

IMPROVED WAGON BRAKE.

The annexed engravings represent a new wagon brake patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency, April 25, 1876, by Mr. J. W. O'Daniel, of Cloverdale, Ind. The novel features are found in the mechanism, and principally in the devices which allow the levers for working the brakes to remain undisturbed by the oscillations of the same, as shown in Figs 1 and 2.

The joint by which the front and hind gears are coupled, so that both may oscillate in turning around curves, consists in a tubular nut swiveled to the rear bar, B, of the front gear, and a rod, C, attached to the rear hounds, sliding freely in said nut. The rod is extended both before and behind the nut, so that it may move therein as the distance between the centers of the reach varies. The brake bar, H, is carried on the hounds so as to oscillate with them and the wheels. It is arranged to move forward and backward suitably for engaging and releasing the wheels, and is connected by a bar with the lever, K. Said bar connects with the pivot, E, by a slot, so that it can slide to pull and push the brake, and with the lever, K, by a curved slot and pin, so that it can swing with the wheel. The lever is pivoted to an arm, O, fitted on the reach, and, as already stated, remains at all times in the same relation to the box.

Bergen Hill Minerals.

The new tunnel of the Delaware and Lackawanna railway, through the trap rock formation of Bergen Hill, opposite New York city, is now nearly completed. Mr. Edward H. Fletcher, 124 West 54th street, this city, obtained a quantity of specimens of zeolites and calcites, taken from pockets in the tunnel, at depths of 50 to 150 feet from the surface. They comprise apophyllite, prehnite, laumontite, natrolite, pectolite, stellite, stilbite, analcime, datholite, and fine varieties of calcites. Intergrouped with some of these, are also chabazite, heulandite, gmelinite, levynite, copper pyrites, iron pyrites, galena, and blende.

IMPROVED RAILWAY RAIL.

The invention herewith illustrated is an improved continuous rail for railways, by which it is claimed that the battering and breaking of the ends of the rail at the joints is avoided, and less wear and injury to the rolling stock produced. In the sectional view, Fig. 1, A represents two rail sections of symmetrical shape, with base flange and head, each rail resembling the section of a common rail split into halves along the longitudinal axis. The rail sections, A, are joined longitudinally and provided with interior recesses for a longitudinal wooden core, B. By laying the sections so as to break joints, battering at the end is avoided and the rails are rendered more durable. The heads of the rail sections are provided with a tongue and groove, which affords mutual support to the adjacent parts, and also prevent the inside corners of the rail heads from breaking. The compound rail thus constructed is claimed to be stiffer and stronger, and smoother throughout, while the wooden center rail or core imparts a certain degree of elasticity to the same. The interior wooden rail is covered on all sides and protected against the weather, so that it may last a long time, and may be replaced when required. While twice as many fish plates will be used, they will only need to be half as long and half as thick as usual, thus effecting a saving of one half the material. The same number of bolts will be required as in the old rail, but they will not need to be so heavy, as at every joint there will be the solid middle of a rail section besides the wood to support it. The principal use of the bolts and the fish pieces will be to hold the parts together, which will not require great strength, as the base is double and stands apart, with the flanges extending outward on either side; the tops will gravitate together, and, the greater the weight upon them, the more they will press together. The inventor points out that his device effects a saving of over a solid inch of iron or steel, which will pay double the cost of extra work required in construction. Owing to the smoothness of the road, he considers that there will be less damage

to goods in transportation, and that pleasure and safety in travel will be increased. Less labor will also be required in keeping the road bed level. A side view is given in Fig. 2.

Patented through the Scientific American Patent Agency, February 29, 1876. For further particulars relative to the

Fig. 1.

