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IMPROVED FEED WATER HEATER AND PURIFIER.

To the use of impure feed water, there is little doubt but that a large proportion of the constantly recurring boiler explosions may be attributed. The history of those catastrophes which have happened on the steamboats plying upon Western rivers shows that the majority have taken place when the streams were high and filled with impurities, which last, often mingled with grease or oil, were allowed to enter the boiler with the feed. It is very questionable whether exhaust steam, charged as it is with lubricating matter from the cylinder, should be permitted to come in contact with the feed water, since the grease, mingling with the impurities held in the water, may easily form an insoluble substance which, settling on the bottom of the boiler, may cause the burning out of the sheets, with the attendant dangers thereupon, or at best, with certain kinds of water, may establish foaming in the generator, likewise perilous.

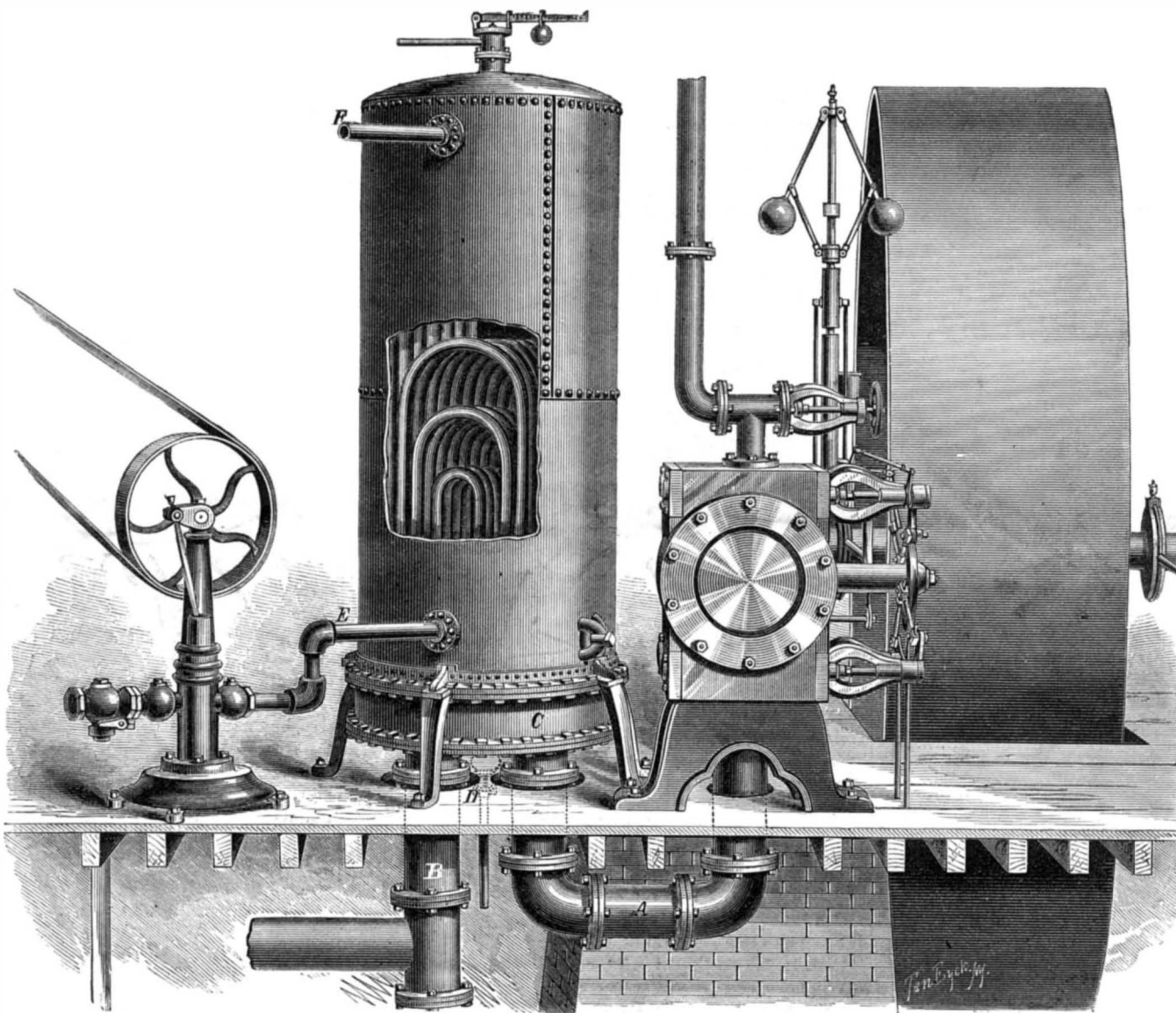
In the annexed engraving is represented the Berryman feed water heater and purifier, an invention which has been in successful use for some time both in this country and in Europe. It was patented as long ago as 1872, by Mr. R. Berryman, of Hartford, Conn.; and since that date many changes have been made and improvements added, until the manufacturers think they have about exhausted all means for additional improvement.

The illustration represents the device attached to an engine, showing all the connections. A portion of the shell of the heater is broken away in order to exhibit the shape and position of the tubes. These last are made in the form of an inverted U, and their lower ends are set in a tube sheet of cast iron varying from two to three inches in thickness. The shell is composed of boiler plate, strongly put together and capable of sustaining as high a pressure as that to which any steam boiler may be subjected. The tubes are seamless and made of drawn brass or copper. Their shape prevents any alteration by contraction or expansion of the metal, and the mode in which they are set in the sheet renders it impossible for them to work loose.

A is the exhaust pipe of the engine, through which the steam enters the V-shaped tubes in the heater, circulates through them, and finally is conducted off by the pipe, B. The steam can then be utilized for warming a building or shop, or for any other purpose, the same as if it had not been directed out of its course. The area of the tubes is, in every case, at least twenty-five per cent greater than that of the exhaust pipe, so that no back pressure on the engine is produced by them. The chamber, C, is divided by a steamtight partition, and the pipe from the blowcock, D, extends through this partition into the water space around the tubes. The feed water pipe, from the pump, injector, or hydrant, is connected at E near the bottom of the heater, and the eduction pipe, which conducts water to the boiler, is shown at F. A safety valve is added to guard against excessive pressure within the shell.

It is well known that the large majority of substances which form impurities in feed water will separate and deposit themselves when the temperature of the water is raised to 186° Fah. and thence to boiling: provided, however, that sufficient time is allowed for this to take place, that the water is permitted to remain quiet, and that it is kept under pressure. All of these conditions, it is claimed, are carried

out in the Berryman heater. The capacity of the chamber is so regulated that it contains sufficient water to keep up a constant supply to the boiler for full thirty minutes. This supply being retained at 210° Fah., and under boiler pressure, allows ample time for the impurities to separate and deposit at the bottom of the heater, whence they are removed by occasionally opening the blow-out cock. There is always about 100° Fah. difference between the temperature of the water at the top and that of the water at the bottom of the heater, so that the sediment, falling into comparatively cool water, is not solidified, and therefore, being kept in solution, is easily blown out



BERRYMAN'S FEED WATER HEATER AND PURIFIER.

The water, being taken in at the bottom and removed at the top of the apparatus, is entirely free from agitation; and as it is pumped through the tubes with simply a check valve between it and the boiler, the same pressure acts upon it as upon the contents of the latter.

We are enabled to glean some idea of the practical working of the invention from a large number of commendatory letters from users of the same, submitted to us by the manufacturer. One writer says: "The feed water, delivered to our boilers in its purity, has not only kept them clean but has entirely removed all of the old scale which incrusts the flues." Another gives a highly favorable report after testing the apparatus very thoroughly on board a Mississippi steamboat. From one letter we learn that the heater maintains the water at a uniform temperature of 206°, and a new boiler connected with it six months ago is yet perfectly free from scale. Still another writer notes a saving of one third of his fuel, another states that hard lime water is rendered as soft as rain water; and thus we might continue giving extracts from dozens of similar testimonials, received from both English and American users, all agreeing in the same excellent results.

The reader interested can, however, obtain full particulars by addressing the manufacturer, Mr. I. B. Davis, Hartford, Conn.

To destroy chinch bugs, put old pieces of rag or carpet in the crotches of the trees attacked. When the worms spin, as they will, in the rags, throw the latter in scalding water. The bugs can thus be killed by wholesale

Wilhelm Bauer.

There died the other day an inventor who was not entirely unknown in engineering circles in this country. We speak of Wilhelm Bauer, the German submarine engineer, who expired lately at Munich, at the age of fifty-three. In him the now united Germany, for whose cause he fought in his younger days, has lost one of her most gifted inventors, who will now, when he is dead, receive that recognition which he strove hard during his life to deserve, but which the world was slow to accord. Wilhelm Bauer was the son of a Bavarian sergeant-major, and saw the light on December 23, 1822, at Dillingen, near Augsburg. His education was only of a

limited description and he was at an early age apprenticed to a turner. But this occupation did not suit his ardent temperament and desire for distinction, and he entered the Bavarian artillery at the age of sixteen. Here he had the opportunity of acquiring a knowledge of mathematics, which he was ever eager to extend. On the futile war of independence of Schleswig-Holstein against Denmark breaking out in 1849, Bauer was animated by a disinterested enthusiasm for the cause of the duchies, and was one of the first to enter the collecting Schleswig-Holstein army as volunteer. During the short periods of respite in that struggle, he was able to follow his favorite studies. It is said that in his leisure hours he was fond of watching on the coasts of the Baltic the gambols of the seal, how they rose to the surface and as quickly disappeared, and that their play gave rise to the idea of building a ship which, seal-like, would rise and sink, and which could be navigated under the water. After great pains and exertions,

Bauer constructed a model realizing his idea, and this soon found such favor that he was able, by means of a subscription raised among the officers and soldiers of the armies of the duchies, to build a small ship according to his plan. Accompanied by two sailors he undertook ten submarine trips with the most favorable results; but as the ship had been constructed on the most economical principles, Bauer's funds being limited, it sprung a leak during the tenth trial trip, and sank to the bottom of the Baltic. This happened on the 1st of February, 1851, at nine o'clock in the morning.

The anxiety of the multitude waiting for the reappearance of the vessel may be imagined, but it is impossible even to picture the terrible position in which Bauer and his companions found themselves. During fully six hours they remained in the almost hermetically sealed compartment of the ship, which was filled with compressed air and into which the water could not enter. Fortunately a happy idea struck Bauer in this emergency. He thought that if he were to suddenly open an exit to the great quantity of compressed air, it would rush out with great force. After the necessary preparations he placed one of the sailors close to the small hatch, closed tightly with glass. At the proper moment Bauer opened the hatch and the three were forced upwards, like, as Bauer expressed it, so many corks of champagne bottles, arriving safely at the surface of the water. This was at half-past three in the afternoon. The ship which he had named Fire Diver (*Brandtaucher*), and which was destined to serve as submarine fire ship, was of course lost; but general attention was drawn to the young inventor, and King Louis of Bavaria, as well as Prince Albert of England, pa-

tronized him, so that he was able to build a new model, which was inspected by the Emperor of Austria. It was the intention to utilize the invention practically in the Austrian navy; but the project had to be abandoned for the want of money experienced at that time by Austria. When, during the Crimean war, the English and French fleets invested Cronstadt, Bauer was invited by the Grand Duke Constantine to come at once to Russia and construct a ship which could be employed against besiegers. The ship was finished just when peace was concluded; but Bauer undertook 120 submarine trips with it. A large pecuniary compensation had been accorded to him; but as he did not comply with the demands of Russi officials, he was exposed to many intrigues, and had almost to fly from Russia under the protection of the Bavarian ambassador. He repeatedly resided in London, and settled finally at Munich, where he continued his studies undisturbed. His name came again prominently before the public when he effected the raising of the Ludwig, sunk in the Lake of Constance. He earned a lasting name and honors by this feat, but at the same time contracted a severe affliction of the gout, which grew worse with time. Paralyzed and deprived of speech, he spent his days in a chair, but his mind, notwithstanding bodily infirmities, was as fresh as ever. He subsisted on a pension granted him by King Louis, until death released him from his sufferings.—Engineering.

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NEW YORK, SATURDAY, AUGUST 28, 1875.

Contents.

(Illustrated articles are marked with an asterisk.)

Table listing various articles and their page numbers, including 'Irrigation works in India', 'Answers to correspondents', 'Light, a brilliant', 'Patent decisions, recent', etc.

THE ENGLISH PATENT BILL.

The new Patent Bill, which lately passed the House of Lords, was withdrawn in the House of Commons, and has failed therefore to become a law. A great mass of petitions were presented against it, but none in its favor. The general object of the proposed law was, as we have heretofore intimated, to curtail and ultimately to abolish the granting of patents in England. The intended change appears to have roused the strongest opposition among the scientific and working people of England, but was favored by the aristocracy.

The failure of the new bill leaves the present law in force, with all its excellent provisions for the granting and holding of patents by American citizens and other foreigners. Among the provisions are the following:

Any person may apply for, obtain, and hold an English patent for a period of fourteen years; the patent remains good during this period, if the fees are paid, whether the patentee works the invention or not; he is at liberty to do as he pleases in this respect; no one may use the invention without his consent.

Models are not required; but full drawings and specifications must be furnished by the applicant.

The government grants a patent to every applicant, whether the invention be new or old; no official preliminary examination as to novelty is made, but the applicant is expected to make his own examinations, all previous patents being printed and accessible.

If the applicant takes out a patent for an old invention, one that is already publicly known, or has been previously patented in England, such patent will be worthless, as it will not be sustained by the English courts. But if the invention is new in England, the patent will be liberally construed and sustained by the courts.

The British patent covers England, Scotland, Wales, Ireland, and the Channel Islands, or a population of about forty millions of the most intelligent people in the world.

The business connected with the obtaining of English patents is easily transacted, while the postal and commercial facilities now existing between the United States and Great Britain are such that an American patentee experiences little more trouble in introducing and profiting from his English patent than from his home patent.

Nearly all inventions that are worth patenting in this country are equally valuable in England.

Circulars containing further information concerning English patents, their cost, etc., can be had, free of charge, at the office of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

THE IRRIGATION WORKS OF INDIA.

