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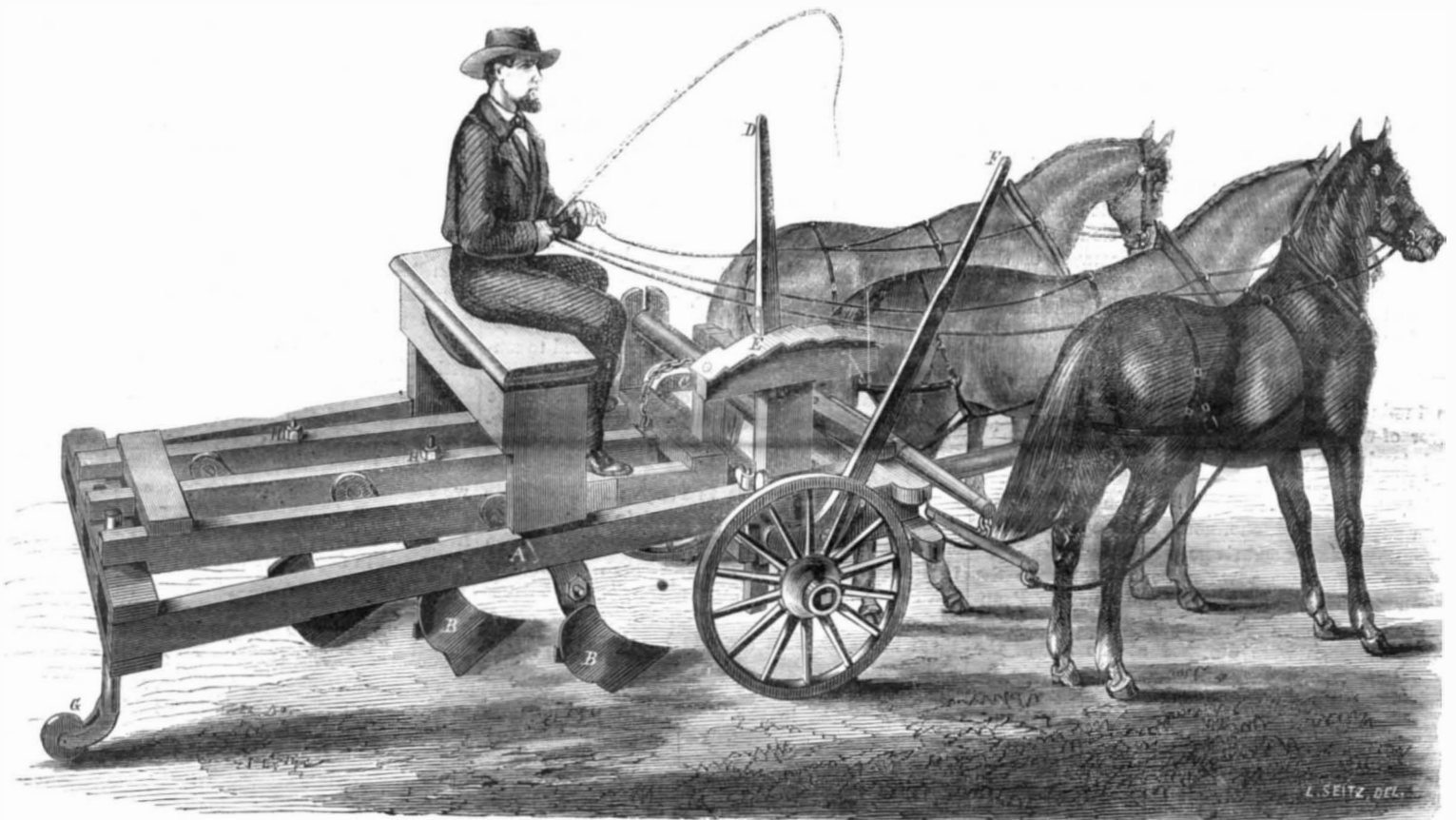
{ \$3 per Annum,
{ [IN ADVANCE.]

Improved Gang Plow.

Gang or combination plows are now frequently used, usurping the place of the single plow in large fields, and where the labor of horses can be more easily obtained than that of men. Of course, they require more power, but then the work is done much more rapidly, and where neither stumps nor stones present obstacles, there is a great advantage in their use over that of the single plow. The engraving herewith presented shows, in perspective, an ar-

The depth of the plowing can also be determined by means of bolts with nuts, seen at H, by which the nose of the share can be elevated or depressed. These bolts have a check-nut under the bars as well as a lifting nut on the top, so that the plowshares can be held rigidly in any required position. The engraving represents three horses abreast. In this case the "off" horse walks in the furrow last made, but by a peculiar arrangement of the whiffletrees—not clearly shown in the engraving—it is claimed

that while the temperature advances in an arithmetical series, the capacity is accelerated in a geometrical progression. A considerable increase of temperature, therefore, will enable even a saturated atmosphere to receive a greatly augmented amount of vapor, and, as it were, to swallow the clouds that may pass into it, without any diminution of its own transparency. On the contrary, when the temperature is diminished by the rapid union of two currents of air, saturated with vapor, the one being



HUTCHINSON'S PATENT GANG PLOW.

angement of gang plows which, while they thoroughly turn up the soil, yet enable the driver to ride and turn three furrows, where the user of the single plow does one, and gives him the control of the plows by the devices which enable the driver to elevate one or more of the shares, or all, to accommodate the "lay of the land," or to use the contrivance as a vehicle.

As seen in the engraving, the device is a rectangular frame, A, having two wheels in front, the axle of which is secured rigidly by forked bars extending down on each side the axle. To the frame, A, the driver's seat is fastened at any point most convenient. A frame, consisting of three longitudinal bars, secured in position by cross-bars, carries the plows, B. At the rear end this frame rests upon the cross piece of the main structure, and at the other is held by a chain passing over and secured to a roller furnished with a lifting cam, C. By means of the lever, D, the plow frame can be raised and held at any height by the toothed segment, E. The lever, F, is employed to raise the main frame in a diagonal position, which will elevate the plows so they can be adapted to ground which is sloping instead of level. The turning of the vehicle is readily effected by the broad wheel, G, which acts as a common furniture truck or caster, turning freely in all directions.

there can be no side draft, each horse exerting an equal amount of power.

The plowshares are made of sheet steel, and can be readily removed and replaced by others, so that the machine may be called a "universal gang plow." Two, three or four horses may be used, as desired. It was patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency by Samuel Hutchinson, Aug. 7, 1866. For further particulars address Augustus Winchester, 706 Chestnut street, Philadelphia.

WATER-SPOUTS IN THE MOUNTAINS.

According to the writers on the subject, moisture exists in the atmosphere, in an invisible state, at all temperatures. It sustains itself there in the intervals that exist between the particles of air. These intervals are either partially or wholly filled with vapor, constantly arising from the earth. When they are wholly filled with vapor, the atmosphere is said to be saturated. An increase of temperature, by dilating the air, increases its capacity for moisture; while a diminution of temperature is followed by contrary effects. But the capacity increases at a faster rate than the temperature, so that the air, at thirty-two deg. Fah., can contain only the one-hundred-and-sixtieth part of its own weight of vapor; at one hundred and thirteen degrees it can contain the twentieth part of its weight. Thus it appears,

warm and the other cool, the average temperature is so reduced that an excess of vapor exists, which is incapable of sustaining itself in the diminished capacity of the air, and is necessarily precipitated in the form of rain. But when two currents of air, not fully saturated with vapor, are brought into contact, the precipitation of moisture is slight, and mists, only, are produced. When the mists, thus precipitated are near the earth, they are called fogs, but when they are high in the air they take the name of clouds.

Another fact must be noted. The temperature of the air diminishes with the altitude, but the law of decrease is very irregular, being affected by latitude, hours of the day, and a diversity of local circumstances. It may, however, be assumed as a general rule, that a loss of heat occurs to the extent of one degree, Fah., for every three hundred and forty-three feet of elevation. But this is an average result, for the rate of decrease is very rapid near the earth, after which it proceeds more slowly, and at the loftiest heights is again accelerated.

From this brief statement of the general principles governing the production of fogs and clouds, it will be apparent that the higher portions of mountains must be refreshed by frequent rains. At present we refer only to those of the western section of North Carolina. The more elevated portions of

these mountains, ever clad in mantles of cool air, stand, as so many custom-house officers, to exact tribute from all the currents of air laden with vapor, from the warmer regions below, which attempt to sail over their summits. These currents of air cannot but pause, when richly freighted, to divide their treasures with the thirsty soils and mountain-springs. And even when they are lightly burdened with vapor, and no rain can be condensed from them, these passing currents often yield copious clouds of fog, covering the vegetation, by contact, with moisture, and promoting its more vigorous growth. Nor are the mountain summits alone in the exactions they make upon the moving atmosphere for its vapors. The mountain bases, all along the rivers and larger creeks, cool the surrounding atmosphere during the night, while the waters of the streams, retaining their warmth, send up a plentiful evaporation. The vapor which is thus formed, rising into contact with the over-hanging colder air, is condensed into fog, and floats above the streams till the morning sun sets it in motion, or dissipates it by increasing the temperature of the air along the mountain sides.

But fog and rain are not the only meteorological phenomena occurring in mountain regions. Others of a less peaceful nature, and terrific in the extreme, have been witnessed.

Once in a generation or two, perhaps, a *water-spout*, so called, bursts upon some elevated portion of a mountain. Previously to its descent, the clouds are seen moving to and fro, and commingling in a confused manner, somewhat as the circling eddies of a vast whirlpool. When concentrated above or around the mountain's summit, the cloud acquires such a density as to wear the appearance of the blackness of darkness. The roll of the accompanying thunder is deafening, and almost continuous, shaking the eternal hills to their base; while the flashes of lightning, following each other in quick succession, afford a glare of glimmering light nearly as luminous as that of the sun. Then comes a river of waters, dashing down the mountain-side, and tearing up, in its resistless progress, earth, rocks, and trees, so as to create, in its course, a deep canal. The amount of water at times discharged from such clouds is enormous, swelling inconsiderable streams into great rivers.

Many years since, a water-spout burst upon the North Mountain, to the westward of Newville, Pennsylvania, carrying destruction in its course. Many cattle and hogs were drowned at the foot of the mountain, where they were confined within inclosures, preventing escape. The largest rocks were torn from their beds, and a deep chasm excavated from the top of the mountain to the valley. Its course can now be traced by the difference in the trees within the channel from those on either side—a growth of pines occupying it, instead of the oaks and hickories of the surrounding forest.

