extensive. In the town of Stowe, Vt., there are five of them, each one of which consumes from 16,000 to 20,000 bushels of potatoes yearly, and produces about 8 lbs. of starch to the bushel.

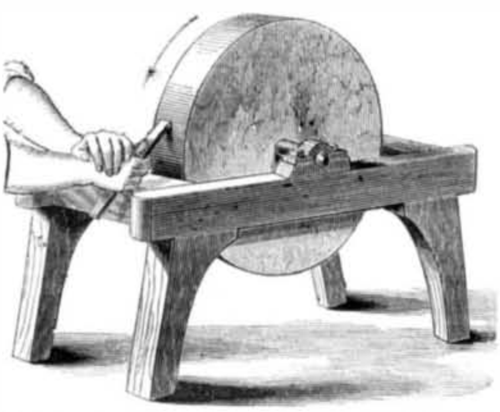
The corn used for starch is the white flint kind. Received at the factory, it is hoisted to the top of the building, winnowed to remove foreign substances, and then transferred to vats, where it is long soaked before grinding. It is run through troughs with water to the mills, and when ground the mixed meal and water is conveyed in a similar manner to the tubs in which the separation of the starch is effected. The gluten fluid that flows from these has a musty and disagreeable odor and appearance in the troughs, and the substance lacks when concentrated the consistency of wheat gluten, not "rising" like it in fermentation by the expansive action of the carbonic acid gas generated in this process. Its only value is for feeding horses, cattle and swine. The starch fluid is conveyed through troughs to great vats in the basement of the building, where the water is partially removed, and then it flows into smaller wooden vessels from which a portion of the surplus water drains away through a cloth laid in the bottom of each. The mass of starch, then tolerably solid, is placed upon shelves made of loose bricks, when more moisture escapes by absorption and evaporation. Kiln drying finishes the process and the starch is obtained in prismatic forms ready to be put up in papers or boxes for the market.

TURNING TOOLS.

PART SIXTH.—THE END.

As grinding a tool and keeping the edge in proper condition is very essential to success, it will not be amiss to state a few facts of importance in regard to it. Inexperienced turners always go on the wrong side of the stone to grind; that is, when it runs from them. Every tool, no matter what its character, should be ground with the stone running toward the workman, as in Fig. 28—the direction of motion be-

Fig. 28.



ing shown by the arrow. The reason for this is apparent to any one who thinks for a moment. It is this—viewed through a magnifying glass the edge of every tool presents a serrated or saw-tooth appearance.

When the tool is ground with the stone running from the operator, all these fine threads, or filaments of steel, are drawn off toward the outside or upper edge, so that it forms what is known as a wire edge; the first application to the work breaks these off, and in a little while the tool is as dull as before it was ground. If, on the contrary, the tool be held against the face of the stone on the running side, as shown previously, the metal will be cut downwards, and a keen sharp edge produced, which will last much longer than when ground on the other side; it only requires an oil stone rubbed over it to remove the asperities and render the edge uniform. As the tool comes from the grindstone it is invariably rough, however smooth it may appear to the naked eye, and it is a good practice to touch up the edge preparatory to putting it in the tool post. It is this rubbing with the oilstone that gives that incomparable finish to wrought iron when the tool is sharp. Such a polish is more durable than any that can be imparted with emery or oil, superior in appearance and cheaper to produce; cardinal points in favor of using a sharp turning tool.

There are many tools which cannot be ground upon the stone without destroying the shape. Tools for forming beads or moldings are of this class, but as they are generally used on cast iron; they are intended to scrape rather than cut, and the faces can therefore be ground flat. It is generally easier to file the tool to the required shape and grind it when dull.

Tools that are filed have two disadvantages which make them inferior to those tempered and ground subsequently. When a tool is tempered, the smith dresses the edge by repeated blows, and compacts the metal at that point very closely, thus making it tougher and finer in grain, The hardening process is also an advantage, for the edge is less apt to be wiry than when the metal is fibrous; which is the case with annealed steel. A tool that is to be filed into shape must necessarily be soft previously, and though the workman may be an adept, he is very likely to slur the fine edge over in forming it, and make it rough and dull, instead of sharp. When the edge of a filed tool is tempered it is apt to crumble, and is, in many other respects, inferior to one that is ground.

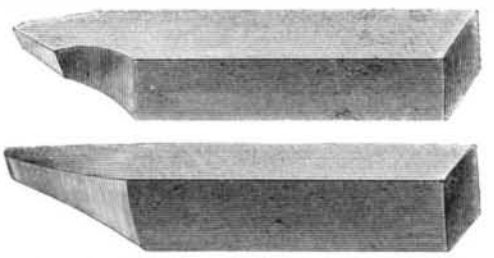
For turning a molding or bead on a side pipe, or cylinder head, such as the one shown in this figure,

Fig. 29.

it will be found convenient to make the beading tool on the spring plan, illustrated in Fig 18, current volume. By this method it is less likely to chatter or leave ridges or cut roughly.