Among the more remarkable engineering undertakings of the last quarter of a century, remarkable for their bold conception and sometimes for their blundering execution, must be numbered the irrigation works of India. And since the Indian government has announced the intention of devoting to the extension of such works, during the next fifteen years, the enormous sum of a hundred million dollars, it becomes a matter of no slight interest to know both what has been done and what is proposed to be done in this direction.

The conditions, climatic and otherwise, which make necessary the expenditure of millions to correct the unkindnesses of Nature, are happily but little known in this land of abundant and timely rains. It is to be hoped that they never will be experienced; though it must be confessed that, in some of the more fertile parts of the land, the drift of climatic change is as pointedly in that direction as it used to be in other parts of the world, once fertile and densely peopled, now deserted and desolate. Ages ago, when Northern Africa was swarming with thrifty people, when Asia Minor harbored unnumbered paradises, when Persia was the garden of the world, their people would have scorned the idea that their lands could ever become the prey of drought and famine. But such has been their fate. So in Northwestern and in North Central India, many seats of ancient power and civilization have become untilled and tenantless through the failure of genial showers; and large areas, as in the lower half of the Punjab and the adjoining territory of Scinde are scarcely habitable, except along the rivers, where irrigation is possible. To a less but still serious extent, the upper valley of the Ganges, a large portion of Central India, and the east coast of the Madras Presidency are made to suffer from a scanty and somewhat precarious rainfall, and are even liable to witness famine following hard upon drought, except where irrigation has made them partially independent of local rains.

It is about forty years since the British conquerors of India began to take a constructive interest in the reclaiming of the formerly fertile parts of the country by means of irrigation works, first by the restoration of ancient works which had fallen into decay.

From an early period the lowlands along the Indus and its five branches—which give name to the Punjab—were saved, from the desiccation which befel the plains away from the river, by means of wells and inundation canals leading off from the natural water courses. These works were shallow trenches, unskillfully planned and rudely executed, from five to seventy miles in length, and fed by the surplus water of the rivers when swollen by the melted snow of the Himalayas. At a relatively early period, many of these canals were restored, deepened, and improved under British management, to the great advantage of the surrounding country. For the further alleviation of the same region, a much more ambitious series of irrigation works has been undertaken, of which more will be said further on.

The earliest work of the sort undertaken by the English was planned and executed by Sir Arthur Cotton, of the Madras Engineers. In the southeastern quarter of Madras, the rainfall, though double that of the Punjab and Scinde, has long been slight and precarious. Various means were adopted by the native rulers to store up water against the time of need, chiefly by means of reservoirs locally known as tanks. Many of these tanks have fallen into ruin, still as many as 43,000 remain, with 30,000 miles of embankment and 300,000 separate masonry works. The same presidency contains also the most ancient specimens of a more ambitious class of irrigation works, consisting of extensive systems of canals, fed from reservoirs formed by the damming of large rivers. The first great work of Sir Arthur Cotton was the restoration of one of these systems, by means of which fertility had once been given to the lower valley of the Cauvery river.

In consequence of the gradual erosion of the bed of one division of the Cauvery, the stream which fed the irrigation canals had been almost deprived of its water, and the total ruin of the country, which depended on the canals, was seriously threatened. By means of an immense dam or annicut, the water was set back into the old channel, the canals were

supplied once more, and the irrigation of Tanjore was restored. Thousands of acres of previous waste were brought under tillage, and the productiveness of the whole territory was much increased. The value of the land was doubled, the annual profits of the cultivators were increased by nearly \$500,000, and the government land revenue was increased \$350,000 a year, all by an improvement which cost only \$400,000.

So successful and beneficial was this work that Colonel Cotton was enabled to undertake a similar but more extensive operation for the improvement of the lower valley of the Godavery. This was the construction of a dam across the river, two and a half miles long, one hundred and thirty feet broad at the base, and twelve feet high. The dam was faced with heavy masonry, filled in with earth, and protected by an apron of masonry stones extending seventy or eighty feet down the stream. A vast system of canals, adapted both to irrigation and commerce, is fed from above the dam. Altogether there are between 800 and 900 miles of artificial channel from which water is supplied to ground otherwise barren, and 50,000 boats and rafts are employed in conveying the produce to market. When the works are finished, 1,000,000 acres will have been brought under cultivation. So far the works have cost somewhat more than \$3,000,000; but this sum has been repaid more than twice over by the increased public revenue. Similar though not so remunerative works have been executed for the irrigation of the delta of the Kistna.

While these works were in progress, the engineers of Bengal were employed in reopening and extending the Western Jumna Canal, giving life and verdure to 350,000 acres. In 1848 was begun the Ganges Canal, with a main channel 348 miles long, primary branches of 306 miles, and minor distributaries aggregating more than 3,000 miles. The area over which it diffuses irrigation is 320 miles long by about 50 miles wide. Its cost was \$7,000,000.

In the naturally rich and formerly populous region of the Punjab, as already noted, a renewal of life and fertility is being effected by the Barea Doab. This canal leaves the Ravee—one of the five rivers—where it issues from the Himalayas, and, passing the famous city of Umritser, strikes across the desert, and will eventually rejoin the Ravee after a course of 140 miles. On its way, it throws off branches right and left, the length of which gives the whole work (exclusive of minor distributaries) a length of 357 miles. The area expected to be irrigated is 650,000 acres.

In the adjoining province of Scinde are also large tracts of once productive and well peopled country, now a desert, whose productiveness might be restored by the improvement of the old and the construction of new irrigation canals. It is therefore proposed to re-water the country—the valley of the Lower Indus—by means of four systems of canals: an ambitious scheme, which will probably be carried out sooner or later, converting hundreds of miles of waste land into fertile fields.

Many other irrigation schemes are in various stages of development in India, some of great magnitude. Among these may be mentioned the operations recently begun for turning eastward a portion of the waters of the Sutlej, to restore to its ancient condition an immense area, once richly productive, but on which the desert has lately been fast encroaching. Still more important are the works which have been going on for several years in Orissa, to compel the rivers Brahminuy and Mahanuddy to fertilize the deltas which their inundations have heretofore periodically devastated—works on which \$6,000,000 have already been expended.

Though not always wisely planned or economically executed, the irrigation works of India have been, even in a commercial sense, paying investments. Some of them have been extremely remunerative, yielding to the government exchequer, in water rates, increased rent of land, and other revenues, a liberal percentage on the capital invested in them. For example, the Cauvery canals are reputed to pay 23 1/2 per cent on their cost, the Godavery works 45 per cent, the Kistna 16 per cent, the Western Jumna 30 per cent. In ordinary years the Ganges Canal, which was unnecessarily costly, pays barely 3 per cent; but in the rainless autumn of 1860, it was the means of saving grain crops enough to keep alive more than a million people, who must otherwise, if left to themselves, have perished from hunger; thus saving to the State not only that number of lives, but the necessity of a proportionate remission of rents and a vast expenditure for the relief of insolvent tenants. The Barea Doab, in the construction of which some stupendous blunders were made, pays 5 per cent. The unfinished Orissa works have not yet begun to be remunerative. Still, as a possible preventive of the horrors of a famine such as scourged the district in 1866, the vast sum thus far expended cannot be said to be an unprofitable investment.

IS EDUCATION FOR CULTURE OR FOR USE?

The interests of education and of educational institutions will occupy a large share of attention during these summer months. And while the universal commendation, by friends and interested parties, of good, bad, and indifferent alike, which conveys the false impression that there is not an inefficient school or instructor in the land, is a topic worthy of serious consideration, we pass it to notice the question as to the real object of education.

Many of our best educators sneer at the idea of making education commercial—at looking to the practical in its pursuit; and in our highest educational circles, these things are considered beneath the dignity of a real student. This idea has been so eloquently and beautifully expressed by President Capen, of Tufts College, in his recent inaugural address, that we quote it as a sort of text for the remarks we wish

to make. On the "Purpose of the American University," he says: "First of all it purposes culture, pure and simple, and this, too, for its own sake. All other objects are sunk from view. It assumes that learning is the highest and noblest of temporal pursuits, that it is even removed from the common range of temporalities, and linked by a mysterious process to the ineffable and eternal. Hence, it aims to present learning in the guise of a fair and beautiful maiden to whom youths are invited to pay their court, as to one who will hold sweet and delightful converse with them and never deceive them or lead them astray." With no purpose or desire of raising a personal issue, we use this simply as a fair exponent of the views now held by those highest in authority and influence in the field of education.

Culture, we admit, is indispensable; but is the real object and end of culture for its own sake? Is it not rather for some greater good it will gain for self and for others? If we strive for the pure and simple culture, with "all other objects sunk from view," wherein is the individual or the world benefited? What is culture, thus limited, but unproductive capital, and why is not this as unwise in intellectual as in political economy? A horse trainer exercises his young horse regularly and judiciously; but does he do it simply to make a trained horse of his beast? Does he not rather do it because he knows a well trained horse will be of more service to him than an ill or untrained horse? Gymnastic exercises tend to the development of physical strength, but do we consider him remarkably wise who has the ultimate end in view simply to gain the organic strength? And does not this limited idea of culture make it mere intellectual gymnastics? If one is more brilliant and instructive in conversation, stronger for any work in which he may be engaged, a more efficient and better friend, neighbor, or citizen, his culture has its use. But genuine culture may still exist if it accomplish none of these things. The possessor of it may be honored in the training school, but on his entrance into active life, he is staggered by the question: "What can you do?" and may fail to answer it all his future life. He is like the good gymnast who would insist that he is qualified for any manual or physical employment because he possesses strong and well developed muscles.

The shortsighted policy of giving attention to nothing that has not an immediate and remunerative money value—the penny wise and pound foolish policy—and that which can be influenced by no higher consideration than a pecuniary one, we most heartily despise. But if its end and aim and the final result are not beneficial in some way, we are forced to urge the unpopular and vulgar query: What is the use—*cui bono*? Most Science has practical value because it tends to enrich and benefit mankind. Some is called pure science, and is fascinating to its disciples for the very reason that it is "removed from the common range of temporalities," and is entirely uncontaminated with anything of a practical nature. A learned Professor of Zoölogy in a famous institution not a thousand miles from New York, at the close of an exhaustive lecture on some of the cranial nerves, gave a good illustration of this, in reply to a question as to the office of these nerves, by saying he could not tell, as he had no interest in knowing their use, and suggested that a physician had to do with such questions. Such topics as these contribute to general culture in its purity, and it is said by the really wise (!) that none but the worldlywise and shortsighted would interdict them. Many questions of interest to the student arise in the progress of public scientific undertakings, as State geological and natural history surveys, which do not directly benefit the people who authorize these surveys. And in one of our Western States, the legislators had the wonderful providence to direct their State Geologist to exclude theories from his report, and to record only facts. We can hardly conceive of any question connected with the laws of Nature which must not be, either at present or ultimately, of benefit to mankind in one way or another; but if it could be shown that such exists, we ask, in all candor, why not leave it, and give the attention to such investigations as have other recommendation besides the fact that they merely contribute to pure culture?

There may be something defective in the notions of those who desire only the practical in education; and on the other hand, there may be a little error in the ideas of those who ridicule this course. One seeking the purely practical may be unsymmetrical, or a one idea man, from studying only what he wants to use; while by the opposite course he may be a bookworm, or, in his efforts to embrace the whole field of learning for the sake of culture, be necessarily a mere smatterer in all. If the age of Methuselah were ours, it might be reasonable to expect proficiency in an extended range of subjects; but in our short lives, we can reasonably look for the result by pursuing the line of study that is most congenial. In other lines one labors at a disadvantage which is as unwise in intellectual as in physical pursuits. We can see no good reason why that division of intellectual labor, which will give to each the work at which he can accomplish most, is not as wise as a similar division of physical labor. There is no great wisdom in working at a disadvantage, either with the hand or the head, when this can be avoided. The toil we hate is the more fatiguing and less improving in one case as well as in the other. And since the opportunities for research on any one subject are unlimited, and a thorough knowledge of one necessitates a general knowledge, at least, of all allied subjects, who shall say that just as much culture and breadth of mental power cannot be acquired by pursuing only those studies which bear directly on one's chosen object of pursuit? A blacksmith or farmer has no need of resorting to gymnastics to gain strength and skill for his productive work; and cannot a student gain the requisite strength of mind for his life work, in his chosen field as well as out of

it? The mental stimulus which accompanies work in the direction of one's interests tends to greater success in this way than can be gained, under ordinary circumstances, when the attention is called to topics which suggest no definite object besides that of general culture. If culture is the first and highest object, it would seem consistent with this view to make those studies, which are considered most conducive to culture, compulsory in the curriculum, regardless of any practical benefit. But, instead of this, there is a marked and growing disposition to increase the ratio of elective to required studies in the graduating courses of our best colleges. Unless the student is guilty of the unmanly practice of choosing a study simply because it will gain for him the highest "mark" with the least possible effort, he is likely to enter with more zest upon chosen work, in which he has a definite object, than when he has no clearly defined purpose in view. For instance, one will study more closely—and hence gain from it greater culture—something he intends to teach, to use in conversation, for the platform or the press, or to put to some other definite use; and his interest and mental activity will be excited, as a rule, just in proportion to his estimate of the practical benefit resulting from it in the future, to himself or to others. The reason why so many are graduated from our institutions of learning, with comparatively little or no knowledge of the subject over which they have passed, is doubtless that, having no definite object for study, aside from the name of being a graduate, the results of general culture are too visionary and uncertain to afford stimulus to sustained and successful efforts. Hence we claim that, since all are by nature averse to labor, every stimulus that is laudable should be furnished to aid the student to the largest endeavors. A favored few may find sufficient incentive in the mere desire to know; but even in this case, mental activity and success will be increased if, in addition to this praiseworthy desire, there is also a clear perception of some beneficial result which will follow the fact of knowing.

Is it strictly correct to assume that learning is the highest and noblest of all temporal pursuits? If, to make it thus, it must be removed from temporalities, and linked to the ineffable and eternal, it would seem to be no more a temporal pursuit than heart culture, and is not the latter higher and nobler than head culture? There seems to be a natural order of development in the objects which, at different periods, have been held in highest esteem by mankind: from muscular power, through wealth, to intellectual attainments; and we trust the time may dawn ere long, when one with the highest and purest motives, other things being equal, will be looked upon as having attained a higher and nobler object of pursuit than physical strength, wealth, or mental culture.