Another water-spout fell upon the western end of the Chilhowee Mountain, where it faces the Little Tennessee River, about the date of the first settlement of the country. Its course is marked, like the one at Newville, by a large growth of evergreen trees. Again, on the west side of the same mountain, not far from Tuckaleechee Cove, and near Little River, a water-spout fell, not many years since, carrying away a distillery, around which, the day previous, being the Sabbath, the young men of the vicinity had met, in a frolic, and perpetrated some enormous blasphemies—in their drunken revelries undertaking to make a mock of religion, by the administration of its sacraments. Monday was ushered in by as clear a sun as ever shone. In the course of the day, however, the thunder pealed forth a signal, startling the neighborhood into fixed attention: there they beheld, gathering upon the mountain's brow, the ominous cloud, that soon burst out into one vast deluge of water, which, descending down the mountain side, laid desolate the very spot where the profanation of Heaven's ordinances had occurred. The terror created by this celestial phenomenon was such as to produce a religious revival, accompanied by the conversion of many of the thoughtless fellows who had taken part in the iniquities of the preceding Sabbath.

Having seen the traces of all the water-spouts noticed, and having heard the descriptions of eye

witnesses to the accumulation of the cloud which produced the rain-fall, in one case so furious in its descent, I concluded, as usual, that there had been a concentration, to one point, of nearly all the water yielded by the cloud, through the agency, probably, of a whirlwind motion of the air controlling it; but this theory had to be abandoned, as soon as I had completed, for myself, the investigation of the facts connected with the great fall of water-spouts upon Tusquitta Mountain, on July 8, 1847.

An intelligent professional gentleman, who visited the locality soon after the storm, described to me the effects produced. The chasm excavated in the earth, he said, had a depth of several feet, with its sides cut out as vertical as if dug with a spade. The roots of the trees and plants beneath the surface, were cut off as squarely as if done with the knife. At the surface, close up to the sides of the chasm, nothing seemed to be disturbed. The shrubs and grass, and even the fallen leaves upon the soil, remained unmoved, as though no running water had come into contact with them. This was the condition of things where the water-spout first struck the ground; and as the excavation, at the point of origin, had a width of but a few yards, the whole volume of the descending water, he concluded, must have been concentrated within that space, and continued thus contracted till the contents of the cloud were exhausted. In descending the mountain, along the line of the widening chasm, evidences existed that the torrent produced had attained, in places, a depth of sixty feet, uprooting in its course the largest trees, and removing immense rocks from the gulch created in its descent to the valley below.

In all the descriptions given, I had inferred that but a single water-spout had fallen, at the same time, from any one cloud. Such seemed to have been the case in the old ones, grown up with evergreens. But very different indeed had been the result on Tusquitta Mountain, as I was forced to conclude, when I examined the facts for myself, in relation to the fearful character of the elemental strife accompanying the descent of its hundreds of water-spouts, which had fallen at the same moment.

In the month of May, 1859, I called upon Robert Martin, Esq., who resides in Tusquitta valley, near the spurs of the Tusquitta Mountain. He had resided there in 1847, when the water-spouts fell upon that mountain. From his statement, and that of Mr. Pierce, his neighbor, who also noticed the whole of the movements of the clouds, during the space of three hours, or from first to last, I make up my statement.

The clouds were some two hours in forming. One group gathered in the southeast, another in the southwest, and a third in the south. The unusual commotion among them, as they were forming, attracted the attention of these gentlemen, and riveted them to the spot, where each one stood, near their own doors, a half mile apart.

When nearly fully formed—a process which will be described in another article—the clouds commenced moving rapidly, in eddies of many whirls, toward Tusquitta Ball. Salutations of thunder, from the first, passed between them, as though cloud called to cloud, in organizing for the coming conflict. The play of the lightning, at first occasional, became almost continuous, as the constantly accumulating masses began to move swiftly toward a common center; while the thunder, increasing in equal frequency, soon became terrific. In addition to the thunder, and just before the rain began to fall, there came a succession of sharp, keen, cracking sounds, lasting for ten or fifteen minutes, which resembled a sharp crack of the electrical spark, and then came a crash as if ten thousand pieces of artillery had been discharged. The earth fairly trembled with the concussion. There was also a loud roaring sound, independent of all other sounds, for some minutes before the clouds came into contact; and when they did meet, they shot instantly upward, with great velocity, like an arrow shot from a bow—the forests, a few rods distant, becoming so dark that nothing could be seen.

The rain now began to fall in torrents. In a few minutes the small spring branch, at Mr. Martin's, having its rise a mile or so further up the mountain, was swollen into a river.

In an hour the rain was over, and the sun again

appeared as bright as ever. The gentlemen named then commenced an examination of results. About three hundred feet above the head of the spring branch, a water-spout had fallen, which excavated a canal ten feet deep, and seventy-five feet wide at its head. The side-walls, at this point, were perpendicular, while further down, it varied both as to depth and width; the vast body of water, of course, obeying the general laws controlling the descent of that fluid down a steep inclination. This torrent, in rushing down toward the spring branch, at an angle with the line of that stream, could not make a sudden turn, but dashed across, rising on the opposite side to the top of a spur of the hill, thirty feet high, when, from the further side, it naturally fell into the channel of the branch, swelling it into the proportions of a river.

Upon more extensive examination, the water-spouts were found to have been very numerous, nearly a hundred canals existing within an irregular area, not exceeding three miles in extent. The largest one was eighty feet in width, and others not more than eight or ten feet.

But these excavations were not the only effects produced during this hour of awful sublimity. Many forest trees had been struck by the lightning, and explosions of electricity, from the earth, had thrown out large masses of clay and rock, in several places producing rounded excavations of sufficient depth and width, often, to bury a common hog-head; the vegetation all round these spots being scorched and withered by the electrical fluid.

The seat of these water-spouts lay about four miles from the summit of Tusquitta Mountain. Two gentlemen were upon its summit when the cloud reached that point. One of them—Mr. William M. Martin—described the rain-fall as so dense as to almost suffocate him. The sensation was such as is experienced when under water; and the only remedy was to lean the body over, so as to have a little space of air to breathe from, beneath the breast.

On the 23d of May, 1859, I commenced a personal examination of the area upon which the water-spouts had fallen; being accompanied by Dr. McCoy, of Fort Hembre. In ascending the mountain we could see, at one time, more than a dozen of the excavations. The first one measured about twenty-five feet in width at its head, and was from six to eight feet in depth. It was only twenty yards from the top of the mountain-spur, upon which the water had fallen. There was only a slight concavity where the spout first fell, and wholly insufficient to accumulate sufficient water to cut such a canal, within the space of twenty yards. Then, as there had been no washing away of the surface rubbish above the point of excavation, it would appear that the agency which produced the cutting must have begun its work at that spot.

The next excavation examined was where two spouts had fallen, close to each other, being separated, at the head, by about three rods of unbroken ground. Each of these canals measured forty feet in width, and when united, a few rods below, the channel was sixty feet in width. These two are not in a trough, or concave portion of the mountain, but naturally fall into one some distance below their junction. The heads of both are only twenty yards from the top of the mountain spur, and could only have been cut out by the force of a descending sheet of water.

The same general features were presented in the other excavations, and additional descriptions are, therefore, not necessary.

One remark only need be ventured, in relation to the agency which cut out these channels. That it was water, none can doubt. But that the water was concentrated to one point, by a whirlwind-like action of the cloud, compressing its falling rain-drops into one compact sheet, capable of cutting away all the mere clays and fragmentary rocks upon which it might fall, is disproved by the multiplicity of excavations upon Tusquitta Mountain. The only remaining solution of the mystery, then, in relation to the manner in which the rain becomes condensed, in what are called water-spouts, on land, is to be found in the statement of philosophical principles upon a preceding column. When two clouds meet, of different temperatures, the result is a more copious discharge of rain than either, separately, s

capable of yielding. The clouds at Tusquitta, upon meeting, were observed, at once, to ascend swiftly, as if doubling upon each other. This of course, brought more cloud surface into contact than would have been the case had the clouds, on meeting, blended together at once. May I not suggest, therefore, that this sudden folding of the clouds upon each other, by their upward motion, might have produced an almost solid sheet of water, at the main points of contact, which, upon descending to the earth, would be capable of cutting its way down through any extent of clays and decomposed rocks, so as to bear them away, and leave an open canal as the result? That the descending water sheet remained stationary for a few moments, so as to limit the excavations to the spot first struck, is supposable from the fact that the motion of the clouds may have been momentarily arrested by their collision with each other. But I must leave this whole question to the philosophers. D. C.

THE NEEDLE GUN.

The merits and defects of this celebrated breech-loader were detailed by Mr. Norman Wiard, before the Polytechnic Association, recently, in an interesting comparison between this weapon and those of this class more familiar to us.

The Prussian needle gun is not to be commended as a finished piece of mechanism, but, in the opinion of the speaker, it combined advantages that render it in many respects far superior to any weapon of like character heretofore constructed. The most noticeable peculiarities of this gun are its length and weight toward the muzzle. According to our received ideas, these features should be looked upon as disadvantages, but in reality great accuracy and steadiness of aim are thereby attained, and when pointed, the weight and length make it easier to hold, and the end of the muzzle is not deviated by the recoil.

The peculiarity of placing the charge nearer the muzzle of the gun than has been customary, is an advantage which the speaker believed might be still more improved upon, for the further forward the powder is placed the less force is wasted in overcoming the friction resulting from contact of the ball with the barrel, and by igniting the cartridge at the front end the whole power is employed simply in propelling the ball. In this gun all the expansive force of the powder, and also of the fulminating gases, are utilized, but in the Sharps rifle, the propulsive power that might have been obtained from this latter force is lost, and a portion of the other force escapes through the nipple orifice.

The breech of the Prussian gun is nearly on a line with the muzzle, while in the ordinary musket a considerable angle is formed, and, in consequence, a muscular effort is required to bring the gun into position for taking aim, and the force of the recoil is not so easily resisted. The certainty of becoming foul, after a number of charges have been fired, limits the capacity of the Springfield rifle to twenty rounds, hence the superiority of breech-loaders in this respect, for every ball acts as a swab in cleansing the barrel of the solid residue from the powder.

In conclusion, Mr. Wiard presented some curious statements furnished in an official report on the battle of Gettysburg, stating that 27,574 guns were picked up on the field after the engagement, 24,000 of which were loaded. Of this number one-half had two loads each remaining unfired, one-quarter had three loads, and the remaining six thousand contained over ten loads apiece. Many were found having from two to six bullets over one charge, in others the powder was placed above the ball, one gun had six cartridges with the paper untorn, in one Springfield rifle twenty-three separate charges were found, while one smooth-bore musket contained twenty-two bullets and sixty buckshot rammed in promiscuously.

Japan.

Dr. McGowan recently delivered a lecture in San Francisco, upon "Japan and the Japanese," in which he said: The geological formation of the mountains is generally igneous in character, with the superimposition of limestone, sandstone, and coal measures. Gold is found in abundance, and when the speaker

went there it could be obtained for its weight in silver. The Japanese, however, soon saw that the gold was leaving their country in large quantities so rapidly that they increased its value. Japan is pre-eminently a copper country. So plentiful is it that the traveler will find their boats, inside and out, lined with it, as also the shutters and roofs of their houses. They have spades and cooking utensils made of it. There is one of these islands which contains nothing else but copper ore. Conversely iron is met with in only limited quantity. You will see the Japanese washing it out of the sand in the beds of rivers, after the fashion of the placer miners of California, who pan out their gold. Coal is found all over the country, though the mines are not much worked, nor is there a great deal of demand for it, as the people dress very warmly and use chafing dishes in their houses to keep them warm. But when one line of steamers gets established this will come in very conveniently, and the supply will be quite equal to the demand.

