, by his process. M. Well says that the most important application of his discovery is the deposit of copper and the bronzing of iron (cast as well as wrought) and steel, without the preparatory dressings with conducting substances, which are necessary in proceeding according to the ordinary methods before the object is placed in the bath and submitted to galvanic

which is quite as much to the point, and very convenient to boot. The invention here illustrated relates to boots, and very closely, for those who desire to appear in a shining light, before men, as to their feet, must polish their shoes properly. It is all very well to throw the responsibility of this upon a servant; but what if one has no servant? What if one boards, or has a room of his own somewhere? What if one is a wretched bachelor without privileges or "fixins" of any kind, clearly he must provide him-

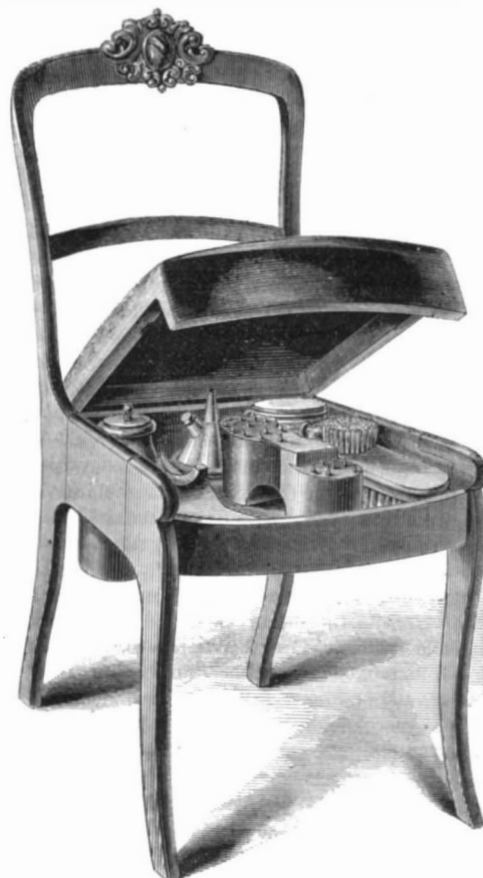
self with some such arrangement as that here illustrated. The object of it is apparent at once. The inventor has taken advantage of the fact that mankind are prone to put their feet on the nearest chair when their boots are to be polished, and has therefore provided an assortment of all the tools, instruments, and paraphernalia of whatsoever name and nature, used in the art and mystery of shoe-blackening within the compass of a common chair bottom, so that by merely lifting the seat there lies disclosed the wonderful machinery plain to the eye. The engraving illustrates this invention so clearly and beautifully that nothing is needed to explain it. Brushes, pots, boxes and water-can, are all at hand, ready for use. The model for this unique affair is one of the handsomest that has come

**SMITH'S MACHINE FOR APPLYING STAMPS.**

action. This, if it bear the test of practice, is a very important fact. Iron and steel thus coated with copper may says M. Well, be afterwards silvered or nickelized by his process.

**HARDING'S SHOE-POLISHING CHAIR.**

A benefactor is by some one defined as a person who makes two blades of grass grow where but one



into our hands for some time, and the inventor is deserving of praise for the skill and pains bestowed upon it. A patent is now pending through the Scientific American Patent Agency by F. G. Harding, of Boston, Mass.; for further information address him at 35 Sheafe street.

**Subterranean Pneumatic Railway.**

Of the new lines in London probably the most remarkable is that proposed under the name of the Waterloo and Whitehall Railway. This is a pneumatic line, not for the conveyance of parcels only, not an iron tube like the gigantic pipe between the Post Office and Euston Square; it is an extension of the plan that has been for some time exhibited in operation in the grounds of the Crystal Palace at Sydenham. The tunnel admits about a full sized omnibus carriage, which is impelled by a pressure of the atmosphere behind the vehicle, produced by lessening the density of the air in front. It is an underground railroad worked without locomotives. The proposed line will run in a tunnel under the Thames, and open a communication between Whitehall and Waterloo Station, near Vine street. As a means of communication between one part of London and another this line will be quite an experiment.