The idea of presenting learning in the guise of a fair and beautiful maiden to whom youths are invited to pay their court, and with whom they may hold sweet and delightful converse, is a very beautiful and attractive one; and yet, if this is for its own sake, what is it but elevated and innocent pleasure-seeking—a sort of butterfly existence? There is pleasure in gymnastics or physical culture, so there is in mental culture; but if either is sought simply for the pleasure it affords, why is the seeker of mere pleasure in this particular way so much more exalted than the pleasure-seeker in any other way?

It probably will not be denied in theory, however much it may be in practice, that the highest ideal of life is that "no man liveth to himself," and that he is noblest of all who does most for others. The best servant is the greatest. With this truth accepted, it is evident that the primary object of education, and of all effort, is to qualify one's self for the greatest and most effective service to mankind, and to succeed in the performance of this service. This will necessarily bring all desirable secondary objects with it.

SPIRIT RIFLE PRACTICE.

The papers contain an account of a so-called elaborate investigation of a materialized spirit, which recently took place in St. Louis, Mo. The medium was one W. C. Clark, who pretends that he has a band of thirty-two disembodied spirits about him, some of which he can materialize by the odic or mesmeric force in him. During this materialization, the medium was tied up in a closet, and the room darkened; when, after a little while, a curtain was withdrawn, exposing a part of the interior of the closet, in which then the ghost or materialized spirit was seen. As it was suspected that, in this case, the same kind of deception was employed as in the Katie King affair, namely, that a real person of flesh and blood acted the rôle of the spirit, it was suggested that a crucial test would be to fire at the spirit with a loaded musket, as a real spirit could not be hurt by such an experiment. Mr. Clark having asserted that his materialized spirits were no deceptions, but real spirits, and could stand such a test, he received from an able marksman the following formal challenge:

St. Louis, Aug. 4, 1875.

MR. CLARK: Dear Sir:—Having attended a *séance* given by you, and having seen the wonderful materializations, I will give you fifty dollars to produce one face at the aperture, if you will let me, or any person I may name, fire a shot at it with a rifle. If it is a spirit face it cannot hurt it, and it will satisfy me it is not you with a mask on your face. My conditions are that you will disrobe yourself and put on clothes I shall produce, and permit me to fasten you to the bottom of the cabinet. Yours, respectfully, HENRY TIMKENS.

This was accepted by Mr. Clark. On the appointed evening, August 8, he was divested of all clothing, and other clothes brought by Mr. Timkens were put on him; he was tied down to the bottom of the cabinet by ropes passed through holes; a black curtain covered a window at which the ghost was to appear; the window was located on one side of the medium; the string to open this curtain was placed within reach of Mr. Clark. The cabinet was closed

and the lights turned down; and after a period of painful stillness, the medium asked the audience to sing, and they did so with a will. After they had finished several songs, a loud knocking was heard, which slowly became more gentle, and then ceased. After three quarters of an hour, during which nothing happened but an occasional spasmodic knock, a painful cry was heard in the cabinet, the black curtain was withdrawn, and a face appeared at the window. It was that of a girl with blue eyes and brown hair. The face was instantly seen by all present, and is described as having fixed features and other characteristics of a mask. "Fire," said the voice of Mr. Clark in the cabinet; and Mr. Timkens, who had before pointed his rifle at the center of the window, pulled the trigger, and the ball passed through the face and lodged in the back partition of the cabinet: while the face remained at the window unmoved for about a minute longer, when it was concealed by the black curtain, which was drawn over the opening.

The account is very minute in details about the inspection of the cabinet, and the ropes with which the medium was tied; and it especially reports all which the latter said concerning his fatigue and the emanations from his own spirit and the other spirits he controls; but no means appear to have been taken to get hold of the mask, which was doubtless the thing used.

The same parties (the Holmes') who exhibited the Katie King materialization in Philadelphia were recently exposed in Brooklyn, where a company of spiritualists themselves found out the deception practised by masks, which were exhibited before a curtained window, as at St. Louis. Such a mask, of course, would not be hurt much by a ball; but there are other more scientific and refined methods of practising these deceptions, such as optical contrivances, which can be made to give images which are perfectly visible and totally intangible.

Any one who has seen the perfect illusions produced by the stereopticon, which is nothing but an improved magic lantern, or with the megascope, by which the perfect image of solid bodies may be thrown on smoke, vapor, or dust, can understand that the so-called materialization trick can be easily performed by such means. Such an image, falling on a black curtain, is invisible; but on a white translucent smoke, its resemblance to a real body is such that it is next to impossible to distinguish it, except by an investigation during the exhibition of the image, the investigator placing his head in the opening, and looking around to see where the machine is, from which the light forming the image proceeds.

Persons unacquainted with these and similar resources of physical science, which are increased in number and improved almost daily, are of course utterly incompetent to investigate the means by which tricks of this kind are practised; and their conclusions as to the absence of any deception are of no account whatsoever. The above is only one of many illustrations of cases where the nature of the deception remains undiscovered, simply from the deficiency of knowledge and acuteness of those witnessing the performance.

THE KEELY MOTOR DECEPTION.

Most of the newspapers in Philadelphia, the home of the pretended New Motor, have refrained from any condemnation of the Deception. The *Public Record* is, however, a notable exception. The proprietors of that journal, which by the way is one of the most widely circulated dailies in the country, have put themselves to considerable trouble in collecting information, which has been presented to their readers in a series of able and exhaustive editorials. The effect of these articles is to place the grossness of the Deception in such a strong light that its aiders and abettors will, to say the least, be rendered uncomfortable. These people confess to having obtained large amounts of money, paid by credulous persons who were made to believe in the verity of the thing. The principals are doubtless liable to indictment and trial for obtaining money under false pretenses, and it will not be very surprising if some of the victims move in the matter before long.

It appears from the researches of the editor of the *Record* that the attempts to procure patents on the Keely motor have failed. In all doubtful cases, the Patent Office has the right to require the applicant to produce a working model or machine; and this was required of Keely, but he could not bring forward the model, and had to abandon his case. But this did not prevent extensive commercial dealings by the Keely people. The *Record* states that the Patent Office books exhibit "no fewer than thirty-four documents relating to the transfer of interests in the following named inventions: "Independent fly wheel," "hydro pneumatic pulsating vacuo engine," "globe motor," "dissipating engine, multiplier, or generator," "automatic water lift." The first assignment is dated July 11, 1871, and the last February 15, 1875. Eighteen different parties have been engaged during this time in buying or selling interests in this invention, and this does not include the subscribers to the stock.

COMMON coal oil is an excellent mosquito bar. Drop a little on a piece of cotton, squeeze as dry as possible, and rub over the exposed portions of the body. The smell of the oil disappears in about five minutes, and no mosquito will alight upon the anointed places. This is said to be better than pennyroyal essence for the same purpose.

DO NOT kill the toads. In Paris, they are sold at fifty cents a dozen, in order to protect vineyards and gardens from insects. A toad will swallow the biggest kind of a tomato worm.

THE BRITISH ARCTIC EXPEDITION.

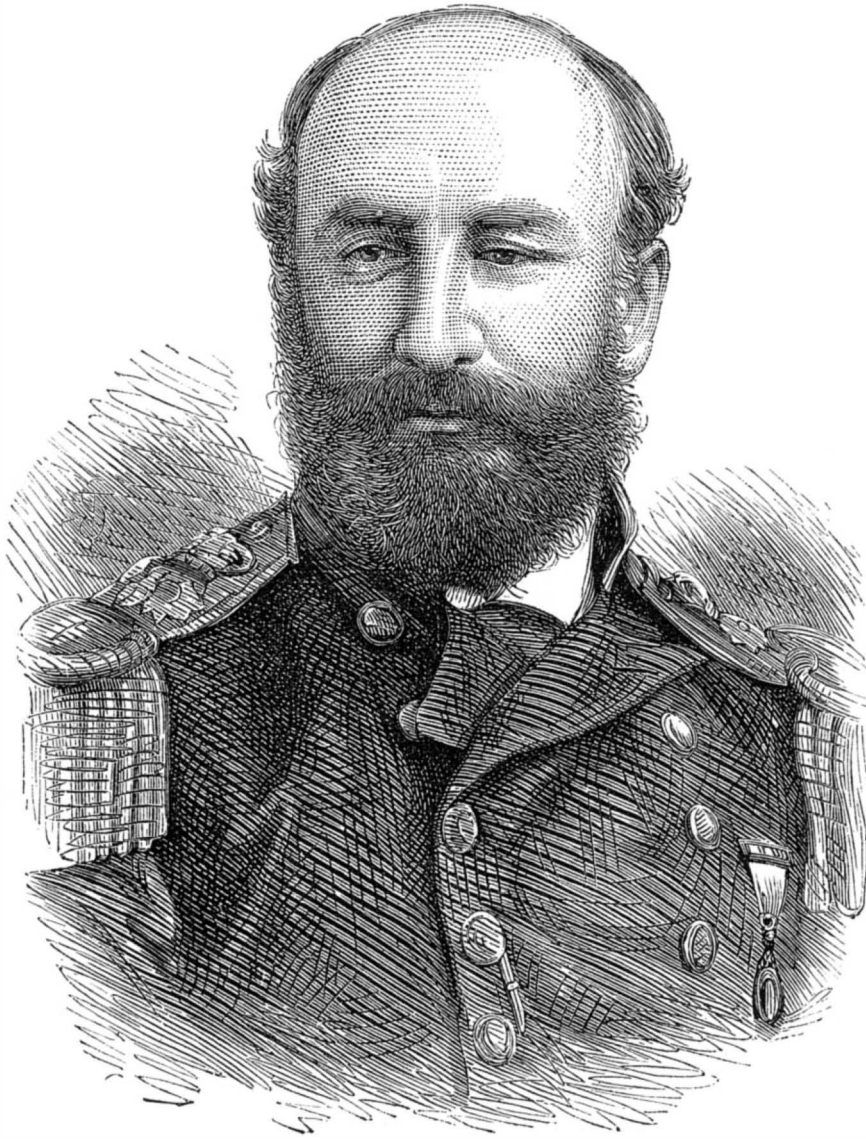
We have so recently given to our readers full accounts of the nature and purposes of the arctic expedition which has just sailed from England that no recapitulation is necessary in describing the engravings on this and the following page. The first is a portrait of the commander, Captain George Strong Nares, of the Alert, the leading vessel of the expedition. He entered the Royal Navy in 1845, having gained the annual naval cadetship given as a prize of merit to the boys of the Royal Naval School at New Cross. He served in the Canopus, in the Channel squadron, until 1848, when he joined the Havannah, and served three years in her on the Australian station. Having returned with his vessel to England, he was appointed mate of the Resolute, employed in the arctic expedition of 1852, under Sir Edward Belcher. With this ship he passed two winters in the ice. Upon the return of that expedition, he became gunnery lieutenant of the Glatton, an ironclad vessel of immense armament. He afterwards held a similar post in the Conqueror, under Admiral Sir Hastings Yelverton. When the present system of training naval cadets was instituted, Lieutenant Nares was placed in charge of those on board the Britannia, under the late Captain R. Harris. He held this appointment till promoted, in 1854, to the rank of commander. With that rank he served in the Boscawen training ship at Southampton, and in the Salamander and the Newport, surveying vessels. In the Newport, Commander Nares made a survey of the Gulf of Suez and of the entrance to the Suez Canal. He had made himself known to the public and to the profession as author of an excellent treatise on seamanship, including the fitting and rigging of ships, sailing, management of boats, etc. In December, 1869, Commander Nares was promoted to be captain, but retained command, in the Shearwater, of the Mediterranean survey. This he left in 1873, when appointed to command the Challenger in her voyage of scientific investigation round the world. Captain Nares took the Challenger, whose voyage of discovery has

led to many important results which have been duly chronicled in our columns, to Australia and the Indian and South Pacific oceans; but when his ship reached Hong-Kong, early

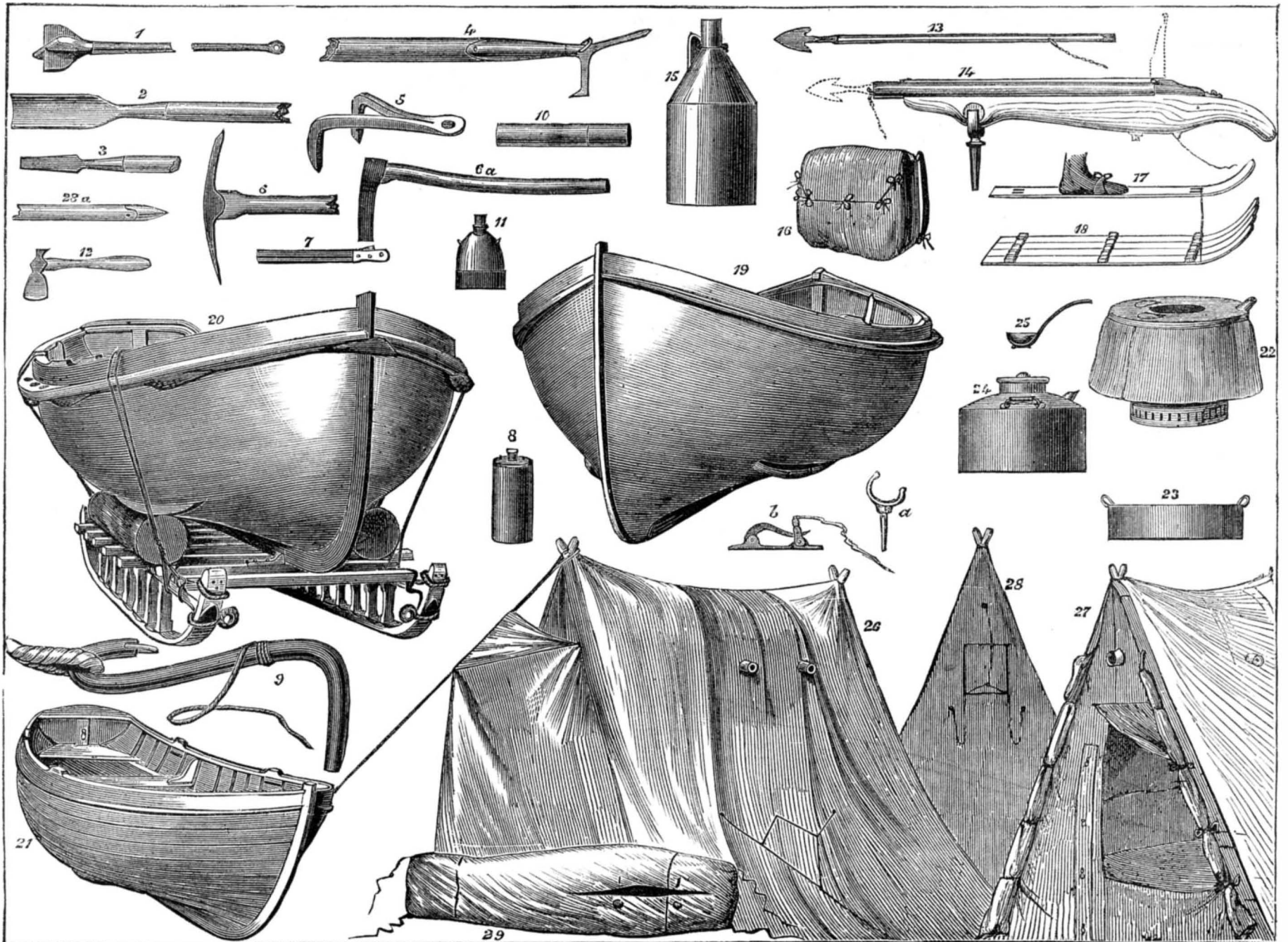
in this year, he was ordered home to take command of the arctic expedition.