New Safe Lock.

The London *Engineer* gives the following account of a new lock which seems to be constructed upon new principles:—"It is composed of neither more nor less than steel wires—call them needles if you like—strung together on two stumps, attached to the running bolt upon which they revolve, and they require to be lifted by the key to a position to admit of their being passed through certain holes in a plate of brass, and thus passing, carry the running bolt with them, which carries the real bolt. The needles move obliquely, perpendicularly, laterally, and, indeed, in any direction; hence the difficulty in raising all the needles with an instrument, simultaneously, to their required positions to run through their own apertures, and escape the many traps set for them in the shape of a number of holes, pierced nearly half way through the fence plate, of the exact size to fit the needles. In the more expensive latches, as we have only been describing the cheapest ones, there are protectors and detectors."

Statistics of Photography.

The rapid growth of new and special industries, says the *British Quarterly Review*, is a fact so characteristic of the present day, that the statistics of photography can scarcely be regarded as wonderful, viewed merely as a question of economies. Nevertheless, some of the facts are sufficiently startling. Twenty years ago one person claimed the sole right to practice photography professionally in England. According to the census of 1861, the number of persons who entered their names as photographers was 2,534. There is reason, however, to believe that these figures fall short of the real number; since then it is probable the number has been doubled or trebled, and that including those collaterally associated with the art, it is even four or five times that number. But these figures fall far short of the number interested in photography as amateurs. We are informed that eight years ago, in establishing a periodical which has since become the leading photographic journal, a large publishing firm sent out twenty-five thousand circulars—not sown broadcast, but specially addressed to persons known to be interested in the new art-science. The number of professional photographers in the United States is said to be over fifteen thousand, and a proportionate number may with propriety be estimated as spread over continental Europe and other parts of the civilized globe.

But a more curious estimate of the ramifications of this industry may be formed by a glance at the consumption of some of the materials employed. A single firm in London consumes, on an average, the whites of two thousand eggs daily in the manufacture of albumenized paper for photographic printing, amounting to six hundred thousand annually. As it may be fairly assumed that this is but a tenth of the total amount consumed in this country, we obtain an average of six millions of inchoate fowls sacrificed annually in this new worship of the sun in the United Kingdom alone. When to this is added the far larger consumption of Europe and America, which we do not attempt to put in figures, the imagination is startled by the enormous total inevitably presented for its realization.

In the absence of exact data we hesitate to esti-

mate the consumption of the precious metals, the mountains of silver and monuments of gold which follow as matters of necessity. A calculation based on facts enables us to state, however, that for every twenty thousand eggs employed, nearly one hundred weight of nitrate of silver is consumed. We arrive thus at an estimate of three hundred cwt. of nitrate of silver annually used in this country alone in the production of photographs. To descend to individual facts more easily grasped, we learn that the consumption of materials in the photographs of the International Exhibition of 1862, produced by Mr. England for the London Stereoscopic Company, amounted to twenty-four ounces of nitrate of silver, nearly fifty-four ounces of terchloride of gold, two hundred gallons of albumen, amounting to the whites of thirty-two thousand eggs, and seventy reams of paper; the issue of pictures approaching to nearly a million, the number of stereoscopic prints amounting to nearly eight hundred thousand copies.

The Breweries of Chicago.

The *Chicago Republican* has an article upon this subject, describing the process of brewing, and giving the history and statistics of the business in that city. Beer, porter, stout, and the numerous kinds of ale, are manufactured in nearly the same way, the difference lying in the malting and fermenting. The most approved grain is barley, of the species called "Rath." The grain must be full, and must contain a large proportion of starch. In malting, the first process is to steep the barley. This occupies about forty-eight hours. When taken out, the grain has increased in weight about forty-seven per cent. It is next dried, and "conched." This process is simply piling the grain upon the malt floor, in rectangular heaps, from twelve to sixteen feet in height. After a short time the grain becomes moist and hot, and germination begins. This is checked as soon as the stem begins to grow, and the grain is spread on the floor and turned two or three times a day. In this process it becomes white and crumbly. It is then placed in the kiln, and is gradually heated, first to 90 deg., and then to 140 deg. This takes from two to three weeks. It is at this point the character of the liquor is determined, ale being made from the palest, and porter from the brownest malt.

The malt is next ground and thrown into water at 160 deg., where it is thoroughly soaked. At the end of half an hour more water is added, increasing the temperature to 167 deg. After a few hours the "sweet wort" is run off into the "undertack." This wort is a clear, sweet liquor, of the same color as the malt from which it was made. The same process is repeated, the second solution being mixed with the first. The third solution becomes small beer. The liquor is boiled in copper vessels, at 212 deg., strained through the "hop-buck," and cooled as rapidly as possible to prevent souring. Lager-beer is cooled by the application of ice water. The liquor is then let into the fermenting vats, cleansed by isinglass, and barreled for use.

Dundas Cultivator Reissue.

We publish on another page an important decision of the Examiners-in-Chief in the above case, which is one of great public interest. A petition, with some eleven thousand signatures, was presented to Congress last winter desiring it to prevent the grant of the reissue; and a resolution passed that body requesting the Commissioner of Patents to suspend action until the matter could be investigated. The application was consequently suspended, but as Congress adjourned without making the investigation, the Commissioner allowed the case to proceed. The Secretary of the Interior has received many letters since from Members of Congress, and others, asking that action be delayed until Congress meets again, but after mature deliberation, he decided to let the case go on. The report, therefore, is one of unusual interest.

ERRATA.—On page 320, article "Porcelain," fourth paragraph, for "oxide too" read oxide of tin. On page 335, article "Inclosing Electricity," thirteenth line from top, for "glue bottle" read glass bottle. These typographical errors provoke the editor much more than they do the reader. The poor printer often has a narrow escape of well-merited chastisement.

Improvement in the Snow Governor Valve.

Those who have used the Snow governor valve will recognize at once the value of the improvements herewith illustrated. They consist, first, in an outside adjustment of valve and governor combined. The adjustable nut, A (Fig. 1), screws on to the spindle, D, which passes through and is centered by the bar, B, and extends up through the head, C. When the top of the nut, A, strikes the bottom of the bar, B, it determines the highest plane in which the balls revolve, when the engine is running at the speed required—which is first determined by the size of the driving pulleys. The valve, being attached to the bottom of the nut by the small rod, is lifted up toward its closing point, till the nut strikes the bar, which determines the proper position of both valve and governor; the valve at this point being held open the fiftieth part of an inch, or enough to allow the engine to run nearly up to speed with the highest pressure of steam and no load upon the engine. Lowering the nut, A, upon the spindle allows the balls to rise to a higher plane of revolution, and it also drops the valve correspondingly, thus involving an increase of speed of the engine. Screwing the nut up on the spindle causes the engine to run slower, because it stops the governor in a lower plane, and raises the valve correspondingly. Thus it will be seen that the speed of the engine can be varied from the fraction of one revolution to ten or twenty, either faster or slower than the speed first arranged by the pulleys. The spindle does not revolve, and hence the engineer can change the speed of the engine as well while in motion as when at rest. Next in importance is the substitution of a locomotive slide valve, E, with lever and quadrant in place of the common wheel and screw. Third, flanging on of the elbow at I, in place of screwing it into the valve cylinder, as before; and, fourth, the flanging the yoke, F, on to the frame instead of the collar and set screw, as before used. The throttle valve is adjustable, so that the lever can be put in the most convenient position, as also the frame upon the valve cylinder, and the yoke upon the frame.

Fig. 2 is a cheaper modification with the same valve and cylinder, and an improved head, the spindle revolving with segments on the end of the arms working in a rack on top of the spindle with an adjustable screw, G, by which the governor is prevented from rising above the most available point, attaining a nicety by governing, so essential in all establishments driven by steam power, and a swivel, H, to prevent rotation of the valve spindle. When the segment touches the screw, it determines the highest plane the balls are allowed to assume when the valve is at or near its closing. This governor is fitted with a throttle like that represented in Fig. 1, or with pipe flange as seen in the engraving. Fig. 3 is the same, intended for portable and small stationary engines, with valve cylinder tapped to receive the pipe.

For further particulars address G. W. Lasell, 437 Broadway, New York, or H. D. Snow, Bennington, Vt.

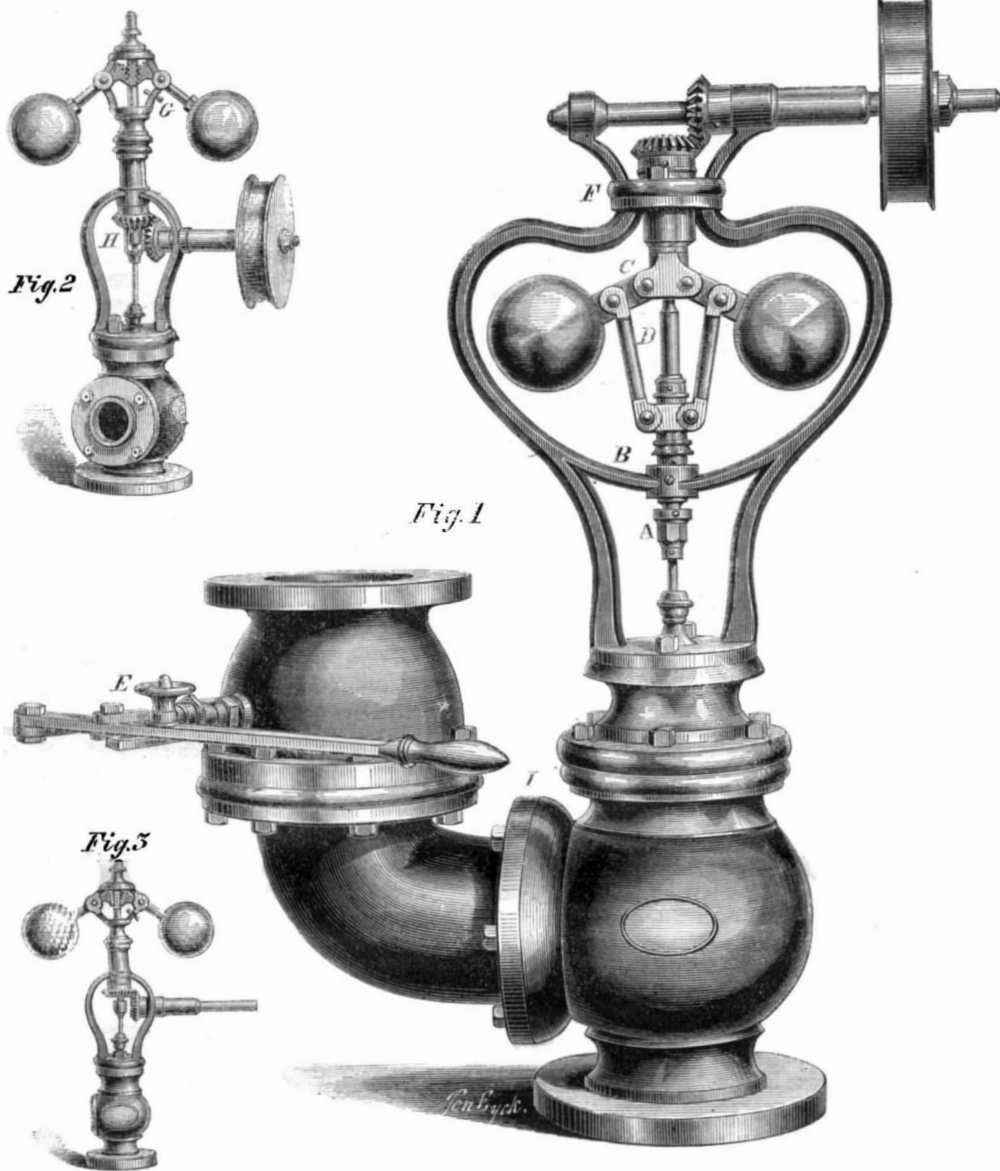
BANQUET TO CYRUS W. FIELD.