**Burglars Using Wedges.**

The Birmingham correspondent of a London contemporary says:—

"By the aid of the wedge now so much used by burglars, a safe, considered thief-proof, was opened in Birmingham on Friday night last, at the office of Mr. H. Dixon, of the Old Wharf. The safe was 3 feet by 2½ feet, and was made of three-eighth inch plates. The door was forced open, and such was the violence that had been applied that one of the sides was not only bent and broken, but the bolts by which the safe was riveted together were driven completely out of the metal. The noise of the concussion of a sledgehammer upon the wedge seems to have been muffled by the use of a book. There was only 3½d. in the safe."

grew before. Inventors are, then, benefactors, for although they may not make grass grow literally, they make one thing serve two purposes sometimes,

THERE are now packed away in the different storehouses on the banks of the Hudson about 153,000 tons of ice, gathered this season.



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**SMALL BOILERS.**

One of the commonest mistakes committed in engineering practice is to allow too small a proportion of boiler to steam engine. We see evidences of it every day in steam vessels, and more frequently in factories. In ships with limited boiler power a continual struggle is going on between the water tenders, the coal passers, the firemen and the engine. It is a matter of interest which of these machines shall get ahead. The steam gage is anxiously inspected; the pressure is continually falling; a brief "spurt" on the part of the fireman for a time causes the pressure to gain, but when this ceases it falls to the old point again, and no judicious throttling; no loud and imperative commands to carry less water; no skillful slicing of fires; no scientific dilution of the gases with air through the furnace doors; no busy whirling of blowers, can raise the pressure beyond the point at which the capacity of the boiler stops. One may as well attempt to pour five quarts out of a four-quart vessel as to get more steam than it has the capacity to generate. Like spurs applied to a tired horse, the goading is of no avail, and, unless other boilers are put in, no results, except poor ones, are obtained.

A shocking waste of fuel occurs when small boilers are used. The green fuel thrown in is no sooner fairly aglow, and parting with what heat it contains, than fresh charges are put on top of it, the blast is turned on, and that heat which should have been devoted to raising steam is employed to burn the cold fuel, and is soon sent whirling up the smokestack, to be lost in the outer air. If a man fed the hopper of a fanning mill with greenbacks, and blew them out of the dust-opening thereof, he would have a practical exemplification of the waste occurring in boilers too small for their work. Not only is fuel wasted, but the boiler itself rapidly deteriorates, as does every other machine, implement, vessel or apparatus taxed beyond its capacity.

An incessant opening of furnace doors, a continual introduction of fresh fuel, an unremitting torture of said fuel by "slicing," poking, "roasting," and other ingenious devices, to prevent the coal from burning, transpires throughout the day when the boiler is too small. Every cook knows that if she give her range no peace there will be no dinner; the domestic steam will not be raised in a desirable manner, and with a steam boiler continually urged the proprietor suffers daily loss.

A most striking example of the utility of large

boilers and the assertions here made was noticed by us some years ago in a factory. The proprietor of it had a small steam engine driven by a boiler large enough for two such engines. That boiler actually used less coal than one half its size for the same work; the fire once made in the morning burnt slowly through the day. Once or twice firing was all that was necessary, and the doors were continually ajar. The sluggish combustion was accelerated when new fuel was added by closing them for a few minutes. At night the fires were banked, remained so all night, and half an hour before work commenced they were ready for work. No kindlings were used from one week's end to the other, except to start the fire on Monday morning; no coal was burned to heat cold water every morning; no fuel was wasted, for it slowly roasted away to ashes, and the burning gases rising slowly through the flues and heating surfaces remained in contact with them, and gave forth their utmost value.