Our next engraving contains accurate representations of the principal apparatus and appliances, most of which are new inventions, the result of experience gained in previous expeditions. The list is as follows:

1. Ice crusher, with leather handle, 5 feet 6 inches long;
2. ice gouge, 8 feet long;
3. ice chisel;
4. ice point;
5. ice drag;
6. pick-ax, weighing 6 lbs. 14 ozs.;
- 6A. ice ax, weighing 8 lbs.;
7. snow knife (in case);
8. blasting tin;
9. ice anchor, kept in four sizes;
10. dispatch tin, in different sizes, fitting one within another;
11. water bottle, with leather mouth and cup;
12. pemmican hatchet;
13. harpoon;
14. harpoon gun, the harpoon dotted in position;
15. rum can, with drinking cup fitted on top;
16. canvas knapsack, to be fitted over the shoulder by a strap;
17. snow shoe;
18. small sledge of four snow shoes lashed together;
19. whale boat, 25 feet long;
- a. row lock, b. catch for main sheet;
20. ice boat, 20 feet long;
21. punt, 12 feet long;
22. cooking apparatus, into which fits (23) the stew pan, and inside this fits (24) the kettle;
25. ladle for the same;
26. tent for eight men;
27. front of the tent;
28. back of the tent;
29. duffle sleeping bag. Most of these articles explain themselves, but special mention may be made of the ice tent (26), which is shown pitched, ready for use. It accommodates eight men, the officer lying furthest in, the men lying heads and heels, with the cook for the next day nearest the door, which it is his duty to make fast; and he lies here because it devolves on him to get up in the morning and prepare breakfast in advance of the rising of his comrades. It is the privilege of the man who has come off duty as cook to lie next the officer. The sleeping equipment for use in this tent consists of various strata. Next the ice is an india rubber sheet, covered with a thick robe of soft felting; on this the men lie in their sleeping bags of the same material, inside which they get, "all standing," for there is no undressing on sledge journeys; and over all there is another duffle robe. The cooking utensils (22, 23, 24, 25) pack into very



CAPTAIN G. S. NARES.



BOATS, TENTS, AND IMPLEMENTS FOR ARCTIC USE

small dimensions, the fuel used being stearine, spirits of wine, or tallow. The harpoon gun (13, 14) will be fastened on a swivel at the bow of a whale boat. Its length is four feet, and it is made of the finest steel. The gun, though single-barreled, has two nipples to the lock, to avoid the chance of a cap missing fire.

While traveling with the sledges, each man will be supplied with a water bottle, resembling an ordinary spirit flask in shape, but with the mouth and cup covered with a leather coating for the purpose of protecting the mouth from cold contact with the metal. The bottles will be replenished from the condensers, and the water will be kept in a fluid state from being carried in the bosom. The sledges will also carry a supply of rum of extra quality; but this will only be used in cases of emergency, as it has been ascertained that the best antidote against the polar temperature is not spirit, but oleaginous food, of which pemmican is a highly nutritious and concentrated form.

Our next illustration (Fig. 3) shows the form of sleigh specially designed for this expedition. It is intended to accommodate two officers and eight men, and to carry provisions for a journey of seven weeks. Above the sleigh are shown (1, 2, 3) a gage, chisel, and hooks for cutting through the ice.

Fig. 4 shows (1) the substantial sleigh intended to convey provisions, etc., to the depots to be established along the route. No. 2 is an ice drill, No. 3 a snow knife, No. 4 a grapple or drag, No. 5 a snow shoe or skate, and No. 6 an ice anchor. In this engraving is also shown an ice saw and the manner of manipulating it.

Our next engraving (Fig. 5) exhibits sailing sleigh, intended for use when the wind is favorable; and the rigging is clearly shown. If these sledges ever attain any such speed as is common on the Hudson river with ice boats, a very careful lookout will be necessary to prevent officers and men being engulfed in the fissures in the ice.

Each sledge will carry its cooking apparatus, shown in our sixth and last engraving. Where more is required, the apparatus will be of two kinds, one being formed entirely of metal, and the other being of wood, with an inner and outer

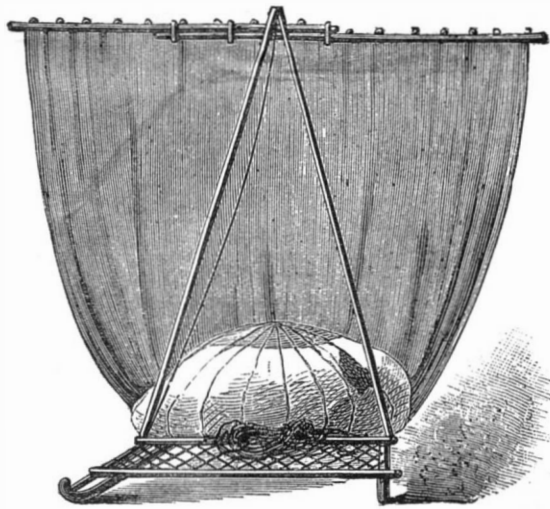


Fig. 5.—SAILING SLEIGH.

sheathing of tin, and having a receptacle on the top for condensing snow, which thus ensures a constant supply of potable water. The cooking stoves are circular, the heat being obtained by burning either spirit or stearine; and by an adjustment of saucepans, one upon the top of another, both pemmican and preserved potato or other condiment can be cooked at the same time. The whole is protected from the weather by an envelope of thick woolen cloth.

A New Lighting and Heating Gas.

It would appear as if a practical success has been attained in the process invented by Mr. T. S. C. Lowe, of Norristown, Pa. His method consists in producing, from anthracite and the decomposition of steam, a gas of very high heating power, and then enriching this by means of crude petroleum when the gas is to be used for illuminating purposes. The anthracite is charged in a small cupola of, say, 3½ feet in diameter, the bed of coal being kept from 3 to 4 feet deep. When fairly ignited, the base is closed, and superheated steam is admitted through tweers a short distance above the grate bars; the steam in contact with the burning coal is decomposed, and the gas produced is a mixture of hydrogen and carbonic oxide. The cost at which this excellent heating gas is produced is very small indeed, and its application in metallurgical processes and for domestic use offers many important advantages. Of course it is in this state entirely unsuited to illuminating purposes. To enrich it, a small jet of crude

petroleum is directed on to the surface of the burning coal; the gases are thus mixed in the nascent state, and, to still further ensure their thorough mixture at a high temperature, they are passed through a chamber formed of fire brick, with small spaces between the bricks, heated in the manner of a Whitwell hot blast stove; this ensures a thorough mixture at an exceedingly high temperature.

The charge which has been used in some of the works using this process has been about 280 gallons crude petroleum and 3,600 lbs. anthracite for the production of 70,000 cubic feet of illuminating gas, the total cost amounting to 56 to 60 cents per 1,000 feet.

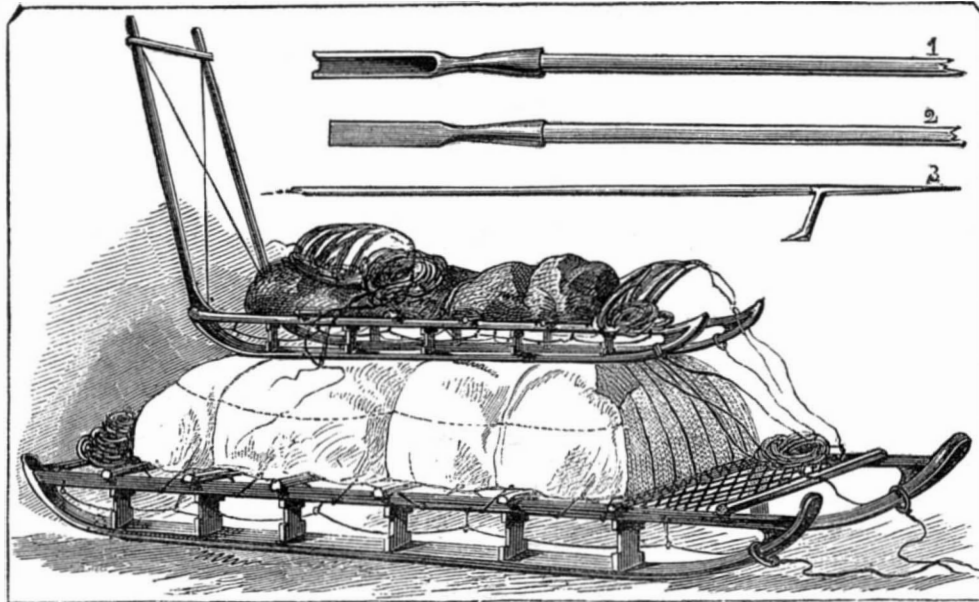


Fig. 3.—ARCTIC SLEIGH.

This promising improvement in gas-making has passed the stage of mere experiment, and appears to have entered that of practical success. Warned by the fate of several naphtha and petroleum processes brought out with many promises and small performance, the inventor of this process and his friends determined to thoroughly test this invention on a practical scale before giving it publicity. They erected their first gas works at Phoenixville, Pa., a place of some 10,000 inhabitants, and have since put it in operation at several small towns. It is, we understand, successfully working at each of these places, at Phoenixville having now, for eighteen months, lighted the town to the general satisfaction. The cold of the past two winters has affected this gas no more than, if as much as, ordinary coal gas, and, consequently, the fixedness of this product appears to be fully established.

To demonstrate the adaptability of the system to the lighting of large cities, works were established by arrangement with the Utica Gas Light Company, and we are informed that, for the past three months, the city of Utica has been lighted exclusively with gas made by this process; and we understand the Gas Light Company is so well satisfied with the results that it proposes to adopt it permanently. Not the least item of saving effected by this process is in labor. But two men—who are common laborers—are employed at the Utica works, and their time is but partially occupied; the addition of one more would suffice for a production of four times the present supply. The cost of the gas in the holder is claimed to be not over one half that by the old method, while the quality of the light is very satisfactory.—*Engineering and Mining Journal.*

Transits of Venus behind the Sun.

The observations of the transit of Venus made in various parts of the world last December have adduced, among other important data, one fact both novel and unexpected. This

while the edges of the sun and planet were apparently overlapped, the black disk of the latter not merely stood out in strong contrast on the white disk of the solar photosphere, but the outer portion of the planet was still plainly visible on the reddish background of the chromosphere. Moreover, when the black disk had entered to at least the distance of its radius on the solar surface, the exterior segment became surrounded with a thin luminous halo, supposed to be due to the refraction of solar light in the atmosphere of Venus.

The practical object in which the observation of the phenomenon may result is the rendering possible of observations of transits of Venus when the planet passes behind, as well as when it crosses before, the sun. For if the very weak reddish light of the chromosphere, which forms the corona about the sun, contrasts sensibly with the black of the planet in conjunction, the brilliancy of the planet in opposition and in full phase will afford even a greater contrast. It is true that the apparent diameter of Venus is nearly six times less in opposition than in conjunction; but it is certainly sufficient to render the planet visible as it crosses the chromosphere, and this even when a portion of the solar disk comes into the field of the telescope. The accuracy of the data obtained by these observations would be about six times less than that of observations similar to those of last December, owing to the greatly increased distance of the planet from the earth in the former case. But for the same reason, the passages behind would be more frequent, for they take place for oppositions six times further from the orbital node. This frequency, M. Philippe Breton (to whom the credit of the foregoing suggestions

is due) thinks would compensate for the lack of accuracy; and he further points out that the comparison of observations of transits before and transits behind might add to the precision of the measures which we now possess of the elements of both sun and planet.

The next transit behind the sun will take place in 1878, and will be followed by four others at intervals of eight years, the last occurring in December, 1910. After that year, two centuries will elapse before another series of eight or nine passages will take place, among which series will be included two transits before the sun.

If, therefore, there be anything useful, which seems probable, to be gained by observing these back transits, prepa-

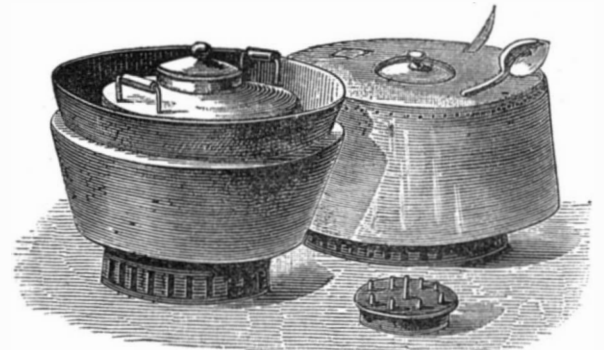


Fig. 6.—COOKING UTENSILS.

rations for the next one should not long be delayed. Four of the present series, those of 1846, 1854, 1862, and 1870, have already passed. They might have been utilized for perfecting the observations for the transit before the sun of 1874, just indeed as the one of 1878 may yet be with reference to the transit of 1882.

Salicylic Acid.