On the evening of the 15th inst., the New York Chamber of Commerce gave a grand testimonial banquet, at the Metropolitan Hotel, to our fellow citizen, Mr. Cyrus W. Field, in acknowledgment of the signal service rendered by him in bringing about the successful laying of the Atlantic cable. The large dining hall was artistically decorated by emblems of the science of telegraphy, and about three hundred

so that no man could take an observation. These buoys were anchored a few miles apart. They were numbered, and each had a flagstaff on it, so that it could be seen by day, and a lantern by night. Thus having taken our bearings, we stood off three or four miles, so as to come broadside on, and then casting over the grapnel, drifted slowly down upon it, dragging the bottom of the ocean as we went. At first it was a little awkward to fish in such deep water, but our men got

used to it, and soon could cast a grapnel almost as straight as an old whaler throws a harpoon. Our fishing line was of formidable size. It was made of rope, twisted with wires of steel, so as to bear a strain of 30 tons. It took about two hours for the grapnel to reach bottom, but we could tell when it struck. I often went to the bow, and sat on the rope, and could feel by the quiver that the grapnel was dragging on the bottom two miles under us. But it was very slow business. We had storms and calms and fogs and squalls. Still we worked on day after day. Once, on the 17th of August, we got the cable up and had it in full sight for five minutes—a long, slimy monster, fresh from the ooze of the ocean's bed, but our men began to cheer so wildly, that it seemed to be frightened and suddenly broke away and went down into the sea. This accident kept us at work two weeks longer, but finally, on the last night of August we caught it. We had cast the grapnel thirty times. It was a little before midnight on Friday that we hooked the cable, and it was a little after midnight Sunday morning when we got it on board. What was the anxiety of those 26 hours! The strain on every man's life

was like the strain on the cable itself. When finally it appeared, it was midnight; the lights of the ship, and in the boats around our bows, as they flashed in the faces of the men, showed them eagerly watching for the cable to appear on the water. At length it was brought to the surface. All who were allowed to approach crowded forward to see it. Yet not a word was spoken, only the voices of the officers in command were heard giving orders. All felt as if life and death hung on the issue. It was only when it was brought over the bow and on the deck that men dared to breathe. Even then they hardly believed their eyes. Some crept toward it to feel of it, to be sure it was there. Then we carried it along to the electricians' room to see if our long-sought-for treasure was alive or dead. A few minutes of suspense; and a flash told of the lightning current again set free. Then did the feeling long pent up burst forth. Some turned away their heads and wept. Others broke into cheers, and the cry ran from man to man, and was heard down in the engine rooms, deck below deck, and from the boats on the water, and the other ships, while rockets lighted up the darkness of the sea. Then with thankful hearts we turned our faces again to the west. But soon the wind rose, and for 36 hours we were exposed to all the dangers of a storm on the Atlantic. Yet, in the very height and fury of the gale, as I sat in the electricians' room, a flash of light came up from the deep, which, having crossed to Ireland, came back

**SNOW'S GOVERNOR VALVE.**

gentlemen participated in the banquet. Among them were some of the most prominent men of the nation.

In response to a toast, Mr. Field gave a very interesting and graphic account of the history of the submarine telegraph, which was listened to with deep attention. In reference to the recovery of the lost cable, he remarked:—

"After landing the cable safely at Newfoundland, we had another task—to return to mid-ocean and recover that lost in the expedition of last year. This achievement has perhaps excited more surprise than the other. Many, even now, 'don't understand it,' and every day I am asked 'how it was done?' Well, it does seem rather difficult to fish for a jewel at the bottom of the ocean 2½ miles deep. But it is not so very difficult when you know how. You may be sure we did not go a-fishing at random, nor was our success mere 'luck.' It was the triumph of the highest nautical and engineering skill. We had four ships, and on board of them some of the best seamen in England, men who knew the ocean as a hunter knows every trail in the forest. There was Capt. Moriarty, who was in the *Agamemnon* in 1857–8. He was in the *Great Eastern* last year, and saw the cable when it broke; and he and Capt. Anderson at once took their observations so exact that they could go right to the spot. After finding it, they marked the line of the cable by a row of buoys; for fogs would come down, and shut out sun and stars,

to me in mid-ocean, telling that those so dear to me, whom I had left on the banks of the Hudson, were well, and following us with their wishes and their prayers. This was like a whisper of God from the sea, bidding me keep heart and hope. The *Great Eastern* bore herself proudly through the storm, as if she knew that the vital cord which was to join two hemispheres, hung at her stern, and so, on Saturday, the 7th of September, we brought our second cable safely to the shore."



The Arabic Numerals.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—After reading a communication in your paper of the 20th of Oct., in relation to the probable original form of the Arabic numerals, I am disposed to adopt the writer's theory, that originally there were as many characters as the number intended to be represented. The writer is, I think, substantially correct in relation to the way in which these separate characters became merged into one by a gradual change. His general ideas in relation to the upward hair stroke, and as to the tendency of the right lines toward the curvilinear form, are quite satisfactory. His details, however, on the subject of the probable original form of these characters, and as to the *quo modo* of this change, I think, can be much improved upon. I therefore send you what seems to me a more probable conjecture as to these details, in order that "Dominus," or some one else, may improve upon my conjectures as much as it appears to me that I have upon those of "Dominus." After considerable reflection I have imagined that the following, in the first line of the diagram, were the original characters of the distinguished Arabian inventor.



I think that all the original characters used were right lines except that of the 0 or naught, and that the upward hair stroke became attached to the first three only because they were the only ones in the formation of which it would probably occur. Now let us see how, with those hair lines becoming attached and with the manifest tendency to convert a right line into a curved one, the change took place from the original to the present form of the figures. This is seen in the second line on the diagram.

The 4 may have been originally added to the 3 by a terminal or bottom line, and the 5 may have received also a bottom line; but I consider this less probable than that the fourth line was added to the top of the 3, although the continuity of motion would be broken; but as this continuity could not have been carried through the series, I have proposed to break it at the 4. The upper horizontal line of the 6 is placed on the left instead of the right of the 1. The 8 is the 7 with one added line, and the 9 the 8 with a line added. The changes from the 1 and from each succeeding character, as the work progressed, may be noted by the crossed lines in the third horizontal line of characters in the diagram.

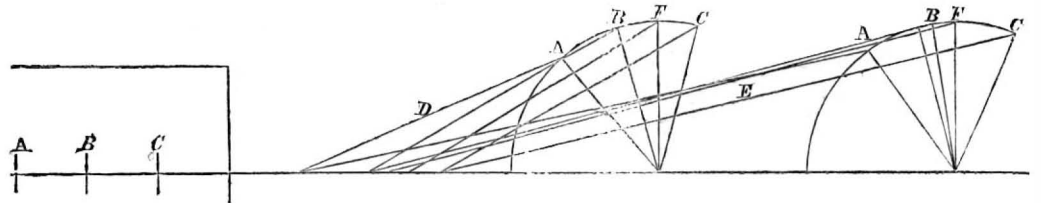
E. S. L.

Ottawa, Ill., Oct., 1866.

[We have also a communication on this subject from E. S. Weld, of Marathon, N. Y., which seems to give a clearer and more probable hypothesis than either that of "Dominus," or of any we have received; but having prepared the foregoing ingenious theory for our columns at some expense, and being pressed for room, we can do no more than allude to it. His idea is that the hair line of the 1 was originally one arm of an angle, and that each figure had as many angles as the number it was intended to represent.—Eds.]

Position of the Piston when the Crank is Vertical.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—Your correspondent, P. H. Vander Weyde, M. D., in his article showing the error of a prior correspondent, A. S., in relation to the "Place of the Piston when the Crank is Vertical," has himself given a rule which is not correct. It is, take the length of stroke as 4, connecting rod, 8, and crank, 2. By his rule you will find the distance traversed by the piston, when the crank is vertical, to be 2.54. But by trigonometrical calculation it is 2.254. Again, take the length of connecting rod as 4, and the other measures same as before, the distance traversed by the piston when the crank is vertical will be found to be 2.536, or nearly 2.54, which is the same as by his rule—which only works right when the connecting rod and stroke of piston are of the same length. Again, take the extreme case he mentions; that is, take the connecting rod same length as the crank, 2. In this case the pis-



ton will have moved the whole length when the crank is vertical, as he truly says, and yet in all three cases his rule will give exactly the same result. The truth is, no formula can be given for all cases, but a diagram is easily made which will be practically as correct as a trigonometrical calculation. I have calculated the different angles at which the crank will stand, when the piston is at different definite parts of the stroke, and they are as follows:—Taking the stroke, 4; connecting rod, 8; crank, 2. When the piston is at one-quarter stroke, the angle is 54 degs., 11 min., 50 sec.; at one-half stroke, 82 degs., 49 min., 10 sec.; at three-quarter stroke, 112 degs., 8 min. When the crank is vertical the piston has moved 2.265.

Let A, in the diagram, represent the positions of the piston and crank at one-quarter stroke, B their positions at the half-stroke, and C at three-quarters. D represents the connecting rod equaling 4, and E the rod equaling 8. F is the vertical position of the crank. The reader can readily understand the diagram by a reference to the lettering and carefully tracing the lines.

H. W. S.

Cincinnati, Oct., 1866.

[The importance of a correct knowledge of the relative positions of the piston and crank of an engine will be conceded by those who have to set the valves on steam engines. We think our correspondent has thrown some light on the subject by his diagram. An old and experienced engineer told us, the other day, in speaking on this subject, that of several hundred engines he had indicated, the valves, in nine-tenths of them, were wrongly set to get the maximum amount of power for the steam used. In some cases the loss was nearly thirty-three per cent. It is, therefore, important to know the exact relative positions of piston and crank in different points of the stroke.—Eds.]

