clock tower by the 300 gas burners of Mr. Wigham, enhanced by the most elaborate optical aids; and we must say that the contrast was indeed very striking, a few minutes having elapsed before we were able to discover the path of the beam projected by the latter. In the immediate vicinity of the Houses, Mr. Wigham's light is very soft and pleasing to the eye; but at a distance, by no means considerable, it is scarcely visible. Perhaps the proximity of the electric light may contribute to diminish its splendor; if so, the results are all the more in favor of the new machine.

The carbon points are eight inches long and half an inch in thickness. They last for about four or five hours, and then require to be replaced.

Correspondence.

The New Corundum Mines of Pennsylvania.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

In company with Professor Garth and Messrs. Willcox and Green, the undersigned made a second visit to the recently discovered corundum mine, near Unionville, Chester county, Pa. The proprietors, Messrs. Ball, Chandler & Perrey, are now engaged in mining the corundum and preparing it for the market. For the latter purpose, they have erected the appropriate machinery to reduce the corundum to powders of various degrees of fineness. In the reduced state, it has a nearly white appearance and looks exceedingly clean.

The mine in its present state exhibits a good exposure of the nearly vertical bed of corundum. A deep excavation exposes a breast of almost fourteen feet in width, disappearing east and west beneath the superincumbent gravel and clay on the sides of the pit. The crest of the bed, upon which the corundum is being removed by blasting, is about five and a half feet in thickness. It is of course impossible to estimate the extent of the bed of corundum. It probably extends along the breadth of the hill, but may reach in depth for many hundred feet. Professor Garth has recently been investigating the corundum and the associated minerals of this mine and those of North Carolina; and he will shortly present us with a highly interesting and valuable communication on the subject.

JOSEPH LEIDY.

REMARKS BY THE EDITOR.—Corundum, it will be remembered, is the substance chemically known as alumina, which is an oxide of aluminum, being composed of two parts of the metal aluminum and three parts of oxygen gas. An impure variety of corundum or alumina is known as emery, while the purer varieties rank among the precious stones, known as the ruby and the sapphire. Corundum stands next to the diamond in hardness, and the prepared powders mentioned by our correspondent are extensively used in the arts for polishing and grinding purposes.

The Chlorodizing Process of Extracting Silver from Refractory Ores.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

I forward you a specimen of refractory silver ore (from the Gilpin mine near Georgetown, Col.), containing argentiferous galena, sulphuret of silver, black sulphide of silver, green carbonate of copper, covelline, copper pyrites, marcasite and zinc blende.

Enclosed you will find a sample of amalgam obtained from the same grade of ore (mineral from the same vein.) It was worked on a large scale, one tun and a half at a time, by the chloridizing process, and afterwards amalgamated at a cost (here) not exceeding ten dollars per tun, the mineral being delivered at the reduction works.

The specimen of retorted silver is from the same amalgam, and is over 920 fine, a quality which I believe has never before been produced in the United States, especially from refractory ore, except by John N. Palmer, Jr., who, in company with your humble servant, worked the ore above referred to. The ore was chloridized to 9½ per cent.

As much has been said about the impossibility of amalgamating refractory ores of Colorado, I forward you the samples so that you may examine them and test them for the benefit of science; and, if you consider this article worthy of publicity in the columns of your illustrious paper, please insert the facts after having tested them.

Georgetown, Col. PERCIVAL STOCKMAN.

REMARKS BY THE EDITOR.—This result evinces considerable progress in American metallurgy. A low bullion of from 300 to 500 fine used to be an ordinary result. The maximum chlorination by the Stetefeldt furnace is 93½, or two per cent less than by Messrs. Palmer and Stockman.

The Retardation of the Earth's Rotation by Tides.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

Having given John Hepburn, in your number for June 14, permission to ventilate his reasons for holding that the tidal movements cannot influence the earth's rotary motion, please allow me to show why he should change his mind straightway.

