

proved that life can exist at 30,000 feet above the level of the sea, and that at 25,000 feet, and upwards, one may positively be comfortable if sufficiently warmly clad. That such is the case is sufficiently remarkable, for "travelers in the air" have to sustain incomparably more rapid variations of pressure and temperature than mountain climbers. Mr. Glaisher, on his memorable ascent on September 5, 1862, left the earth at 1 p.m., and in less than an hour shot up to a height of 30,000 feet. At starting the temperature of the air was 59°, and at its greatest altitude it was 61° lower! Mountaineers experience no such extreme variations as these. They rarely ascend more rapidly than 1,000 feet per hour, never so much as 15,000 feet in a day, and become to some extent acclimatized as they progress upwards. On the whole we are inclined to think that man will not rest until he has at least attempted to reach the loftiest summits on the earth, though we will venture to assert that it will be long before any one crushes down the snow on the summit of Mount Everest.—*Nature*.

Some Experiments with Diamonds.

It is not everyone who has an opportunity to conduct a series of experiments upon diamonds of various kinds, and we hope our readers will be interested in the results of Von Baumhauer.

Diamonds are not found exclusively in the form of more or less perfect, colorless or slightly colored, crystals. In washing diamondiferous sand there are frequently found rounded, and sometimes angular, masses, which are brilliant black on the surface, but when broken are dull and of a gray or violet color. These are known in the trade under the name of "carbonado," or "carbons." Under the magnifying glass they exhibit a great number of pores, and, if heated in water, give off a great many air bubbles. Although these carbons differ greatly from the real crystallized diamonds, yet E. H. Von Baumhauer found by examining a large number of carbons and diamonds, that there is an unbroken series of intermediate conditions between the carbon and diamond. It is remarkable that the carbon, which frequently accompanies the diamond in Brazil, has not been found in the diamond fields at the Cape.

Besides these two modifications of the diamond there is still a third, which is known to the dealers in stones as "bord." They consist of translucent, but not transparent, colorless or grayish spheroids, from which small octahedra can be split out, which are much harder than the well crystallized diamond, but are inferior to the "carbon" in this respect. Von Baumhauer determined the specific gravity of 17 different varieties, and his table of results shows that the highest specific gravity of 3.5225 to 3.5197 belongs to the purest diamond, that the "bord" comes next, being not much over 3.50, while the carbon has a considerably lower specific gravity, 3.3493 to 3.1552, probably because it is porous. The colorless diamond can be heated to a white heat in dry hydrogen gas, by excluding the air, without showing any change. Colored diamonds, on the contrary, change their color when ignited; a dirty green became pale yellow, a dark green turned to violet, the brown diamonds lost the greater part of their color, while the yellow remained unchanged. A colorless diamond acquired an intense rose color in consequence of being heated, and retained the color a long time in the dark, but soon lost it in the light.

If diamonds are heated by access of air, they become dull and opaque on the surface, they burn with loss of weight, but retain their transparency within. In oxygen the diamond comes to a lively glow, and burns with dazzling light long before the platinum crucible gets red hot. Small diamonds burn completely up after the lamp has been removed from under the crucible, while in larger ones the heat of combustion is not sufficient to support any farther combustion.

Although Von Baumhauer repeated these experiments several times, he never saw anything more than a quiet burning with dullness and cloudiness of the surface; a sight of blackening, conversion into coke, change of its state of aggregation, swelling up, fusion or softening, rounding of the corners or edges, was never vouchsafed to him.

By combustion of the diamond, it is perfectly established that the diamond is surrounded by a small flame whose exterior color is a bluish violet.

When heated in superheated steam the diamond does not change at all, even for 10 minutes. The temperature employed was, however, only a moderate one. Heated to whiteness in an atmosphere of dry carbonic acid, the diamond became dull on the surface and lost in weight; hence it must have decomposed the carbonic acid and united with its oxygen.

[It is very rare that an element is able to drive out another atom of its own kind from a compound and take its place. The atomic condition of carbon in the diamond seems to differ from that in its compounds from its greater condensation, but it has not hitherto been considered to be in a very active state. Is the diamond perhaps when highly heated a kind of ozone carbon?—TRANSLATOR.]

