

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

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[NEW SERIES.]

NEW YORK, JULY 8, 1876.

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IMPROVED UNIVERSAL MILLING MACHINE.

The universal milling machine has long been known as one of the most useful of machines, on account of its adaptation to produce a large range of work in the making of small tools. It is readily applied to the execution of the endless variety of small jobs which, without it, have to be done, in every machine shop, by hand labor. The size of milling machines heretofore made has been suitable for the work upon twist drills, mills with spiral or straight teeth, the cutting of small gears, grooving, slotting, and all ordinary operations of milling upon tools usually employed on sewing machine work and other light machinery, and also by gun makers.

The machine represented in the engraving is of a larger size and has important additions to enlarge its range of work. It is provided with an adjustable center for supporting the end of the arbor carrying the cutters or mills. By the use of gearing upon the head of the machine, it is capable of making very heavy cuts. The anti-friction form of spindle and boxes are retained, and both spindle and boxes are of cast steel, hardened and ground. All the motions for producing angles, spirals, and bevels in use upon the smaller machine are applied to this larger size. The apparatus is especially designed for use by engine and locomotive builders, and upon a heavy class of machine tools.

Further information can be obtained by addressing the makers, Brown & Sharpe Manufacturing Company, Providence, R.I. The machine itself may be seen in the Centennial Exposition, in Machinery Hall, where it is located near the large Corliss engine.

New Test for Nitric Acid in Water.

Nitric acid is one of the few acids all the neutral salts of which are soluble in water, rendering it impossible to precipitate it as we do sulphuric and other acids. A large number of tests have been proposed, and several are in use, a very delicate one being brucine, to which it imparts an intense red color. Professor A. Vogel, of Munich, employs gold leaf, which dissolves in the aqua regia formed on adding hydrochloric acid. If 1-2 cubic inches of water be mixed with hydrochloric acid and gold leaf, and evaporated, a large percentage of nitrates is indicated by the gold leaf growing smaller, and the solution turning yellow. If the quantity of nitrates is small, the gold is detected by chloride of tin; and even when very little gold has been dissolved, a light red precipitate will be noticed on standing. The advantage of this is that no sulphuric acid is employed, as this frequently contains nitric acid and other oxides of nitrogen, which make the reaction doubtful.

The Hog Bouncer--A Novel and Useful Invention.