Let us suppose that, in the course of a year, the two great tide waves make twelve revolutions, in direct order, that is, from W. to E.: also, that the earth rotates, in the same time and direction, 365 times. It is evident that the earth gains upon the tides over 350 revolutions; which is plainly the same thing, in all its mechanical effects, as if the tides stood still and the earth rotated between them 350 times. And we have here an exact picture of a rotating wheel, to which a brake is applied and held in position by some external power.

I suppose it is well known that the slow retardation of the earth's diurnal motion is an established fact in astronomy. If J. H. will station himself at the opposite celestial pole, perhaps he can favor us with an explanation of this fact.

ORTHODOX.

ALCOHOL FROM FLINT AND QUARTZ.

ABSTRACT OF A RECENT LECTURE BEFORE THE ROYAL INSTITUTION BY PROFESSOR EMERSON REYNOLDS, M. D.

Carbon has hitherto been considered the sole alcohol forming element; but the chief constituent of flint and quartz, namely, silicon, must now be admitted to share in this power, and likewise in the ability to form other remarkable compounds. I have here a quantity of finely divided flint mixed with some powdered fluor spar; when I pour oil of vitriol on the mixture, and apply heat, a colorless gas is obtained, which, when passed into water, produces a highly acid and gelatinous liquid. The gas is a compound of the element fluorine with silicon—the tetrafluoride of silicon—and this, when brought in contact with water, produces an acid called hydrofluosilicic and a quantity of gelatinous hydrate of silica.

The clear acid liquid, when treated with caustic soda, yields this white salt, the fluosilicate of sodium, from which we directly obtain the silicon, as you see, by simply heating with some metallic sodium. In this case the sodium replaces the silicon, the latter separating, as you observe, in the tube as a dark brown substance.

Unlike carbon, silicon in any of its forms easily combines directly with chlorine, producing the liquid chloride which I have in this tube. This is a very volatile body, boiling at 50° C., and is half as heavy again as water. It can also be prepared from silica by heating to full redness the finely divided oxide and carbon in a current of chlorine. In composition, this chloride is the silicon representative of tetra chloride of carbon.

We can easily obtain the impure gas by Wöhler's method, in treating a compound of silicon and magnesium with hydrochloric acid. We thus obtain a colorless, spontaneously inflammable gas, which burns with a bright light on contact with the air. In its pure condition, siliciuretted hydrogen is not spontaneously combustible at ordinary pressure, but in a slightly rarefied atmosphere it easily inflames.

The siliciuretted hydrogen is evidently the chemical analogue of marsh gas, the tetrahydride of carbon.

It is usual to regard marsh gas as the typical carbon compound from which some alcoholic series may be supposed to spring, and, in fact, all the alcohols belonging to the group of which the well known wood spirit and spirit of wine are the chief members are commonly regarded as derivatives of marsh gas, in which a part of or all the hydrogen has been replaced by one or more compound radicals, such as hydroxyl, methyl, ethyl, propyl, etc.

In these cases the carbon of the marsh gas is the grouping element of the compound, or that constituent which serves to bind together the different materials of which the molecular edifice is constructed. In the same way, the silicon in siliciuretted hydrogen may be shown to be the nucleus round which can be grouped hydroxyl, methyl, etc., so as to form the alcohols I shall presently have to refer to.

In 1857 Buff and Wöhler obtained a volatile fuming liquid on heating crystalline silicon nearly to redness in a current of dry hydrochloric acid gas. The precise nature of this liquid was unknown until 1871, when Friedel and Crafts published the results of their admirable researches upon Buff and Wöhler's liquid, and showed that it was a mixture of chloride of silicon with a new body, which proved to be the strict chemical analogue of our well known chloroform, silicon replacing carbon.

$SiHCl^3$ Chloroform. $CHCl^3$.