Deep Mining.

Connection has been made between the Gould and Curry mine on the 1,900 level and the joint winze on the Savage line. This gives a fine circulation of air at that depth, the draft being southward through the Curry and up through the joint winze. It is a very important connection, as it opens up in the Curry mine for cross-cutting and prospecting 460 feet of new ground. Before this connection was



Fig. 1.—THE RAMIE PLANT.

made the drift was fearfully hot, the heat at the face being 126° Fah.

The benefit derived from such a connection is not instantaneous; on the contrary, when the opening is first made the miners get out of the place as soon as possible, as the heat and smell are such as to be unendurable, and frequently produce asphyxiation. It is the same air that the men breathe before an opening is made, but when it is set in rapid motion it appears to acquire some new and noxious quality. But for this the miners might drill ahead a great number of feet when drifts are being run to make such connections. A drill hole so run, however, would so sicken the men that they would be unable to work. When a connection is made it is desirable, therefore, to knock out as large a hole as possible with the last blast, then let the men employed retire for some hours until the foul air shall have passed out of the drift and level.—*Virginia City (Nev.) Enterprise, October 9.*

THE RAMIE PLANT AND ITS UTILIZATION.

In our editorial columns will be found the particulars of the recent offer by the British Government of large rewards to the successful inventors of a machine capable of preparing the fiber of the ramie plant for textile uses. In the following article we propose to explain what the plant is, and to summarize what has hitherto been done towards its utilization.

Ramie is the Indian name for the plant producing the fiber called China grass. It belongs to the *urticaceae*, or nettle family, and is nearly related to the true nettles. It is found either in a wild or cultivated state throughout the greater part of tropical and eastern Asia. In 1867 it was introduced into this country from Mexico, and its cultivation has since been carried on chiefly in Louisiana, with but partial success. The plant itself is perennial and somewhat shrubby, growing to a height of about four feet. Its character is well shown in the annexed engraving, Fig. 1. Numerous stems, each about as thick as a man's little finger, bear opposite pointed serrate leaves, each 6 inches long by 4 inches broad, on long hairy petioles. There are two principal types of the plant bearing the specific names *nivea* and *tenuissima*; both are utilizable, but the latter is much the better for industrial purposes.

The first has leaves green on one side and silvery on the other, and yields a fiber which is greenish, stiff, and brittle. The other is the true ramie, or East Indian rhea, and it is for the utilization of this variety that the reward is offered. The useful portion is the fiber of the inner bark, which must be bleached and picked apart into threads. The Chinese have for centuries accomplished this by hand, skinning the stalk and cleaning off the outer bark with a knife. This is exceedingly slow, as one man can produce but from one to two pounds per day of marketable raw product, which should be in the form of clear ribbons of a light yellow color. This is ungummed and bleached, dressed, and combed smoothly, and becomes a strong and brilliant staple now used for the manufacture of "Japan silk," "Canton goods," "grass cloth," "Nankin linen," and similar goods.

The nature of this fiber has been microscopically and otherwise investigated by Dr. Ozanam with the following results. Under a magnifying power of 80 diameters he finds: (1.) The fiber of ramie is, so to speak, of any length, as it has been traced throughout a length of nearly 10 inches on the field of the microscope, without any break being found in it, whether it be constituted of a continuous cellula, or whether the different cellulas which succeed each other have lost their points of separation by reason of a more intimate fusion, one with the other. Hence the ramie fiber possesses great strength. (2.) Taking the ramie fiber as a unit in comparison with other fibers, the following relative results were obtained:

	Thickness.	Traction.	Elasticity.	Twist.
Ramie....	1	1	1	1
Flax....	1/2	1/2	1/2	1/2
Hemp....	1/3	1/3	1/3	1/3
Cotton....	1/4	1/4	1/4	1/4
Silk....	1/5	1/5	1/5	1/5

Thus the fiber of the ramie is longer and more uniform than all the others, except that

of silk. It is stronger, offers greater resistance to traction and to torsion, and is more elastic than hemp or flax, and even than cotton, which is more flexible in twisting. Ramie in these respects only yields the palm to silk. To these advantages are to be added the sparkling whiteness and brilliant luster of the fiber, the easy cultivation of the plant, and its rapid reproduction and excessive multiplication. It yields three crops yearly and as many as 500 pounds of fiber to the acre. This last varies with the density of growth, a plantation with regular thick stands producing the above maximum. A mowing machine with thick short blades suffices to gather the plants, which are gathered in sheaves like wheat and are left in stacks. After a few days the leaves wither and fall under the handling and shaking they undergo while they are being carried to the machine. The plant should be cut from eight to fifteen days, according as the weather is dry or damp, before it is decorticated.

