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Contents:

(Illustrated articles are marked with an asterisk.)

Alumina, from the clay to the sap- phire	36	Patents, recent American and for- eign	41
Amazons, up the	40	Pen, an excellent	37
Answers to correspondents	43	Pisciculture, in its sanitary and commercial aspects	96
Bolt fastener, improved*	39	Prime movers and their recent progress, the	33
Brake, the vacuum	39	Pruning shears, improved*	39
Business and personal	43	Railway receipts and expenses	37
Capitol at Hartford, Conn., the new State*	31	Ramming the mold	39
Coal tar products	36	Rhinoceros, death of the big	37
Comet, Prosper Henry's*	34	Ruggles, Draper	33
Floral ornament, a new	37	Science Record for 1874	32
Gold coin, the wear of	40	Scientific and practical informa- tion	41
Heat, Professor Guthrie on	40	Steam omnibus and street car, a new	35
Hours of labor, the	37	Testing the quality of iron, steel, and other metals*	38
Iron direct from the ore, wrought*	35	Tramway and vehicle, improved*	34
Law suit, a curious	34	Tubercle, by milk, propagation of	34
Magnetism and the nodular form of iron	36	Value of a kernel of corn, the	32
New books and publications	41	Vienna exhibition and its results	32
Nickel in Missouri	37	Williams, Jephtha A.	34
Nut lock, improved*	39	Williams, Lloyd A.	33
Patent decisions, recent	41		
Patent Office printing	32		
Patents, official list of	44		
Patents, official list of Canadian	44		

THE VIENNA EXHIBITION AND ITS RESULTS.

The Vienna Exhibition closed November 1 last, and that wonderful display of industrial products, which had been gathered with so much toil, and at such expense of time and money, from every quarter of the globe, has been broken up, and its exhibits are now scattered as widely as before their collection. The greatest of international exhibitions has become a thing of the past. Its influence, however, remains and will long be felt in every part of the world. Even on our side of the Atlantic, thousands of miles from the strange, busy scene in which we, of all civilized nations, took least part, we feel that, in some respects, we have been benefitted by the most important and most creditable of all Austrian enterprises.

We felt it our duty to warn the public of the risks which were to be met by those who proposed to take into Austria valuable inventions. We considered the defective patent code of that country no safeguard to inventors, and showed that, despite the promises—still unfulfilled—of liberal changes, any really valuable improvement would be likely to be pirated, unless, as could seldom be the case, the exactions of the law were fully complied with. These facts were so well exhibited that but few of our great inventions were seen at Vienna, and the United States section became conspicuous for its small extent; and our own people, visiting the *Ausstellung*, were struck with the barrenness of the American department. We were, however, well represented in quality, if not in quantity; and if we may judge from the official record of awards, the jury was very favorably impressed. The proportion borne by the number of awards of Medals of Progress to the number of Medals of Merit granted, as well as the large proportion of awards made to our small number of exhibitors, are both high, in Group XIII (machinery). The medals are nominally of equal value, but the second class mentioned are given for abstract merit, while the first named were given only where merit was accompanied by evidence of a substantial and meritorious advance, effected since the date of the Paris Exposition, in devices deemed specially meritorious at that time. The United States brought away one third more medals of the first than of the second kind, and is, we believe, the only nation in which the comparison does not give a reverse proportion.

The real results of this enterprise are properly gauged, however, by a broader view than this. The distribution of medals is but an incident of the grand work. Comparatively few of the exhibits taken to Vienna by our people will be brought back to the United States. They have found purchasers from all parts of the world, and go among strangers, civilized and uncivilized, to spread abroad the fame of American mechanics and Yankee inventions. Our sewing machines are distributed from St. Petersburg to Calcutta, and our agricultural implements are found in every grain raising district from Great Britain to China, and our wood and metal working tools are almost as familiar to the Hungarian and the Bohemian as to our own mechanics. In the Chinese and Japanese sections, even, it was noticed very early in the season that nearly every article was marked *verkauft* (sold) and the unique productions of the Orientals thus also become distributed throughout the world. From the farthest east, from north and south and west, the most intelligent and the most enterprising of every nation have met to see what others have accomplished, and to learn whatever may most aid their own advancement.