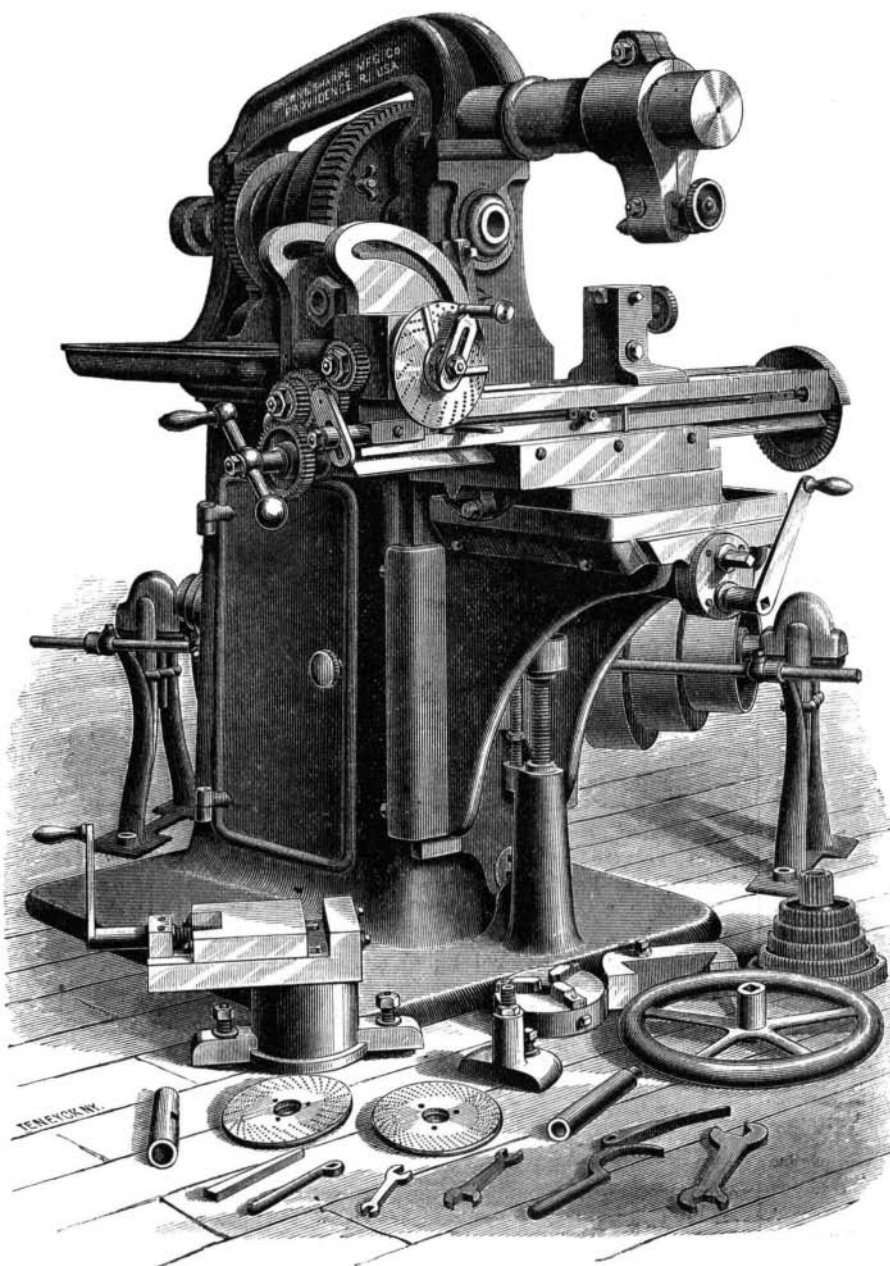
The above is the name of a simple device invented by the cattle yard men at West Albany, New York, to induce hogs to move, from the cars in which they are transported, into the yard. Pigs, as a rule, are not of accommodating dispositions; and when it comes to prevailing upon a car load of them to move along upon a narrow gangway, the first ones that start upon the plank are apt to decline to proceed further, and so block the egress of the rest. This necessitates an astonishing amount of patience and beating, besides unlimited strong language, and of course often delays a cattle train for some time. The new invention for persuading the animal to pass on is the hog bouncer, made by bringing one end of the gangway plank to a firm support; then under the other end, two double car springs are placed. A powerful lever and a spring catch complete the device. Before the car door is opened, the platform is carried down so as to compress the springs by the lever, and the catch is hooked. The hogs are then allowed to pass along the platform, and, so long as they move along properly, the plank is undisturbed; but as soon as a crowd congregates and vociferously objects to going further, the catch is sprung. One end of the platform flies about three feet upward, and the result is a shower of living porkers, shot over the heads and upon the soft bodies of the drove. They are seldom injured, but vastly astonished; and it is needless to add that the blockade is at once dispelled. The drovers find this device, ridic-

ulous as it is, very useful in saving time and trouble, especially when, as often is the case, large numbers of cattle trains are arriving and leaving.

U. S. Revenue Marine Service.—Requirements of Candidates as Engineers.

The following recent orders of the Secretary of the Treasury may be useful to persons who desire to secure places as engineers on board of revenue vessels:

No person will be originally appointed to a higher grade than a second assistant engineer, nor until he shall have passed a physical and professional examination. The physical examination shall precede the professional; and if a



UNIVERSAL MILLING MACHINE.

candidate be condemned physically, he will not be examined further. The passing of an examination must not be considered as giving assurance of appointment, as the department reserves the right to select persons of the highest attainments, in case there should be more candidates than vacancies.

A candidate for an appointment as second assistant engineer must not be less than twenty-one nor more than thirty years of age; he must be of good moral character and correct habits; he must have worked not less than eighteen months in a steam engine manufactory, or else have served not less than that period as an engineer on board a steamer provided with a condensing engine, and must produce favorable testimonials from the director or head engineer as to his ability; he must be able to describe and sketch all the different parts of the marine steam engine and boilers, and explain their uses and mechanical operation, the manner of putting them in operation, regulating their action, and guarding against danger.

He must be well acquainted with arithmetic, rudimentary mechanics, write a fair legible hand, and have some knowledge of the chemistry of combustion and corrosion.

Candidates who exhibit the highest degree of practical experience and professional skill will be given the preference, both in admission and promotion.

Any person producing a false certificate of age, time of service, or character, or making a false statement to a board of examination, will be dropped immediately.

The Clematis.