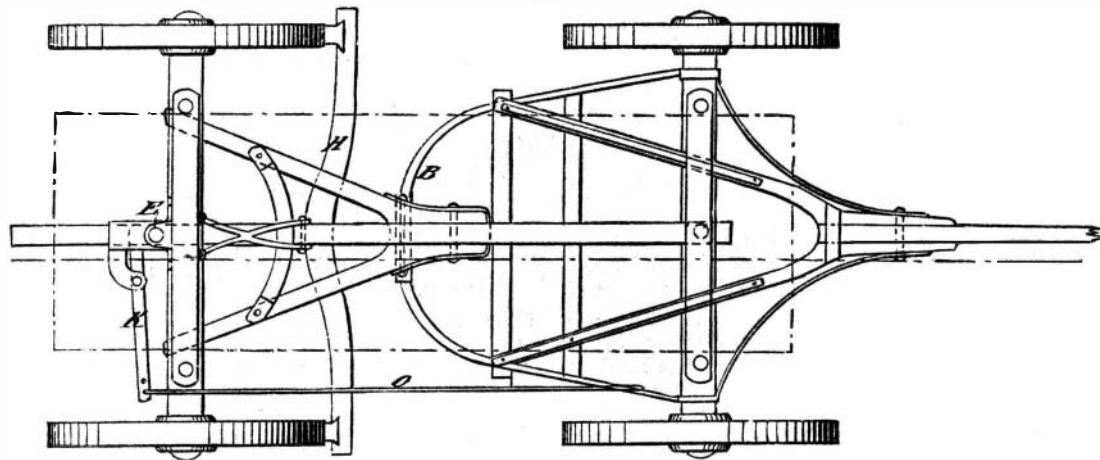
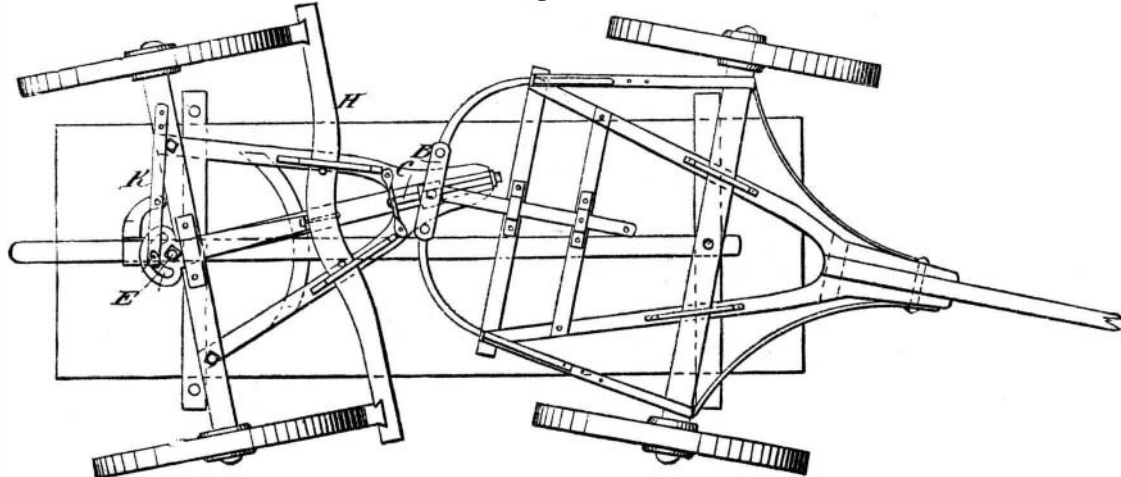


Fig. 2.



O'DANIEL'S IMPROVED WAGON BRAKE.

manufacture and sale of this rail under a royalty, address the inventor, S. Sutton, Lisbon, Linn county, Iowa.

An Improvement in the Manufacture of Silver Mirrors.

At a recent meeting of the Paris Société d'Encouragement des Sciences, M. Débray described a new method designed to remove the previously existing difficulties in the way of preparing silver mirrors. From this address we extract the following:

Up to the year 1840, glass mirrors were made exclusively

from one side on to the tinfoil, driving off the excess of mercury. The glass is pressed down against the tinfoil with heavy weights for 12 hours, when the latter becomes sufficiently adherent to the glass. The plate is gradually raised to a vertical position, to allow the excess of mercury to flow off. This last operation, which may be compared to a drying, lasts 8 or 10 days. The necessary quantity of mercury weighs about the same as that of the tin, that is, 700 to 800 grammes per square meter, or 1,004 to 1,148 grains per square foot.

