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OIL FEEDERS.

Much information has been written concerning lubrication, and many experiments have been tried to ascertain the most efficacious manner of oiling journals in machinery. The subject is generally discussed upon the appearance of some novel invention or ingenious lubricating device for which is claimed more than usual advantages, more perhaps than intrinsic merit will warrant, when the invention is put into practical operation. Be this as it may the matter is an important one and continues to receive much attention from manufacturers, engineers and machinists. The objects to be attained in oiling machinery are principally a good lubricating substance, and its application at regular intervals with full but economical distribution over the surfaces requiring lubrication. We can remember the numerous countersunk oil holes that were formerly drilled to receive the spout of the oil can, and to this day may occasionally be seen machinery with nothing but drilled holes in the caps as conduits for oil to the journals. The indication given to the "oiler" or "greaser" when the proper quantum of oil has been poured in these holes, is generally an overflow, and the consequent result is immediate waste and expense; in course of time a mass of dirty, greasy machinery, repulsive to both sight and touch. Where oil cups are not used, it is best to have a bead, or concave boss cast on the cap to retain any overflow—but even then holes left uncovered and unplugged become mere receptacles for dust and dirt, and require constant probing to effect a passage for the oil. Brass oil and tallow cups are now generally used where they are admissible, and although of great variety, require no explanation, as they are known to all engineers and machinists. We now call the attention of our readers to an excellent Oil Feeder and Cup, patented on Oct. 22, 1867, by J. B. WICKERSHAM, of Philadelphia, Pa. The oil cup is made of thick, clear glass, fastened into a metal socket, enabling the oil always to be seen. A central hollow stem is screwed into the bottom of the cup and reaches nearly to the top. Into this hollow stem is introduced the Feeder, which consists of a covered siphon shaped wire, its action being based upon the natural law of capillary attraction; the texture of the covering of the siphon wire regulates the drops of oil so that a drop of oil can be administered in every five seconds, or in one, fifteen, or thirty minutes, or at longer intervals if desired. The Feeders have one leg inserted in the tube, and the other in the oil cup, the short leg of the siphon rests in the cup, and the long leg of the siphon reaches through the central tube so as to be below the end of the tube and not touch the journal with the wick. Fig. 1, represents three of WICKERSHAM'S patent oil feeders No. 1, No. 3, and No. 4. It will be observed that the covering of these feeders is cotton thread which is graduated in size and nature according to the amount of oil needed on the journal. For example, No. 1 Feeder gives one drop in thirty minutes. No. 3, one drop in five minutes, and No. 4, one drop in a minute. No. 8, ten drops per minute. This last Feeder acts upon two laws viz; capillary attraction and the siphon principle combined, by which the oil flows more rapidly than when the fibrous material is in contact with the wire on all sides. This is effected by means of two wires acting as springs inside the webbing and forming a hollow tube which acts as a siphon. On each feeder

is placed a tag with a number on it; when the feeder becomes worn on the tag number designates its character and the same kind can be replaced from a box Fig. 3, that contains and preserves the feeders. Fig. 2, represents an oil feeder inserted in one of the glass cups, the latter being placed in the cover of the journal box and is termed a white stem oil cup. This description of oil feeder is applicable to every size of journal, from those of the diminutive sewing machine to one 36 inches in diameter; the oil feeder is also applicable to loose pulleys, and with these has been found to work satisfactorily. It is claimed to be reliable, economical, effectual, cleanly and labor saving; it filters and saves seventy-five per cent. of oil. The well known firms WILLIAM SELLERS & Co., and NEAFIE & LEVY of Philadelphia, who have applied and thoroughly tested the efficiency of these oil feeders, certify to their reliability, economy and cleanliness, and state that journals

bottom of the shafts, and 6,000 lbs., 4,000 lbs., and 3,000 lbs., respectively, of powder were placed in them, or nearly 6 tons in all. This large quantity of powder was not so great as has been used in single blasts at Holyhead, where as much as 11 tons have been fired. The blast was successfully fired by electricity, the wires being connected with a Grove's battery of 28 cells. The limestone brought down will be carried into Shropshire and South Staffordshire to be used as flux in the blast furnaces of those districts.—*London Engineering.*

New Volumetric Assay of Iron.