In our paper for August 14, page 96, we gave an account of the chemical formation and nature of this excellent disinfectant. The following information concerning its uses is furnished by Dr. E. R. Squibb, of Brooklyn, N. Y.

"It is used for medical and surgical purposes, either dry or in solution. When used dry, it is sprinkled on to wounds, ulcers, or dressings in the form of very fine powder, in very small quantities, either simply powdered, or mixed in various proportions with some diluent, such as starch. When used in simple solution, either for spraying surfaces, or for washes or gargles, it is used in tepid solution of about 1 part to 300 parts of water. Where stronger solutions are required, for washes, gargles, or to moisten dressings, 1 part of the acid and 3 parts of phosphate of sodium to 50 parts of water have been used. When applied to wounds it appears immediately in the urine.

Its alleged advantages over all other antiseptics are: First, that it is far more powerful and effective in smaller quantities; and secondly, that it is, in all quantities necessary for complete effectiveness, entirely devoid of irritant action upon the living tissues. It is not caustic nor corrosive in any quantity, and never produces in-

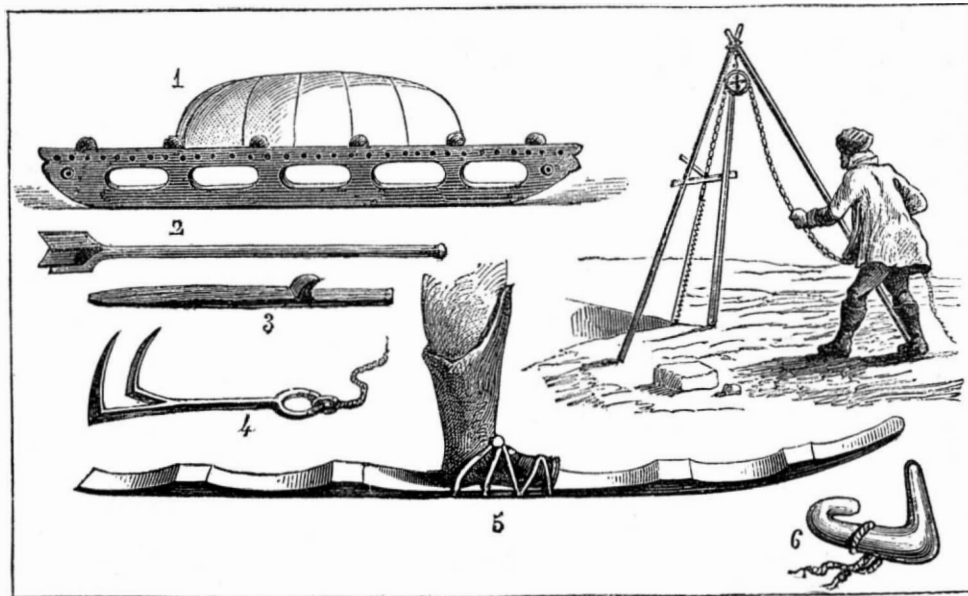


Fig. 4.—ARCTIC TOOLS, ETC.

is that, with the powerful glasses with which the observers were provided, the disk of Venus appeared clearly defined in black upon the chromosphere which surrounds the sun before the first contact and after the last. Between the first and second contact and also between the third and fourth,

flammation. In large quantities it may be irritant and painful, but yet rarely surpasses a stimulant effect, while it appears to be quite neutral in the very small quantities which are yet thoroughly effective; thirdly, it is said to reach and prevent processes of decomposition which are beyond the reach of all other antiseptics or anti-ferments. These processes are of two kinds, namely, vital, or those in which living organisms have an important part, such as that produced by yeast and many of those which occur in putrefaction; and chemical, or those which occur independent of vitality, as the production of the volatile oils in mustard and bitter almonds, the effect of diastase, etc. Now, while carbonic acid and other anti-ferments are azymotic, or completely arrest or prevent fermentations of the first kind, they are powerless with the chemical processes. Salicylic acid is said to be more effective with the vital ferments, and equally effective with the chemical.

Fourthly, in quantities said to be thoroughly effective, it is entirely odorless, and tasteless, and harmless, whilst it has no poisonous effect in any reasonable quantity.

It prevents or arrests the souring of worts, washes, and beers of the brewers, and prevents or arrests the putrefactive agencies which are so troublesome and destructive to the glue manufacturers; and these and similar trades have thus far seemed to be its principal consumers. Separate portions of fresh milk were set aside to become sour; one to which 0.04 per cent of salicylic acid was added soured thirty-six hours later than the other. Urine thus protected was on the third day still clear, and free from ammoniacal odor.

Professor Thiersch, of Leipsic, used it upon contused and incised wounds, and in operations, with excellent general results, destroying the fetid odor of cancerous surfaces and pyæmic ulcerations. To such uses this writer would add the suggestion that, for washing out the cavities of the abdomen and chest after those operations which tend so strongly to septicæmia, solutions of salicylic acid would seem to offer very great advantages, should it prove to be as bland and un-irritating as it is stated to be, and yet so effective.

Most of these statements are summed up from the periodical literature of continental Europe during the past six months, little having appeared upon the subject in Great Britain, or in this country, and nothing having been done with it so far as known in either country.

If the medical art is to keep pace with the progress of the physical sciences, physicians cannot afford to pass by such articles as salicylic and benzoic acids when offered by chemistry, without investigating their effects upon disease, even though not one out of ten should repay the labor of investigation; for it is certainly in this direction of research that medicine must look with greatest hope of success to control those abnormal vital processes which so far may be modified, but not stopped.

The phenols, especially the so-called carbolic and cresylic acids (phenol and cresol), were, and must always remain to be, most important additions to this class of agents, surpassing in power all that had been previously tried. And if now salicylic acid shall prove more potent than the phenols, the further gain will be very great, and the research will again lead up toward future discoveries of still greater power."

Correspondence.

On a Mechanical Theory of Cosmical Motion. To the Editor of the Scientific American:

As all attempts hitherto made to frame a satisfactory mechanical theory of the motion of cosmical bodies have resulted in total failure, and as the constancy of motive energy, as well as the aberration of light, show that both the ether and dense bodies are relatively unaffected by the movements of the latter, a reconsideration of the condition of both is demanded. The problem, it is plain, is to find a non-resisting physical cause of balanced motion, the idea of action at a distance being dispensed with. It is fully conceded, from the very fact of our previous inability to explain such motion, that some great and uncommon assumptions are necessary; and this has not only been acknowledged, but acted upon.

As a matter of fact, we observe in Nature the resolution of all cosmical bodies into systems of couples, in which each one of the couple moves in the inverse ratio of mass and distance round the axis of revolution, the force of motion being as the sum of the masses, and inversely as the distance of each from the axis. Such axis may form one of another couple, as in that of planet and satellite revolving round the sun. We are thus furnished by Nature with whatever fixed units we choose to agree upon as giving the relation of masses, distances, and force of motion, such designated units being physical constants. The whole Universe being composed of cosmical couples also argues physical connection.

Now the history of Science has shown that the test of a physical theory should be its power to consistently explain all the phenomena which it can ever be expected to cover, the greatness of the assumption not detracting from its value, providing that its rejection leads to inconsistencies and incompatibility with known facts and principles. In this case, also, it should, upon strict dynamical principles, be impossible to result in any other mode of motion than that observed in Nature. The following, I undertake to show, answers these requirements:

All ponderable matter is the condensation of an elastic ether, the mutual conversion into each other being continuous.

Of course, this transmutation is identified with a physical energy unalterable in amount, the actual and potential energies being equivalent in alternate change. Indeed, the opin-

ion now generally entertained by the highest authorities in Science is that dense matter is, in some way, "a knot or coagulation of the ether." The amount of gross matter is, so far as we know, persistent. This, however, does not preclude dissolution into the ether again, providing condensation is equal. The continuity of transmutation finds an analogy in physiological action, in which matter, assimilated, takes on the constituted quality of the body of which it forms a part, having received it from the matter emitted. We know from the laws of light that the ether permeates all dense matter, and that it is denser in dense bodies than in the fluids. Also that force does not exist apart from matter; and still that all forces (except gravity) are convertible, their activity constantly equable, and exhibiting, throughout their most rapid transformations, a mechanical equivalence. The minimum limit of time occupied by molecular movement may parallel the time occupied in molecular transmutation; for we can set no possible limits to either. The mutual conversion of ponderable and imponderable matter thus violates no known law of Nature, and the totality of transmutation may be practically infinitesimal as regards time, the ether supposed to be a condition of indifferent equilibrium towards the constitutive forces of matter, and the constant changes in Nature being due to such transmutation.

I look upon the ether as continuous, as shown by its non-retention of heat, but principally because I am unwilling to consider the isolation and repulsion of every atom as constituting the dynamic bond of the Universe. As a matter of fact, no part of the Universe can be isolated from the rest, and we are therefore more than justified in affirming that the all-permeating ether resists all breach of continuity; besides, we have the advantage of only applying mathematical quantities to substance. Now, it is evident that we can have perfectly unconstrained motion and absolute material continuity, if we assume translatory motion to be a progressive mutual conversion of ether and dense matter, analogous to the transmutation of forces, and in no other way. The only resistance thus offered by the ether is towards a break in its continuity, and therefore its condensation into gross matter produces a tension within itself, the stress being directed towards the center of the condensed mass. The same tension is constantly becoming loosened, however, by the condensed matter becoming rarified in the return transmutation into ether. A moving body of constant mass is thus substantially a moving equable strain in the ether.

All motion of translation will necessarily be as enforced by a stress in the ether, bodies being non-resistant in free space. It follows that, in an equally stressed ether, there would be no motion originated. Nor yet could there be stable motionless equilibrium, if but one mass would move; for the motion of all would be towards the balance of stresses. The ethereal strains will thus necessarily be, by theory as by fact, towards each particle taken by itself, and the centers of dense masses taken as wholes, giving any body in which the particles are free to move a tendency to assume the spherical form; but if supposed alone in space, without any tendency to move as a whole. With two bodies the case is different. The mutual tensions produced in the ether by the respective masses cause a compression towards each other, the force of which is greater as the distance is less. But if at any time lateral impulsion, sufficient to overcome the tension, be admitted, the strain being constant and the impulse temporary, they ultimately become equilibrated and form a constant couple, revolving round the center where both bodies balance according to the simple principle of leverage. As tension or pressure, when meeting with insufficient resistance, acts dynamically, and statically when resistance is equal and opposite, the condensing pressure of the ether, which is physically the centripetal force, enforces approach in bodies free to move; but an angular motion, when the strains are equilibrated, offers a constant resistance without expenditure in work, by the loosening tensions being equal in amount to those formed, and they become merely a line of connection, along which each body acts reciprocally as driver and follower. Any number of bodies, then, each of which creates a tension in the medium connecting them, and yet offers no resistance to the constant ethereal pressure, will all move until the tensions are equilibrated; if towards each other, with accelerated motion; and if resolved into couples, will continue in such coupled motions—a conservative system of parallel forces.

Although there is nothing positively known respecting the origin of cosmic systems, it appears most likely that they develop from vast vortices produced in a nebulous mass: electrical action giving the first mechanical impulse, from which they ultimately settle down into static systems of moving bodies: as the dust in the whirlwind, produced by electrical force, settles at length in the place where gravity gives it position. The observed variations from the general plane of balanced motion, and retrograde movements within the solar system, would seem to show that mechanical action has not been alone operative; possibly the same force which primarily evolved the nebulae from the ether, impressing the conditions of motion and position. That the molecular condition of bodies, as altered by a transmutation in the correlated forces, will modify the conditions of mass motion, while the gravitation tensions which are towards the center of bodies remain constant, conflicts with neither theory nor observation. The disintegration, direction, or eccentric orbit of a comet is no more inconsistent with the balanced mass motion of dense bodies, in the system of which it forms a part, than a gunpowder explosion, so long as it moves to or from a center of force. The mechanical conditions of a conservative system, as a final result from theory, is that it forms one vast couple, unchangeable by any local interaction of its component parts the greater masses, by their greater moments

of inertia, deviating, in general, least from the plane and circular curve of coupled motion.

All bodies, by thus stressing the ether, enforce motion in all others; and as all move unresistingly, it follows that the enforcement to motion of all at a like distance, by the same stress, will be the same whatever the masses enforced: the power, however, being always directly as the masses enforcing. The energy of tension is therefore invariable, whatever diversity there may be in the number of bodies enforced to move, or additional motion produced by the disintegration of a body itself. Nor can intervening bodies cut off the effect, being themselves unresistingly enforced, and adding their own enforcement. Theory and observation thus coincide.

The intensity of stress in the ether necessarily bears a definite relation to the cube of the distance, being greater as the condensed mass is greater, and manifesting itself independently of time. The motive force thereby induced is therefore as the joint mass of a couple. And as the force of motion is as the time of moving squared, so the time squared will diminish as the cube of any assignable distance, rendering the amount of motive force during one revolution for any equal couple invariable, however far apart. Thus every mass of matter in the Universe, equal to one cubic mile of the average density of the earth, enforces a motion in all others; and would enforce a motion of its own particles, if disintegrated, sufficient to produce revolution round a sphere of ether of one mile radius in about 173 minutes: the space being divided among the disintegrated fragments, and multiplied by the additional bodies.

It will be evident that, with this mode of conceiving of the ether and ponderable matter, there is nothing that conflicts with the mode of action of the radiant forces. The ethereal medium by resisting equally all breach of continuity, is substantially an isotropic solid, and all particles of gross matter, centers of spheres of tension. Waves of vibration will thus naturally run transversal to the direction of propagation to all distances. All possible loss of radiant kinetic energy, by friction in interstellar space, may become potential in the transmutation of ether into dense matter. For the structural qualities of the various elements will, in the return transmutation into ether, impress upon it their characteristic motions, which will travel onwards until their energy is absorbed by ethereal friction, or taken up by the similar elements of other ponderable matter. The radiant forces possessing a well defined amount of mechanical energy would seem to necessitate the constitutive qualities of every portion to be constantly modifying the constitutive qualities of each other; although only material atoms in indifferent equilibrium as to motion, as on a photographic plate, or bodies of similar constitution, may palpably manifest it. Optical phenomena show the ether to be in a condition of indifferent equilibrium as to form of motion; and it is not unreasonable to look upon it as being so in regard to constitutive charge. Electro-magnetic induction and polarity appear more intelligible in the light of the stressed connection of every particle of matter, with the equal and opposite flow within the stress of tightening and loosening tensions. As there can be no translatory motion in the ether, save in those portions condensing, a constant of aberration necessarily follows. But as the modes of change into ether are as various as the constitution and conditions of ponderable matter, we may have an infinite diversity in the lengths, directions, and velocities of ethereal vibrations.