The disadvantage of this process is that the workmen are exposed to the injurious action of mercurial vapors. Attempts have therefore been made to cover mirrors with silver. In 1840 an Englishman named Drayton employed an ammoniacal solution of nitrate of silver, which he reduced upon the glass with an easily oxidizable essential oil, as essence of cloves. The process was modified by different chemists, but was first actually introduced into practice by Petitjean, who employed tartaric acid as reducing agent; and in 1856 he started a silver mirror factory at St. Marie d'Oignies, in Belgium. Liebig's process with milk sugar is not mentioned by Débray. It was first introduced into Cræmer's mirror factory at Doos, near Nuremberg, in 1859. In the Petitjean process, the plate of glass is laid on a horizontal cast iron table with double floor, and heated to about 46° C. (104° Fah.) After being cleaned perfectly, it is flowed first with a solution of nitrate of silver, and then with tartaric acid. In about 20 minutes the silver begins to be deposited on the glass; and in about 1½ hours, the time varying with the strength of the solution, the silvering is complete. The liquid is then allowed to run off, the mirror is washed with distilled water and dried, and finally the silver film is protected with a coat of varnish.

From 5½ to 7½ grains of silver suffice for a square foot, and 1½ cents worth of silver is enough for a surface that would require 1,000 grains of tin and as much mercury. The great fluctuations in the price of these metals are frequently very embarrassing to large mirror factories. By the new process a mirror can be made in a few hours; while the previous method required at least 12 days, and also required more costly materials. Débray says that this silvering process has almost entirely supplanted the old mercury process. L. Lobmeyr, in his report on glass at the Vienna Exposition, also states that mercury mirrors will apparently soon go out of use.

Silver mirrors, however, always have these objections, that the image is somewhat yellowish, and that the silver does not adhere so perfectly to the glass as is desirable; it often happens, too, that the silver film comes off in spots where it has been exposed to the direct rays of the sun; and finally, notwithstanding the protection of the varnish, the silver gradually blackens under the influence of sulphuretted hydrogen. The latter objection is especially noticed in exporting mirrors across the equator; the mirrors are blackened by the exhalations from the hold of the vessel, where they lie packed for months. For this reason mercurial mirrors, although they frequently suffer much from the heat in tropical countries, cannot be supplanted by silver mirrors; although the latter are proof against injury by heat.

Even if these objections were quite overbalanced by the cheapness of manufacture and freedom from mercurial diseases, it would still be very desirable that they could be avoided. This has now been accomplished in a very simple manner by a Paris engineer, named Lenoir, previously well known through his gas machine. The glass is silvered as before and washed, then flowed with a dilute solution of cyanide of mercury and potassium. This dissolves a portion of the silver and precipitates some mercury, which combines with the remaining silver to form an amalgam, which is much whiter and adheres more firmly to the glass than the silver. The conversion takes place