The two methods at present known, viz.: that by the bichromate of potash, known as Dr. Penny's process, and that by the permanganate of potash, which are both based upon the same principle of the oxidation of a ferrous solution and its consequent conversion into a ferric one—involves the necessity (to the travelling chemist) of carrying about a large quantity of expensive and unstable standard solutions, or the trouble and inconvenience of dissolving fresh portions of the crystallized reagent, whenever required, upon the spot. A little circumstance which occurred at Cawnpore, in 1862, suggested to me another and apparently more simple method, which I beg to recommend to chemists and assayers, especially those travelling in out-of-the-way countries. You are aware that rooms in India are floored with a substance called "chunam," which is a kind of hydrate of lime. In a room of this kind, without a carpet, I was amusing my children by showing them the beautiful deep red color which a drop of the solution of sulphocyanide of potassium bestows upon one of peroxide of iron, and which I told them (in fun) was "the blood of the theatres." A few drops of the red sulphocyanide of iron happening to fall upon the lime floor, I observed that they were immediately decolorized, and this naturally led me to make an experiment similar to that upon which Parkes' volumetric assay of copper is based. I dissolved some sulphate of iron, "green vitriol," in distilled water, and added a few drops of nitric acid, to peroxidise the solution, to which a single drop of the sulphocyanide solution was then sufficient to impart a deep red color. This color I removed effectually by the addition of about half the quantity of common lime water, leaving a perfectly clear solution. I have not had time or opportunity since to carry out the experiment to a practical result by standardizing a solution of lime with one of sulphocyanide of pure iron (piano wire); but I hope shortly to do so, and, in the meantime, would feel much obliged by the opinion of better chemists than myself, if there is any difficulty or serious objection in the way of such a process? If not, there can be little doubt that it would form the most simple and economical method of assaying iron ores, as lime water is procurable in almost any part of the world, and the quantity of sulphocyanide of potassium required is extremely small. I am, &c.,

W. A. Ross, Captain, R. A.

Woolwich, 28th December, 1867.

—*Chem. News.*

Chinese White Copper.

Packfong, or Pakfong, or Teutenag, is an alloy, known by these names among the Chinese, and is composed of nickel and zinc, of each seven parts, and copper five parts. Another quality, known by the same name, but more malleable, is composed of nickel, fifteen parts; copper, twenty-one parts, and zinc, twenty-eight parts. Both these alloys are sometimes called Chinese white copper, and are nearly the same as German silver. We give several formulæ for the latter:—Nickel and zinc, of each one part; of copper, two parts. This com-

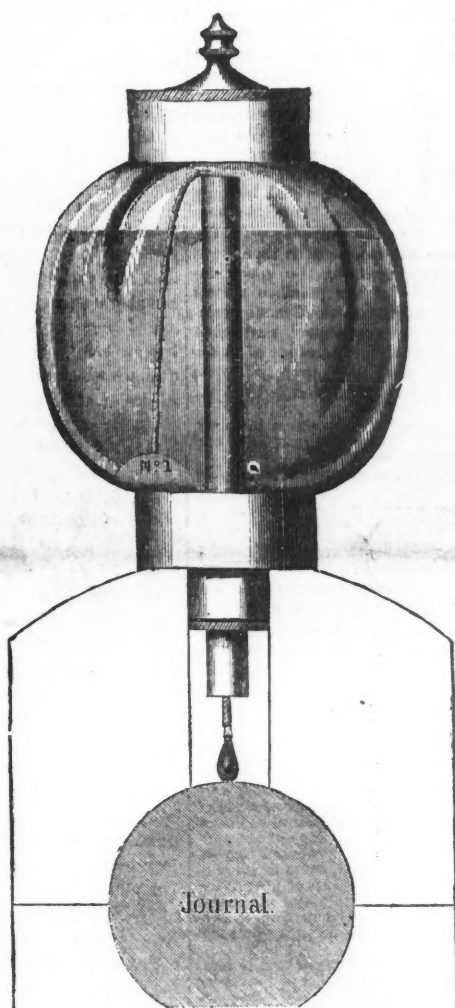


FIG. 2.

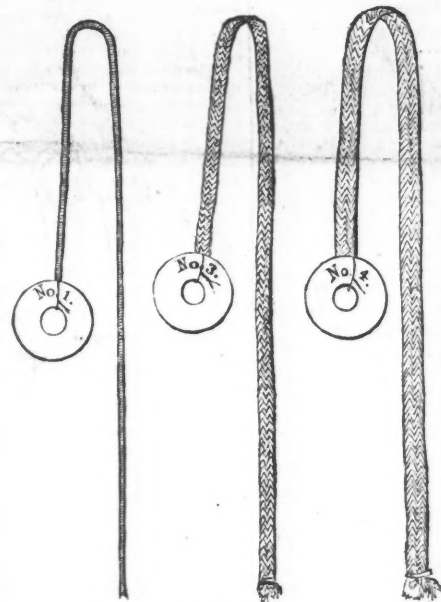


FIG. 1.