Persons familiar with the treatment of textiles know the impossibility of cleaning thoroughly any fiber, dried or green, by the continuous action of machinery. Either with drums or beaters the cleaning instruments cannot turn out the filaments without a certain amount of chaff and other refuse entangled in the fiber. All ex

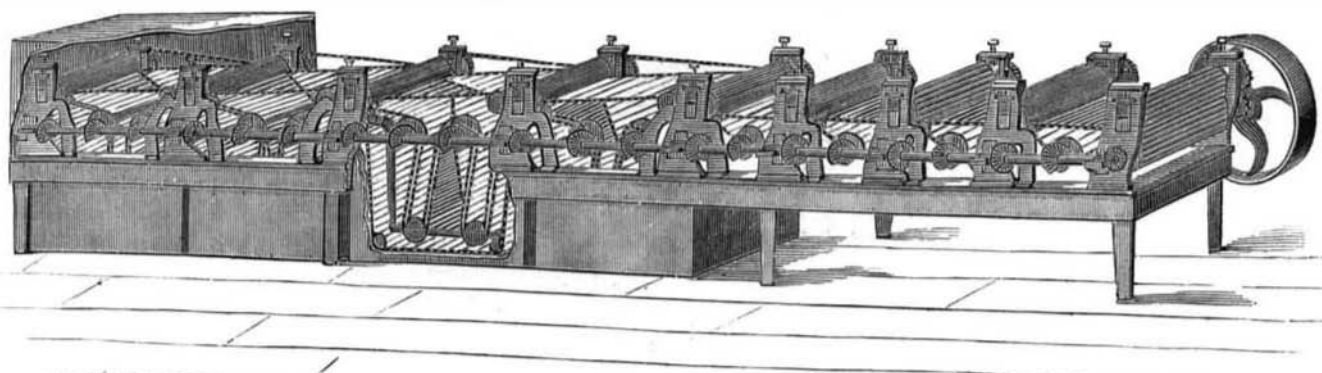


Fig. 2.—COLEMAN'S MACHINE FOR PREPARING RAMIE.

periments on this point have failed and proved the insuperable difficulty of expelling, by continuity of friction, all the particles of pith that have penetrated into the fiber. It is only through a scraping process, acting in a backward and forward direction, that a perfect cleaning can be obtained.

In a pamphlet entitled "The Culture and Manufacture of Ramie and Jute," Mr. Emile Lefranc, who has extensively studied into this subject, states that the true principle to be adhered to in a ramie-cleaning machine is as follows: "Revolving cleaners, provided with a peculiar sort of knives, receive gradually, by means of a circular carrier, bunches of stems, which are doubled down and hooked in the middle. The carrier withdraws them from the rotary action of the cleaners and delivers them in the form of clear yellow ribbons." The yield of the machine will be in proportion to its size and power. The cleaning is incessant if the machine