Fig. 1

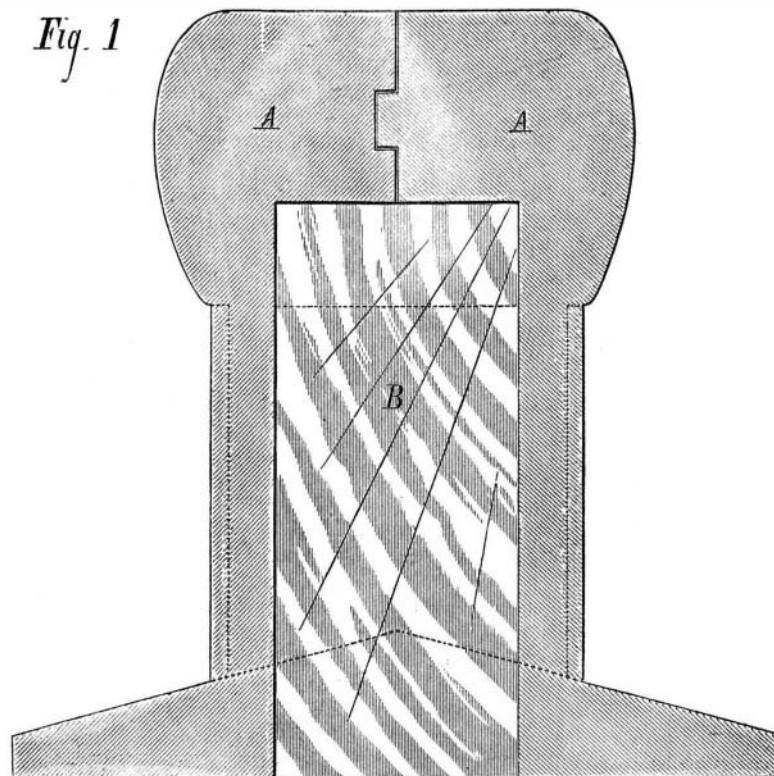
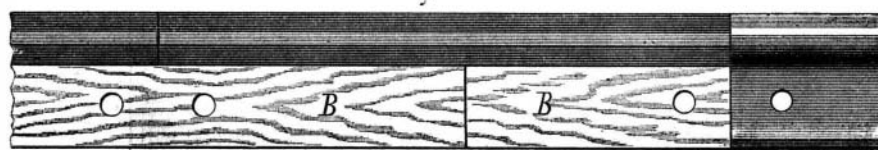


Fig. 2



SUTTON'S IMPROVED RAILWAY RAIL.

with a backing of tin amalgam. The operation was, and still is, as follows: A sheet of tinfoil weighing 1,000 to 1,140 grains per square foot, is spread out perfectly smooth on a flat horizontal stone; upon this is poured a thin layer of mercury, and then a well polished plate of glass is shoved

up varies with the time that the mercury solution and silver are in contact; in one experiment, made by Débray, he observed that it did not exceed 5 or 6 per cent. The use of the solution, which is itself a very poisonous cyanogen compound, is not dangerous if very dilute; this solution has been

in use many years for electroplating, and in much more concentrated form than it is employed by Lenoir, without real injury.

An amalgamated silver mirror does not exhibit the yellow shade of pure silver, is far less sensitive to sulphuretted hydrogen, as two years' experience proved, and resists perfectly the action of the sun. Lenoir's process has been introduced into the mirror factory of Mangin Lesur, at Paris.—*Deutsche Industrie Zeitung.*

Correspondence.

A Singular Railway Collision.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

In your issue of July 1 you mention and illustrate a singular collision. I notice that the *Graphic* locates the occurrence on the Northwestern Railway. Allow me to call your attention to a remarkable coincidence.

Your engraving, with but few exceptions, represents a collision that occurred on the Falls branch of the New York Central road on the morning of September 10, 1872, between the village of Albion and the city of Rochester, 2½ miles from the former place. Both trains were due at Albion at 3:45 A. M. The eastern bound train was one or two minutes late; but the train from the East not having arrived, the eastern bound train started out (having the right of way) at an unusual rate of speed. In running two miles it made up two minutes. At this juncture the engineer saw through the fog the headlight of the advancing train. He whistled down brakes, and reversed his engine. Only three brakes were set. All on both trains jumped. The engineer of the eastern bound train struck on his head, which stunned him for the moment. He sprained his wrists and bruised his face, but all the others alighted in safety. In an instant the monsters came together, hissing and seething in each other's embrace.