It is this universal dissemination of the acquired knowledge of every department of industry that constitutes the most important work of an international exhibition. Bringing together, as it does, the products of the labor of every nation, and displaying the natural resources of every country to all who can purchase the one or who can develop or

utilize the other, bringing the nations of every part of the globe into close communion, and presenting to all the best fruits of the labors of each, the most advanced and most thoroughly civilized are stimulated by competition to greater exertions, and to the accomplishment of still nobler results; while those countries which are farthest behind in the great march of human progress are taught what has been done by others, and are awakened and urged to make an earnest effort to overtake those who are now so far in advance of them. All are taught that nations, like individuals, may choose between poverty and competence, if not affluence, and that intelligence, honesty, industry, and frugality invariably bring their reward.

Now that the Austrian Exhibition of 1873 has become one of the great by-gones, we look forward with renewed zeal to the successful inauguration of our own coming Centennial International Exhibition of 1876. The time for preparation is none too ample, and we anticipate with anxious as well as hopeful interest the opening of its

“ * * * * * long laborious smiles

Of palaces; lo! the giant aisles
Rich in model and design,
Harvest tools and husbandry,
Loom and wheel and enginery,
Secrets of the sullen mine,
Steel and gold, and corn and wine,
Fabric rough or fairy fine,
Sunny tokens of the line,
Polar marvels, and a feast
Of wonder out of West and East,
And shapes and hues of part divine
All of beauty, all of use,
That one fair planet can produce,
Brought from under every star,
Blown from over every main,
And mixed, as life is mixed with pain,
The works of peace with works of war.

PATENT OFFICE PRINTING.

A correspondent of the *New York World*, writing to that paper from Washington, gives some items of public printing done by the Congressional Printer, among which is the sum of \$142,793 charged for Patent Office printing. On this the writer complains in the following style:

“I selected the Patent Office from the Interior Department for this reason: the work done for that institution is not paid for by taxes, but by the people that take out patents. It is the people's money, not the Administration's, and in justice the work should be let out to the lowest bidder after advertisement. In this item 25 per cent, if not more, could be saved. In this connection the Government is running a monthly periodical for \$1 a year, called the *Official Gazette*, a most flagrant abuse of public confidence and rather a small business for a government spending its \$300,000,000 a year to engage in.”

We fail to perceive where the “flagrant abuse of public confidence” would come in, even if it were true that the *Official Gazette* were a monthly periodical run at \$1 a year. Unfortunately it is not true. The price is \$6 a year, and it is published weekly. The publication is, however, carried on at a heavy expense to the government; but as it has been expressly ordered by Congress, the Commissioner of Patents only discharges his simple duty in attending to its publication, and the manner in which the work is produced is highly creditable to him. The *Official Gazette* takes the place of the former annual volumes, known as the Patent Office Reports, on which Congress was accustomed to spend far more than the weekly *Gazette* costs.

The Patent Reports were printed for free distribution by members of Congress, and the same practice is substantially maintained in respect to the *Gazette*. The public demand for it is far from sufficient to pay its support.

Ten thousand copies of the *Gazette* are printed every week, of which three thousand copies go to subscribers, who pay \$6 a year, and seven thousand copies are given away to members of Congress, other departments of the government, courts, libraries, etc. The total cost of the publication is not far from sixty-four thousand dollars a year. The annual loss to the government by the publication, is a little under fifty thousand dollars a year.