FIG. 3.

on their premises which were once troublesome and required constant attention, now, by the regularity of oiling with the feeders, have stopped heating and give no further trouble. J. B. WICKERSHAM & SON, No. 143 South Front street, Philadelphia, are the general agents, from whom all further information may be obtained.

Heavy Blasting in Limestone.

A blast, estimated to have brought down 25,000 cubic yards, or about 50,000 tons of limestone, was lately fired in Mr. Savin's quarry at Llanymynech. Preparations for the blast were made as long ago as September last. A level twelve yards in length was driven into the vertical face of the rock at a height of a few yards above the floor of the quarry. At the end of this level a cross level was driven right and left, and at each end a vertical shaft was sunk, besides a third at an intermediate point, these shafts reaching down to the level of the floor of the quarry. Chambers were formed at the

posses the finest quality. For rolling, nickel, twenty-five parts; zinc, twenty parts; copper, sixty parts. For castings, nickel and zinc, of each twenty parts; copper, sixty parts; lead, three parts. The original German silver is made from copper, forty parts; nickel, thirty-two parts; zinc, twenty-five parts; iron, three parts. All the above are used as substitutes for silver, to which they are in many cases preferable for durability.—*Jour. of App. Chem.*

The Drain of Silver to Asia.

The drain of silver to Asia forms the subject of some interesting considerations in Ross Browne's report, from which we are permitted to make the following extract:

It is admitted by eminent authors who have written about the present supply of the precious metals that it exceeds the demands of Christendom, and that the inevitable fall in value is retarded only by exceptional and temporary circumstances, the chief of which is the remarkable stream of silver pouring into Asia. The Hindoos, Chinese and Japanese are industrious and very populous nations, which have to import nearly all their gold and silver from abroad, and their capacity to absorb these metals increases as the value of the metals declines; and as their stock becomes greater their wages rise and they obtain the means to purchase more foreign goods, and after a time they will have as much coin proportionately to their productive power as the Christian nations, and then their imports of merchandise will nearly equal their exports, and the importation of the precious metals will not be one-tenth of the present figure. Asia was called 'the sink of silver' by Pliny, and it has deserved that name ever since, and will continue to deserve it for an uncertain period in the future. So long as we continue to consume so much tea, silk, sugar, rice, and other Asiatic products, and so long as they consume so few of our products, we must settle the difference by payment of the precious metals; and so long the precious metals will probably not decline much in value. But let the vessel of Asiatic trade, now half empty of silver, be once filled, as it will be in five, ten, or fifty years; and then we shall begin to feel the influence of the over supply of the precious metals, and their market value will fall rapidly. Christendom and Asia may be compared to two tubs standing side by side, and connected by a large open tube half way from the ground; and the supply of the precious metals to a stream of water falling into the tub, representing Christendom. Before the water reached the tube, or before the tube was well opened, the level rose very rapidly in the first tub; but now the stream pours so swiftly into the second, that the level can scarcely rise at all in the first. When the liquid gets up to the same level in both tubs, then it will rise with equal pace in both.

The quantity of silver annually exported from England and the Mediterranean to Asia has been as follows:

	England.	Mediterranean.	Total.
1851	\$ 8,392,500		\$ 8,392,500
1852	12,116,210		12,116,210
1853	23,550,000	\$ 4,240,000	27,790,000
1854	15,555,000	7,255,000	22,810,000
1855	32,075,000	7,620,000	39,695,000
1856	60,590,000	9,950,000	70,540,000
1857	86,477,170	10,180,291	96,657,461
1858	25,444,250	16,150,000	41,594,250
1859	33,298,120	7,340,280	40,638,400
1860	40,620,182	8,120,204	48,740,386
1861	36,399,175	7,980,000	44,379,175
1862	53,551,045	9,150,000	62,701,045
1863	38,236,191	29,281,000	67,517,191
1864	37,079,196	41,255,943	78,335,139
Total 14 years	\$503,365,035	\$147,522,718	\$650,885,853

Michael Chevalier (on gold, page 65) says that in 1857 £20,145,921 were sent to Asia, or about \$100,000,000.