Of tools other than those used for cutting wrought and cast iron, there are few which are materially different in external appearance. To this statement there is one exception. Brass cannot be cut by the same tools that are used for iron. Below, in Fig. 30,

Fig. 30.



we give examples of tools for turning brass. It will be seen that they are perfectly straight on the upper faces, and have no lips or acute edges. It is not possible to cut brass with a drill, or any other tool, that has a cleaving edge. Such edges draw in to the metal and throw it out of the lathe or else jam and break off. There are compositions of copper and tin, zinc and copper, and others, which can be cut by common tools, but these are not brass, which consists of specific portions of certain metals. One of these tools—the round nose—is used for light cuts, and the other where larger amounts of metal have to be taken off at once.

In turning wrought iron very many turners make their tools quite hard and cut the metal dry or without water; preferring to absorb power rather than soil the lathe with sloppy combinations of iron and water. With proper care but little "muss" will be made, while the gain in time, by using water, is very apparent. Not less important is the power required to drive a given number of lathes. Those which run dry require more than tools used with water, for the simple reason that the friction is greater. Any one can test this to his entire satisfaction by putting a tool in a lathe, starting the cut, and driving the machine by hand. It will be found that when the chip is of such a size that the arm can hardly turn the lathe dry, the addition of water will free it immediately, and the lathe can be driven with ease. If the shears be well oiled previous to beginning a job, the water can be wiped off without injury to them, even though the work be days in progress.

This article concludes the series on this subject. The skilled turner will perceive many cases not laid down in the several papers under this head which might have been alluded to, but it is obviously impossible in the limits of a newspaper to detail every minute manipulation a lathe is capable of. Special instruction on particular points has not been aimed at, but a general and familiar treatise on the tools used in turning.

SEASONING AND DRYING LUMBER AND TIMBER.

[For the Scientific American.]

A COMPARISON OF SUPERHEATED STEAM WITH OTHER MODES OF SEASONING, AS IT REGARDS SPEED, THOROUGH WORK AND CHEAPNESS.

It seems to be a great mystery to the uninitiated how lumber, and other substances, can be dried while in direct contact with steam.

All understand that steamed lumber will dry in the open air, more rapidly after, than before, it is steamed —though all do not understand why it does it. They notice that the lumber comes from the steam in a very wet and soaked state, and the general impression would be, that it would require a longer time to dry than before it was thus soaked.

The fact however that it does dry more rapidly, has induced many to adopt this mode, when they were in haste for some dry lumber, even though practical tests have shown that such steaming injures its beauty of finish, as well as the strength and durability of the lumber and timber. The reason for this will be seen.

This steaming and soaking process extracts the albumen, which if properly coagulated and retained, is a preservative to the lumber. It also expands the pores of the lumber, so that they never shrink again to their smallest size, and do not often return as tubes, but shrink into angles; thus injuring the strength as well as beauty of finish. If these improperly shrunk tubes were placed under a powerful microscope, they would look like hills and valleys and very high ones.

This albumen is somewhat difficult to dry in the pores of the lumber, by air drying, for it does not part with its moisture readily, and when dried in the outside pores of the lumber, it nearly hermetically seals the inside, as it becomes nearly impervious to moisture.

Many attempts have been made to get rid of this albuminous substance in the lumber, for even after it has been once dried, it will ferment, if water be added, and this fermentation produces eramacausis or dry rot, which destroys millions of dollars' worth of railroad timbers, ties, and bridges, per year, as well as timber in buildings, ships, &c.

Kyanizing, paynizing, burnetizing, and other similar processes, are only modes used to coagulate or chemically change this albumen, by using the various kinds of salts, such as corrosive sublimate, zinc, coperas, &c. Many of these modes have been found to be valuable for preserving the timber from the dry rot. But since these processes are usually performed by soaking or steeping the lumber in a solution of these salts, much of the albumen passes out, to the injury of the lumber; for when all of the strength and beauty of finish is desirable, the albumen should be coagulated and retained in the pores of the lumber. Of course the lumber comes from all these processes as well as in steaming, boiling, or soaking in water—in a wet and soaked state, and must therefore be used in the wet state, or afterwards dried by the air, either naturally or artificially. In either case, the outside of the timber is dried first, and forms an enamel, which will not further shrink, as the drying progresses, and therefore the timber cannot be brought to its smallest size, even though the drying process be continued forever.

Air drying we must remember always commences on the outside of the lumber, and its tendency is to close up its own way, and check materially its own progress, forming an enamel with dried albumen, and by closing the pores of the lumber on the outside first. The further therefore the drying extends into the lumber by this process the slower must be the future drying, for the passage of the moisture from the inside is the more strongly resisted, the thicker this enamel becomes. Is it any wonder, therefore, that the center of thick lumber is rarely ever dried. Comparatively small sticks of oak timber have been used for a fire piece for at least sixty years.

Many millions of dollars have been expended in experiments to season and dry lumber. The result has generally proved to be drying without seasoning, and seasoning without drying. But when both seasoning and drying have been attained by subjecting the lumber first to one process and then to the other, the result has usually been a sacrifice of the strength and