Half, if not more, of the miraculous economy claimed for cut-offs for engines with peculiar pistons; for valves with crooked openings instead of straight; for valves with three-fourth stems instead of seven-eighths, arises solely from their engines having surplus boiler power, wherein the coal is thoroughly burnt; where every ounce is reduced to ashes—not consolidated to cinder—and where the heat, instead of being discharged at the smokestack as soon as generated, is utilized in turning water into steam.

**EXPIRATION OF THE GOODYEAR PATENT.**

There has never been a more illustrious exhibition of the beneficent operation of the patent laws than in the case of Charles Goodyear's invention of the vulcanization of india-rubber. The unflagging perseverance that carried the inventor through his early struggles was the result of the splendid reward which these laws offered as the crown of his success. For twenty-one years the inventor and his assigns have enjoyed a monopoly of the invention, and a number of magnificent fortunes have been acquired from this monopoly.

But great as have been the profits to the owners of the patent, they are small indeed compared with the advantages which the invention has bestowed upon the community. The properties of vulcanized rubber are so peculiar and so valuable, that the article has come into use in almost every art and every department of life. The infant draws its first drop of nourishment from the tender bosom of its mother through a patent nipple shield of india-rubber, the little girl dances her rubber doll upon her knee, the boy bounds his rubber ball, or claps his hands with delight as his rose balloon of india-rubber floats away into the sky. India-rubber protects the watchman in dryness and comfort through the most violent storm, and it draws together with peculiar elegance and grace the corset of the belle, it keeps the dust from our hands and the water from our feet; we ride in a car which runs smoothly upon india-rubber springs, and is drawn by an engine packed with india-rubber in every joint. In short, all the comforts and conveniences of life are augmented, and all its jolts and jars are softened by this elastic and all-pervading substance.

But even yet there are some nooks and corners of the arts from which india-rubber has been excluded by the operation of the Goodyear patent. Many valuable inventions which depend upon the use of vulcanized rubber are lying dormant till this material can be had at a more moderate price. On the 15th of next June the patent will expire, and this great invention—one of the most valuable that has ever been made—will become the property of the public. Then will its innumerable applications be still further multiplied, and new devices for its use will come forth in endless succession from the inexhaustible brains of our inventors.

**Reflecting Magic Lantern.**

Mr. Chadburn, of Liverpool, has patented in England a magic lantern, by which engravings upon paper, photographs and all kinds of pictures are readily produced upon the wall by reflection. The principle upon which this instrument operates is the same as that patented in this country on the 19th of April, 1864, by Geo. Siebold, of Philadelphia, Pa.

**CHEAP SOAP.**

Soap for family use can be made very cheap and of excellent quality with little trouble by the use of a common article sold in all drug stores. This is lye put up in a concentrated form in small iron boxes holding one pound. These boxes cost twenty-five cents in ordinary times, now we believe they retail at forty or fifty cents, and will make twenty-five pounds of green or new soap. The plan of procedure is merely to take a box of this substance, knock off the lid and throw it into a gallon of boiling water. After standing ten hours the lye will be clear, and must be thrown into a wash boiler with another gallon of boiling water; when the contents of the vessel boil, four pounds of any grease must be added slowly, poured in in a thin stream and stirred well. When intimately mixed the boiler should simmer slowly for four or six hours, and half an hour before taking off another gallon of hot water may be added together with half a teacupful of salt. The latter is not necessary, however, and if too much is thrown in the soap is curdled or made short so that it breaks and wastes. When the soap is thought to be done plunge a case knife in, if the mass drops clear and rosy and chills quickly it is soap and will be firm and hard when cold. Have ready a wash tub well wet on the bottom and sides; pour the soap in and let it set; in a few hours it will be hard enough to cut out and as white as snow. This process makes twenty-five pounds of soap, or, by the aid of grease, four pounds, lye, one pound, twenty-four pounds of water, less two quarts driven off in boiling, (one gallon weighs eight pounds nearly,) are converted into soap of excellent detergent properties. Since the grease is saved from the family waste the soap has only cost what the lye has come to, and, as the loss by drying is only 25 per cent, eighteen pounds of soap can be made for fifty cents, a little over three cents per pound. We have made hundreds of pounds of this soap in all varieties and use it constantly for domestic purposes.