The *Westminster Review* for January, 1864, says:

"In spite of our troubles in India, and a state of chronic warfare in China, the increase of our trade with the East during the last ten years has been enormous. This, too, may be looked upon as only the beginning of a commerce that must grow to proportions which cannot be estimated. The most important feature, too, of Eastern trade is the manner in which it absorbs the precious metals. This is a peculiarity so intimately bound up with the social condition of the East that it is likely to last as long as their ignorance and mutual mistrust. Until a system of credit can grow up among them like that which in Europe dispenses with the use of gold and silver for almost all things but retail transactions and the payment of labor, the East must ever remain a perfect sink for the precious metals. What amount of money would be sufficient to saturate the hoarding propensities of these hundreds of millions of men who believe in nothing but the little store they know of under some hearthstone or favorite hiding-place? There is no practical limit to the demand of the East for the precious metals, except the industry that they can develop in its acquisition, and that industry is susceptible of infinite development."

That passage is written in the supposition that a nation possessing an immense quantity of the precious metals in proportion to population could be a nation of hoarders. This idea, however, is entirely erroneous. There never was, nor is it probable that there ever will be, a wealthy nation of hoarders. With the exception of a few miserly individuals, hoarding is caused only by the lack of opportunities to invest profitably, the insecurity of titles to real estate, and the dangers of famine and war. Hoarding is far more frequent, relatively, in semi-barbarous than in civilized communities—more frequent in the country than in cities. As wealth increases, as education extends, as wars become rare, and as the titles to property become secure, the motives for hoarding cease. Hoarding is no doubt common now in Hindostan and China, but the main demand there for the precious metals is not for hoarding; it is for currency. We ship treasure to Asia because, on account of the greater scarcity of the precious metals, labor is cheaper, and because for that reason tea, cotton, rice, silk, and many other articles can be produced cheaper than here, and we find it more profitable to import than to produce at home. But the Hindoos and Chinese having far less trade and manufactures relatively than Europeans, do not need so much coin relatively, and the increase of the precious metals is ten-fold faster among them than the increase of business, so wages must rise, and their products must become dearer, and our gold and silver will have less relative value to them; and other of our productions will have more relative value. Then, our international trade will be more of exchange than now, and less of sale. Asia will always be a sink of the precious metals in so far as immense quanti-

ties must be lost, worn away, and used in the arts amidst such vast multitudes of people; and as the consumption is great and the yield nothing, there must be a steady stream pouring in; but this stream, after the level of industry has once been reached, will be much smaller relatively than now. The countries where labor is dearest must export treasure to those where it is cheaper; and the quantity of treasure that a nation will swallow up is proportioned to its industry and poverty.

Another late writer says:

"Regarding the amount of gold and silver afloat as currency in the various countries of the civilized world, there are very conflicting opinions; but, estimating the amount of gold and silver circulating in coin in Great Britain—the country in which, perhaps, the greatest economy of the precious metals consistent with the maintenance of the proper safeguards observed—at £80,000,000, and the population at 30,000,000; and estimating the currency of India in 1857 at an equal amount—an estimate, I venture to think high—and the population at 180,000,000, it requires but very little calculation to show that India is capable of yet absorbing silver to the amount of £400,000,000 in addition to this amount, for the purpose of currency alone. Nor must it be forgotten that India is able to support a population many millions more numerous than she at present possesses; nor, on the other hand, that England has many means of economizing the use of coin, which in consequence of her immense extent of area, will be denied to India, if not for ever, for many years to come. If, then, it be admitted that there is even a shadow of truth in these estimates, it may not be unreasonable to conclude that there is a possibility, distant it may be, yet still a possibility, if the requirements of India for currency purposes approaching the enormous sum of £500,000,000 in silver coin."

"It is useless to attempt to say how much currency a nation may use. The amount depends greatly upon its relative value. In an age when a day's work is worth ten cents, only one-tenth as many dollars will be needed for currency, other things being equal, as in an age when a day's work is worth a dollar. Wages in India will not remain at their present low rate, and their rise will in itself make a demand for money. We may presume that an addition of \$2,000,000,000 to the currency of Hindostan would raise wages there to the level of wages in Europe; and after that importation of silver would be only sufficient to compensate for the wear and tear. However long before that amount could be added to the currency of India, the Hindoos would demand more European goods than now, and these would pay, to a certain extent, for the goods exported from India, and the transfer of the precious metals would gradually decline. The larger the stock of money relatively, the higher the wages, and we may expect that when the sum of \$4,000,000,000 is added to the currency of Asia, the wages there will be as high as they now are in Europe; but before that time the wages may have doubled in Europe.