Few plants, of late years, have received more attention than the clematis for out-of-door decoration, and few are better adapted for cultivating as climbers in cool greenhouses, for covering some unsightly object in the pleasure grounds, for training on a trellis, and for training up the posts of the veranda. The gorgeous flowers of most of the varieties are really very attractive, the colors of the different kinds being white, blue, pink, and purple. The flowers of the native one, *c. virginiana*, are small and inconspicuous, of a greenish color. *C. vitalba*, or traveler's joy, is one of the most rampant growers in cultivation, and useful for covering quickly any large screen or trellis. Its flowers, however, are small and unattractive. From China and Japan have been introduced the most showy kinds we have, and from which have been raised most of the excellent varieties now to be found in our gardens. Of these, *c. lanuginosa* is the type. From *c. patens*, a white-flowering one, have also been raised some fine varieties.

The soil most suitable for the clematis is a well enriched, deep, open loam. There is no use in planting in poor soil, and expecting success. During their season of vigorous growth, they luxuriate in plenty of liquid manure. Attend regularly to the training of the young shoots, as they soon get entangled into such a mass that it is almost impossible to separate them. A beautiful position for training them is on some large rock in some open exposure, where they generally bloom freely, and form an inviting object. The propagation of the herbaceous kinds is accomplished by dividing the roots just as they commence to grow. The climbing kinds are generally propagated from layers and cuttings, although, for the purpose of giving more strength to weak varieties, and to produce plants quickly, budding and grafting are resorted to, using for a stock *c. flammula*, a native of Europe, from which have been raised some good varieties. Cuttings of well firmed young wood root most freely, especially if taken from plants growing in a greenhouse. They should be inserted in sand on the benches, or in pots, and get a good, brisk bottom heat, when they will soon root, and, if potted and grown in a genial temperature for a short time, then placed where they can receive more air, and keep in a cool house for the first year, will make excellent plants for putting out of doors the second year. Layering is performed upon well ripened shoots of that year's growth by cutting about half through the shoot, just under a bud, and slitting an inch or two along; then pegging into a pot filled with some porous soil. As soon as well rooted, separate from the parent plant, and treat as described for cuttings. If the layer should not be well rooted in the fall, cut off the shoot and insert as a cutting, giving a gentle heat, when it will soon emit roots from the cut portion.

Pruning should be performed with caution on the climbing varieties which produce flowers on last year's young wood; endeavor always to preserve as much as possible of it. Such kinds as produce flowers on young wood of same year should have all weak shoots thinned out, and buds that will produce good strong shoots encouraged.—*Cultivator and Country Gentleman*.

Demand and Supply in Invention.

An interesting example of the effect of the demand of a mechanical product in securing a supply is illustrated by a recent inventor's experience in his endeavors to procure steel springs of great size and power. It appears that an English inventor has been actively engaged for some time in the construction of a tramway car, to be run by the motive power exerted by steel springs. The reports state that since his earlier experiments Mr. Leveaux has, by indefatigable perseverance, induced the spring makers to astonish themselves by their productions. A band of steel has been rolled, which, when tempered into a spring, will give a draft of 3,000 lbs. Another single band of steel has been rolled, having a width of 4 inches, and a length of 184 feet. In the application of this spring power, the services of stationary engines will be needed to wind them up, and there must needs be a decided loss by friction; and the problem is simply whether the gain by the use of this silent power will offset the loss above indicated.

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Contents.

(Illustrated articles are marked with an asterisk.)