This body is a colorless, mobile, and very volatile liquid boiling at 35° C. I have a quantity of it in this tube. One of its most remarkable properties is that of exploding with great facility when its vapor is mixed with air. If I pass the vapor of silicon chloroform into water nearly ice cold, a white solid body is obtained without any evolution of hydrogen, and an acid liquid produced. The white solid then collected, washed, and dried at a low temperature, forms a white inflammable powder, which was first described by Buff and Wöhler. Friedel and Ladenburg have shown that this remarkable body is the anhydride of the silico-formic acid. According to the results of my own investigations, the acid liquid to which I referred just now contains, in addition to hydrochloric acid, the true silico-formic acid—a body possessing nearly as energetic reducing properties as the corresponding acid derived from wood spirit.

Starting from silicon chloroform, then, we have been led, by analogical reasoning in the first instance, to infer the existence of a simple silicon alcohol precisely corresponding to wood spirit. On testing this induction by experiment, we have obtained answers which are, so far as they go, altogether favorable to the view just stated.

In the course of their elaborate and able investigation of silicon compounds, Friedel and Crafts discovered that chloride of silicon easily acts upon common alcohol, producing a body which Friedel and Ladenburg have recently shown to be easily attacked by a mixture of sodium with a curious substance contained in this tube—zinc ethyl. The product, when treated with caustic potash, yields a body which bears the same relation to silico propyl alcohol that formic acid does to wood spirit.

This silico-propionic acid is in this tube, and is a white combustible powder, like the silico formic-anhydride. It is soluble in warm caustic potash, but not in caustic soda; by which character it can be distinguished from silica. It is only necessary to state that it can be obtained in aqueous solution, and in the pure state, by Professor Graham's valuable dialytic process.

When chloride of silicon acts upon absolute alcohol a body is obtained which, on treatment with zinc ethyl and sodium, yields an ethereal product from which silico-propionic acid can be obtained by treatment with caustic potash. If, however, instead of using the caustic alkali we continue the action of zinc ethyl and sodium, decompose the products with water in sealed tubes, and distil, a liquid is obtained which contains one of the "alcohols from flint" we are in search of. In this tube I have a small quantity of the alcohol. It is the silico-heptyl alcohol, precisely corresponding to a simple carbon alcohol recently discovered by Nanapetian, both being tertiary alcohols. We owe to Ladenburg the discovery of this lowest known term of alcohols containing silicon. As you can observe, it is a colorless liquid, not unlike the ordinary alcohol of wine. It is insoluble in water, but easily dissolved by spirit and ether. Chemically it acts just like any of the other alcohols, producing ethers, and dissolving the alkali metals to form sodium or potassium alcoholates. When common spirit burns, you are aware that its flame is nearly colorless, but I shall now burn some of our alcohol from flint, and you will find, particularly when we feed the flame with oxygen, that a bright light is emitted.

Clearly defined though this alcohol is, it does not stand alone, for at least one other compound of the same order is known. It was suggested in 1870, by Friedel and Crafts, that silicon ethide—a body easily prepared by the action of chloride of silicon on zinc ethide—might be regarded as the hydride of silico nonyl, and should stand in the same relation to an alcohol that marsh gas does to common wood spirit, or ethyl hydride to ordinary alcohol. This happy idea, when put to the test of experiment, was fully justified by the result, for on treating silicon ethide in essentially the same manner that we should adopt in preparing wood spirit from marsh gas, a colorless liquid, lighter than, and insoluble in, water is obtained. The boiling point of this body is 190° C. It yields an ether with acetic acid, dissolves sodium, forming an alcoholate, and, in fact, conforms to the general habits of the alcohols of the series to which common spirit belongs. It is precisely similar to the nonyl alcohol prepared by Pelouze and Cahours from American petroleum.

Ladenburgh has very recently advanced even beyond the point we have now reached, and has shown that the chloride of silicon can be made to yield two ethers, which correspond, as I may suggest, to silico-nonyl diatomic and triatomic alcohols.

In all the preceding compounds but one atom of silicon is present, and though the silicon in these cases occupies the chief position as the grouping element, we should much like to see silicon uniting with silicon and forming a more condensed compound with hydrogen. Happily, however, very important evidence, even upon this point, is forthcoming, for Friedel and Ladenburg have discovered corresponding hexa-chloride, iodide, and bromide of silicon, and treatment of the hexa iodide with zinc ethyl enables us to obtain the ethide.