* The figures from 1851 to 1862 inclusive in the above table are copied from Hunt's Merchant's Magazine for August, 1864, and those for 1863 and 1864 from newspaper reports.

† The drain of silver to the East, and the currency of India. By W. Nassau Lees. London, 1864.

Original Papers.

[WRITTEN FOR THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF MINING.]
ON A THEORY OF GOLD GENESIS.

Being the substance of a Memoir read to the AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE, at the Buffalo meeting, August, 1866.

BY PROFESSOR HENRY WURTZ.

(Concluded from page 130.)

EDITOR AMERICAN JOURNAL OF MINING: SIR—Many inquiries having reached me, both directly and indirectly, relating to points in my theory which I had intended to discuss at length in subsequent papers, and most of which were comprehended in my original communication to the Association at Buffalo; I deem it advisable to anticipate, in a measure, the complete, and consequently slow and gradual, publication of the substance of that communication, which I at first proposed to you, and to condense into a few words as practicable, some of its concluding chapters; attaining in this way the object of presenting to your readers, without further delay, the remaining *postulates* of my theory in an intelligible form. I shall then be enabled, in subsequent numbers of your valuable journal, to enlarge upon and illustrate these views, as time may permit. I take the occasion to state that my studies have led me to form the plan of a general treatise upon the special subject of the modes of development of metalliferous minerals, from a chemical point of view. Upon the execution of this extensive and laborious plan, in detail, I am now engaged, and hope to be permitted in due time to put the results before the world in the form of a work entitled "Metallogenesis."

H. W.

IV.—EPOCH OF SUBAERIAL OXIDATION AND EROSION. The tide of time rolled on, and successive Eons were born of the Omnipotence and merged into the Eternity of the Ineffable Being. As the dynamic energies in the terrestrial substratum gradually died out, the pulsations or heavings of the continental breasts became doubtless slower and slower, until now the span of human history scarce furnishes a unit for their measure. The Earth was becoming fitted for our race; the sun shone full upon it, and differences of climate and variations of seasons began to prevail. Water-channels and river-systems began to form. The completed work of the ocean of waters was delivered up to the embrace of the ocean of air, whose functions are destruction and erosion. Since then the three great chemical solvents and disintegrators which ride upon the wings of the wind, Water, Frost and Oxygen, have held uninterrupted sway, over all those portions of our planet which had been so wonderfully and elaborately built up and furnished, for the dwelling-place of Man.

It is for us now to trace out and record the modes of action of these never-resting and insatiable destroyers, which have scored out the lake-beds and the river-valleys, and carved out the contours of the "everlasting hills." Into this immense inquiry, however, we can but now enter in the most superficial way, confining ourselves of course to the methods and products of the destructive agents in their chemical and mechanical operations upon the crystalline schists, with their contained auriferous sulphides; whose mode of formation we have hitherto been following step by step.

It will be seen that in my views of the transformations

now in progress through atmospheric agencies upon and within the surface, which involve the gold; I adopt as a starting point, the same generalization, of which I have hitherto made such important use, of the peculiar relation of the precious metals to iron solutions and oxygen. Important differences, however, occur in the concomitant chemical conditions between the present epoch and those past. Of these the most important is of course the great diminution of the heat-intensity, except in limited localities; by reason of which it might seem that the chemical effects of atmospheric agents should be far slower and less important now than formerly.

With regard to this, however, it must be remembered that the present lower temperatures are necessarily more favorable to the absorption of atmospheric oxygen; and above all, that there has necessarily been a constant increase in the proportion of this element since Life began; there being, indeed, a probability, amounting in my mind to certainty, that gaseous oxygen, like solid carbon, owes its terrestrial existence solely to vital action upon metallic sulphates and silicates (chiefly ferric and manganic), and upon carbonic acid. This is a point, however, which merits a separate chapter hereafter.

Another important difference is, that the organic matters, with which I have shown the superficial portions of the mass, at each emergence, to have been loaded, are now entirely converted into the insoluble forms of calcite, graphite, etc.; and it might appear that reducing agents are also now wanting. This is not so, however, for my experiments have developed the following facts, having a most important influence upon the metamorphoses now going on in auriferous rocks:

Pyrrhotine and chalcopyrite rapidly and readily reduce cold ferric solutions, but *pyrites* with great slowness or not at all.