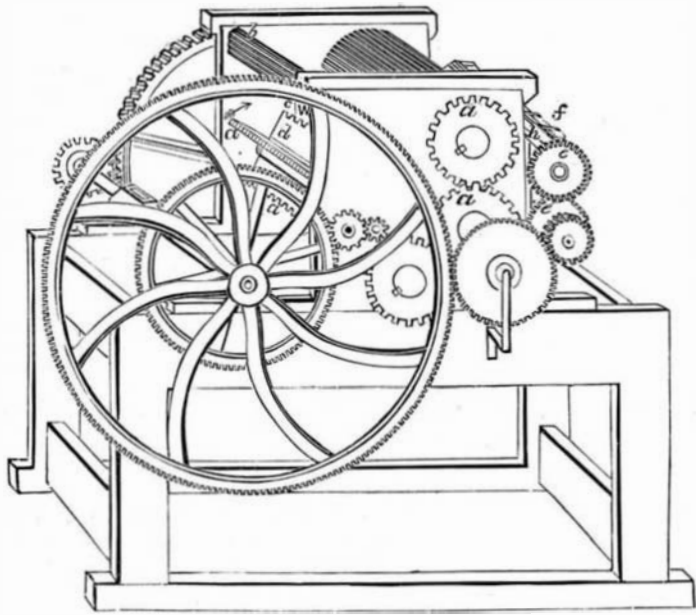


Fig. 3.—LEFRANC AND NAGOVA'S MACHINE.

is fed constantly by a quick handling. This principle, the same authority goes on to explain, offers the facility of such an expansion that the apparatus can be made large enough to clean one ton of fiber per day with a twenty horse motive power. It is not only to ramie, but also to jute, flax, hemp, and all strong textiles, in green plants, that this new machine can be successfully applied. It is demonstrated by theory and practice that the textiles extracted in a green state retain all the natural qualities of strength and color, which lose always 50 per cent by the ordinary process of rotting in stalks. The avoiding of that loss is one of the great advantages of the machine, besides the economy in labor. Now comes the disintegration of the decorticated fiber.

The yellowish ribbons produced from the plant engaged in the machine are the crude fibers. Albumen keeps them undivided, but being dried in the shade they acquire in that state a marketable value, which will double and triple by subjecting the filament to the bleaching treatment. The best method is that of Berthollet, which has been the most extensively used. It consists in first steeping the fibers or vegetable tissues in boiling water, and then in rinsing them in a copious supply of water in order to disengage them from soluble matter. When the water has entirely dropped off they are plunged into a bath of alkaline lye, which is raised to the boiling point; they are then immersed in a solution of hypochlorite of lime or an alkaline hypochlorite. The tissues are washed in a copious supply of water, and then immersed in water acidulated by sulphuric acid; washed with soap and water; then rinsed in water and dried. Now, much labor is spared by bringing the chlorite into immediate contact with the fibers washed in hot water and still damp, or by plunging them into a bath saturated with chlorate.

Some machines for preparing ramie have already been patented in this country. Fig. 2 represents the invention of Mr. C. C. Coleman, of Honolulu, Sandwich Islands, which the inventor claims will clean the fiber at a cost of \$20 to \$30 per ton.

The plant, freshly cut at its full ripe stage, is passed through a series of rollers, being carried along by moving wire screens. It dips into tanks filled with steam, hot water, and bleaching chemicals.

The rollers crush the plant and squeeze out the glutinous matter, which is absorbed by the water and steam. The mass is passed through the machine as often as may be necessary to dissolve and remove all the extraneous gum and other elements and to bleach the fiber itself. After each submersion it is passed through rollers, which squeeze out the water with the matter it has absorbed from the plant. It is not even necessary to remove the leaves, as they are separated by the machinery. The fiber is said to be not broken or even weakened by the process. This is an immense reduction of labor from the manual process of India and China, where a workman does well if he secures a pound and a half of clean fiber per day, making it cost about \$150 per ton.

In Figs. 3 and 4 we illustrate an improved machine for treating ramie and other textile plants, devised by Messrs. Emile Lefranc and Joseph Nagoua, of New Orleans, La., and patented August 23, 1870, which embodies the construction advocated, as already stated by Mr. Lefranc.

Fig. 3 is a perspective longitudinal, and Fig. 4 an end view of the machine. *a a'* and *b b'* are crushing and feeding rollers, having their peripheries grooved correspondingly, as shown. *c* is a toothed support for the plant while moving into the rollers, *a a'*, and *d*, revolving beaters. *e e'* are cylinders, furnished with a series of knives, *f*, which said knives may be either spiral, curved, or elliptical in form, cushioned by a rubber or other elastic surface, *h*, adapted, as shown, to the periphery of the cylinders, *e e'*. The motive power is applied to the axis, *g*.