It is not improbable that, in the last named compound, we have the starting point of a new series of still more complex bodies, analogous to derivatives of olefiant gas rather than to those of marsh gas.

A rich and beautiful field for chemical research appears to lie before us in tracing out the analogies between the compounds of carbon and silicon, and recognizing the chemical representatives of many of the most complex "organic compounds" in the native silicates which form so large a part of the crust of this earth.

The practical value of scientific research is rarely apparent at first. Who could have suspected that the benzole discovered by the venerable philosopher whose name is so inseparably connected with this institution, would have proved, in the all hands of Perkin and of Hoffman, the chief source of many of the exquisite dyes now largely manufactured in this country? Yet in this, as in a hundred of other instances, the small and apparently useless scientific seedling has gradually expanded into the strong tree, yielding its rich store of useful fruit. Let us hope that a similar future awaits some of the alcohols from flint which have been referred to, and that, in pursuing our studies of the silicon analogues of the more complex carbon compounds, we may be led to appreciate more fully than we have hitherto done the admirable economy and harmony of Nature.

Booming.

"Booming" is the name of an operation with which probably our Eastern readers are not generally familiar. Hence, we extract, from the columns of the *Mining Review*, an explanation of the process as practised by the miners of Colorado. Booms are built and run for two purposes: the discovery of veins hidden under the deep slopes of the mountain sides and the working of gold placers on a large scale.

The reservoir is first constructed at the head of the ground to be worked; into this water is conducted, from the most convenient source still higher up, by flumes or ditches. These reservoirs vary in size from a small pond to an acre or two lake, and the ditches are often eight, ten, and twelve miles long. When the basin is full, and a continuous head of water is in running operation, gates are opened, letting loose the whole volume of the liquid, which tears down the mountain side in a huge volume, sweeping everything before it, carrying tuns of boulders, gravel, and dirt down to the gulch below. If auriferous ground is to be worked, a long and massive wooden flume is built at the foot of the hill, into which the *débris* is carried, with all the force of the falling waters and the sand and rocks washed along in its course while the gold is deposited by its own gravity, behind the riffles in the bottom of the race. These flumes are often thousands of feet long, and as rocks of all sizes and weights are carried along in them, they must be built with great strength and solidity, to withstand the immense wear.

If it is the object, however, merely to uncover the veins of

which no trace can be found by scientific prospecting, no flume is built in the gulch, but the water allowed to take its own course. On its way down the mountain side, it cuts out a huge trough from 20 to 50 feet wide; and if the operation is prosecuted with vigor and plenty of cash, the bed rock is reached and swept clean from top to bottom, and a huge delta of mud, rocks and clay left in the valley below. The water is then shut off, and the owners of the boom examine the clean rock and claim all the veins exposed.

SANITARY NOTES---SEWERAGE AND SEWAGE.

It is no exaggeration to say that the problem of the conversion of the excremental waste of towns and people and the refuse of factories into useful materials is now engaging as much of the attention of intelligent minds throughout the world as any social question. The English press is burdened with publications on this general subject. Chemists, farmers, political economists, engineers, and physicians are all at work upon it. Costly experiments are being constantly made to test the worth of the various proposed plans. Stock companies are formed, whose business is first to make money for themselves at any rate, and, secondly, to benefit the rest of the world by their ventures. From all this excitement we ought to derive much useful information, and, from the experience gained in foreign countries, gather knowledge which may be turned to practical account in solving a problem which, in the natural course of the country's growth, must eventually be forced upon us. In briefly considering the subject, we draw for our facts upon the recent report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts, and premise by explaining what is meant by the words

"SEWER," "SEWERAGE," AND "SEWAGE."

