

one. They evidently are the product of a temperate, not a tropical climate. Now other fossils of the cretaceous era, such as animal remains, indicate a tropical climate for that period. These leaves are from the dawn of the cretaceous, its lower strata, and are very rich and varied. At the present day it would be difficult to find in a large space such a great number of different species of trees as are supplied in cretaceous fossils. There can now be no doubt about the position of these remains, though when the cretaceous flora of this country was first announced it was bitterly disputed. We may suppose that in the dawn of the cretaceous we had a temperate climate here; that our plants went westward and occupied Europe before the tertiary times, certainly before the miocene and the raising of the Alps. After that came the glacial epoch and destroyed that vegetation, though its traces were left in the rocks of Greenland and Iceland. After that, Asiatic flora came to Europe and replaced its vegetation.

Professor Marsh was deeply interested in Professor Newberry's paper. He regarded this flora as much older than the lowest cretaceous marl of New Jersey. In that marl we have abundant crocodiles and other remains that render certain the tropical character of the cretaceous era. With regard to the fossil leaves, there had been a similar question once about certain Dakota fossils, including numerous dinosaurs, some of which were 30 feet high, and some no larger than a cat. It was now known that these Dakota fossils were Jurassic. Up to date we know of no cretaceous mammal. This is the most serious break in our palæontological record. Let us hope that in looking for these leaves we may find some mammal, large or small. Several geologists joined in the discussion at this point. Professor Marsh mentioned that he had himself picked up angiospermic leaves in Europe from undoubted cretaceous formation; these were then regarded as a great curiosity. He suggested that perhaps these leaves grew on forests near the tops of mountains, where they would have temperate climate, while it was torrid in the valleys below; and that these fossil leaves had been washed down the mountain sides and sunk in cretaceous swamps at the bottom.

A second paper by Professor Newberry gave descriptions of certain gold and silver deposits in Utah and Colorado. In the limited area which he explored of the Horn Silver Mine, in Utah, there was not less than \$20,000,000 of ore in sight. Specimens of sulphate of baryta with ruby silver were exhibited. The sandstones are full of the impressions of plants; the plants themselves have been removed and the vacancies filled with horn silver. It is said that there is no parallel instance of such impregnation, but he has seen similar cases with copper ores in New Jersey.

Mines in the neighborhood of the Horn Silver Mine were almost equally rich in argentiferous galena, worth \$50 to \$60 per ton. Recently a similar deposit, the Silver Cliff Mine, has been found in Colorado. The district is also of archendrite rock and trachyte. A man named Bassick, a sailor, who had wandered around the world, was reduced to his last cent in this region, and was living on "tick." He picked up a mass of the rusty conglomerate rubbish, and got somebody to assay it. The yield was \$50 to the ton. The chemical history of these balls of trachyte is that they were boiled and softened, when silver ore floated into their crevices or coated their surfaces. There is found silicified wood at a depth of 150 feet. Bassick proceeded to work his mine, and eventually sold out for a round \$1,000,000. Silver Cliff is a hill of ore about six miles away from the Bassick mine. From another locality arsenic ores were exhibited, and it was stated that there—"the Lucky Boy's Mine"—orpiment and realgar were found in veins. The arsenic ore in some assays yielded \$150 to the ton.

In his closing address Prof. Rogers dwelt upon the need of measures calculated to make the meetings of the academy more popular in character. It is not only the province of the academy to aid in research and to facilitate the progress of science, he said; it is also its duty to make its work more generally and popularly known. It is a part of the beneficence of science to extend as widely as possible the knowledge of great truths and of the advances that are made in the discovery of underlying facts and principles.

It is proper to add that in preparing our review of the proceedings of the academy we have been largely aided by the ample reports furnished by the *New York Times*.

ROADMASTERS' DIFFICULTIES.

At the first annual convention of the International Roadmasters' Association, at Niagara Falls, last September, the difficulties experienced in maintaining railway tracks were discussed by the members at great length. The proceedings are reported in full in the *Railroad Gazette*, October 10 and 17.

Mr. Wiswell said that the most difficult thing he had to contend with was sliding clay banks in the spring of the year. He had thought it might be economical to use old sleepers for retaining walls; had heard of bank walls of old ties, on the Central Vermont, which had lasted twenty years and were still in good condition.