The operation is as follows: The ramie, or other plant, is

first fed between the rollers, *b b'*, from whence it passes between the rollers, *a a'*, and thence between the knives, *f*, of the cylinders, *e e'*. The speed of the surface of the rollers, *a a'*, is a little slower than that of the rollers, *b b'*, better to avoid the tension of the plant, which might break the fibers; but the speed of the cylinders, *e e'*, is much higher than that of the rollers, *a a'*, in order that, when the plant is crushed, the knives, *f*, should strip off the bark and the pith of the stalk, leaving only the fibers in a ribbon-like state; while rollers, *a a'*, revolving comparatively slow, hold firmly the same, and deliver between the knives, *f*, as gradually as the necessity may show.

It is obvious that there would be left uncleaned one end of the plant, equal in length to the distance between the centers of the rollers, *a a'*, and cylinders, *e e'*, because, as soon as the rear end of the plant is past the crushers, *a a'*, the cylinders, *e e'*, instead of stripping the

plant, would simply roll it out. To avoid this, revolving toothed beaters, *d*, and a toothed support, *c*, are employed.

The plant is crushed first, by the rollers, *b b'*, and, secondly, by the rollers, *a a'*, and while the forward part of the plant reaches the latter, the rear end of the plant, when past the former, falls on and between the arms of the beaters, *d*, which, revolving at a high velocity in the direction of the arrow shown in the drawing, bend and divide the plant over the toothed support, *c*, and, jointly with it, strips the bark and the pith off the end of the plant before it reaches the crushers, *a a'*, so that the plant, after passing through the machine, is cleaned from end to end, the fiber alone being left.

Fig. 5 represents a machine for the same purpose patented May 2, 1871, by M. Adolph Bouchard, of New Orleans, La. The plant is placed upon the table, *F*, and introduced by the lower end of the stalk through the rollers,

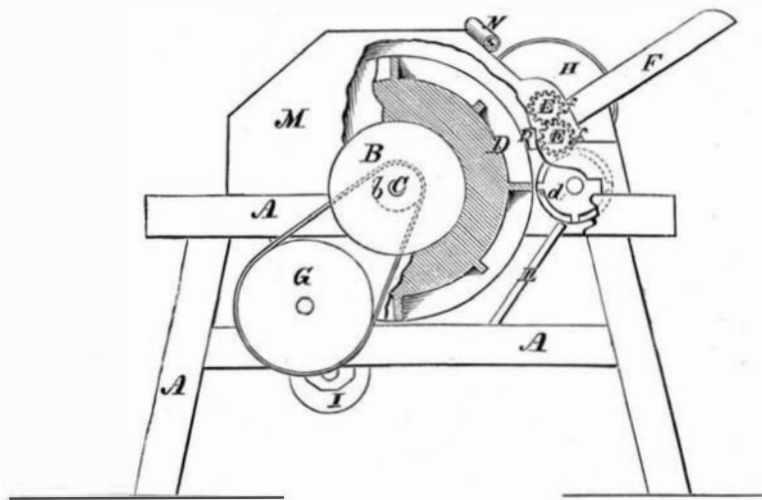


Fig. 5.—BOUCHARD'S MACHINE.

E E, and then the machine is set in motion, the supply being maintained. The small drum, *d d*, does the decortication, the pipe, *N*, supplies the water, which will partially macerate the plant, and then the mass is projected by the lever, *P*, toward the drum, *D*, which, in its revolutions, will totally disintegrate it and pass it through the rollers placed below, fibrated, filamented, and deprived of all its gummy and glutinous substance.

Prize Method of Preparing Plaster Casts that can be Washed.

The prize offered by the Prussian Minister of Commerce and Industry for a method of preparing plaster casts that permit of being washed was conferred upon Dr. W. Reissig of Darmstadt. From Dr. Reissig's essay on the subject we abstract the following points:

In preparing these casts it was not only desirable to obtain a surface which should not wash away, but also to include a simple process for preventing dust entering the pores

and render them more easily cleansed. Laborious experiments convinced this gentleman that the only practical method of accomplishing this and retaining the sharpness of outline was to convert the sulphate of lime into

1. Sulphate of baryta and caustic or carbonate of lime, or
2. Into silicate of lime by means of silicate of potash.

Objects treated in this way are not affected by hot water or hot soap solutions, but, from the method of preparation, they remain porous, catch dust, etc., and when first put into water eagerly absorb all the impurities. To avoid this evil, he subsequently coats the articles, now rendered water proof, with an alcoholic soap solution, which penetrates more easily, deeper, and more freely into the pores than an aqueous solution. After the alcohol evaporates a layer of soap remains which fills the pores, and when washed it is