Should the above theory meet with general acceptance, not only will the dispute between the advocates of action at a distance and those of action by contact have become ended, but a necessary Creative Power, in constant activity, will be seen to be consistent with laws of evolution through a persistent physical force: views hitherto deemed irreconcilable.
Philadelphia, Pa. WILLIAM DENOVAN.

The Grasshopper Plague.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

In your issue of July 7 there is a paragraph in relation to the late invasion of grasshoppers; it contains a suggestion that said invasion may prove a blessing instead of a curse.

The phenomenon of a new variety of grass springing up in the localities lately infested with these insects is not as surprising as one may be led to suppose. A fact not generally known, but nevertheless quite worthy of attention, is that about three quarters of the newly born grasshoppers die while changing their skin, from the effects of cool rains, heavy winds, or otherwise; these, together with the excrements or *detritus* of the grasshoppers, are the very best reinvigorator of withered or exhausted grass roots; consequently the extraordinary growth of luxuriant grass can be attributed to the nourishing deposits made by these insects.

I cannot positively assert that the grass spoken of in your article is the same variety as that which came under my observation in Southern Russia, under the same circumstances, but I should be very much surprised if it were not. That which I examined grew in spots where no grass suitable for pasture had been previously known to grow; it was tender and very sweet, so much so that 6 per cent saccharin matter was extracted from it. It was of a bright emerald green, and cattle ate it with avidity; it was called by the inhabitants *sokolovica* or sweet grass. It continued to grow for 3 or 4 years, decreasing in richness each season, until it became coarse, insipid, and dry, and totally unfit for grazing. And more wonderful still, it was the facsimile of the grass which formerly grew in these places. I therefore conclude that both grasses, the rich and the poor, come from the same roots, and not from seeds of another country brought by grasshoppers. The grass losing its richness is explained by the exhaustion of the soil, which is replenished by the grasshopper manure.
New York city. G. PROSPER ZALESKI.

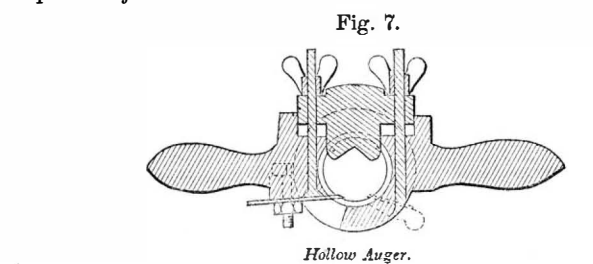
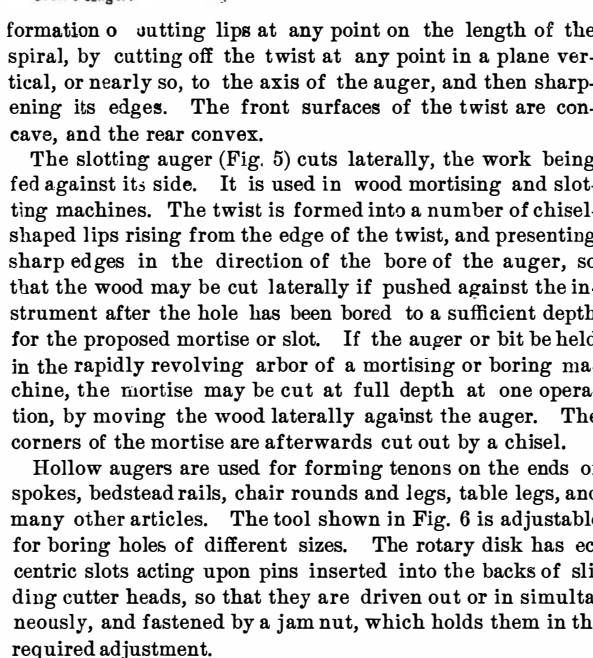
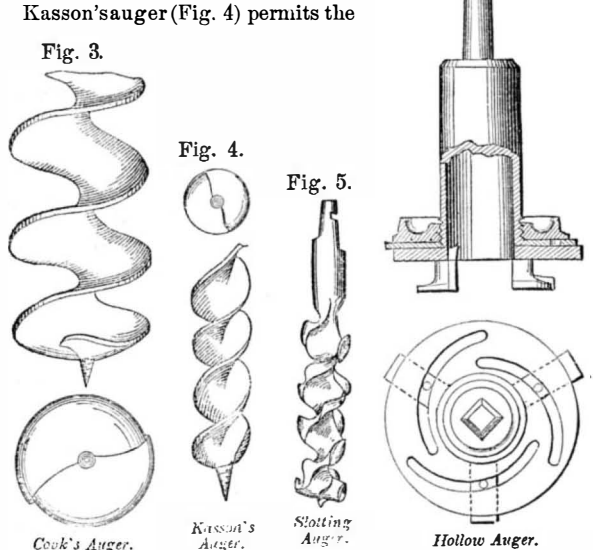
AUGERS.

Continuing our series of extracts from Mr. E. H. Knight's "Mechanical Dictionary,"* we give below a number of illustrations, together with descriptions of various forms of boring tools. Augers are made in numerous forms, including hollow augers, annular augers, taper augers, augers with secondary borers, reamers, or countersinks, or having expansive cutters.

L Hommedieu's auger, Fig. 1, has two pods, two cutting lips, a central screw, and a twisted shank. It is, on a smaller scale, like Stephenson's Rocket engine, the type of its class. The form of auger which in England is called the American pattern was patented by Shetter, in 1831. (See Fig. 2.) It has a spiral blade around a cylindrical core, and was long a favorite. It probably offers more impediment to the discharge of the chips than does the shank made from a flat blade twisted into a spiral. Some auger shanks have an increased twist as they recede from the point; this gives a greater freedom of discharge by increasing the caliber of the canal as the chips ascend.

In Cook's auger (Fig. 3) the cutting lips commence at the point, and extend therefrom nearly at right angles, until about half way from the center to the outer point, and then curve upward and forward, giving a nearly semicircular form to the outer portion of the lips, which are curved in the horizontal and vertical planes. Kasson's auger (Fig. 4) permits the formation of cutting lips at any point on the length of the spiral, by cutting off the twist at any point in a plane vertical, or nearly so, to the axis of the auger, and then sharpening its edges. The front surfaces of the twist are concave, and the rear convex. The slotting auger (Fig. 5) cuts laterally, the work being fed against its side. It is used in wood mortising and slotting machines. The twist is formed into a number of chisel-shaped lips rising from the edge of the twist, and presenting sharp edges in the direction of the bore of the auger, so that the wood may be cut laterally if pushed against the instrument after the hole has been bored to a sufficient depth for the proposed mortise or slot. If the auger or bit be held in the rapidly revolving arbor of a mortising or boring machine, the mortise may be cut at full depth at one operation, by moving the wood laterally against the auger. The corners of the mortise are afterwards cut out by a chisel. Hollow augers are used for forming tenons on the ends of spokes, bedstead rails, chair rounds and legs, table legs, and many other articles. The tool shown in Fig. 6 is adjustable for boring holes of different sizes. The rotary disk has eccentric slots acting upon pins inserted into the backs of sliding cutter heads, so that they are driven out or in simultaneously, and fastened by a jam nut, which holds them in the required adjustment.

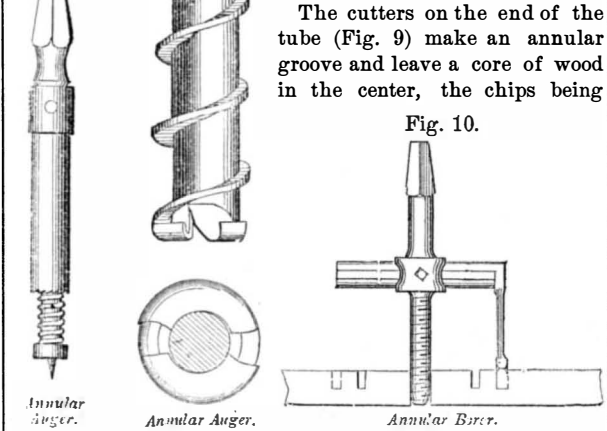
Fig. 7 has cross handles like an auger. The cutting rod is so attached as to project within the opening, and the size of the tenon is regulated by the adjustment of the angular rest. The tool has the usual auger handles, in which respect it differs from most of its class. Annular augers cut an annular groove, leaving land on the inside and outside of the channel. The example (Fig. 8) is adapted for boring cylindrical blocks out of a board, the lower edge of the tube being serrated. Fitted inside the tube is a cylindrical plug with a central point. On the reduced shank of the plug is a spiral spring, which keeps the point extended, except when pressure is applied to the tool in boring. The cutters on the end of the tube (Fig. 9) make an annular groove and leave a core of wood in the center, the chips being withdrawn continuously by the spiral blade on the tube. The cutting lips start at the periphery of the bit, and extend toward the center in concave lines, till they terminate at the inner portion of the tube, where their direction approaches a line parallel with the axis of the auger. In a subsequent form a number of tubes are arranged concentrically, so as to cut concentric annular grooves simultaneously, and produce a nest of cylinders out of the same stick or board. Yet another form is found in the tool (Fig. 10) sometimes known as a button tool. It has an upright center standard, with a fine feeding screw on the lower end. The cutter is attached to a radial arm, and is adjustable, so as to describe the diameter required for the hole. The cutter is fed to its work by the thread on the standard, and the chips are ejected by the curved neck. Taper augers (Fig. 11) are used for reaming out bungholes, making butter prints, etc. The center bit bores a hole, and is succeeded by the taper reamer, which has a throat for the chips, cut through from the edge of the bit on one side to the opposite side of the stock. The bunghole reamer (Fig. 12) has a tapering pod, and a cutting lip on one side; the lower end is closed to receive the chips, and is open at the top, except a bail to which the handle is fastened. On one side is an adjustable gage and an index to determine the size of the bore. The ordinary form of bunghole borer is shown in Fig. 13. This has a volute-shaped blade with a sharpened, salient spiral edge and a gimlet point. It, like most of its class, is for reaming out bungholes and taps. Augers are sometimes provided with secondary borers, reamers, countersinkers, or expansive cutters. In Fig. 14 the reamer or secondary borer is formed in two pieces, and is clamped to the auger shank at the required distance from the end of the tool, and at the same time is adjustable to ream out a hole of the required diameter. The clamp is shown separately in the upper portion of the figure. In Fig. 15 the countersink is attached to the auger shank at the required spot, but does not entirely surround the shank, the opening corresponding with the twist of the shank, so that the discharge of chips is not interrupted. In Fig. 16 the plate is received into a longitudinal slot in the auger shaft, and one end is secured by a temper screw. A pin, passed through one in the series of holes in the shaft, engages a hole in the oblique series in the plate, and determines the radial adjustment and consequently the diameter of hole bored by it. The shanks and turned cutting edges of the expanding bits in Fig. 17 pass through a mortise in the head of the tool, and are secured to their adjustment by a key. Their radial adjustment adapts them to bore holes of varying sizes.



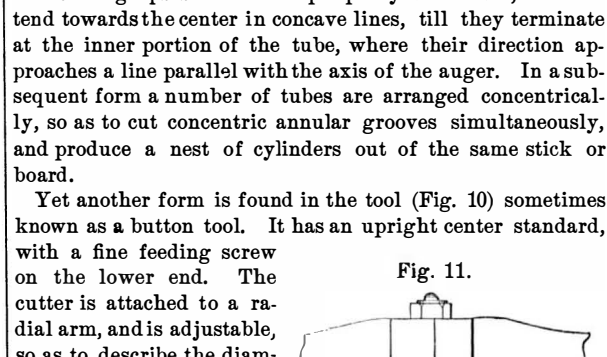
Hollow Auger.

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Among the other uses of augers may be mentioned that of felling trees in the Mammoth Grove, Calaveras county, California. The "Big Tree," as it was called, contained 500,000 feet of inch lumber. It was felled by five men working 22½ days, making 112½ days' labor to fell one tree. This tree measured 92 feet in circumference at the base. It was not cut down with axes, but was bored down with long pump augers, and the wood remaining between the holes was cut off with chisels on the end of long sticks. Fig. 18 is a faucet with an attached auger, by which the necessary hole is made in the head of the cask. Fig. 19 represents a device to be attached to the shank of an auger to limit the penetration. The example has a pair of bars, secured by temper screws to the spiral shank, so as to form a gage of depth. Another form has a telescopic tube attached to the shank, larger in diameter than the worm, and adjusted as to length by means of two temper screws whose ends bear against the spiral shaft. Fig. 20 is for making tenons of a given length on the ends of spokes, etc., and it is adapted for hollow augers. The rear of the stock has a thread traversed by an adjustable screw, which, by contact with the end of the stick, determines the depth of the hole and consequently the length of tenon to be cut. A jam nut secures the adjustment.

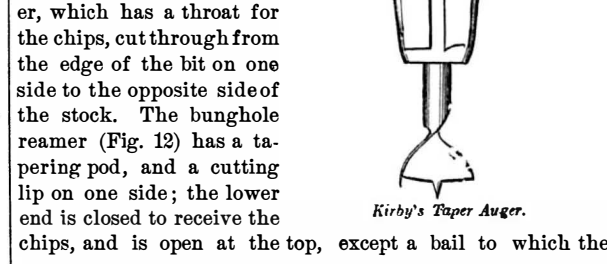


Countersink. Expanding Auger.



Gage for Hollow Auger.

New Burn Mixture.
Take the best white glue (extra) 15 ozs. Break it into small pieces, add to it 2 pints cold water, and allow it to become soft. Then melt it on a water bath, add to it 2 fluid ozs. glycerin and 6 drachms carbolic acid, and continue the heat on the water bath until a glossy, tough skin begins to form over the surface in the intervals of stirring. The mixture may be used at once, after the glue is melted and the glycerin and carbolic acid are added; but when time allows, it is advisable to get rid of a little more of the water, until the proper point is reached. On cooling, this mixture hardens to an elastic mass, covered with a shining parchment-like skin, and may be kept for any time. When using it, it is placed for a few minutes on the water bath until sufficiently liquid for application (it should be quite fluid). Should it at any time require too high a heat to become fluid, this may be corrected by adding a little water. It is applied by means of a broad brush, and forms in about two minutes a shining, smooth, flexible, and nearly transparent skin. It may be kept for any time, without spoiling, in delf or earthen dishes or pots turned upside down.—American Journal of Pharmacy.