Mr. Hardy complained of fire and water. The latter occasions all sorts of trouble; sometimes it comes and takes out a culvert or bank; sometimes it soaks into clay banks, and down comes the bank on the track; and sometimes it comes under the track. He thought the New England men would bear him out in saying that with fire on the bridges, and water in the wash-outs and slides, throwing the track in

many cases, they could sum up the principal part of their anxiety and trouble.

He then asked the opinion of the members as to the relative merits of gravel, stone, and other forms of ballast. Mr. Collopy thought gravel ballast the best of any; better even than furnace cinders, which were liable to break in winter. Locomotive ashes make good ballast. The trouble with them, however, is the difficulty and delay of unloading cinders. He had also used rolling mill clinkers—slag, iron, and limestone.

Mr. Sullivan had tried the latter. He objected to cinders because they cause the ties to rot very fast. In locomotive cinders the ties (burr oak and white oak) play out in three or four years. In mill cinders they last as long as with gravel ballast. Touching the life of ties on the Atlantic and Great Western road, Mr. Latimer said that on the first division, where there is nothing but gravel ballast, ten years is the average; including sidings on the second division, which is also gravel ballast, but very poorly ballasted, eight years and four months; on the third, hardly better ballast, nine and one-tenth years; on the fourth, a good deal better ballast, ten years and three months. On a portion of the road, not well ballasted, very poorly ballasted indeed—that is, the third division—seven years and eight months; and in the longest part, better ballasted, eight years and two months. In another portion, where the traffic is light, eight years and five months; and where it is still lighter, with good gravel ballast, eleven years—this with chestnut ties. Mr. Kennedy thought that the more rock was put under a chestnut tie the quicker it would give out.

Mr. Hardy gave the following experience: About three or four years ago there was a piece of track laid for a change, and upon one of those tracks, about three-fourths of a mile, was sawed ties, which wear like bridge ties. He did not think the cutting up of those ties amounted to 25 per cent of the rest of the road. The track is well laid; it is a silicious country, good quartz rock, and there is no heaving. He thought that with a proper rock ballast there must be a great saving in the wear of ties and rails. Mr. Latimer had no doubt that there is more wear upon the rail resting on rock ballast or cinder ballast than there is on gravel, engine cinders, ashes, or coal dust. The ties on hard ballast are more dug into by the rail than on elastic ballast. Mr. Collopy thought there was also more wear on the rolling stock, and more broken rails in winter.

Mr. Armstrong expressed the opinion that locomotive cinders are calculated to preserve the life of some kinds of timber, and are injurious to others. In 1864 he filled a track with locomotive cinders, and used white hemlock ties. Not one per cent of those ties have been removed. He filled another track with cinders, oak ties being used, and they rotted out in five years. He used nine inches of cinders over the ballast.

Mr. Collopy expressed the opinion that the life of a hemlock tie is about three years. Mr. Sullivan said that he put down 5,000 hemlock ties in Northern Michigan, and three years after took them out with shovels. They were too rotten to pull out.

Touching the cost of maintaining a road bed in good condition, Mr. Burnett thought the yearly expense with gravel was about 40 per cent less than with broken rock. The expense of keeping rock ballast free from grass and weeds is about one-half less than with gravel. In regard to keeping a good surface on the road, Mr. Sullivan claimed that rock ballast was better than gravel, the latter being liable to settle unevenly in spring time. His choice would be: first, rock ballast; next, furnace cinders, where they could be got. Mr. Latimer preferred rock with a covering of gravel.

With reference to the heaving of the track by frost and irregular thawing, Mr. Burnett said that under certain conditions the south side of the track may heave as much as the north side. With a clay embankment stone will heave nearly as much as gravel. Stone is more open than gravel, frost penetrates further, and when the clay freezes the track will heave.

Mr. Shanks said that when eighteen or twenty inches of ballast was used there would be little freezing. But if the clay froze to any depth it was absurd to expect it not to heave. Gravel tends to keep the frost out to a certain extent. Mr. Preston suggested that imperfect drainage might be the cause of heaving. Mr. Burnett instanced a cut 250 feet long, the water running eight inches to the bottom of the ties, and there is no heaving. Mr. Wiswell spoke of a rock cut with water right up to the end of the ties, in some places the gravel would be heaved up through the track, but the ties never were out of place. Mr. Hardy's company had a rock cut with much water in it, in which 1,000 feet of new steel rails had been laid. The water gave a great deal of trouble. Mr. Burnett said he would lay 3 inch sewer pipe close to the ends of the ties and fill in with gravel. He knew from experience that the method would prevent a great deal of heaving where water came from the top and had no chance to escape from the bottom. Mr. Hardy thought the pipe would not stand the temperature. They had made it a matter of much study, for they had lost a great deal of steel rail there. This on account of the rigidity of the road bed. Owing to the excessive wear in the four months of frost the life of the rails was diminished about forty per cent.