Academy of Sciences, New York.	24	Magnetic engines (7).....	27
Air pump, proportions of (2).....	27	Milk, setting.....	18
Annealing castings (6).....	27	Milling machine, universal.....	15
Answers to correspondents.....	27	New books and publications.....	26
Aqua regia.....	17	Nitric acid, test for.....	23
Architecture, dangerous.....	17	Or-moulu.....	22
Astronomical notes.....	24	Patent decisions, recent.....	25
Axles, setting metal.....	18	Patent drive well, the.....	21
Battery current, heat from (9).....	27	Patents, American and foreign.....	17
Battery troughs, coating (10).....	27	Patents, official list of.....	23
Battery wires, etc. (18).....	27	Patent packing rings (16).....	20
Blood and the body, the (17).....	27	Plating with German silver.....	27
Britannia dip (8).....	27	Practical mechanism—No. 6.....	21
Business and personal.....	27	Pump details (14).....	27
Car brake, automatic.....	27	Radiometer, Crookes.....	24
Centennial exposition, the.....	17	Recipes, useful.....	23
Civil engineers' convention, the.....	17	Right-handed, why are we.....	18
Climatic.....	15	Russell, W. D.....	27
Copper paint.....	18	Saw gages (13).....	27
Croton oil, applying.....	22	Shaft coupling.....	19
Dental inventions, two new.....	18	Shellac varnish, imitation.....	21
Electro-plating difficulty (15).....	27	Signal buoy, automatic.....	18
Engine details (1, 4, 12).....	27	Sleight in England.....	23
Engineers in U. S. revenue service.....	15	Smoke consumer, a new.....	18
Fillings, combustion of (5).....	27	Sound apparatus.....	24
Fire place arch bar.....	22	Spectroscope, applications of the.....	16
Fish at the centennial.....	17	Telegraph, military.....	23
Fluorescence.....	21	Telegraphy, fast cable.....	23
Friction and pressure (3).....	27	Telegraphy, multiple (17).....	27
Glucose, manufacture of.....	23	Tobacco, artificial.....	23
Hog bouncer, the.....	15	Tools, accurate.....	17
Induction coils (20).....	27	Trade, the value of a.....	20
Insufurial earth.....	20	Vacuum tubes (19).....	27
Invention, demand and supply in.....	15	Vanilla from wood tar.....	18
Lamp chimney, improved.....	22	Vicksburg cut off, the.....	30
Locomotive drive wheels (11).....	27		

THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT.

Vol. II., No. 2.

For the Week ending July 8, 1876.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

I. THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION OF 1876.—British Exhibits.—The Jacquard Loom.—Cotton-Cutting Machine, 1 figure.—Jacket-Knitting Machine, 1 figure.—Middlings Purifier, 2 figures.—Jute Spinners.—Centrifugal Pumps.—Iron Ship Building, Exhibits of the Roach Works.—The Main Building.	
II. ENGINEERING AND MECHANICS.—The Mississippi River Jetties, with 2 engravings.—Head of the Jetties.—The South Pass.—American Society of Civil Engineers.—The Metric System.—Resistance of Railway Trains.—Fast Railway Time.—To Calculate Gear Wheels for Screw-Cutting Lathes, by JOSEPH A. ROSE.—Ships of War, by N. BARNABY.—Song of the Serpent.—Compound Engines, 2 figures.—A 100 Ton Gun.—Steam Street Cars.—Turn Stairs and Elevator, 2 figures.—Improved Governor, 1 figure.—Soft Wood for Timber and Fuel.	
III. ELECTRICITY, LIGHT, HEAT, ETC.—Electro-Magnetism, Brief History.—Electro-Magnet with Flat Spirals.—Vibrations upon Liquids, 4 figures.—Telegraphy without Wires.—Demonstrating the Transformation of Force.—Warning Indicator for Explosive Gases in Mines, etc.—Distribution of the Asteroids.—Reaction Time of the Taste.—New Drawing Apparatus for Microscopes.—Economy of Electricity.—Electro-Motive Changes Produced by Light.—Magneto-Electricity for Telegraphy.—Constitution of the Sun.—Fading of Colors in Zoological Specimens.	
IV. TECHNOLOGY.—Suggestions in Floral Design, 7 figures.—Imitation of Chinese and Japanese Bronzes.—Transferring, Reversing and Transporting Negatives.—Brewing Preparation of Malt Sugar.—Machine for Destroying Potato Beetles.—A Clock without Hands, 1 figure.—New Tool Grinder, 1 figure.—An American Arboretum.	
V. CHEMISTRY AND METALLURGY.—Chemical Examination of the Function of Leaves, 1 engraving.—Separating Arsenic and Antimony.—Glyceric Phosphoric Acid.—Reactions of Bismuth.—Coloring Power of Aromatic Substances.—New Method of Preparing Hydro-Carbons.—Benzine in Rosin Oils.—Saline Solutions of Copper.	
VI. NATURAL HISTORY, ETC.—The Sulphur Beds of Nevada.—The Gas Wells of Pennsylvania.—Lunar Geology.—The Sleep of Plants.—Perforation of Stone Blocks by Tree Roots, 1 figure.—Arable Earth, 3 figures.	
VII. MEDICINE, HYGIENE, ETC.—Action of Biliary Acids.—Iron in the Spleen.—Photographs of the Blood.—Solubility of Salicylic Acid.—A Grotto of Health.	
VIII. LESSONS IN MECHANICAL DRAWING, by PROFESSOR MACCORD, 5 figures.	

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PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS OF THE SPECTROSCOPE.