Gage for Hollow Auger.

SPAYTH'S RAFTER SCALE AND BEVEL GAGE.

The annexed engravings represent an attachment to carpenters' bevel squares, whereby the blade of the same can be adjusted and set to any desired angle. The device consists of a quadrant divided on its face into the degrees of a quarter circle, and attached to the square stock by means of a stationary hinge.

The construction of the hinge and of the plate, detached, is shown in Fig. 2, from which it will be seen that the point of intersection of all the divisions on the plate and the tongue varies according to the number of degrees of the angle indicated between them. It will also be observed that a row of fractions is added just inside the outer divided circle. Their object is to enable a carpenter to set the bevel square to any desired inclination or pitch of a roof.

By means of this implement the inventor has been enabled to compute a series of tabulated rafter scales, giving the exact length of rafter required in any building from 4 to 40 feet in width for nine different pitches of roof. These tables are published in convenient form and, with the quadrant bevel gage, will doubtless prove valuable aids to carpenters and builders generally.

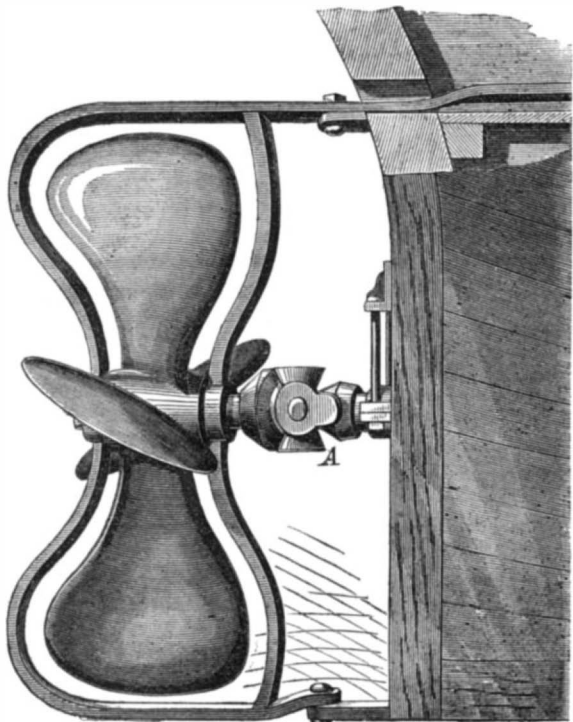
For further particulars address Mr. W. O. Spayth, Tiffin, Ohio.

New Plan for Propelling Canal Boats.

A novel method of propelling canal boats has lately been introduced in Belgium, as follows: The towpath is laid with a single rail, weighing some 16 lbs. to the yard, and fixed on traverses a little more than three feet apart. The locomotive has four wheels, two of which are placed directly along the axis of the vehicle, one in advance of the other, and the others one at either side. The first pair are directing and the second driving wheels. The directing wheels are grooved and fit the rail; the others have rubber tyres, which give purchase on the macadamized road, and which press thereon to the extent of 0.07 lbs. to the square inch. By means of a simple mechanism, the weight of the machine may be thrown upon either the driving or directing wheels at will. In the former case the maximum, and in the latter the minimum, of adherence is obtained, to suit the conditions of a loaded or an empty boat. There is but a single road, with rotary engines provided at suitable distances. Each locomotive tows one boat; and when a meeting takes place of two traveling in opposite directions, the engines change boats and retrace their paths. The locomotives weigh four tons each, and travel about three miles an hour, with full boats carrying a cargo of 150 tons each.

THE HERCULES SCREW PROPELLER.

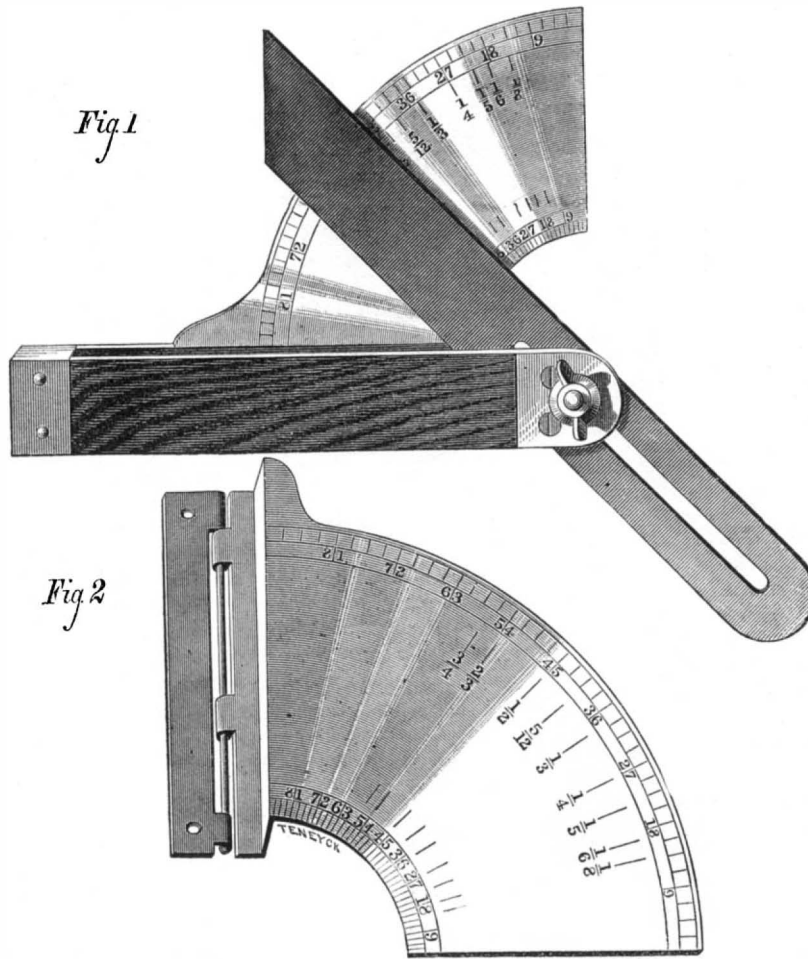
The annexed engraving represents a new form of screw propeller, so attached to the vessel as to serve the double



purpose of a means of propulsion and a rudder. The wheel may be obtained separate from the rudder attachment when desired. It is claimed that the peculiar curve and shape of the blades causes the water to leave them in a spiral column at the hub. The spread of the water is thus prevented, and the force of propulsion, according to the inventor, is concentrated directly back of and within the diameter of the wheel. The combined wheel and rudder attachment is intended to obviate the resistance offered by the usual form of rudder to the free passage of the water from the screw, causing a loss, it is estimated, of from eight to ten per cent of the motive power.

The axis of the propeller is hung in bearings in a stout metal frame, which is pivoted to the sternpost of the vessel

or to outriggers on the same, and is so connected with the tiller as to be readily swung to the right or the left thereby. The propeller shaft projects out through the stern post, and is attached to the propeller axis by a flexible coupling joint, A, which consists of two jaws upon the shaft, circular on their face. Similar jaws are affixed to the propeller, and all are united by joint pins to hold them in place. The joint is made of cast steel and is very strong in construction. For canal and harbor navigation, this invention furnishes a quick and powerful steering apparatus by which boats are enabled

**SPAYTH'S RAFTER SCALE AND BEVEL GAGE.**

to round the sharpest curves with ease, and to avoid the frequent danger of collision incident to crowded localities.

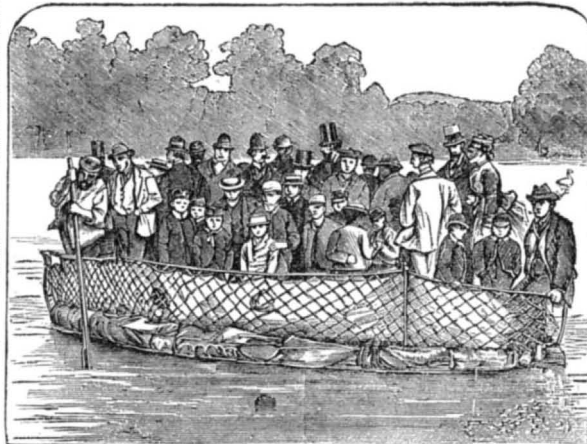
The wheel is guaranteed, under a correct test, to show more power with the same pressure of steam than any other screw of the same size and lead. It is made of the best cast iron, or of cast steel, as desired.

Patented by H. K. Stevens and S. Miller, September 16, 1873. For further particulars address the manufacturers, R. L. Howard & Son, Howard Iron Works, Chicago street, Buffalo, N. Y.

NEW LIFE RAFT.

A trial was lately made in the Thames river, London, of G. F. Parratt's deck seat and life raft, as represented in our engraving.

The apparatus consists of a long metal cylinder with two stretchers, and an oval air tube. Attached to the tube are cork and india rubber floats. Should an accident occur at sea, the cylinders and stretchers can be fixed in two minutes and a half, and the apparatus, being thrown into the water, is then ready for instant use. When the crew of the raft are in her, they increase the buoyancy by inflating the tube by means of eight or ten valves, which are worked by hand. The buoyancy of the raft was satisfactorily shown, for thirty-five men were upon it as it floated down the river from Lambeth to the Temple Pier, casting anchor off the Houses of Parliament, for the purpose of showing the handiness of the craft to a number of honorable members assembled on the Terrace. As a test of buoyancy, the whole of the crew and passengers stood at one side of the craft, yet it remained as trim and even upon the water as if no person were in it.



The raft, which cost \$500, and is capable of holding one hundred persons, can be easily made up into a deck seat, so that very little can be said against it on the score of clumsiness, and, the weight being only 400 lbs., the launching

would be easy; while, the sides being constructed of india rubber, a heavy sea would not crack it to splinters against the ship's side, as in the case of an ordinary ship's boat. The main cylinder is hollow, for the purpose of holding oars, sails, and provisions, and the bulwarks are of netting and canvas fixed to iron stanchions.

An Enameled Iron Ceiling.

A ceiling made of thin plates of iron, and enameled, has just been put up in its place in the central refreshment room of the South Kensington Museum, London, and is probably the first experiment of the kind. The decorations of this room were designed to resist all dirt and impurities incident to a public room where food is eaten by an average of 10,000 persons a week. The walls and columns are of majolica, the floor is paved, and the ceilings are of iron enameled. The whole gives an impression of perfect cleanliness, and every part might be washed down by a fire engine weekly, if necessary.

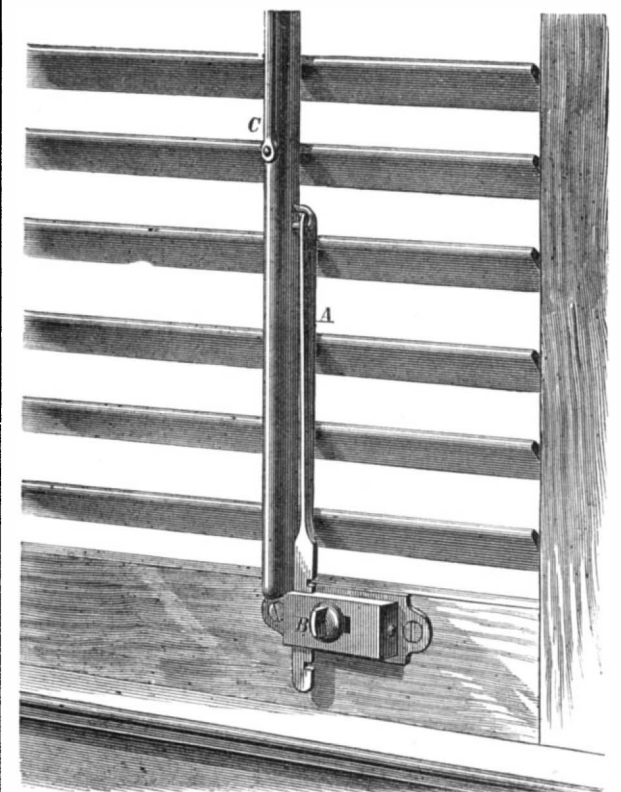
The manufacturing part of this ceiling was done at Birmingham by the Enameled Iron Company, the whole enameled plates being sent from Birmingham, and painted with charming and vigorous arabesques by the artist, Mr. James Gamble. The work is highly effective and the experiment successful. In cases where it is necessary to keep a ceiling clean and to wash it frequently, this material promises to answer perfectly, and the artistic work will last for centuries, as the design is burnt into the enamel.

The New Paris Opera House.]

To raise the temperature with sufficient rapidity before the commencement of a performance, and to provide for a renewal of air at the rate of nearly 3,000,000 cubic feet per hour, fourteen hot water and hot air furnaces are employed. They consume ten tons of coal per diem. To carry off the vitiated air, the upward draft created by the central luster is utilized through several large conduits communicating with different parts of the house, while fresh air is admitted through openings measuring from 26 to 32 square yards. The footlights are arranged to burn upside down, the flame being drawn downwards through sheltering glass chimneys by currents of air.

JONES' IMPROVED BLIND STOP.

The annexed engraving represents a new form of blind stop, the object of which is to retain the slats of the blind in any position in which they may be adjusted. The advantages of the device are that it prevents the rattling of the slats by the wind, and enables them to be kept with the pitch



upward, and thus clean; and being on the inside, it prevents the slats being opened from the exterior, serving in this respect as a protection to the window.

The slat rod is connected to the rod, A, which has several notches near its lower end. Rod, A, passes through slots in a box in which there is a spring catch operated by the thumb piece, B. Said catch engages in the notches of the rod, and so locks it at various points of elevation. The wire, C, serves to connect the panel with the one above, so that the slats of both may be controlled by the single device.

Patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency, February 2, 1875. For further particulars regarding price, also relative to sale of rights, etc., address the inventor, Mr. John D. Jones, P. O. Box 523, Omaha, Neb.

THE ANT-EATER FAMILY.