Scientific Blasting—Nitro-Glycerin.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—In my letter of the 20th ult., I referred to a few conditions to be observed in using nitro-glycerin for blasting purposes. Since then I have received many letters asking for further details respecting my experiments at the Hoosac Tunnel, and in order to spread the information to the greatest number with a view to accomplish the most good, I address you further upon the subject.

When I visited the Hoosac Tunnel in August, I had not witnessed the explosion of nitro-glycerin in rock of the hardness of the Hoosac Mountain. The Tunnel is penetrating through solid massed mica and quartz. The strata lie against the progress, and there are but few seams and slips. It tears roughly and in no instance quarries. Every cubic inch must be blasted.

The "heading" is 6 feet high and 15 feet wide. Below is the "bench" or bottom enlargement, 4½ feet deep, the width of the heading. In the west

shaft it was about 300 feet in the rear of the heading. The further enlargements are to be above and at the sides. My experiments were in the west shaft, "bench" and "heading," proceeding eastward.

Prior to my arrival, good miners had been making from 2 to 3 feet per day with the "bench." The holes had been set from 15 to 20 inches back, drilling 4 holes to make the width of the tunnel. These 4 holes were drilled 4 feet deep, charged with powder and well tamped. After blasting the 4 holes, about 5 short holes, averaging 15 inches, had to be drilled in order to make an even bottom. According to these figures the number of inches to be drilled to make 60⁷/₁₀-feet lineal, would be 9,612. Two men can drill about 100 inches per day of eight hours, and wages are \$2 25 per day. The expense for miners, tools, and incidentals, amounts to about \$6 per eight hours, for each 100 inches, making a total of \$566 72 for drilling. The time required to

make 60⁷/₁₀ would be at least 20 days. There would be about 144 long holes, 180 short holes, and at least 36 blasts. This is the rate of progress that had been made with gunpowder.

My first experiment was in the "bench" as above described, and within three days I advanced 60⁷/₁₀ feet. I used nitro-glycerin, exploded by the aid of electricity. If the rock could be removed after each blast, I can make 70 feet in that time. I had 9 blasts and 28 holes, five feet deep, total inches drilled, 1,680. The cost of the nitro-glycerin was less than the price of gunpowder for the same number of feet.

My next experiment was in the "heading" for a period of three days. The average speed per month with powder had been 64 feet, blasting every two hours holes 20 to 30 inches deep. When I commenced my experiment the rock was excessively hard and the trial was very severe against me. I blasted 15 holes every eight hours, holes 30 to 36 inches deep. Within the three days I made 14½ feet. The next three days the rock happened to be better for blasting, and powder was used, making 6³/₁₀ feet. Number of nitro-glycerin holes 132 and about 4,356 inches for the 14½ feet. Number of powder holes 180 and about 4,500 inches drilling, making 6⁴/₁₀ feet.

In the same class of rock I am of opinion that I can make at least 35 feet per week in the heading, and in a month of 27 days about 158 feet, making 94 feet per month more than can be accomplished with gunpowder.

From these figures the Hoosac Tunnel can be finished in less than half the time and for less than half the expense by using nitro-glycerin. From eight to ten years has been the estimated time for completing the work, and the expense, several millions of dollars. For these economic considerations the very able Chief Engineer of that great enterprise is encouraged to believe in the early completion of the work by his adopting nitro-glycerin.

Before closing my letter I wish to give a warning to the Nitro-Glycerin Company. It has the patented monopoly for its use for 17 years, and an evasion of the patent is not possible. To attain great success, large sales and small profits is mercantile practice. It is to be hoped that their present price, \$1 75 per pound, will not be increased. I refer to this because the Company has, through its Board of Directors, on account of the great demand for nitro-glycerin, passed a resolution not to sell any more of the construction stock for a sum less than par.

In my next, I will give more important information in regard to charging and tamping nitro-glycerin blasts.

TAL. P. SHAFNER.

Circulation in Steam Boilers.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—Permit me to submit for your consideration the results of a number of experiments

made a few months since, the objects of which were to increase the economic efficiency of steam boilers, and also to test the effect of circulation of the water in boilers on the generation of steam. My boiler was of about three horse-power and of plain cylinder form, the fire being applied under it in a brick-work furnace in the ordinary manner. The fuel was wood, about three pounds per horse-power per hour being the maximum consumption, and the pressure averaging 60 lbs. per square inch by the steam gage. In order to make the water circulate throughout the boiler, I conceived the idea of introducing an iron plate into the boiler, placed about two inches from the bottom sheet, and slightly depressed toward the rear end, where the products of combustion passed up the chimney; the plate being about three inches shorter than the boiler, that is, there were three inches of space between each end of the plate and the ends of the boiler, so that the water could pass between. The fundamental principle being that the water between the plate and the bottom of the boiler would be heated first, and the water being lighter than the colder water above, would flow along in the direction of the highest temperature—that part just over the grate bars, and where the plate has the highest altitude; thus a revolving current would be formed of which the plate would be the focus.

When this was done the fires were started, and, by means of a man-hole at the top, I was able to note the effect on the water, which had a temperature of 50 degs. As soon as the temperature began to rise, a movement in the water became perceptible, and as the temperature increased, became more and more forcible, forming a current flowing from end to end of the boiler with tremendous rapidity, and boiling furiously. In one minute the entire mass of water had acquired an equal temperature of 200 degs. throughout the boiler. In half a minute more steam began to evolve from the end of the plate over the grate bars (the water, of course, flowing away at right angles to the direction of the steam), and in a solid mass entirely free from bubbles of steam. I now shut down the man-hole and made fast steam; pressure quickly formed; all ebullition ceased, and in five minutes the gage gave 19 lbs. pressure per square inch! By the old method fifteen minutes were required to reach the boiling point. In ten minutes more the pressure was 60 lbs. per square inch, when the safety valve was thrown wide open and the steam, transparent and perfectly dry, rushed forth to a distance of three feet.

By the old way the steam was very wet, and drenched everything around for some distance. So rapidly was steam formed, the swiftly-flowing current constantly sweeping the bubbles of steam from the highly-heated surface of the boiler, that twice the usual quantity of water was evaporated in a given time, while the consumption of fuel—dry pine—came down to one pound per indicated horse-power per hour, by night, and the same rate of economy was obtained in the use of coal, when that fuel was subsequently used.

After having made this highly-satisfactory experiment I concluded to try tubular boilers on the same plan, the plate being placed just above the tubes and slightly inclined upward toward the fire-box end of the boiler, so as to send a constant stream of water through the tubes and maintain equal temperature throughout the boiler. The results obtained were still more satisfactory, steam being formed with astonishing rapidity. Under such circumstances I consider it as conclusive that circulating water in steam boilers is in every manner advantageous, yielding the maximum of economy with the minimum of fuel.

ALBERT J. HASTY.

Waterville, Me.

Small Electric Machine Wanted.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—The Lenoir Gas Engine Company is in want of a cheaper, but equally effective, electric apparatus, than the clumsy Ruhmkorff coil and acid battery now used. If a "thimble battery" will send a spark over the cable, why will it not give our little engines, with 20 feet of wire, a good spark?

I am prepared to contract to-day for one thousand suitable electric machines for the Lenoir Gas En-

gines. Cannot some of your host of inventors supply them?

We are indebted to the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN for inquiries for our Engines from every nook and corner in the United States—the result of a very modest little advertisement, carried upon the wings of your industry and enterprise.

JOHN B. MURRAY, President, New York City.



O. K. L., of N. H.—Your question is hardly appropriate for our columns, but as you failed to give your name we cannot address you by mail. Naval apprentices are appointed by the Secretary of the Navy. The candidate must be sixteen years old, pass an examination in the ordinary English branches, spend two years in the school at Annapolis, and two as a cadet in the workshop, when, if competent, he can graduate as third assistant engineer.

W. W. and N. G. H., of Texas.—The question propounded is this: "Is there any more power in an engine, the piston of which is twelve inches diameter, having four feet stroke, than in one of the same diameter having but one foot stroke, the steam pressure being the same?" The question is not one of the relative value of long or short levers, but simply one of motion from pressure exerted on the piston. If the pressure on the piston is sixty pounds to the square inch, the six-inch crank would make four revolutions while the twenty-four inch crank made one. The amount of power exerted would be the same. But even if the question was confined to a part of one revolution, thus using the cranks as simple levers, the result would be the same. In one case the short lever would exert its force through a less distance than the long lever would have to travel in performing the same work. The reason for using different lengths of stroke for cylinders of a common diameter is adaptability to the kind of work to be performed.

F. D., of Pa.—You say the grate bars of your boiler, twentyfeet long, by thirty-six inches diameter with one fourteen-inch flue, are only ten inches from the boiler. The space is too little. Better be fifteen or eighteen inches if you wish to utilize the combustion of your fuel. For such a boiler we think a stack thirty inches diameter is full large. Two gage cocks, if properly placed, are as good as three; but for convenience and economy you should have a water indicator. It will save the time of the engineer, and the continual wear of the gage cocks. The direction the grate bars run, relatively to the boiler, will not effect its efficiency.

M. J. S., of Ill.—Polished iron will retain heat longer than if it be rough. If the iron of your apparatus is not to be subjected to a higher temperature than 250 deg. we suggest that you paint it or varnish it of a light color.

N. C. T., of Ill.—We are not aware of any composition used to coat polished steel, giving it a blue color which will not be removed by use. The bluing of steel is effected by exposing it to a charcoal fire, or to heated plates of iron, until the requisite color is obtained. The heat required is not sufficient to soften hardened steel. A transparent varnish can be applied hot, but will not last for your purpose. One part gum copal, one oil of rosemary, and two or three of alcohol is its composition.

J. O. M., of N. Y.—Refer to our reply to W. L. F. of Ill., in our issue of Oct. 27th. Or, if you prefer a cheap process of bronzing, paint your castings of the shade required and varnish. Before the varnish is quite dry, while "sticky," dust it with a copper or bronze dust and rub it on with a linen pad or a paint brush. Then varnish. Muriate of copper dissolved in water will give a copper coating to articles of cast iron, but they must be preserved with a coat of varnish.

D. M., of Pa.—You will see in this issue that we have published an article, illustrated with a diagram, which meets your ideas on the relative positions of the crank and piston.

EXTENSION NOTICES.

John James Greenough, of New York City, having petitioned for the extension of a patent granted to him the 17th day of January, 1854, for an improvement in machines for pegging boots and shoes, and reissued the 4th day of July, 1854, and again reissued on the 16th day of April, 1859, in six divisions, numbered 698, 699, 700, 701, 702, and 703, on which divisions extension is now prayed for seven years from the expiration of said patent, which takes place on the 17th day of January, 1868, it is ordered that the said petition be heard on Monday, the 11th day of February, 1867.

George W. Brown, of Ga esburg, Ill., having petitioned for the extension of a patent granted to him the 2d day of February, 1853, for an improvement in seed planters, and reissued Feb. 16th, 1858, and again reissued Sept. 11, 1860, in five divisions, on four of which extension is now prayed for, viz., numbers 1036, 1087, 1038, and 1039, for seven years from the expiration of said patent, which takes place on the 2d day of February, 1867, it is ordered that the said petition be heard on Monday, the 21st day of January next.