**A SIGNIFICANT FACT.**

We have frequently called public attention to the fact that, notwithstanding the existence of war and the consequent disturbance of business, the arts do not languish nor does trade stagnate to the degree that might have been expected. Repeated calls for men to fight the battles of the nation have drained the North of large numbers of its most skillful craftsmen. Eager to uphold the national credit and honor under all circumstances, machinists, carpenters, engineers, farmers, masons, indeed, members of every calling, have laid down their several implements and hurried to the field. Nay, more, they have also unloosed their purse strings, and while they have shed their blood in their country's defense, they have loaned to the Government the wages received for this very service.

In consequence of the absence of manual labor, machinery has been, and still is largely in demand to supply the demands of trade, and we call attention to the unprecedentedly large list of patent claims in this number as the fullest evidence that inventors are awake and equal to the emergency. Machines, plans, processes, designs and apparatuses are all recorded there, and it would be difficult to find a branch of manufacturing not represented.

The present list is the largest ever issued from the United States Patent Office, and numbers no less than one hundred and fifty-one cases.

Our friends and patrons will be pleased to learn that the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN PATENT AGENCY is, as usual, largely represented here, and may fairly claim the lion's share in the number of patents procured. Out of the whole number SEVENTY-THREE were obtained through this office, and we present this naked fact as the best evidence of the confidence of the inventive portion of the community in our efforts to serve them.

**NOTICE TO SUBSCRIBERS.**

The first five numbers of the present volume of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN being out of print, we shall commence the time of each new subscriber from the date of receipt of the order, unless the writer states specifically that he wishes such back numbers as can be furnished.











THE CHEAPEST MODE OF INTRODUCING INVENTIONS.

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No charge is made for the publication, and the cuts are furnished to the party for whom they are executed as soon as they have been used. We wish it understood, however, that no second-hand or poor engravings, such as patentees often get executed by inexperienced artists for printing circulars and handbills from, can be admitted into these pages.

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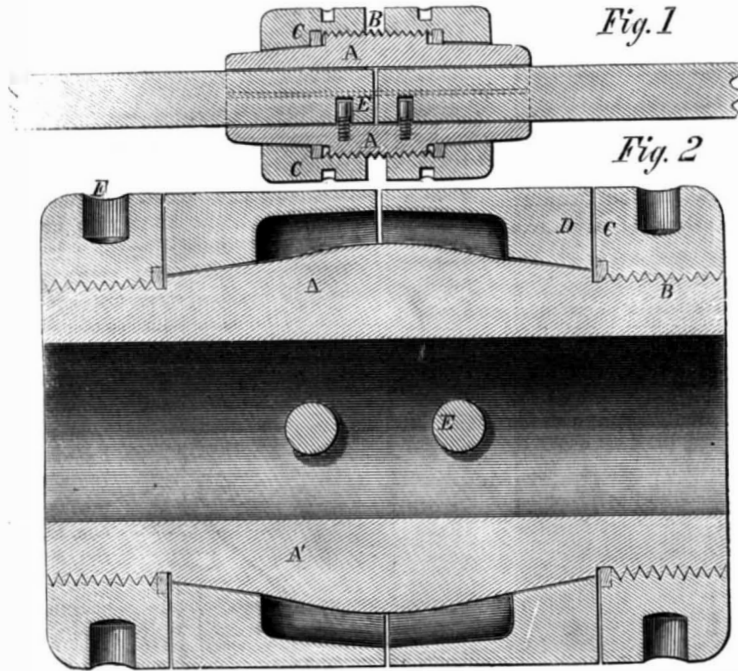
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into it to greater or less distance, and ending in a cap turning its convexity toward the extremity of the jet. The tubes thus formed were perfectly continuous, and fitted one to each other, so that each line of junction was represented in slices cut at right angles to the axis of the jet. "These lines," says the writer, "show that all the molecules composing the primitive block came individually to take their place in the jet exactly as the molecules of a running liquid