Unlike your illustration, they stood more nearly alike on the track, without smoke stack or bell. The tenders were driven under the rear of the engines, and everything that could be thrown from the engines under such a fearful concussion was gone. The boilers did not burst, but the engines appeared to be total wrecks. I understand, however, that one of them was rebuilt. Six cars left the track, and three more were burnt on the track. The trains were heavy freights, and a great amount of merchandise was burnt or otherwise destroyed and stolen. The loss at the time was estimated at \$200,000, but I understand that this was considerably in excess of the fact. Photographers arrived too late for the prize. The engines were quickly separated, and, when disengaged, they rolled some 16 feet down the embankment. The track at the place of accident was smooth and straight.

ALEX. D. TYTLER.

Albion, N. Y.

Flax in Missouri.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

I wish to call the attention of capitalists and inventors to an opening for them out here. I recently noticed along the road between Sedalia, Mo., and Parsons, Kan., that the farmers grew a great deal of flax, just for the seed. They do nothing with the stalk or straw. Why could not this be put to use? I always supposed that there was a great demand in this country for flax, and it looks like a great waste to let all this stand in stacks to rot or be burnt. The only reason for this that I can see is that, in thrashing out the seed, the stalks become tangled together, which may make it difficult to hackle; but our inventors could readily make some machine to overcome this difficulty. There is about 1 ton of flax straw to the acre. The crop is a regular one; many thousands of acres are cultivated every year; and after the seed is thrashed out the straw could probably be bought for a mere song.

S. E. WORRELL.

Hannibal, Mo.

[For the Scientific American.]

ANIMAL MECHANISM.

Most of the mechanical principles used in machinery have their illustrations in animal movements. Some are direct copies from Nature, but others were first contrived by man without his having consciously taken the hint from Nature, and afterwards found to be similarly used in animal mechanics. While this shows that man is created in the image of his Maker, in that the minds of each see truth and the application of principles in the same light, it also shows that man may find it greatly to his advantage to study the mechanism of animals and its applications of force, in order to learn the best means of accomplishing his ends in the mechanic arts. This may be an improvement upon the common method of working out, from the unaided brain, principles which Nature has used and displayed from the earliest time.

The shape and keel of a ship have their best models in the form and fins of fishes, and in several species of water bottles. It was formerly supposed that it was only necessary to have the bows of a ship sharp and well proportioned; now it is found that the shape of the stern has as much to do with its ease of motion as the shape of the bow, or the way it leaves the water is as important as the way it cuts the water. Hence a boat that is made for speed is now made to taper as gradually toward the stern as toward the stem. This mechanical principle has always been in use in the fish, the water beetle, and the bird. The pectoral and anal fins of fishes answer to the keels of ships, and the tails of both fishes and birds act as rudders. The tail of a fish, in addition, acts as the propelling power, on a principle similar to that of sculling a boat or of screw propellers.

Barker's reaction mill, or the force due to unbalanced pressure, is illustrated in the progressive—or rather retrogressive—movement of cuttle fishes, squids, and other cephalopod mollusks. They propel themselves backwards by forcibly ejecting water from an opening near the head.

The toggle joint, which is used in printing presses and in other machinery, has a representative in most of the hinge joints and in some others, of man and inferior animals. The pulley is used in the human body, by the cord which raises the great toe and the foot acting upon ligaments for friction wheels in the ankle; also by the digastric muscle, as it passes through a ring or loop in the muscle which is attached to the hyoid bone, serving the double purpose of raising the larynx in swallowing and of pulling down the lower jaw. The muscle which performs the oblique rolling motion of the eye also works through a loop which serves the purpose of a pulley in changing the direction of motion: as do also those attached to the knee pan.