In connection with this, I may cite the long-known fact that most pyrites (though there are exceptions, some varieties, from causes yet unexplained, resisting powerfully) readily yield to oxidation by atmospheric waters. At the lower temperatures now prevailing, however, it seems very probable that the primary metamorphoses now being effected by atmospheric agencies, are confined to those only in which dissolved oxygen takes part, water itself acting but as a solvent. I give here some of the simpler equations, expressing the changes which must be now going on in the rocks within the sphere of atmospheric influences; some of which have been given already (this Journal, Vol. V., p. 130):

- (1). $3\text{FeS} + \text{O}^7 = \text{FeO}, \text{SO}^2 + \text{Fe}^2 \text{O}^3 + \text{S}^2$
- (2). $3\text{FeS}^2 + \text{O}^7 = \text{FeO}, \text{SO}^2 + \text{Fe}^2 \text{O}^3 + \text{S}^5$
- (3). $6\text{FeS} + \text{O}^{27} = 2(\text{Fe}^2 \text{O}^3, 3\text{SO}^3) + \text{Fe}^2 \text{O}^3$
- (4). $4\text{FeS}^2 + \text{O}^{15} = \text{Fe}^2 \text{O}^3, 3\text{SO}^3 + \text{Fe}^2 \text{O}^3 + \text{S}^5$
- (5). $2\text{FeS} + \text{O}^9 = \text{Fe}^2 \text{O}^3, 2\text{SO}^3$
- (6). $4\text{FeS}^2 + \text{O}^{30} = 2(\text{Fe}^2 \text{O}^3, 3\text{SO}^3) + 2\text{SO}^3$
- (7). $3\text{FeS} + \text{O}^3 = \text{FeS}^2 + \text{Fe}^2 \text{O}^3 + \text{S}$
- (8). $3\text{FeS} + \text{O}^6 = \text{FeS}^2 + \text{Fe}^2 \text{O}^3, \text{SO}^3$
- (9). $5\text{FeS} + \text{O}^{15} = \text{FeS}^2 + 2(\text{Fe}^2 \text{O}^3, 3\text{SO}^3)$.

The waters falling or running upon the surface, charged with their maximum of dissolved oxygen, soak into the fissures, until they encounter sulphides. Within the zone in which oxygen is in excess, such reactions as No's (3), (5) and (6) are most likely to prevail; though it is often found, as stated once before, that the sulphur partially resists oxidation, as in No's (1), (2), (4) and (7). In cases in which the reactions No's (1) and (2) prevail, auriferous hematite or limonite gozzans may be found, even at the surface. No's (3) and (4) will also form similar gozzans; which may, however, be entirely impoverished, and the gold transported to deeper zones. No's (5) and (6) may leave the outcrops entirely stripped of both gold and sulphides; while No's (8) and (9) might carry down all the gold and still leave the surface rocks charged with impoverished pyrites.

Below this zone, there will be another where the sulphides will be in excess over the oxygen; this being frequently at or near what is called the "water-level," though as this is constantly changing with the seasons, and with the continuous and variable erosions of the surface, such boundary is generally very ill-defined. In this zone of imperfect and variable oxidation, much *pyrites* is usually found, even in cases in which the prevailing sulphides, in depth, are *pyrrhotine* or *chalcopyrite*. Equations (7), (8) and (9), explain this fact, and show also how even the *pyrites* in this zone may, in cases, be destitute of gold, even in an auriferous region.

In this same zone there must usually be, however, in places at least, a simultaneous action going on, of an opposite kind, a *reduction* of the ferric solutions percolating from the zone above, to ferrous conditions, by the reaction with *pyrrhotine* or *chalcopyrite* pointed out above, and a redeposition of any dissolved gold; which can here appear, therefore, wholly or partially, as palpable or "visible gold," sometimes in the crystalline form. Much of the ferric gold-solutions must nevertheless escape reduction in this zone, and pass down to a still deeper one, permanently below the water-level of the locality, where the circulation is usually slower and more diffused, and where the dissolved gold can hardly fail of being all reduced, sooner or later, either to the metallic state or to an auriferous sulphide.

I would give, as a brief comment on these views, that it is a common remark among the miners in Colorado and other districts, that they seldom "strike it rich," till the "metal," or the "iron" (Colorado terms for the sulphides) begins to show copper (generally either as *chalcopyrite* or *erubescite*).