Prior to the establishment of the *Official Gazette*, the patent claims were published in the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*, and our publication of them was a matter of great convenience and advantage to the Patent Office. On the basis of the amount now paid out by the government for similar work, our publication of the claims must have saved the Patent Office from twenty to forty thousand dollars a year, during a period of nearly twenty years. But we never received a single centaro from the Patent Office for the service; indeed we could never prevail upon the department to be so liberal as to furnish us with a free copy of the claims for our printers to set up the types. On the contrary, we were compelled to pay the Patent Office from five hundred to a thousand dollars a year to furnish us with the copy. After the issue of our paper, the Patent Office was then accustomed to expend a few cents weekly in purchasing extra copies of the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*, out of which it scissored the printed claims for use in the various examiners' rooms, and in connection with the drawings, and the preparation of the annual reports.

The weekly publication of the claims is desirable as a matter of convenience, to the Patent Office, and to a limited number of persons, consisting mostly of patent agents and attorneys. But the public in general have little use therefor. We believe it would be a much better plan to enlarge the *Gazette* so as to give the specifications and drawings in full of all patents issued. This would form an invaluable work of great importance to the public, and, if issued at, say, \$25 a year, would doubtless be self-supporting, provided the free list were wholly suspended, and the best economy practiced in the printing.

SCIENCE RECORD FOR 1874.

The new volume of this work is now upon the press, and will be ready for delivery about the 20th of January. The forthcoming book is one of unusual interest and value. It embraces a condensed account of the leading discoveries and improvements in the various branches of science, including Chemistry, Metallurgy, Mechanics, Engineering, Electricity, Light, Heat, Sound, Technology, Pisciculture, Botany, Horticulture, Agriculture, Rural and Household Economy, Materia Medica, Therapeutics, Hygiene, Natural History, Zoology, Meteorology, Terrestrial Physics, Geography, Geology, Mineralogy, Astronomy, Biography, etc.

The various departments are illustrated with suitable engravings. In Metallurgy, for example, we have illustrations of Siemens' furnace and a description of his new and successful method of making iron and steel direct from the ore. This is accomplished at a cost of from 20 to 50 per cent less than by the present blast furnaces. The subject is of importance to iron workers. In Mechanics and Engineering, we have accounts of new railway improvements, novel machines, and a great variety of new devices. Technology is full of new information, and there is hardly a worker in any branch of the applied arts, but will here find some new hint, recipe, or suggestion, of more worth to him than many times the cost of the book. In Agriculture, we have accounts of new methods for preparing manures with economy, improvements in treating soils, new and useful plants and vegetables. Among the latter is illustrated a new and early variety of the potato, from which six hundred pounds are raised for every pound of seed planted, a most valuable acquisition for a l who maintain gardens. Natural History, Zoology, Pisciculture, all are full of interest. Portraits of prominent scientific men and discoverers are given, among which we notice those of Liebig, Draper, Proctor, Lockyer, Baker. The miscellaneous department will be found especially attractive and useful. Here we have a series of engravings illustrating the various devices employed to assist learners in drawing. Among these is a new reflecting drawing board, which, by means of a simple pane of glass, throws down upon the paper the outline of the picture that is to be copied. Then we have the pentagraph, the perspective rulers, sketching frames, reducing and copying glasses. All are so described as to enable any person of intelligence, to make and use the several instruments. This series of engravings, with the practical instructions given for drawing, will greatly facilitate and encourage all persons, old or young, who wish to acquire the art of drawing. Not only are the various instruments shown, but their manner of use in actual practice is illustrated. *Science Record* for 1874 forms a handsome octavo volume of 600 pages, nicely bound, uniform with previous issues. Price \$2.50. Published by Munn & Co., 37 Park Row, N. Y., and by them sent everywhere on receipt of price. May be ordered through any book or news store.

THE VALUE OF A KERNEL OF CORN.