Mr. Adamson's experience was that rock is the cheapest ballast in cuts. The ties last longer, and there is less tendency to heave in winter. Another advantage was the absence of weeds and grass to attract stock. In Indiana good gravel is hard to get. He would prefer gravel if he could

get it. It costs less to put in and take out ties in gravel than in rock ballast. The most perfect bed would probably be pure gravel on stone.

THE "CONCH PEARL."

Many of the readers of the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* have doubtless frequently seen and admired the delicately tinted, pink-faced shells which are extensively used in the United States for bordering garden walks and other ornamental purposes, but few probably are aware that in the conch which forms and inhabits this shell is occasionally found a very lovely gem, known to lapidaries as the conch pearl. When perfect the pearl is either round or egg-shaped and somewhat larger than a pea, of a beautiful rose color, and watered, that is, presenting, when held to the light, the sheeny, wavy appearance of watered silk. It is, however, a very rare circumstance to find a pearl which possesses all the requirements that constitute a perfect gem, and when such does happen, it proves an exceedingly valuable prize to its fortunate finder. A good pearl is very valuable indeed, some having been sold in Nassau for no less a sum than four hundred dollars. Although many of these pearls are annually obtained by the fishermen in the Bahamas, not more than one in twenty proves to be a really good gem, and hence probably their high price.

Pink is the most common and only desirable color, although white, yellow, and brown pearls are occasionally found. Even among the pink ones there is usually some defect which mars their beauty and materially injures them; some are very irregular in shape and covered apparently with knobs or protuberances; others are too small, while many lack the watering, which gives them their great value and chief beauty.

The conch abounds in the waters of the Bahamas, and thousands of them are annually obtained and destroyed for their shells, which form quite an article of commerce, but in not one conch in a thousand is a pearl found. When this is taken into account, and the other fact, that not more than one in twenty of pearls found turns out to be perfect, it will at once be seen that a good conch pearl will always be a rare and costly gem. In fact, their value within the last few years has almost doubled, and the demand for them is steadily increasing.

Most of the conch pearls found in the Bahamas are exported to London, where they are readily sold. A few have been sent to New York, having been purchased in Nassau by an agent of Messrs. Tiffany & Co., the well known jewelers.

Like everything else that is valuable, the conch pearl has been imitated, and some of the imitations have been sold as the genuine article. Many years ago an ingenious American visited Nassau and conceived the idea of making conch pearls. He succeeded admirably in cutting out of the pink portion of the shell some very creditable imitations. To make success doubly sure, he procured a number of the live shell fish, carefully inserted his spurious pearls in the position in which the genuine pearl is usually found, and placed the fish in an inclosed place in the water. At the expiration of a month or more, the fish were again removed, and, of course, pearls found in them, several of which were sold to inexperienced persons before the fraud was detected. It was detected, however, and the perpetrator received prompt and deserved punishment. SAUNDERS.

Importance of Illustrating Inventions.

Thousands of persons who have spent a little money in bringing their inventions prominently before the public have realized rich harvests thereby. We believe, and have abundance of evidence in support of it, that greater results have been effected to the patentee oftentimes by having his inventions illustrated in the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*, at the expense of a few dollars, than by thousands spent in injudicious advertising. It is only subjects of merit or novelty that find place in these columns, and to the pages of the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*, therefore, the public refer for the latest improvements.

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James Clerk Maxwell.

The well known Professor of Experimental Physics at Cambridge, England, James Clerk Maxwell, M.D., LL.D., F.R.S., died November 5. Professor Maxwell was an accomplished mathematician and successful investigator in physics. His "Treatise on Electricity and Magnetism," and "Theory of Heat," are his best known works.

A Great Ship enters South Pass.

The British steamship City of Bristol, Inman Line, went through the jetties October 31, drawing 24 feet 7 inches of water. The tide was four inches below the average. There was no detention whatever at the jetties or at the head of the pass. Since that date it has been announced that the largest cargo of cotton ever floated at New Orleans has safely passed outward. Now for the sanitary improvements of the Mississippi Valley, which shall permanently avert the danger of yellow fever blockades.