The last two are often confounded; but they signify quite different things. A *sewer* is an underground passage for the conveyance of water, filth and fluid, or half fluid, refuse emptied into it from the smaller drains from houses, factories, and streets. *Sewerage* is a system of sewers or subterranean conduits, and the word refers only to these works or constructions, while *sewage* is the material which is or may be conveyed in sewers. Public health requires that the foul fluids, half solids and solids, resulting from human excretion from the waste of food, from washing, and from the refuse of various manufactures, shall be either speedily removed from among the living, or that the character of these materials shall be so changed that they will not undergo decay. We have therefore to consider, first, the primary means of getting rid of this noxious waste; and second, how to utilize its valuable properties after we have provided for its removal. For merely disposing of human refuse, there are two principal systems to which we shall allude. The first is the

DRY EARTH SYSTEM.

Abundant experience has shown, and in these columns we have repeatedly explained the fact, that earth (not gravel or sand), when carefully dried so that it has lost all coherence or stickiness, and has become a powder, possesses the power of absorbing and reducing to an inodorous form the excretions of the human body, provided it be applied in quantities so as to completely cover and absorb all fluidity thereof. The mass may be removed at convenient times and seasons and used immediately as a fertilizer for land, or it may be dried and employed many times without giving off any offensive odor. Similarly, dry ash of hard coal or anthracite may be used instead of earth.

In densely populated cities and towns there are difficulties inherent in this system which will render its general use impracticable. If it is intended to absorb both the solid and fluid excretions of the human body (and the latter contain far more fertilizing material than the former), four or five pounds of dry earth must be supplied daily for each individual. Thus, in a city of 100,000 people, 250 tuns must be brought in every day from the surrounding country, and a somewhat larger amount carried out. And this must be divided among some 10,000 different houses, each of which must be carefully provided for. At the present high price of labor, it is evident that, financially, such operations are out of the question. The case, however, is altogether different with country houses with land from which the earth may be taken and to which it may be profitably returned. Here the wells will be protected from fouling, the stench of unsightly outhouses prevented, and the annoyance occasioned by frost obviated. In prisons and large establishments where labor is cheap, and possibly in boarding schools, the system may also be advantageously applied. Without proceeding further into a subject which we have already fully treated both in theory and practically, by illustrating and describing the many excellent inventions which have been introduced for its application, we proceed to the second systematic method of disposing of human excretion known as the.

WATER CARRIAGE SYSTEM.

This is by the underground drains and sewers which all compactly built towns are obliged to have in order to get rid of the surface water falling as rain, and also for drainage of the soil. With these sewers, by means of water closets, baths, etc., the interior of dwellings are brought into close connection. Consequently, whatever gases are contained in these underground passages seek to diffuse themselves through the buildings. These gases are dangerous to health, though what the specially noxious element in them is, no one can define.

The sensible properties of sewer air are quite remarkable. It is by no means fœtid, as many people suppose, neither is it pungent or ammoniacal. It is rather negative in character, faint in odor, mawkish, smelling perhaps, more like soap than any other familiar substance. This air frequently escapes into houses, diffusing a virulent poison and carrying with it the seeds of disease; it is subject to pressure from sudden influx of water in rainstorms, and in sea board towns by the action of the tide. It is also caused to rise from the difference of temperature of the house and sewer; and unless the joinings of the soil pipes are perfect, and have not become leaky through contraction and expansion, it is forced out and quickly spreads through the dwelling. Defective traps and similar imperfections in the plumbing also form free vents. For these reasons, it is best to give the whole drainage plan of the house the freest possible communication with the outer air at a point so elevated that the sewer gases cannot fail to be diffused and got rid of. This can readily be done, while building, by carrying the soil pipe, made of iron, at full size, through the roof, and leaving it open like a chimney. By this arrangement all stagnation is prevented; the contents of the house drains are constantly exposed to the oxidizing and purifying influence of currents of air; when rain conductors are filled with water, there is still free escape for the sewer gases; and the water traps throughout the house are relieved from pressure both of the pent up sewer air on the one side, and of suction or atmospheric pressure on the other. In the houses already built, a lead pipe may be readily carried from the highest point of the soil pipe directly through the roof; but the larger the pipe and the straighter its course, the better.