The ant-eater is a remarkable animal of the old genus *myrmecophaga*, and of the edentate or toothless order. The hind feet are plantigrade, and armed with large claws bent inward, so that the animal walks on the extreme edge of the foot. This arrangement is a wise provision of Nature for preserving the claws from damage, they being used for tearing down the ant hills and unearthing the insects on which the animal chiefly feeds. The South American variety is a hairy creature, sometimes called the ant bear (*myrmecophaga jubata*); it is about four feet long, and has a bushy tail of two and a half feet more, and its height at the shoulder is about three feet three inches. The tongue of the ant-eater is remarkable; it can be darted from the mouth to a length of eighteen inches, and is thus very effective in picking up its food, resembling in this respect the tongue of the chameleon.

We publish herewith an engraving of the scaly ant-eater, commonly found in Africa and Asia. This specimen is known as the pangolin, and its scaly covering is formidable, being hard enough to turn a musket ball. When it is alarmed, and cannot reach its hole in the ground, it rolls itself up like a ball, throwing up the sharp edges of its scales, and then the animals which usually attack it are glad to let it alone.

Sir Emerson Tennent, while in Ceylon, kept two of these creatures alive at one time, and says: "One was a gentle and affectionate creature, which, after wandering over the house in search of ants, would attract attention to its wants by climbing up my knee, and laying hold of my leg by its tail. It seized ants by extending its long, glutinous tongue along their track."

Still another kind is found in Africa, it is called the phatagin. In the hot countries where all these species have their habitat, the ants are very troublesome, and destroy much property, and animals that are capable of getting rid of them in such numbers are viewed by some eastern races with superstitious awe.

A Human Analysts.

Dr. Lancaster, of London, recently analyzed a man, and presented the results of his investigation in palpable form to his audience during a late chemical lecture. The body operated upon weighed 158.4 lbs. The lecturer exhibited upon the platform 23.1 lbs. carbon, 2.2 lbs. lime, 22.3 ozs. phosphorus, and about 1 oz. each sodium, iron, potassium, magnesium, and silicon. He apologized for not exhibiting 5,595 cubic feet of oxygen, weighing 121 lbs., 105,900 cubic feet of hydrogen, weighing 15.4 lbs., and 52 cubic feet of nitrogen, likewise obtained from the body, on account of their great bulk. All of these elements combine into the following: 121 lbs. water, 16.5 lbs. gelatin, 132 lbs. fat, 8.8 lbs. fibrin and albumen, 7.7 lbs. phosphate of lime and other mineral substances.

Action of Sulphuric Acid on Lead and Its Alloys.

Few metals are able to resist the action of hot oil of vitriol, lead being, of all the common metals, the least acted upon by this acid. The addition of some metals assists lead to withstand the attacks of sulphuric acid, while others render it a more easy victim. The careful experiments of A. Bauer, which were published recently in the *Berichte der Deutschen Chemischen Gesellschaft*, cannot fail to be of practical value to manufacturers and others.

Several alloys were prepared by fusing pure lead with other metals, the exact composition being determined by analysis. These alloys were rolled out into plates of equal thickness, and heated in a suitable apparatus with sulphuric acid of 66° B., the temperature at which a reaction took place being carefully observed. The apparatus consisted of a flask secured in position a little above the bottom of an air bath, the sides of which were formed by a glass cylinder. A thermometer, reaching down to the acid in the flask, showed its temperature. In every experiment an equal weight of alloy and an equal volume of acid were employed. The results were as follows:

1. Pure lead: A strip of pure lead weighing 3 grains was heated in $\frac{3}{4}$ cubic inches sulphuric acid of 66° B. At about 347° Fah., a considerable evolution of gas took place, which was stronger at 374° Fah. At 446° or 464° Fah., all the lead was at once converted into sulphate of lead, which dissolved in the sulphuric acid. At this sudden decomposition, sulphurous acid and hydrogen appeared, and sulphur separated.

2. Alloys of lead and bismuth: (a) With 10 per cent of bismuth. The action began at 302° Fah., and continued, slowly and quietly, up to 374° Fah., at which temperature all the metal was destroyed. (b) With 4 per cent of bismuth. The decomposition followed more rapidly than with the 10 per cent alloy, and was finished at 266° to 284° Fah. (c) With 0.73 per cent of bismuth. The decomposition followed, suddenly and completely, at 320° Fah.

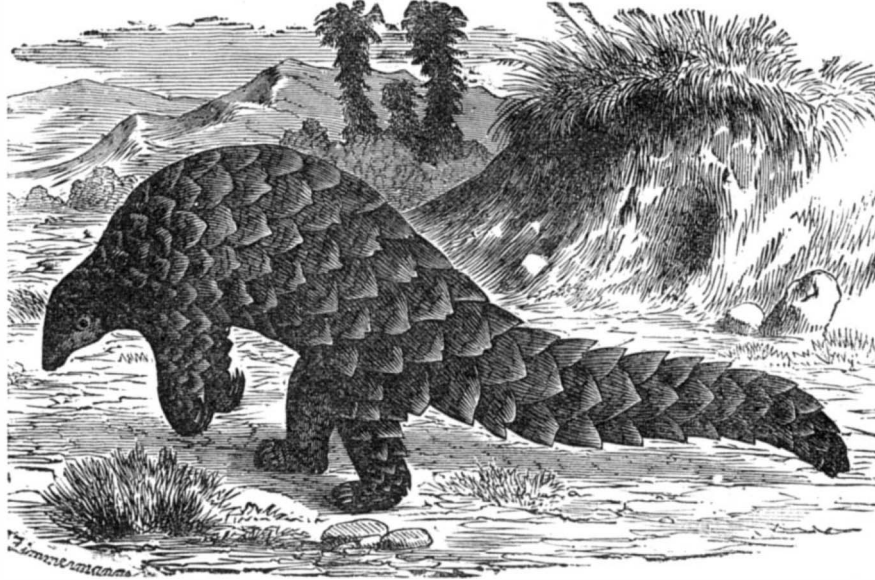
3. Alloys of lead and antimony: (a) With 10 per cent of antimony. This alloy decomposed slowly and steadily; a strong action began at 374° Fah., and ended at 446° to 464° Fah. (b) With 5 per cent antimony. This alloy also dissolved slowly. A more violent action began at 356° to 374° Fah., and the end was at 428° to 437° Fah. (c) With 1 per cent antimony. Here too the decomposition is slow, but a

considerable evolution of gas takes place at 482° Fah., and the action is ended at 536° Fah.

4. Alloy of lead and arsenic: Containing 10 per cent arsenic. This alloy acts very like the 10 per cent antimony alloy. The action is slower, and ends at 464° Fah.

5. Alloy of lead with 1 per cent copper: This acts very similarly to the 1 per cent antimony alloy; a strong reaction begins at 482° Fah., and all the metal is dissolved at 536° Fah.

6. Alloys of lead and platinum: (a) With 10 per cent platinum. The decomposition is slow and incomplete, and



THE SCALY ANT-EATER.

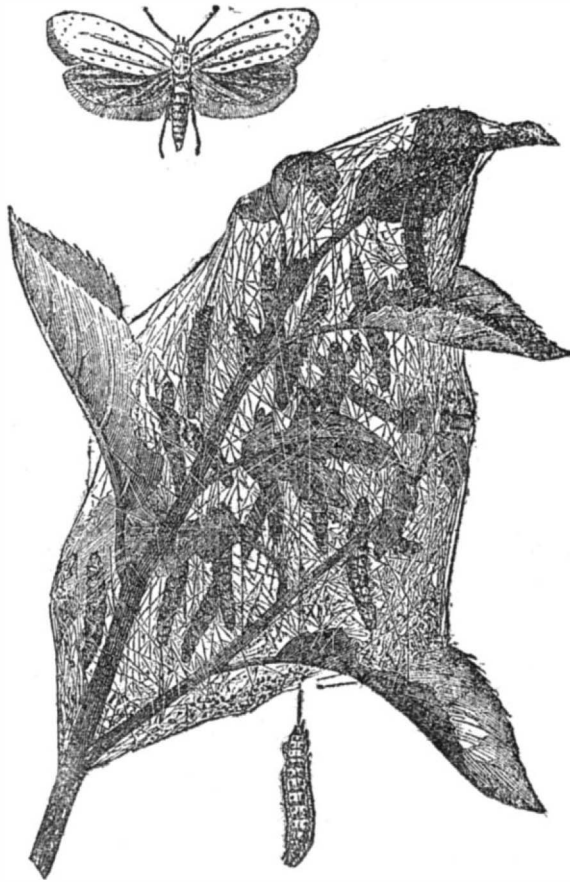
ends at 536° Fah. (b) With 2 per cent of platinum. The decomposition is sudden and complete, between 500° and 536° Fah.

7. Alloy of lead and tin with 10 per cent tin: This alloy acts like pure lead; solution takes place suddenly at about 392° Fah.

These experiments show that the addition of a little antimony or copper renders the alloy more able to resist sulphuric acid, while bismuth has a decidedly injurious effect.

THE COBWEB APPLE MOTH.

The little moth represented in the accompanying engraving is very injurious to our apple trees. As is often the case, its size bears no proportion to its destructive powers. The *liparis chrysoorrhea*, for example, which is a moderately large



bombyx, is generally thought a very bad inmate in an orchard, and on the continent its hurtful propensities are so well known, and the means of counteracting them so simple, that municipalities and powers have given it renown, by enacting decrees for its extermination and putting a price upon the heads of its members; and yet, destructive as it is, it is nothing to this tiny *ypomomeuta*. The *liparis* strips the branch on which the brood has been established—nay, many branches may be wholly defoliated, but the whole tree is rarely entirely stripped, whereas the *ypomomeuta* spares nothing; it invades the whole tree, and leaves it as bare as if fire or the locust had passed over it. One thing only it leaves behind it, as it were in charity or contempt, namely, a white veil wrapped round the tree, as if to conceal its nakedness. It looks like a forgotten skeleton enveloped in spiders' webs.

This is the work of the caterpillars. Hatched in the previous winter, they revive in the months of May and June,

and the eggs from which they spring having been laid in the previous autumn in numbers, near each other, large families or societies speedily spin a commodious tent, represented in the engraving, in which they are sheltered from sun and rain. At first a number of leaves are inclosed in the web, and on these the young larvæ feed. These are soon consumed. The tent is then enlarged, and more leaves covered in. When all these are consumed, they flit to a new region, where they spin a new web. This, repeated by multitudes of families all over the tree, leaves it utterly consumed, and annihilates all chance of the smallest crop. In the month of July the larva passes into the chrysalis state in its web, the head being downwards. The perfect insect comes out in August. After coupling, the female lays her eggs in numbers in the bifurcation of the branches. The young larvæ are hatched in the month of September. They then shelter under a slight envelope of silk, when they pass the winter in a state of torpidity, out of which they awake in the month of May, to follow the course of life above indicated. This species feeds on the apple, the thorn, and sometimes on the service tree; rarely, if ever, on anything else. The larva, when young, at the beginning of May, is yellowish white, covered with small blackish points; the head and plate of the first segment are blackish brown. When it is adult, at the end of June, it is velvety gray, with two dorsal rows of deep black quadrangular spots. The head, the plate of the first segment, and the true legs are dull black. The perfect insect has the upper wings entirely pure white, without any tinge of leaden hue, and with about twenty-four small black spots. The lower

wings are blackish. The figures are slightly enlarged. No satisfactory remedy has been found for this scourge. Scorching the nests with blazing torches and sweeping them away with stiff brooms have been suggested; but the suggestions are neither very practical nor efficient.—*The Garden*.

The Magnetization of Gas Spectra.

Some very curious experiments have recently been laid before the French Academy of Sciences by M. Chautard, relative to the influence of a powerful magnet upon the spectra of gases contained in Geissler tubes and illuminated by means of the electric current. In all simple bodies of the chlorine family, and in the gaseous or volatile compounds derived therefrom which thus far have been examined, the action of the magnet is immediate, and manifests itself, not merely by a change of color in the tube, but by an increased brilliancy of the spectral lines, which become doubled. The bodies thus far submitted to investigation, besides chlorine, which behave similarly include bromine, iodine, the chloride, bromide and fluoride of silicium, the fluoride of boron, hydrochloric acid, chloride of antimony and of bismuth, bichloride of mercury, and the protochloride and bichloride of tin.

The lights of sulphur and of selenium become extinguished the instant the magnet is excited, and the same is the case with that of the tubes containing chlorine, bromine, and iodine when the tension of the coil is suitable. The feeble brilliancy of the oxygen illumination is not sensibly modified, nor is that of carbon compounds, such as carbonic acid, carbonic oxide, etc. The fine bands of the nitrogen spectrum are not changed, except in the red and yellow portion. These colors become almost completely extinguished, or at least are replaced by a flat uniform tint, in which all traces of lines disappear. The lines in the more refrangible region remain intact.

The hydrogen lines keep sensibly their normal appearance, but by employing a sufficiently powerful magnet, at the moment of excitation a very brilliant yellow line appears, which is due to sodium, doubtless obtained from the surrounding glass. This line vanishes as if by magic when the current is interrupted, to reappear again, however, for some time, as often as the electric flow is established. Eventually it loses intensity, and it becomes necessary to allow the tube several minutes of repose before the line can again be caused to appear. It shows itself also in nitrogen tubes, and in those containing carbonic and hydrochloric acid.

The protochloride of tin, crystallized and dry, but hydrated, offers remarkable phenomena of dissociation under the magnetic influence. Normally the spectrum is pale, and shows a few of the green chlorine lines; but as soon as the magnet is excited, two characteristic bands of hydrogen, the red and the blue, appear, which remain as long as the magnetization exists, and return with the same indefinitely. M. Chautard attributes this to the momentary separation of the elements of the water of the salt, due to the considerable resistance opposed to the passage of the induced current during the magnetization.

M. Chautard's investigations are still in progress, and doubtless further novel and interesting results remain to be adduced. The phenomena noted are remarkable, and will attract the close attention of chemists and physicists generally.

At Columbia, Tenn., recently, the boiler of a steam thrasher suddenly exploded, killing three and wounding seven persons who were working the machine. It is stated that one piece of the boiler fell at a distance of three miles from the scene of the disaster; but this requires confirmation. The cause of the explosion was the usual one—carelessness.