Harvey Murch, of Lebanon, N. H., having petitioned for the extension of a patent granted to him the 14th day of June, 1853, for an improvement in mop heads, for seven years from the expiration of said patent, which takes place on the 14th day of June, 1867, it is ordered that the said petition be heard on Monday, the 26th day of May next.

NEW INVENTIONS.

The following are some of the most prominent of the patents issued this week, with the names of the patentees:—

BOX FOR FORMING METALLIC NUTS.—JOHN TURNER, Richmond, Va.—This invention has for its object to furnish an improved die or box for punching metallic nuts, which can be reduced or enlarged, to adapt it to nuts of different sizes; and by means of which the position of the center may be changed as desired within certain limits.

CORN PLANTER.—R. M. YORKS, Schoolcraft, Mich.—This invention relates to a portable device for planting or dropping corn, and it consists of a novel arrangement of parts, whereby two rows of corn may be dropped simultaneously, and with a greater or less number of grains or kernels in a hill, as may be desired.

COAL-OIL LANTERN.—J. O. HARRIS, Reading, Pa.—The object of this invention is to simplify the construction of the lantern render it more compact, especially as regards weight, and at the same time retain all the advantages of the original lantern.

BOOT JACK.—H. N. DEGRAW, Newburgh, N. Y.—This invention relates to a boot jack of that class which are provided with movable or pivoted jaws, and it consists in a novel and improved manner of applying the jaws to the foot piece and arranging certain parts therewith, whereby the jaws may, by the pressure of one foot on the foot piece, be made to grasp the heel of the boot on the other foot, so that it may be readily withdrawn.

INDICATOR FOR RAILWAY.—E. B. VAN WINKLE, New York City. This invention relates to an indicator for railways and is designed to indicate to the conductors of trains on arriving at a depot, or at any point on the line of the road where the invention is placed, the exact time a preceding train passed said depot or point, so that collisions which not unfrequently occur in consequence of the slow motion or delay of one train on a track and the rapid motion of a succeeding one, will be avoided.

HORSE HOLDER.—WM. B. CHAPMAN, La Salle, Ill.—This invention relates to a horse holder to be attached to the hub of a wheel of any vehicle, for the purpose of securing or making the lines or reins fast to it.

SPIKE-DRAWING MACHINE.—NATHAN ADAMS, Altoona, Pa.—This invention has for its object to improve the construction of the spike-drawing machine patented by the same inventor, September, 1865.

HOLLOW ARBORS.—JOHN BURT, Sturgis, Mich.—This invention consists in so constructing hollow arbors for rounding square sticks that only the knife or bolt which cuts the wood, shall touch the stick.

HORSE HAY FORK.—T. H. ARNOLD, Troy, Pa.—This invention relates to that class of horse hay forks which are provided with hooks or prongs connected with certain mechanism which admits of their being adjusted in line with a bar so that they may be readily thrust into the load or mats of hay to be elevated and then turned outward from the bar so as to catch into the hay and take up a quantity when the device is elevated.

DRILL.—NOTTINGHAM AND DUNOAN, Vinton, Iowa.—This invention relates to a tool or drill, for enlarging the bore of a well, at and about the lower end; for this purpose it is so connected to the lower end of a rod that by rotating which in any proper manner, the tool will be brought to bear against the sides of the well and cutting the same, produce the enlargement desired.

PULLEY SUSPENSION HOOK.—D. B. BAKER, and P. S. MILLER, Rollersville, Ohio.—This invention is designed to furnish an improved means by which the pulley of a horse hay fork may be suspended from a rafter or other support of difficult access, and for similar uses, without the inconvenience and danger of clambering to the desired point of suspension and suspending the pulley by a chain or rope.

SASH FASTENER.—DE LANCE COLE, Marshall, Ill.—This sash fastener and supporter is of such a construction that the sash can be fastened and supported at any desired height.

GOVERNOR VALVE AND VARIABLE CUT-OFF.—J. L. DICKINSON, Dubuque, Iowa.—This invention relates to a steam engine and consists in certain improvements in governor valves and in the variable cut-off, whereby many of the obstacles which have been met with heretofore are overcome.

WRENCH.—W. EVANS, Forestville, Conn.—This invention consists in the manner employed for locking the movable jaws to the bar of the wrench which has the said movable jaw fitted to slide upon the bar, which latter has its back serrated or toothed.

TAG OR LABEL, G. W. STORER, Portland, Conn.—This invention relates to a tag or label especially intended to be used upon trees, shrubs, vines, and other plants, although it can be employed for other purposes; the invention consists in so forming the tag or label, made either of sheet metal or other suitable flexible material, that it can be secured to and around the tree, or other plant or article, without requiring the use of an additional or extra fastening device, and without the least injury to the article to which it is applied.

BEEHIVE.—MOSES GUTHRIE, Clifton, Iowa.—The nature of this invention consists in so constructing a beehive that the bees may be kept in different apartments or may be allowed to work in one apartment, as may be desired.

COMBINED STOVE AND FURNACE.—H. G. DAYTON, Maysville, Ky.—This improvement consists in the arrangement of a reverberating chamber directly above the fire box, in which the heated air is first received and wherein it serves to impart heat to the air contained in an annular surrounding chamber which is supplied with air at top, and serves in part to heat air in the main radiating chamber, which incloses both the reverberating and the secondary air heating subdivisions.

BAKING PAN.—STEPHEN WEST, Trenton, N. J.—This invention relates to an improved pan for baking fancy crackers, and it consists in forming the bottom of the pan with a series of semicircular corrugations, grooves or channels, to receive and hold the cracker material during the baking operation, thus preserving their round or cylindrical shape.

SORGHUM SKIMMER.—W. B. SEWARD, Bloomington, Ind.—This invention has for its object to furnish an improved skimmer, by the use of which the operator will be able to skim both sides of the pan with equal facility, and it consists of a skimmer open at both ends so as to permit either end to be used to lift or remove the scum.

COUPLING FOR CULTIVATORS.—SILAS M. WHITNEY, Galesburg,

Improved Turntable Pivot.

The ordinary turntables for railroads, and the swing bridges for streams, usually have a central shaft embraced by a box, which guides the rotation of the frame, while the weight rests mainly on the circumferential trucks. Of course, when weight is on the turntable, as that of a locomotive and tender, it requires the expenditure of much power to move the mass. It is difficult, also, always to keep this central shaft properly lubricated, and to do this it is necessary to descend into the pit.

The improvement herewith illustrated is simply a device for transferring the weight from the circumference to the center, thereby greatly diminishing friction, and to insure perfect lubrication at all times. The pit for a railroad turntable is constructed in the usual manner. In the center is the pedestal, A, the top of which is hollowed to receive a sphere of solid metal. This is the pivot, and upon this rests the weight of the bridge. A cap, B, also hollowed, sits on this ball and is bolted to the bridge. Through its top is an oil hole which may be covered to keep out dirt and dust, and the under side of the cup is channeled to carry the oil to the cup-like receptacle at the top of the column, A. It will be seen that so long as any oil whatever remains in this receptacle, it occupies the proper place for effective lubrication. The weight of the bridge is concentrated at the point of least resistance, and the friction is so little that the inventor states one man can turn the heaviest locomotive and tender with perfect ease. It seems to be equally applicable to swing bridges, which in many places are superseding the ordinary drawbridges. It has been in use on the Lehigh Valley Railroad two years with perfect success.

Patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency, Nov. 28th, 1865, by John I. Kinsey, South Easton, Pa., to whom apply for additional facts.

ERIE BASIN DRY DOCK COMPANY.

It appears from English papers that the misfortunes of the *Great Eastern* have not yet ended. Returning from her cable trip, it was necessary to have her overhauled, but no dock could be found sufficiently large for her accommodation, and at last accounts she was idly lying in the river Mersey.

The length of the dry dock at Birkenhead, where the leviathan essayed to enter, is given as 600 feet, the width and depth corresponding. The dimensions here stated, according to the best information at hand, make this superior to any dock in this country—longer by some 240 feet than the granite dock at the Brooklyn Navy-yard, hitherto considered the largest in the country. The new dry dock lately finished in Brooklyn surpasses the Government dock in its dimensions, but cannot be ranked as a rival of the Albert basin at Birkenhead.

The Erie Dry Dock Company, composed of Boston and New York capitalists, have obtained, by purchase, a large property situated on Elizabeth street, South Brooklyn, having a valuable water frontage on the Erie basin of fourteen hundred feet. The dry dock itself measures at the top 550 feet in length by 120 in width, and 476 by 61 feet at the bottom. The depth of water at the sill is eighteen feet, while inside a depth of twenty-four feet is secured. The gate is a caisson, built with keel and stern, and has all the appearance of a vessel in itself. The beveled edge is designed to fit into corresponding grooves on either side of the dock, and is sunk to close the opening by pumping water into the lower sections by a small engine on board.

The dock is emptied by two of Hibbard's centrifugal pumps driven by a horizontal engine of one hundred horse-power. The escape pipes are two in

number, twenty-four inches diameter, each capable of discharging 30,000 gallons of water per minute.

When a ship needs repairing, she is warped into the dock, centered, and stayed with ropes to the shore; the caisson is then placed in position, and the donkey engine set to work. In the course of half an hour, the inclosed space is water-tight, and the water discharged by the large pumps in from two to three hours.

An inconvenience arises from having but one dock; for if several vessels, needing more or less repairs, are docked together, neither one can be dis-

charged till all are finished. On this account the company contemplate the building of another basin, smaller in superficial area, but four feet deeper than the one just completed. The erection of an extensive range of warehouses, and other improvements are being carried forward and will add to the perfection of the enterprise. Connected with the dock-yard, the Erie Basin Iron Works furnish unsurpassed facilities for repairing and renovating disabled vessels and refitting them for active service.

WILLIAMS'S POTATO WASHER.

Devices for lightening the labors of the housewife form no insignificant part of the business of the Patent Office, and although, at times, it may seem as though the contrivance was too simple to be made the subject of a legal claim of proprietorship, yet many of our most valuable discoveries derive their merit from their simplicity.



The annexed engraving illustrates one of those simple improvements which appeal to the tidy housekeeper. Every one who has pared potatoes knows that the fingers acquire a dark tinge from contact with the tubers. This is to prevent in part the handling of the roots. A is an ordinary wooden pail, having a bar across its upper surface, with slats extending to a semi-diameter, which form a grate. In the center of the bar is an upright shaft, extending to the bottom, furnished with arms connected with a sweep that revolves by means of the crank, B.

The potatoes, or other vegetables, are placed in the pail with water enough to cover them, when the handle, B, is turned, which passes them rapidly through the water. The water is then drained off

through the grating, and the potatoes can be emptied without the operator wetting his or her hands. No further description or recommendation is necessary for understanding and appreciating this improvement.