**COLLINS'S SHAFT COUPLING.**

for the purpose than the cast heads; it can also be put on or taken off in half the time, and allows lateral adjustment in the length of the line, all of which renders it useful to machinists and others erecting or running machinery.

In construction it consists of two halved couplings, A, in shape like the brasses in a journal box. These couplings have a thread, B, in the center, over which nuts, C—one on each end—work. The ends of the couplings are tapered, as are also the nuts inside, to correspond, so that when the nuts are drawn up the boxes or couplings are shut together.

Figs. 1 and 2 show two ways in which the arrangement is applied. In Fig. 2 there are center pieces, D, which are cast, if necessary, and forced together by the collar nuts. The pins, E, fit in holes drilled in the shaft so as to cause them to turn; they perform the same office as keys in the coupling, and the holes, F, are for the application of wrenches, should these holes for the pins get worn at any time it is a simple matter to renew them by turning the shaft partly around. This coupling is also much safer where shafting runs in close proximity to thoroughfares or where men are obliged to pass and re-pass; there are no projecting bolt heads to catch in belts that happen to run off or carry unfortunate individuals around the shafting when their shirt sleeves happen to touch; this often occurs with bolts.

This arrangement was patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency, on the 20th of December, 1864, by James P. Collins, of Troy, N. Y., address him for further information at that place.

**Flow of Solids under Pressure.**

M. H. Tresca has communicated a paper on this subject to the French Academy, in which he details experiments to show that "solid bodies can, without change of condition, flow after the manner of liquids, if sufficient pressure is exerted upon them." His method consists in operating upon solids composed of separate pieces, the joints of which are known before the experiment begins, and so that their position after the trial indicates the amount and kind of displacement that has been produced. When a block composed of disks was placed in a cylinder and exposed to pressure on one of its bases, in some cases amounting to 100,000 kilogrammes, and allowed to flop through a round hole, concentric with the cylinder, it was found that the plane surfaces of the disks were modified so as to form surfaces of revolution in the jet, which were almost cylindrical, descending

do." Mr. Tresca thinks that operations of this kind may explain certain geological cases of intrusion of one rock into another.—*Intellectual Observer.*

**ZAHN'S KEROSENE LAMP SCREEN.**

Those who use kerosene lamps know that very eat expense occurs from frequent breakage of



chimneys. This accident is especially liable to happen where the common shades are used. The difference in the temperature and conducting power between the metal top of the screen and the glass chimney breaks the latter very often. Sometimes persons forget to apply the shade until the lamp has been lighted for some time; contact with the cold metal of the screen, if it be put on at the time spoken of, is sure to crack the glass immediately. Screens

of the ordinary kind are also fixed in one place, and no adjustment is possible, and the hot metal chars or burns the paper of the screen, so that the same soon drops off and requires renewal.

The screen top here shown is a great improvement on the ordinary kind. It can be adjusted, limitedly, so as to be at different heights; this is done by slipping the arms, A, up or down; these arms are like the clasps on spectacles, and operate by slipping in the same way. The hooks, B, by which the screen is suspended, are so small at the points of contact that no danger of breakage need be apprehended, while the liability of scorching, so common in the ordinary shades, is here entirely obviated; so also is the breaking of glasses from striking against the cooler metal. This screen top does not touch the glass at all, being suspended, as shown, so that it is clear all round. This arrangement was patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency on the 28th of December, 1864, by Henry Zahn, of New York city. For further information address him at 79 Chatham street. The entire patent is for sale.

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