In considering the curious and interesting chemical nature of corn, we shall use the word as applied to wheat, as well as to maize. The two grains are chemically constituted very much alike, and what may be said of one applies with almost equal truth to the other. Both are made up of starch, dextrin, gum, sugar, gluten, albumen, and phosphates of lime, magnesia, and potassa, with silica and iron. Wheat contains about double the amount of lime and iron, and considerable more phosphoric acid, but less magnesia and soda. The maize seeds are rich in a peculiar oil, which is nourishing and highly conducive to the formation of adipose or fatty matter; hence, the high utility of corn in fattening animals. What a remarkable combination of chemical substances is stored up in a kernel of corn? It may almost be said to be an apothecary's shop in miniature; and the order and arrangement of the mineral elements and vegetable compounds, needed to render the comparison more apt, are not wanting. For some reason, Nature places the most valuable substances in a kernel nearest the air and sunlight, while the little cells of the interior are full of the material used to keep erect and tidy our collars and neck bands—starch. With a moistened cloth, we can rub off from the kernel about three and a half per cent of woody or strawy material, of not much nutritive value; and then we come to a coating which holds nearly all the iron, potash, soda, lime, phosphoric acid and the rich nitrogenous ingredients. This wrapper is the storehouse upon whose shelves are deposited the mineral and vegetable wealth of the berry. Whence come these chemical agents? By what superlative cunning are they grouped within the embrace of this covering? They come of course from the soil; and by the mysterious and silent power of vital force, they have been raised, atom by atom, from their low estate, and fitted to perform the high offices of nutrition in the animal organisms. And should we not appropriate them to our use as the most carefully adjusted of all materials designed for human aliment? Certainly we should; but do we? Unfortunately we cannot render an affirmative answer. The sharp teeth of our burr mills drive ruthlessly through the rich wrappers of the kernel, and then torn fragments pass to the bolt, and from that to the barn or stable; the animals obtain the nutritious gluten, and the starch, in the form of fine flour, is set aside for family use. But it is not designed to enlarge upon this point. Let us look at the chemical offices the substances found in the kernel of corn subserve in the animal economy.

Starch is the wood or coal which, under the influence of oxygen, is to be consumed or burned to maintain animal warmth. It passes in as pure fuel, it is oxidized, and the ashes rejected through the respiratory organs. The warmth imparted by this combustion is necessary to the proper ful-

filment of the functions of the body. Of these functions, those of digestion and assimilation are the most important. The digestive apparatus receives the gluten and the starch of the grain; the latter is pushed forward to be burned, the former enters the circulation; and out of its contained iron, potash, soda, magnesia, lime, nitrogen, etc., are manufactured all the important tissues and organs of the body. All of the iron is retained in the blood, together with much of the soda and phosphoric acid; the lime goes to the bones, and the magnesia very abruptly leaves the body, as it seems to be very plainly told that it is not wanted. Such, in brief, are the uses which the organic and inorganic constituents of a kernel of corn subserve in the chemistry of animal life.

The changes which they are made to undergo in the laboratory are almost equally interesting and important. Fecula, or starch, is a body of great interest, and is not found alone in corn. There is scarcely a plant or part of a plant which does not yield more or less of this substance. What a curious vegetable is the potato! Swollen or puffed out by the enormous distention of the cellular tissue in which the starch is contained, it seems almost ugly in its deformity. It is little less than a mass of starch when the watery part has been evaporated.

If we separate the starch from the gluten in corn, and boil it a few minutes with weak sulphuric acid, it undergoes a remarkable change, and becomes as fluid and limpid as water; and if we withdraw the acid, and evaporate to dryness, we have a new body, a kind of gum called dextrin. But if we do not interrupt the boiling when it becomes thin and clear, but continue it for several hours, and then withdraw the acid by chemical means, we have remaining a liquid, very sweet to the taste, which will, if allowed to separate, solidify to a mass of grape sugar. This is the method of changing corn into sirup and sugar. What is most extraordinary in this process is the fact that the acid undergoes no diminution or change. The play of chemical affinities lies between the amide and the elements of water, grape sugar containing more oxygen and hydrogen, compared with the quantity of carbon, than the starch. Nothing can be more striking than these changes. From the kernel of corn we obtain starch, this we change easily into gum, and, by the aid of one of the most powerful and destructive acids, transform it into sirup and sugar.