The three classes of lever are amply illustrated in the various movements of man and other animals. The support and motion of the head upon the upper part of the spinal column illustrates a lever of the first class. The third is shown in raising the forearm by the contraction of a muscle attached a short distance below the elbow. The raising of the body upon the toes has been called a lever of the second class, in which the ball of the foot is the fulcrum, the muscle attached to the tendon of Achilles at the heel is the power, and the weight is applied at the base of the leg. There are some interesting considerations respecting the mechanical principles employed in the last case. If this is a lever of the second class, the question as to how much power is required to raise the weight of a man of ordinary size is an interesting one. On this supposition, the long arm is to the short arm as about 3:2; and if the power were applied outside of the body it would require 100 lbs. of power to raise 150 lbs. But as the power that raises the body is itself a part of the weight to be raised, when the muscle has contracted with the force of 100 lbs., its reaction presses downwards, upon the foot acting as a lever, with the force of 100 lbs. This reaction also has to be overcome, which adds so much to the weight of the body to be raised; and when additional force is applied to overcome the added weight, the reaction of this would necessitate still greater force, which would again increase the weight, and so on in an indefinitely decreasing series. If the reaction occurred at the end of the lever where the power is applied, of course the two would exactly balance each other, and all upward motion would be impossible. It would be like a man's trying to lift himself over the fence by his boot straps. But as this reaction occurs one third of the distance to the fulcrum, two thirds of its force at the lever's end would counterbalance it. The result seems to be possible by demonstration of the algebraic equation based on the law of the lever: that the power \times the long arm = the weight \times the short arm. Then x (the power) $\times 3 = (150 + \frac{1}{3}x) \times 2$; which gives 180 lbs. as the amount of power required to raise 150 lbs. and overcome the reaction of the force exerted. While in theory this seems reasonable enough, in practice the result is widely different. The principle here involved appears the same as when a man stands upon a stiff board one third of the distance from the end of the lever towards the fulcrum, placed at the opposite end, and tries to lift himself by lifting up at the lever's end. And this is practically impossible, whether the power be applied as here stated, or by means of lever and pulley arrangements, so that the power and resistance may act vertically.

The difficulties are not diminished if we consider the movements at this point as illustrations of a lever of the first class. In this case we would call the attachment of the bones of the leg to the bones of the foot the fulcrum, the power at the Achilles tendon as before, and the weight at the point where the ball of the foot rests on the ground. On this supposition the force of muscular contraction would tend to press down the earth; but as this is practically immovable, the result is the pushing up of the body, which is the object most easily moved. We have a similar illustration of this application of the lever in the rowing of a boat. This would require the application of force at a greater disadvantage than in the former case, and consequently a greater strain upon the muscles performing the work. But we know that raising the body on the toes is not accompanied by any painful physical exertion by the individual, and a closer study of the anatomy of the foot shows that the work is not done by one set of muscles alone. The tendons which bend the toes downwards are, after uniting into one, made to pass by a pulley arrangement among the carpal bones, and are attached to a muscle in the calf of the leg. These tendons, being united to the end of the long arm of the lever, enable this muscle to work at an advantage, or, in other words, so that power is gained at the expense of time. But it is probable that the mechanism is even more complicated than this.

The working of the muscles employed in this movement can be illustrated and their force measured by lying on one's back and placing one foot in the loop of a rope which passes over a pulley and has a weight suspended from the other end. As the foot, acting as a lever, is made to move, it will pull the rope and raise the weight, which may be increased till the limit of muscular power has been reached. In this experiment care must be taken that no other muscles are allowed to aid in the process.

The sliding seat in rowing is one that moves forward as the hand end of the oar is advanced, causing the knees to bend or spread. This gives a longer stroke and double purchase upon the water; for not only the muscles of the arms

and trunk are brought into use, but also those of the legs. This new and ingenious contrivance of mechanics, reached without the aid of Nature's suggestions, has been in use before our very eyes from the beginning of man's existence; and we needed but to study and apply the principles of animal mechanism to have employed it in practical life long ago. W. W. Wagstaffe showed, in *Nature*, a few months ago, that the shoulder illustrates the principle of the sliding seat. Besides the very free motion of the ball-and-socket joint at the shoulder, there is a forward and backward movement of six or seven inches, due to rotary motion of the clavicle upon the sternum, and also an up and down movement of about four inches, articulating at the same point, as seen in bell ringing and weight lifting. This gives an additional purchase and advantage, similar to that gained by the sliding seat.

S. H. T.

[For the Scientific American.]