THE TREATMENT AND VALUE OF SEWAGE.

Experience having shown that the best method of getting rid of excretal and other matters is by the water carriage system, the question arises what shall be done with the sewage. As we have above intimated, many and various plans have been proposed, from which the conclusion may be justly reached that the purification of sewage is a possibility to an extent that it may be discharged into running streams without vitiating the water to any extent other than to unfit it for drinking purposes. The writer of the report before us qualifies this view, however, with the opinion that no process has yet been proposed which, unless in exceptional cases, renders the purification an operation of real profit, although it may be conducted so that there shall be some pecuniary return. Before entering upon the description of some of the principal plans, it may not be amiss to add a word as to the value of this waste material The value of the annual voidings of an average individual is, by competent authority, estimated at from $1.61 to $2.01. The value assigned to "average" sewage by the English Rivers Pollution Commission is per 100 tuns $4.10, or about 4 cents per tun. Then sewage of London, for example, is estimated to amount to 260,000,000 tuns annually, which, considered as worth only two cents a tun, aggregates $5,000,000; that of New York would be worth close upon $2,000,000.

THE LIME PROCESS

consists in mixing the sewage with a certain proportion of milk or cream of lime, agitating the mixture violently and then allowing it to subside. There settles from the mixture a copious precipitate of a highly putrescible mud, while the liquid flows off in a tolerably clear condition. As far as purifying the sewage is concerned, the process is a failure. The suspended matter; removed are also found to contain only about one tenth of the valuable constituents; so that, as a manure, the product is of no special merit. The drying of the mud is a very offensive operation. Practised in England, the manure only brought 1s. per tun, and sold sparingly. This sum was about one third its cost of production.

BLYTH'S PROCESS

consists in attempts to recover the ammonia from the sewage. Superphosphate of lime and a salt of magnesia are added, under the supposition that an insoluble phosphate of magnesia and ammonia will be thrown down. Unfortunately, however, this compound is only insoluble in the presence of an excess of ammonia; and, moreover, analyses show that a third part of the phosphoric acid added is left in the solution, proving absolute loss. The English Sewage Commission consider this the worst and most costly plan yet proposed.

HOLDEN'S PROCESS

is a patented operation, and consists in mixing the sewage with sulphate of iron, lime, and coal dust. It not only fails to remove the putrescible organic matters in solution, but actually augments their quantity. An analysis of the air dried mud showed the presence of only ·3 per cent phosphoric acid, ·004 per cent ammonia, and 0·555 per cent of organic nitrogen; so that, as a manure, it is practically worthless.

THE A B C PROCESS

we fully described in a recent issue of our journal. It derives its name from its essential ingredients, alum, blood, clay, and charcoal, which are mixed with water and run into the sewage in a continuous stream. The good results obtained by its use we have already fully detailed.

THE PHOSPHATE PROCESS

is founded on the fact that certain mineral phosphates, especially those containing alumina, when in a hydrated or freshly precipitated state, eagerly combine with the organic matter contained in the sewage, it being sufficient merely to agitate them in the most fœtid sewage to deprive it of all its odor and color, even if tinctorial substances of great intensity be present in the solution at the same time; while the phosphate of magnesia combines with the ammonia contained in the sewage, and precipitates it also in the state of the double phosphate of ammonia and magnesia. The process delays putrefaction in the effluent water, but the amount of ammonia carried down by the precipitate is found to be practically nothing. The manure is of course valuable on account of the proportion of the phosphate used in its manufacture; but it is hardly probable that it could be made the source of extended profit.

MORFIT'S PROCESS

replaces the natural phosphate of alumina by a new artificial material, which is in fact a waste product at present, being the "mother water" as eliminated by the processes of the inventor for the precipitation of pure phosphates of lime from hydrochloric solutions of mineral phosphates of lime. In his recent work on chemical fertilizers, Dr. Morfit says that the precipitate forms a superior special manure for clay soils, and devotes an entire chapter to detailed descriptions of methods for its utilization.