We are now to consider another most extraordinary change which corn is capable of undergoing, that of being transformed into whiskey or alcohol. If we take the sweet liquid obtained by the infusion of malted corn, and subject it to a temperature of 60° or 70° Fah., it soon becomes turbid and muddy; bubbles of gas are seen to rise from all parts of the liquid, the temperature rises, and there are signs of chemical action going on in it. After a while, it slackens and soon stops altogether. Examination shows that it has now completely lost its sweet taste, and acquired another quite distinct. An intoxicating liquid is found, and if we place it in a still, we obtain a colorless, inflammable liquid, easily recognized as alcohol. By a peculiar arrangement of the condensing apparatus of the still, a portion of the grain, oils, and a large amount of water are allowed to go over with the alcohol, and this constitutes whiskey.

This is an example of the change called vinous fermentation. The influence of a ferment or decomposing azotized body upon sugar is strange and quite incomprehensible. Through its agency, we may cause the highly organized kernel of corn to take another step downward towards a dead inorganic condition. We can transform the alcohol over into acetic acid or vinegar, or the sugar may be formed into one of the most curious organic acids, the lactic. As in these processes, we follow the kernel of corn through the various changes, first into gum, then into sugar, then alcohol, then vinegar, and ultimately into carbonic acid and water, we obtain an imperfect idea of the marvels of vital chemistry. The chemistry of a kernel of corn is a comprehensive topic, and to be considered even in its outlines would supply material sufficient for a volume. The aim has been to group together a few of the most interesting points, and thus awaken a desire for a more complete and satisfactory investigation.

THE PRIME MOVERS AND THEIR RECENT PROGRESS.

The prime movers remaining unconsidered in our last issue are the heat engines. It was first pointed out by Benjamin Thompson, of New Hampshire, whose fame was won abroad at about the time of the war of the Revolution, and who was made Count Rumford in Europe, that heat was not a substance, as had been previously supposed, but that it was a kind of motion. In his paper, published by the Royal Society in 1793, he described experiments which not only proved this now well known and universally admitted fact, but also furnished data for estimating very closely the value of the "mechanical equivalent" of a unit of heat.* Sir Humphrey Davy, whose attention may have been called to the subject by Rumford's paper, in the following year made his celebrated corroborative experiment, melting ice, in an atmosphere below the freezing temperature, by friction, and published his acquiescence in the dynamic theory, becoming one of the earliest disciples of Rumford. Subsequently, the beautiful method of Mayer and the excellent work of Joule determined with precision the fact that the heat energy of a British thermal unit has an equivalent in mechanical power whose measure is 772 pounds raised one foot high. In heat engines, it is impossible to obtain all of this power from the heat obtainable from any source. If coal is burned, the heat developed becomes wasted, to a certain extent, in transmis-

*Professor Titcomb estimates this value, from Rumford's data, at within 20 per cent of the true value, and Professor Thurston, using a more correct measure of the horse power, estimates it at 784 foot pounds, or within about 1 1/2 per cent of the value now accepted—772 foot pounds.

sion to the prime mover, and a very large quantity is lost in the machine itself in many ways which have been already explained in these columns. It thus happens that, while the heat obtained from a pound of coal should do work equivalent to raising a pound weight to a height of two thousand miles, our engines are so imperfect that our best builders decline to guarantee a tenth of this duty with even very large engines of the most perfect known design. In an editorial article, published in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, January 11, 1873, we exhibited the reasons for this serious waste of power, and showed how far improvement is possible in heat engines working on known principles, and that the range of increased efficiency left to be effected by this improvement amounts to about 15 per cent in the engine and 30 per cent in the boiler of the steam engine, when working between the present limits of temperature. It is impossible to fix a limit to the gain by elevation of temperature and pressure and increased expansion.