The uses of the spectroscope may at present be divided into eight classes. The first use is the observation of the luminous colored lines in the spectra of flames, which lines, as it is well known, appear in sets or systems, each substance producing a set of lines, peculiar to itself and not appertaining to any other substance: so that by this means many of the component elements of a substance may be determined by direct observation, without the necessity of going through the laborious process of chemical analysis. Another advantage is that the minutest quantity of material is sufficient for this method: a quantity so small that it would not suffice for a chemical test made in the ordinary way, even if assisted by the microscope.

The second process is effected by enclosing the substance to be examined in a gaseous or vaporous condition in a glass tube, rarefying the gas or vapor, and illuminating it by the passage of an electric spark. Then special lines will appear, which differ, in some instances, from the lines produced by the same substance in a flame, and this by reason of the higher temperature: the local temperature of the atom when exposed to the electric current being the highest we can produce. The current does not heat up the tube, because its quantity of heat is too small, notwithstanding that it is of great intensity. It is evident that any substances easily volatilized, or gases, are adapted to this method of investigation.

The third class of spectroscope observations is especially adapted to solids, and consists in observing the spectrum of the electric spark passing between electrodes of the material to be investigated. Thus the spark passing between two copper electrodes will show the copper line, between iron electrodes the iron lines, etc. The spectrum seen in this way will also be affected by the spectrum of the atmosphere, gas, or vapor between the electrodes, through which the electric spark forces a passage.

A fourth class of observations may be made with the above method, using not the spectroscope, but a microscope with a spectroscopic eyepiece. The easiest way to submit the material under investigation to this test is to reduce the metal to the state of thin foil or plate, cut out a few pointed strips, and attach them to an ordinary glass slide, with the points a distance of $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch or less apart; then connect them with the poles of a small induction coil, and bring the space between the metallic points into the field and focus of the instrument. Then apply the spectroscopic eyepiece, let the current pass, and the peculiar spectrum of the metal will be seen.

A fifth use of the spectroscope is by attaching the spectroscopic eyepiece to the telescope in place of the microscope: this constitutes one of the most important uses of the spectroscope, and has given rise to a new branch of science, astronomical chemistry; and by its means we have been able to determine the chemical constitution of the sun, stars, and comets, and also of the atmosphere of most of the planets.

A sixth use of the spectroscope consists in the observation of the absorption spectra, when the light forming a complete spectrum is made to pass through a colored transparent medium. A colored glass or a colored liquid is in fact a kind of filter, which lets rays only of a certain color pass, and obstructs all the others. White light consisting of all rays of light, as is proved by its analysis by the spectroscope, we can change it into red by removing all the orange, yellow, green, blue, and violet rays, and this is what a purely red glass or a red liquid accomplishes; we can change it also into blue by removing all the red, orange, yellow, green, and violet rays, and this is what a purely blue glass effects. If, however, we test different colored media in this way with the spectroscope, we find that there are very few pure colors, as most of them will not extinguish all the colors different from their own: thus, for instance, indigo, which is blue, will not extinguish all the red, and its color therefore contains red in its composition. Red blood will not extinguish the blue, but only a portion of the green, forming two broad bands in that part of the spectrum, called the blood bands. These bands are so characteristic of blood, belonging to no other substance whatsoever, that they serve as the basis for legal evidence as to whether suspected spots are blood or not. Some substances, like chlorophyllin, the green coloring matter of leaves, produce a series of such absorption bands in different parts of the spectrum, quite self-characteristic and distinguishing them from all other substances of apparently the same color.

As a seventh class of observations, we may consider the absorption bands produced by colored gases and vapors, such as nitric oxide (especially when heated), chlorine, bromine vapor, iodine vapor, etc., all of which produce peculiar absorption spectra.

Finally we may add an eighth class of observations, that of opaque substances visible by reflected light. Observations of this class are in many instances best made by the microscope armed with a spectroscopic eyepiece; and such observations are best made in direct sunlight. When the sun shines on a piece of white paper placed under the spectro-microscope, the complete spectrum will be seen; but if on the paper a colored spot be present, and this be brought into the field, at once absorption bands will appear, which will of course differ, not only for substances of every color, but also for substances of the same color, if they be composed of different ingredients. A useful application of this property was recently made by Dr. P. H. Vander Weyde, and was mentioned by us on page 293 of our volume XXXIV. Dr. Vander Weyde was a witness in a case before the courts, involving an amount of nearly \$100,000, which depended on the question whether the signature certifying a