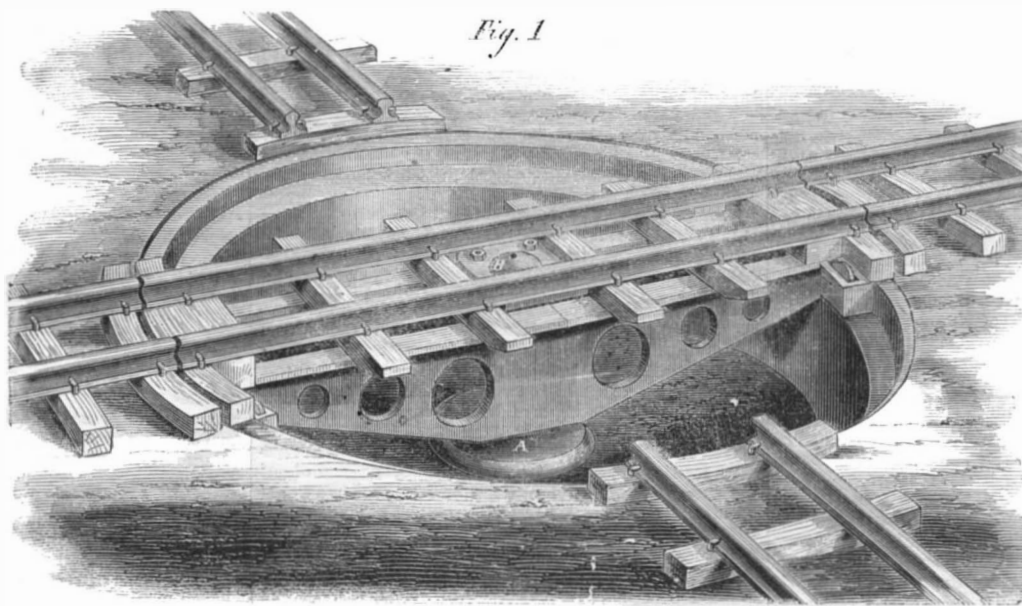
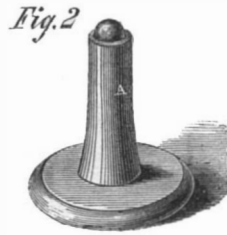
It was patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency by Joshua H. Williams, July 24, 1866. For territorial rights and other information apply as above at East Craftsbury, Vt.

"Time will Tell."

The interest, even enthusiasm, drawn forth by the

predicted meteoric display of the past week, is worthy of being placed on record. The excitement was wide spread, and our local exchanges detail the arrangements universally made for witnessing the display.

The observatories had each a full corps of enthusiasts, and anxious star-gazers on watch-towers improvised on house tops and commanding

**KINSEY'S IMPROVED TURNTABLE PIVOT.**

points waited impatiently for the promised shower. In most of our cities the authorities had arranged for the heralding of its beginning by public signals, that all might witness the extraordinary phenomenon.

That the fall was far from equalling anticipation, it is needless for us to say, but it is equally certain that the display, in the number and brilliancy of the meteors, surpassed those of previous years. Unfortunately for the astronomers, a storm gathering from the south caused some indistinctness toward the close of the second night, and in this section heavy clouds upon the following evening entirely precluded observation.

In a short time we shall know whether other lands have been favored with showers of greater magnitude, and from the data, theories and calculations may show how possible perturbations have caused unexpected variations in time and place.

Progress of the Pacific Railway.

The Central Pacific Railway, now in progress from Sacramento City to the California State line, is in course of rapid completion.

The iron horse now runs on this line a distance of 93 miles, and 10,000 laborers, chiefly Chinese, are now at work. This road has used up for their drills in this rocky path, over 100 tons of cast steel, and have ordered 150 tons more for this purpose. They use 250 to 300 kegs of powder per day for blasting rock—these two items show great work. There are now on the road 14 engines of the very first class, and two more of extra power now landing; they have over 200 freight cars and 100 more on the way. This company now own their road—already a good paying institution—and they own the Sacramento Valley Road, and also the adjoining roads, and by their liberal offers to purchasers of land and to shippers of freight, they are winning public favor every day.

The progress of the western divisions, which are intended to connect with the Central Pacific at the State line, are also progressing rapidly, and much sooner than many supposed it possible, the iron bands will stretch from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

A COMPANY has been organized in Milwaukee, Wis., with a capital of \$100,000, for the purpose of starting a cotton mill. Several Massachusetts capitalists are interested in the enterprise. A monster woolen factory is also contemplated there.

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VOL. XV., No. 22, [NEW SERIES.] *Twenty-first Year.*

NEW YORK, SATURDAY, NOV. 24, 1866.

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ENLARGEMENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN FOR 1867.

On the first of January, 1867, the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN completes its Twenty-First Year. The first number of this journal, a folio of four pages, appeared in the Summer of 1845, under the editorial management of Rufus Porter, a scientific enthusiast, who still lives in anticipation that, sooner or later, he may fly to the uttermost parts of the earth in a balloon. That volume abounded in the editor's peculiar scientific and spiritual theories and visions, and was adapted to a very narrow circle. It was, however, the basis upon which the present Editors and Proprietors entertained the notion that a Journal of Popular Science might be built up, which would supply a want seriously felt by the Mechanics, Manufacturers, and Inventors of this country. Upon assuming the management of the paper we determined, upon the commencement of a new volume, to enlarge it and change its form to eight pages. Our expectations were not disappointed. Our patrons responded generously, and the circulation of the paper rapidly increased, and from that time onward the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN has been a recognized power in the development and extension of every interest bearing upon the Industrial Arts and Sciences.

In 1859, still further encouraged by the success that crowned our labors, and to meet the great pressure upon our columns, we felt obliged to double the size of the paper to sixteen pages. Even this enlargement, however, has proved inadequate to the wants of our readers and advertising patrons, and now, in spite of the greatly enhanced cost of paper and all other materials, we propose—now that the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN has become of age—on the first of January to enlarge and improve it in every respect. The proposed enlargement will give our readers an increase equivalent to seven additional pages of reading of the present issue, and will enable us to enter

more extensively into the important details of American and Foreign Industry, Art, Science, and Discovery, than our space, hitherto, has permitted.

This contemplated change will involve an additional cost for editorial talent, mechanical labor, paper, etc., of nearly twenty thousand dollars per year; but we have fully decided to undertake it without increasing the subscription price. The fact is indisputable that the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN will be, by far, the cheapest and most valuable paper of the kind ever published. Its circulation is now more than the combined weekly issues of all similar journals in this country and Great Britain, which fact alone attests how it is appreciated by its intelligent readers. The position it now holds will not be relinquished if industry, talent, and a liberal expenditure of money can produce a journal worthy of public confidence and a wide-spread circulation.

Under the new arrangement the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN will contain more reading matter, at one-half the cost, than the largest scientific journal published in England.

WROUGHT SCRAP IRON FOR FORGINGS.

The breaking of so many shafts of our sea-going steamers—instance those of the steamers *Atlantic* and *Pacific*, several years since, in the Collins Liverpool line, and, more recently, several shafts as well as cranks, of the Pacific Mail Company's ships—has led us to examine the subject, and inquire of what material these shafts, cranks, etc., were made.

From the most reliable information we have gathered, we find they were made of wrought scrap iron, of which it appears there are several kinds.

The first is the "common scrap of commerce," which is gathered from the thousands of smiths' shops throughout the country.

The second is what is known as "railroad scrap," which consists of old rails, bolts, plates, etc., that have been used in ordinary railway operations.

The third is "boiler scrap," which is composed of sheets and rivets from condemned steam boilers.

The fourth is what is called "selected scrap." This consists of old horseshoes, horseshoe nails, and the clippings from the tack-plate mills of the country.

The first two of the kinds of scrap iron above enumerated are made up of all and every kind of iron manufactured in this country and in England, from the most inferior of Welsh bars up to the best American brands in market. Russia, Swede, and Norway irons, are not generally used for ordinary purposes, on account of their high price.

The third class of scrap iron ought to be of the best iron that can be made; but unfortunately such is not the case; an evidence of which is the frequent boiler explosions from one end of the country to the other; consequently there is no certainty of getting a sound, uniform piece of forging, even if boiler scrap is used.

As for the fourth class—selected scrap—its quantity is so inconsiderable that any discussion of its merits or demerits will avail nothing in the object sought to be obtained by our remarks on the subject under consideration. As for old horseshoes and nails, they are scattered over such a vast extent of country, that to make them a specialty would cost more than their value, after re-manufacture into the kinds of forgings we refer to; and as for tack-plate scrap, we feel safe in saying, the very nature of the tack manufacture—the cutting the plates into articles so small as carpet tacks for instance—precludes the possibility of any large quantity of "scrap" remaining after the tack maker has used every delicate little piece that his machine will cut.

The results of our investigations convince us that at least ninety per cent, if not more, of all scrap forgings are made from the first three kinds of scrap mentioned; it is practically impossible to make, with certainty, any piece of forging, and more particularly large shafts, cranks, etc., which shall be reliable, and which can be depended upon for strength and tenacity, where scrap iron, composed of such great varieties and qualities as we have shown, is used. The various kinds of iron will not

unite—will not weld thoroughly, heat and hammer them as much as you may.

From the examination we have given this subject, we are of the opinion that the only reliable and safe course for our forge-masters to pursue, is to make their forgings of one kind of iron. Let them test the various brands of foreign and American irons, and use only the strongest and most tenacious that can be procured; and we feel confident we shall hear no more of broken steamer shafts, endangering a loss of life and property.

We are well aware that a judicious mixture of cast irons often improves the quality, and gives a stronger and better casting than otherwise; but such is not the case with wrought iron. We would as soon think of making a railway bridge of oak, pine, and whitewood, and expect it to be as strong as though it were made exclusively of the best of white oak, as to suppose that a steamer shaft made of mixed scrap iron would be as strong and reliable as it would be if made of one quality, and that the best iron that can be manufactured.

CHANGE IN THE STYLE OF PATENTS.

But few are aware of the fact that all letters patent issuing from the United States Patent Office on and after the 20th of this month, will be in an entirely new dress, on different material, smaller, neater, and containing a printed specification. The patent proper, or grant, instead of containing the design of the Patent Office building, will have an engraving intended to show the progress of invention, the details being quite clever, and which, by way of comparison and contrast, will always appear fresh and pleasing to the eye. This beautiful design is original with Mr. Theaker, our present courteous and efficient Commissioner of Patents.

Place of the Counterbalance on Saw Mill Sashes.

A writer, G. W. P., Ogdensburg, N. Y., doubts the propriety of placing the counterbalance of vertical saw mills opposite the crank. He says, the gate, brought to a stand-still at the extremity of its stroke, offers heavy resistance to the motion of the wheel, suddenly checking its velocity, the centripetal as well as the centrifugal force being instantly counteracted. Now, considering the wheel truly balanced and the counterbalance an adjustable weight, capable of exerting its force upon a given point on the wheel; and supposing the momentum of the wheel to be thus suddenly checked, the counterbalance will exert its power, not in a vertical line opposing the shock, but in the line of flight, should it then be detached from the wheel.