We can record no important advance in steam engineering since that date. The use of the compound engine is becoming more general, and progress in the direction of higher steam pressure, and greater expansion is causing gradual modification of old forms of boilers to meet safely the higher pressures and the so-called "safety" or "sectional" boilers are coming into use still more extensively in consequence of this change. No great improvement has been recently effected either at home or abroad. In Europe, as was stated in the letters of our Vienna correspondent, the practice in steam engines is passing through the same phase of experiment and revolution which was witnessed in this country fifteen years ago in the period of the great contests of Sickles and Corliss for supremacy in the then just opening field.

To-day a pound and a half of coal per horse power per hour represents the highest economy of the best classes of large engines; and for ordinary sizes, such as drive our mills and our workshop machinery, double that expenditure is not considered extravagant. We can only hope to see these figures greatly reduced by some now unimagined and complete revolution in engineering. Such a revolution is by no means impossible or perhaps even improbable, and it would be unwise to neglect any suggestion which looks promisingly toward such an inestimably important advance.

The immediate and well known directions in which engineers are seeking to improve the steam engines look to the prevention of external losses of heat by radiation and conduction, and to the reduction of internal losses due to cooling of the steam cylinder and to condensation of the prime steam, or to liquefaction by expansion and re-evaporation during the exhaust.

The first is accomplished very thoroughly by means of the many sorts of excellent "felting" now in the market, and by "lagging." The second is secured by superheating and by mixture of steam with air to a slight extent in non-condensing engines, and by the adoption of the "compound" engine, invented by Wolff a half century or more ago, long before the use of high steam and great expansion gave it its proper field.

Attempts have been frequently made, and a very promising one has been chronicled in our columns during the past year, to save and utilize the exhaust heat of the non-condensing steam engine, by applying it to the evaporation of some very volatile liquid, which is then applied to a supplementary engine. The real competition here lies between these "binary vapor" engines and the common condensing engine. The former would seem the more economical, and we are awaiting with interest the report of the performance of the engine which, it has been stated by the inventor, Mr. Ellis, is to be designed and tested by one of our most distinguished engineers. As we have already had occasion to remark, the effort to improve this class of prime movers is required to be exerted rather in removing the objections of the expense of the secondary fluid, the danger of loss by leakage, and the infinite annoyance, and generally the danger also, which attends its escape. These difficulties removed, a simple, durable, and properly designed machine of this class will find a ready market and will mark a decided advance, if in first cost and expense of maintenance it can compete successfully with the steam engine. Remembering that the economical value of a fluid depends simply upon the effectiveness with which it acts as a storehouse—a reservoir—of heat, and the advantages which it presents as a receiver and a dispenser of that heat, and remembering also that the mechanical effect depends just as much upon the volume as well as the density, upon the distance through which its pressure is exerted as well as upon the amount of that pressure, we can see that the value of any fluid as a medium of power transmission is not measured simply by its pressure at any given temperature. Up to the present time the vapor of water has been found, all things considered, the best single fluid for use in heat engines.

Air has been used very frequently in the production of power in heat engines, but it has not yet become a really successful and satisfactory motor. The convenience of obtaining an ample supply of air, its freedom from liability to produce destructive explosions, and the completeness of its expansive action, are important advantages, but they seem to be more than compensated by the difficulty of managing the fluid at the very high temperature at which it must be worked, the bulk and cost of construction and maintenance of the engine, and by difficulties, inherent in all known designs, of obtaining prompt and complete conveyance of heat into and out of the mass of air employed. Sixty years ago Dr. Robert Stirling proposed to use air in a heat engine, and his crude design was improved by James Stirling, who worked at the problem twenty years later. Our distinguished

fellow citizen, Ericsson, still later, and nearly a quarter of a century ago, designed a form of engine which was so successful that it still continues in use, as subsequently improved by its inventor. Shaw's engine and that of Rope have also met with some success; and the very promising engine of Wilcox, when just seeming most successful, disappeared, for reasons to us unknown. The superheated air engine of Leavitt is the latest example of this class which has come to our notice, but we now hear nothing more of that. At present, we see nothing specially noteworthy in this field of invention. We have indicated the difficulties of the problem, and leave the matter in the hands and minds of the ingenious and experienced mechanics who read our paper, and hope that we may yet be called upon to record the performance of an engine which shall produce the horse power for the expenditure of a pound of coal per hour, as is said already to have been done, and without burning itself out after a few weeks of good work. A "furnace gas engine," or one which uses in its cylinder the products of combustion, will probably prove the most economical form.