check was genuine or not. One of the arguments brought forward to show that the signature was forged was that the blue ink with which it was written was of a kind different from that used at the bank where the check was claimed to have been certified. Fortunately the different kinds of blue used for inks can easily be distinguished, one from the other, by spectroscopic analysis. Indigo will absorb the whole spectrum except the blue and red; blue verdigris will absorb all except the blue and green; permanent blue will leave, besides the blue, part of the violet visible; Prussian blue will absorb all except the blue. The spectra are of course modified and even disturbed by the enlargement of the coarse fibers of the paper on which the writing is done; and the spectral colors are, in some spots, darker or more intense, in others paler and almost colorless; but after careful comparison with the spectra of various inks, the peculiar absorption of the Prussian blue is seen to be so characteristic that no doubt was left but that the ink used for the check in question was of the same kind as that used for other checks acknowledged to be genuine. The researches described of course cannot settle a matter of the kind in dispute, and are not claimed to do so. All that was intended was to disprove the allegation of the defense that the inks were different; and this it did most effectually, notwithstanding that the spectroscope could not show that the ink of the different signatures proceeded from the same inkstand.

WHY ARE WE RIGHT-HANDED?

There is, in Sir Charles Bell's Bridgewater treatise, a quaintly-worded passage in which the author endeavors to deal with the reason why we normally use the right hand in preference to the left. After a surfeit of Haeckel and Darwin: after, as must be the case when one attempts to keep *en rapport* with modern scientific thought, becoming fairly imbued with the notion that distinct creative acts never took place, and that the fire mist and the primal germ are our legitimate ancestors in unbroken line: there is something positively refreshing to turn back to earlier writings, and there to find a material theory contemptuously dismissed in order that the author may anchor his faith to the idea that man was created right-handed by Divine intention. He says that "the preference of the right hand is not the effect of habit, but is a natural provision, and is bestowed for a very obvious purpose"; but what that purpose is he fails to make clear, except inferentially in the statement that "there ought to be no hesitation which hand is to be used or which foot is to be put forward; nor is there, in fact, any such indecision." Any one who has ever witnessed the amusing spectacle of a squad of raw recruits learning the goose step will be disposed to combat this last assertion. It requires longer teaching than would be imagined to impress upon the embryo soldier that the left foot is first to be moved. Experience goes clearly to show, besides, that the average individual steps off indiscriminately with either foot; and hence the selection of the left foot, merely to secure uniformity in the military files, has been made, though the very fact again is curiously at variance with the above author's intimation that a heaven-implemented instinct teaches us to put the right foot forward.

We have mentioned Bell's treatise, not, however, for the sake of the theory which he maintains, but for the one which he rejects in a few brief lines. "It is affirmed," he says, "that the trunk of the artery going to the right arm passes off from the heart so as to admit the blood directly and more forcibly into the small vessels of the arm. This is assigning a cause which is unequal to the effect," he adds; and probably supposing that no other causes would ever be combined therewith to bring it up to equality, he curtly pronounces it a "participation in the common error of seeking in the mechanism the cause of phenomena which have a deeper source," said source being supernatural. For the man who discovered the functions of motion and sensation pertaining to the brain and spinal marrow: who located the sensory nerves, and those which form the wonderful telegraph commanded by the will, and who showed that the nerves of the different senses are connected with distinct portions of the brain, so implicit a belief in the active interference of an Unknown Power with human mechanics is indeed strange. It is to this faith, however, that must be ascribed this neglect to prosecute the investigations which, very recently carried through by a French physician, Dr. Fleury, of Bordeaux, have adduced facts showing that our natural impulse to use the members on the right side of the body is clearly traceable to probably physiological causes.

Dr. Fleury, after examining an immense number of human encephala, asserts that the left anterior lobe is a little larger than the right one. Again he shows that, by examining a large number of people, there is an unequal supply of blood to the two sides of the body. The brachio-cephalic trunk, which only exists on the right of the arch of the aorta, produces, by a difference in termination, an inequality in the waves of red blood which travel from right to left. Moreover, the diameters of the subclavian arteries on each side are different, that on the right being noticeably larger.

The left lobe of the brain, therefore, being more richly hematomated than the right, becomes stronger; and as, by the intersection of the nervous fiber, it commands the right side of the body, it is obvious that that side will be more readily controlled. This furnishes one reason for the natural preference for the right hand, and another is found in the increased supply of blood from the subclavian artery. The augmentation of blood we have already seen suggested above; but the reason for it is here ascribed to the relative size of the artery, and not to any directness of path from the heart. Dr. Fleury has carried his investigations through