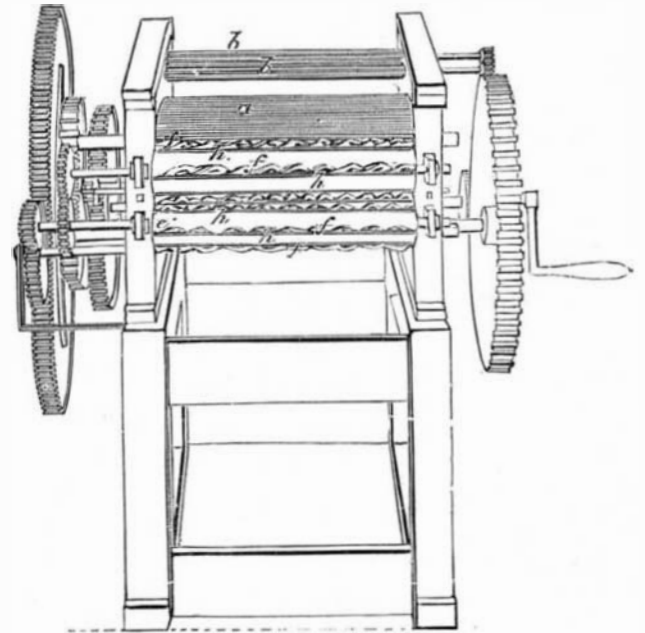


Fig. 4.—LEFRANC AND NAGOVA'S MACHINE.

converted into a suds which easily removes the dust without allowing it to penetrate.

1. Process with baryta water. This is the simplest, easiest, and cheapest method. It depends upon the fact that gypsum, or sulphate of lime, is converted by baryta water into sulphate of baryta (which is totally insoluble), and caustic lime which is converted by contact with the air into carbonate of lime. The practical method of carrying this out is as follows: A large zinc vessel is required with a tight-fitting cover. In each vessel is a grating made of strips of zinc, resting on feet $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch high. This vessel is two thirds filled with soft water at 54° to 77° Fah., and to every 25 gallons of water is added 8 lbs. of fused or 14 lbs. of crystallized, pure hydrated oxide of barium, also 0.6 lbs. of lime previously slaked in water. The solution stands about 4° Beck. As soon as the baryta water gets clear it is ready to receive the casts. They are wrapped in suitable places with cords, and after removing the scum from the baryta bath are dipped in as rapidly as possible, face first, and then allowed to rest upon the grating.

Hollow casts are first saturated by rapid motions, then filled with the solution and suspended in the bath with the open part upwards. After the cords are all secured above the surface of the liquid, the zinc vessel is covered. The casts are left in it from 1 to 10 or more days according to the thickness of the waterproof strata required. After taking off the cover and removing the scum, the plaster casts are drawn up by the strings, rinsed off with lime water, allowed to drain, carefully wiped with white cotton or linen rags, and left to dry, without being touched by the hands, in a warm place free from dust. The same solution which has been used once can be used again by adding a little more baryta and lime.

Of course this process can only be applied to casts free from dust, smoke, dirt, colored particles of water, rosin and varnish, soap, animal glue from the moulds, or sweat from the hands. To prevent the casts getting dust upon them, they should be wrapped in paper when taken from the mould and dried by artificial heat below 212° Fah. If in spite of every precaution the casts when finished show single yellow spots, they can be removed in this manner: The perfectly dry, barytated casts saturated with carbonic acid are painted over with water and oil of turpentine, then put in a glass case and exposed to the direct rays of the sun. All spots of an organic nature will then disappear; but, of course, rust, smoke and mineral spots cannot be removed in this way.

In the place of cold baryta water the casts may be placed for half an hour in a concentrated solution of baryta heated to 104° to 122° Fah. This has the advantage that casts may be put in before drying. As the casts treated in this way are not hardened very deeply and are still porous, it is well to place them subsequently in a cold bath for a longer time.