This shows that the counterbalance does not so much tend to counteract the vertical shock as to give a horizontal shock to the pillow blocks.

He recommends placing the counterbalance at a point in advance of the crank, as when the crank pin is at its lowest point, the counterbalance at a point a little above a line drawn through the axis of rotation, so that it precedes the crank's motion about one-third of the circumference. He thinks the subject is worthy the attention of scientific mechanics and practical men.

Practical Hints.

Under this title we shall communicate to our readers a series of short articles, containing such useful information as has been proved by experience of practical men to be reliable, and, therefore, desirable to be more universally known and applied. We ask contributions to this column from our readers.

No. 1. TO PREVENT RATS FROM DAMAGING LEATHER BELTING.—It is not an uncommon occurrence in factories where steam power is used, that during the night, or periods that the machinery is stationary and the shop abandoned, the rats will eat the leather belting, where it is accessible to them; for instance, where it passes through openings in the floor; cases have even happened that they gnawed holes in the floor just over the place where a belt was running horizontally in order to reach and eat pieces out of it.

Now, it is a singular fact that rats will not touch anything containing castor oil, or even only covered with it, and, therefore, to guard belting against

Improved Saw-mill Trestle.

The engravings represent an exceedingly simple, but thoroughly efficient means to prevent the "jumping" of a long log, or piece of timber, while in process of being sawed by the sash saw. It seems as though it might be equally effective in a circular saw mill. The heating and breaking of saws, and the uneven sawing of lumber, are to be attributed more to this sudden and unequal movement of the stock than to any other one cause.

As before remarked, the device is very simple. It consists of two uprights, into which is framed a

It has always been the belief in this country that these wheels were used because they were cheap, and because the Americans could afford nothing better. These wheels, before the war, cost about 1½d. per pound, or rather less than £14 per tun, and one favorite pattern of 2 ft. 6 in. wheel, weighing nearly 4 cwt., was sold, ready for boring, for £2 10s. each. But so far from their cheapness having alone maintained them in use, they were long ago adopted, on the Grand Trunk Railway of Canada, because they were found, upon the whole, better than wrought iron. We have before us a letter, written in 1859,

3 ft. 6 in. wheel, instead of weighing but 5 cwt., as in English practice, would reach 6 cwt. We learn that iron of the proper quality for chilled wheels is likely to be introduced into this country, and that they will probably receive a fair trial.—*Engineering.*

American Railway Wheels in England.

The *Engineering* says:—We believe that five American chilled railway wheels have arrived in London, and that they will be broken experimentally, and that further wheels of this kind will be sent over for trial under English rolling stock. We have samples of the iron from which these wheels are cast, and it is of magnificent quality. The fracture is a rich dark gray, medium-grained, and shows great toughness, the particles appearing to have been irregularly torn, rather than broken short off. The specific gravity ranges from 7.25 to 7.3185, and the

Fig. 1

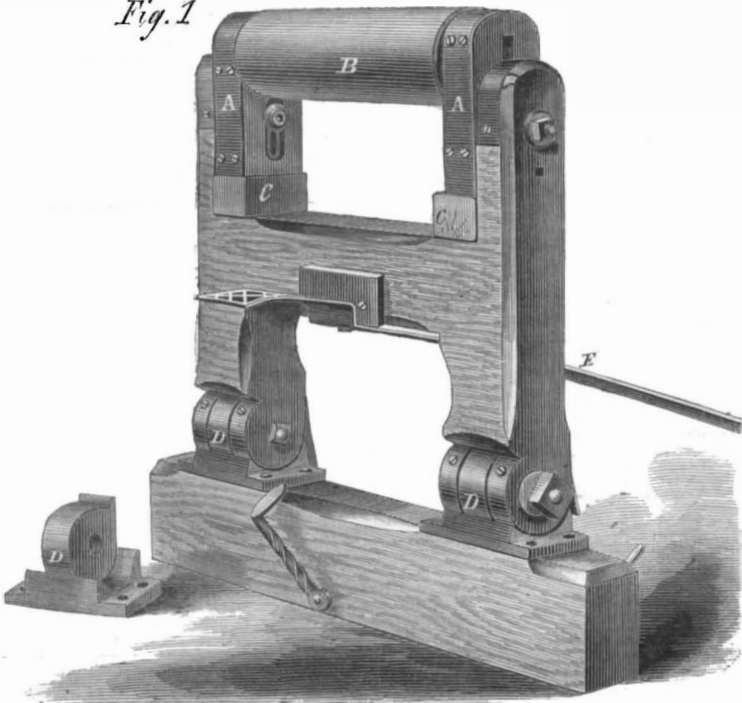
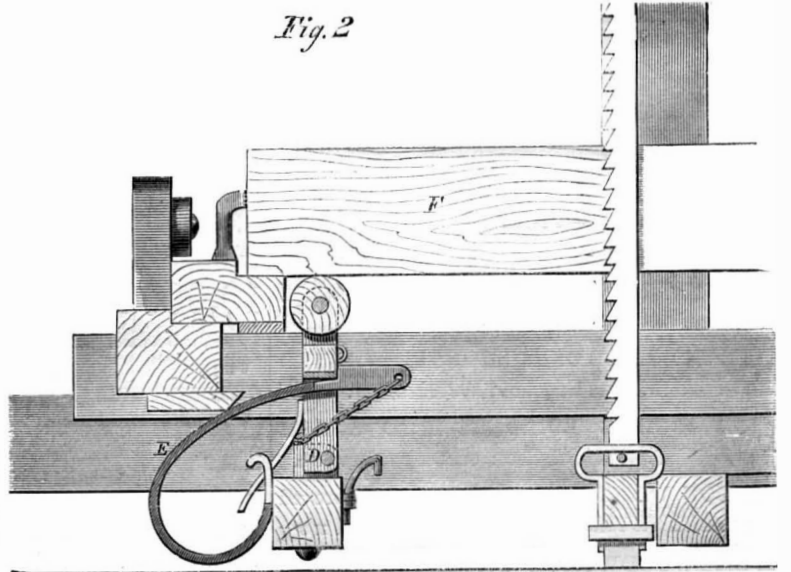


Fig. 2

**CODDINGTON'S PATENT SAW-MILL TRESTLE.**

cross bar. Inside the uprights are two bearing pieces, A, which receive the journals of the roller, B. These bearings can be elevated or depressed, by means of slots through which pass bolts that secure them in any position. Greater security can be afforded by blocks or wedges, C, under their ends. The lower ends of the uprights are provided with rule joints of iron, D, which allow the frame to be thrown into a horizontal position, but secure it from passing the perpendicular in the other direction. A strong spring, E, is used to keep the frame upright, and yet allow it to be depressed by the automatic action of the head and tail blocks of the carriage.

The *modus operandi* is as follows: The frame is secured beneath the log carriage, just in front of the saw, and is readily adjusted to allow the roller, B, to come in contact with the log, F, sustaining a portion of its weight. The log is thus held as firmly as the mill itself, and is not affected by the vibration of the saw. As the tail block approaches the frame it engages with one end of the spring, E, depressing it and allowing the trestle frame to be thrown from its perpendicular. When the pressure is released, the tension of the spring raises the trestle, and thus the operation is continued indefinitely.

This device took the first prize at the late State Fair at Dayton, Ohio, and is claimed to have given perfect satisfaction in all cases. It was patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency Sept. 18, 1866, by Geo. W. Coddington. For further particulars address Coddington & Doty, Middletown, Butler county, Ohio, or Dayton, Ohio.

Chilled Railway Wheels.

The practice with Major Palliser's shot against armor has shown what are the qualities of chilled cast iron, the chill, in this case, extending quite through the casting. It has been demonstrated that it is equal in hardness to hardened steel, and that it requires even greater force to break or deform it. It may be that the startling results obtained at Shoeburyness will serve, in some measure, to account for the universal use of chilled railway wheels in America, and for the leading wheels of engines, and often for the driving wheels themselves as well,

by the late Mr. A. M. Ross, engineer to the Victoria Bridge at Montreal, upon this subject, and which contains this statement, a statement which we know to have been confirmed by the subsequent experience of the engineers of the Grand Trunk Railway. In the International Exhibition of 1862 were a pair of chilled wheels, 2 ft. 9 in. in diameter, which had run upward of 150,000 miles under a heavy post-office van on the Grand Trunk Railway, and, although worn, they were still in good condition. We need not dwell upon the severity of a Canadian winter, nor explain how for months together the road bed—and there is seldom much ballast—is frozen as hard as rock. This, if anything, would be expected to try chilled wheels, yet they are regularly employed for the leading wheels of passenger engines, and breakages, although not absolutely unknown, are at least as infrequent as those of the best makes of English railway carriage tires.

It requires good iron for chilled wheels. That used in America for this branch of manufacture is mostly cold-blast charcoal iron, and it has to be selected and mixed with care, to obtain the proper qualities of strength and hardness of chill. The chill should be from ⅜ in. to ½ in. deep, and should cover the whole tread and the wearing face of the flange. Chilled wheels require especial provision for cooling, after being cast, so as to avoid internal strain from contraction. The wheels do not come out all of exactly the same diameter, but there is no difficulty in mating them in pairs of equal diameter, the greatest variation in the diameters of a thousand 2 ft. 9 in. wheels hardly exceeding ¼ in. The machinery employed for boring is such that the hole is necessarily in the center, so that no eccentricity is possible. The wheels wear evenly and very slowly, until their diameter has been reduced by nearly ¼ in. American iron, of choice quality for chilled wheels, is now being taken to St. Petersburg for casting here the wheels of all the carriage and wagon stock of the St. Petersburg and Moscow Railway. Heretofore the wheels for that line have been imported largely from the States. Our own size of wheel has never been adopted there, and as the weight of disk wheels increases in a higher ratio than that of the increase of diameter simply, we presume that a

tensile strength from 32,000 to 35,102 lbs., or, say, 14½ to 16 tons per square inch. The iron is that known as the Salisbury cold-blast charcoal iron, and is worth about £10 per tun in New York.

A CORRESPONDENT calls our attention to the fact that the Woodhead Tunnel, on the line of the Manchester and Sheffield Railroad, is 18,000 feet long, and, no doubt, the longest in England.

**INVENTORS, MANUFACTURERS.**

The SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN is the largest and most widely circulated journal of its class in this country. Each number contains sixteen pages, with numerous illustrations. The numbers for a year make two volumes of 416 pages each. It also contains a full account of all the principal inventions and discoveries of the day. Also, valuable illustrated articles upon Tools and Machinery used in Workshops, Manufactories, Steam and Mechanical Engineering, Woolen, Cotton, Chemical, Petroleum, and all other Manufacturing Interests. Also, Fire-arms, War Implements, Ordnance, War Vessels, Railway Machinery, Electric Chemical, and Mathematical Apparatus, Wood and Lumber Machinery, Hydraulics, Oil and Water Pumps, Water Wheels, Etc., Household, Horticultural, and Farm Implements—this latter Department being very full and of great value to Farmers and Gardeners, articles embracing every department of Popular Science, which every body can understand and which every body likes to read.

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