Gas engines are another class of prime movers from which much has been expected, but with which little success has been yet obtained. They offer nearly all the advantages of air engines, with the additional one of readily obtaining high pressure; but possess disadvantages peculiar to themselves which have, as yet, effectually prevented their introduction to any considerable extent. The first engine which came prominently before the public, the Lenoir engine, awakened much interest both among engineers and with the public. Using an explosive mixture, fired by electricity, the pressure was irregular, the engine noisy and wasteful of power, and the voltaic battery was a troublesome and costly appendage. The later use of a much smaller battery and the spark of the inductorium reduced but has not eliminated these objections. The Hugon engine next came into notice, and in this machine, by igniting the charge by means of an ingeniously arranged gas jet, this great objection to the use of exploding gases was done away with. In both these engines, the machine itself was quite similar in its details to the ordinary steam engine. The Otto and Langen engine, recently introduced abroad and noticed in our Vienna correspondence last summer, acts much like a Cornish pumping engine. The explosion of the gas drives the heavily loaded piston rapidly to the top of the cylinder, and, as it descends, its weight exerts a useful power. It is economical, using scarcely half the gas required by the earlier engines, but it is more rattling and irregular in its action than even they were. The most recent gas engine is, we believe, that of Brayton, in which explosion is avoided and of which, it is claimed, the economy equals that last mentioned. It seems a most promising invention, and we hope that time will prove its claims well founded. A good gas engine will find a large market. Its motion must be steady, its gases should be gradually burned instead of exploded, and it should not be injured by the high temperature of the products of combustion, nor should it be subject to rapid deterioration by wear or by any other cause.

We have but superficially glanced over this vast and important field, and have laid before our readers the present situation as respects the progress of the prime movers. Were not our limits so restricted, we should readily find much more to write on this subject, but we hope that we have at least set some active and fruitful brains and some experienced and skillful hands on the right track in a work of the highest importance to mankind.

We do not expect soon to see steam superseded, but we do anticipate that other motors will share the field with it to a far greater extent than has been yet the case, and we also are very greatly disinclined to believe that the steam engine itself has even approached the limit of its development.

OBITUARY.

Jephtha A. Wilkinson.

The last day of the last year brought to a close the eventful life of this venerable and vigorous man. Born in Providence, R. I., at a very early age he exhibited a singular mental activity in the form of what is now popularly termed "go-ahead-iveness." He was always engaged in driving forward some striking enterprise. He served in the war of 1812. Invented a machine for making weaver's reeds, was one of the first inventors of repeating fire arms and cannon also of the planing machine and of the rotary printing press. He was a man of great intelligence and remarkable memory. He passed away in the 83d year of his age.

Lloyd A. Williams.

Lloyd A. Williams, late Chief Engineer in the navy, died recently at his residence on Rood street, Georgetown, D. C., in the forty-second year of his age. Chief Engineer Williams was a native of Washington, and entered the service of the United States on the 16th of February, 1852. His total sea service was eight years and five months. His last cruise was on the Colorado, which arrived at the Portsmouth, N. H., navy yard in June, 1872. During this cruise he contracted rheumatism, while in the Gulf of Mexico, from which disease he suffered greatly, and retired in consequence shortly after, in conformity with the act of August 3, 1861.

Draper Ruggles.

Draper Ruggles, of the firm of Ruggles, Nourse & Mason, predecessors of the Ames Plow Company (thirty years ago), in making agricultural implements at Worcester, died a few days ago, aged seventy-four.