It must not be forgotten that in the present brief summing

up of [the subject, I must confine myself to the simplest case. Complications arise from a multitude of causes; from the presence of blende, galena, arsenical or other ores, for example; and also from important mechanical causes, as for instance, when the outcrops of beds descend steep slopes, and water that has soaked in at a higher elevation finds its way out again at lower outcrops. It must not be forgotten, also, that the exceedingly important element always enters of the continual sinking downward of the several zones, of the water-level, and the level of penetration of oxygen, by virtue of superficial erosion; and that in and near gulches or valleys of torrents, most important variations of the phenomena must proceed from this cause, which are worthy of the most careful study; and in which I distinctly trace the explanation of the coarseness of aggregation of gulch and placer gold, and the formation of large nuggets.

It will be remarked that in this chapter I have avoided also the consideration of the applications of these views and principles to the special cases of the more auriferous beds, lodes, or "veins," which usually occur in auriferous rocks. I will merely say now, that the very fact that these veins or beds contain originally a larger proportion of sulphides than their imbedding rocks renders them more attackable by the percolating solutions—more especially when they contain much fissured quartz, and "vugs;" and they, therefore, soon become channels for the introduction of atmospheric oxygen, and undergo the changes above described more rapidly and completely.

Did space allow, I could proceed at great length to show how my theory furnishes ample means for the explanation of numerous peculiar phenomena of gold lodes, which have been mostly regarded as obscure; such, for example, as are denominated by the miners "shoots" of rich ore, "pockets," "chimneys," "pay-streaks," "caps," etc., etc. I might also show that many conflicting theories, founded upon observations of high authorities, in different countries, may be greatly reconciled; as, for instance, the views of MURCHISON upon the impoverishment in depth of the Ural veins, and the late period of their impregnation, and so on.

All these, and many other pregnant topics of discussion, may, however, be safely enough left for the future; and I shall close this chapter by condensing its substance into the form of two more postulates:

EIGHTH POSTULATE.

During the more recent epochs; those of continuous atmospheric agencies; the iron sulphides are being converted, by infiltrating waters carrying atmospheric oxygen, into ferric sulphates; which dissolve wholly or partially, throughout a superficial zone, the impalpable gold of the sulphide crystals, and carry it down to a deeper zone.

NINTH POSTULATE.

In this deeper zone, where oxygen is no longer in excess, these auriferous ferric solutions may be reduced again, by ferrous sulphides, to ferrous forms; and the gold may thus be again deposited in the cavities and fissures, wholly or partially, in visible, coherent, compact, massive, or even crystalline forms.

V.—GENESIS OF FLUVIATILE AND LACUSTRINE GOLD.

My present limits will allow only, with regard to this concluding branch of the subject (upon which a whole chapter might be written), that I shall compress the views I adopt, into the space of a final postulate.

TENTH POSTULATE.

Finally—Placer gold, in the forms of grains and nuggets proceeds from the solution, corrosion and disintegration, of rocks which have passed through the conditions and operations specified—by water, oxygen and frost; and the subsequent removal and deposition of the ruins, by and in moving waters.

[WRITTEN FOR THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF MINING.]

ON THE VENTILATION OF COAL MINES—IX.

By J. W. HARDEN, C.E., Wilkesbarre, Penn.

Concluded from Page 227.

In concluding these, my letters, on the Ventilation of Mines, a few general remarks will not be out of place, even though at the risk of repetition.

Whatever are the motive powers employed, it is a *sine qua non* that the air courses be capacious and properly distributed over the pit. It may be that a large current is escaping at the upcast, but it is not from such fact apart from a knowledge of the arrangement below, that we are able to judge of the quality of the ventilation. Large air courses and a slow current are preferable to small courses and a rapid current.

The area of the main roads must not be reduced at a crossing, and the crossings should be made in the measure, either above or below, and, if necessary, built in with a brick arch. Neglected falls of the roof and sides of the air courses are a source of danger too often permitted.

In any scheme of ventilation there should be as few doors as possible; these should be, in all cases, double, and hung so as to close of themselves.

Bratticed shafts are objectionable, more particularly for deep mines. The number of shafts should depend on the area of coal to be worked. When there are two shafts, if one is sunk on either side of the area, the upcast being on the rise side, so much the better; but it frequently happens that the coal is out of the reach of practicable working depth, excepting at an enormous cost; the shafts may then both be sunk to the rise, but with such a space of undisturbed measures between

them that there may be plenty of room for headways, and that an explosion may not be sufficient to dislocate the separation.