The Largest Railroad Shops in the World.

Located in Cheshire, one of the midland counties of England, and situated on the London and North Western Railway, some five sixths of the distance between the metropolis and Liverpool, is Crewe, a small and insignificant town by itself, but a city of no mean importance when considered in connection with the vast works which it contains. The establishment which supports, and, in fact, forms the town, the population and extent of which is about half that of Worcester, Mass., was originally laid down by George and Robert Stephenson, and is known as the Crewe Works, or, as it would be termed in this country, the shops, of the London and North Western Railway. Here no less than six thousand hands are employed, building or rebuilding the two thousand locomotives used upon the longest of English railways, or working upon the two hundred and twenty engines which, it is calculated, are always at the works for repairs.

A correspondent of the Boston *Journal of Commerce* has recently visited this great factory, and, from the graphic letter which he writes, we extract the following interesting particulars: He says that a most extraordinary variety of especial tools is employed, among others several testing machines for trying the strength of materials used. Samples of every variety of material, and especially the boiler iron and steel, are submitted to these machines. For the proving of the iron for axles, there was a little machine in which a sample was submitted to a rapid series of torsional strains till it broke, the number of these, registered by a counter, being an index of the character of the iron. As an illustration of the attention to the smaller details of expense, a cleaning machine was running in the brass shops, consisting of an endless belt studded with small magnets, which, passing through the mass of filings in an inclined trough, thoroughly cleaned them of all fragments of iron. A large number of milling machines were in use for smaller work, especially such as finishing the heads of nuts and bolts, and many small bench shaping and slotting machines were running as many as 160 strokes per minute; engaged in a similar work, by using cheap labor (boys of twelve), the latter could compete with the former. Among other larger machines was one for grinding large plane surfaces, such as base and frame plates and side plates of tenders, instead of planing them, the work moving in a trough containing water, and the whole arrangement being quite on the plan of a Daniells planer. Much smaller flat work was finished by grinding in machines arranged to produce a level surface by self-operating attachments.

Perhaps the most remarkable thing in this part of the works was the huge lathe room, more than two hundred feet long, and filled with a double row of driving wheel lathes. Many of these were of eight feet swing, and of the heaviest description, carrying four cutters at once. A remarkable machine, near these, was a milling tool for milling out the inside cranks. All the engines have inside connections, the axles are forged solid and milled, instead of being turned out. The cutter of this machine was four feet in diameter and about five inches fall. There were here many other peculiar tools, such as a machine milling two key ways, exactly at right angles, at once, in the two ends of a locomotive axle. Also a wheel rimming machine, and another for slotting out in a proper curved form, the inside rims of locomotive wheels between the spokes.

A new process for making steel tires is here employed. The steel is cast in the form of truncated cones, the smaller end to form the outside of the tire. While still hot it is introduced to the horizontal steam hammers. These consist of a couple of enormous masses of iron, each running on a little track, and moved back and forth, by means of piston and rod, by a large steam cylinder behind each, the steam valves of each of which cylinders are operated by a common lever. By passing through two sets of these hammers, the steel is thoroughly worked up, and leaves them in the form of a thick disk. Carried from these, it passes to an upright hammer, with a sharp conical end to the striking part. This soon forces a hole through the disk, which, being turned round and round, and over and over, becomes a thick ring. Again heated, it goes to another hammer. This hammer has a very heavy anvil, with a peculiar slope to one side, from which projects a stiff horn. Upon this horn the ring is hung. The face of the striking part is formed to the slope of the rim and flange of the wheel, and as the workmen manipulate the wheel under its blows, slipping one portion after another of the rim up to receive the stroke, the whole tire gradually expands to the requisite diameter, and is ready to be turned on the inside and driven on to its wheel.

These details were noticed in but a small portion of the vast factory, but serve to give an idea of the completeness and magnitude of its construction and fittings.