TURNING HARD STEEL WITH THE AID OF PETROLEUM AS A LUBRICANT.

BY JOSHUA ROSK.

Some experiments recently made have given the following determinations:

1. That the use of either petroleum or a mixture of the same with spirits of turpentine as a lubricant for turning tools does not enable the tools to cut metal of any greater degree of hardness than can be cut by the same tool when used dry.

2. That the use of the above-named lubricant does not enable a turning tool to cut metal of any degree of hardness or temper at a faster rate of cutting speed than can be attained by the same tool when used dry.

3. That the above-named lubricant is effective, inasmuch as it will keep the cutting edge of the tool comparatively cool, and hence tend to preserve it longer than would otherwise be the case, the practical difference, however, being very slight.

4. That it is impracticable, under any of the ordinary conditions, to properly turn steel of a hardness or degree of temper greater than a deep purple bordering upon a blue.

Below will be found the details of experiments which were conducted by me at the Freeland tool works, at 360 West 34th street, New York city.

A piece of steel $\frac{3}{8}$ inches diameter and 6 inches long was made red hot and plunged endwise into clean cold water, and held submerged until quite cold. Upon inspection after immersion, the steel was found to be white all over, evidencing that the hardening was performed equally at all parts. One end of the steel was then made red hot and allowed to soften, the temper being permitted to run up at will. It was then placed in the lathe and run at a speed of 10 feet per minute. The lathe tool used was an ordinary front tool, made as hard as fire and water would make it.

A cut $\frac{1}{8}$ inch deep was started at the softened end of the steel, the feed being set at 40 revolutions to an inch. The lubricant, pure crude petroleum, was freely applied from the commencement of the cut. The tool was fed along until finally it commenced to jump, making a cracking noise, due to the excessive pressure with which the tool was forced to its cut. As soon as the cracking began, the tool became dulled and useless; and upon testing the tool with a smooth file, it was found that the file would cut the steel, where the tool cut ceased, the color of the metal being a deep brown. The tool was reground, and applied to the cut where it had left off at the first trial; but it refused to take the cut up any further. It was therefore reground and applied with out any lubricant whatever, the cutting speed and feed remaining the same. It took a cut of $\frac{3}{8}$ inch in depth up to the same distance as on the first trial, leaving the cut much smoother, however, than the first one. From the fact that a file would cut the steel where it showed a temper of a brown bordering upon a yellow, it was evident that the sample of steel under operation was not of the best quality; and it was determined to make a second trial, for which a piece of Turton's hammered round tap steel was selected, its diameter being $\frac{1}{2}$ inch, and its length 6 inches. It was first hardened as hard as fire and water would make it, and then tempered so that the end was purple, the color running up an inch before the deep straw color was reached. The cutting speed was about 7 feet per minute. The tool was ground and applied to the steel where the color was a deep brown bordering on a purple. Crude petroleum was first applied, and by the application of considerable force the tool took a cut about $\frac{1}{8}$ inch deep, carrying it along about $\frac{1}{2}$ inch where the steel was of a deep brown color. The corner of a smooth file was applied to the cut where it left off, and it would just cut it under severe pressure. The tool was then reground and tried under application of two parts petroleum to one of spirits of turpentine, and then of equal parts of turpentine and petroleum; but the cut could not be carried along any further. The next operation was to try the same tool upon the same steel, but without any lubricant, and the result was that it took a cut $\frac{1}{8}$ inch deep, commencing and leaving off its cut at the same place, but requiring a trifle more power to force it to its cut.

The results so far obtained were not sufficiently encouraging to warrant any minute experiments, because the small diameter and slow rate of cutting speed were the most favorable of conditions; while the rapid destruction of the cutting capabilities of the tool was such that no practically useful effects had so far been obtained. Furthermore, the cutting, performed upon any part of the steel whose temper was greater than a blue, was neither even or smooth; and it was a certainty that no finishing tool could be made to stand, whatever the lubricant employed.

The next operation was to make a test upon a piece of steel tempered to a deep purple for about an inch along its