Although in England the law is absolute on this point, yet two shafts are certainly not enough for working some of the large collieries there. It has long been an opinion of the writer, almost amounting to a conviction, that, with a greater number of openings to the surface, the liability to such fearful calamities would be less. An abundant supply of pure air properly distributed, is the only effectual means of preventing explosions, and the consequent sacrifice of life.

The shafts of every deep pit should be lined with brick or stone in mortar, the surface over which the air has to pass, should be smooth and even. The abrupt terminations of the timber linings in our shafts, are just so many abutments for the air to rush against and rebound.

Care should be taken that the stoppings of all drifts and cross-cuts be built air-tight and strong, and all places suspected to contain fire-damp, and not in actual working and extension, should be fenced off. Trials for fire-damp should not be made with the naked light. The Davy lamp will show the presence of gas quicker than the "Geordie"; a larger quantity of gas gets into it: yet in all the safety-lamps with which the writer is acquainted, an observant man will detect the gas on the flame at pretty nearly the same time.

Where safety-lamps are used, gunpowder should be prohibited. At least, it should not be used at the will of the miner. An experienced overman should be appointed to fire the shots; and he will not do so at all where the mine is doubtfully safe.

The miner should not be allowed to smoke, or take the top off his lamp. Men will do this, not always heedless of danger, but with an impression that there is none. The lamp should be securely locked. It is essentially necessary that all miners should be instructed in the use of the safety-lamp. They will then know when danger approaches; and it will be well to keep their knowledge within the limit of extreme danger. In approaching old workings, it is well to use the safety-lamp, and to keep a bore hole in advance, in the places being driven. Unless the pit is worked on double shift, a miner should not be allowed to enter his working place, until it has been examined by the overman appointed to that duty. Where the furnace is used for ventilation, the practice of backing it up at night and starting it again in the morning, is to be deprecated. It can only save coal and attendance—an item not worth consideration, compared with the health of the men and safety of the mine. The flue or drift carrying off the heated air from the furnace, or from any underground engine, should be daily examined.

To give, in detail, all the acts of precaution necessary to the safe working of collieries under the varied conditions in which we find them, is more than the limits of these letters will permit. Rules and regulations absolutely necessary, if adopted and carried out, will assist in preventing accident, will improve the intellectual and moral condition of the miners, and gradually lead to more care and attention on the part of the underlookers, and to less recklessness on the part of the men; but before looking fully to realize the benefits to be derived from rules, advance must be made in another quarter. The time has to come when, to prevent accident, secure to the miner a tolerable share of health, and at the same time keep expenses at a minimum, it will be necessary that superintendents and overlookers must be educated for their posts. Those upon whom the daily and hourly conduct of the mines necessarily falls, must be possessed of such an amount of scientific information, as would not fail to induce greater vigilance in carrying out necessary rules and precautions. Obvious enough to scientific men, such discipline is difficult or almost impossible to obtain in practice from men who, however willing to do their duty, do not fully understand or appreciate the reason and value of precautions. When such scientific, with the proper, practical information, becomes the standard of competency in the selection of men for the management of collieries, an important step towards lessening the number of accidents, and increasing the profits of employers, will have been taken. Indeed, without such training in those entrusted with the carrying on of this dangerous and yet constantly increasing branch of commercial enterprise, there is nothing to be relied on for the protection of either life or capital.

[WRITTEN FOR THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF MINING.]

NOTES ON SANTO DOMINGO.

By ROBERT HAUSCHKE, Mining Engineer, New York.

Concluded from page 226.

Southeast of the Laguna de Enriquillo occurs a mountain mass, which acquires especial importance from the circumstance that it consists almost throughout of beautiful, clear rock salt. Salt already begins to show itself, however, some fifty miles further east, where the zoophytic limestone is traversed by innumerable small veins of it, from a quarter-inch to two inches in thickness. Towards the west, these salt-veins (if I may call them so) gradually increase in size, while the limestone is more and more subordinated, until, at the Cerros de Sal, it has almost entirely disappeared. Moreover, the whole coast-region along the Bays of Ocoa and Neyba is blessed with numerous salt springs, which must either come directly out of the limestone, or break through the conglomerate further in-

land, or proceed from a bituminous sandstone still higher up, on the spurs of the southern coast range.

An American company obtained from the Dominican government authority to work the rock salt deposit which I have described, and intended to build a railroad, seven leagues long, from the village of Barahona, on the Bay of Neyba, to the Cerro de Sal. There were no great difficulties in the way of the enterprise; and it would have enabled the projectors to deliver salt at the coast for seven cents a bushel; but the plan was not carried out, principally, I believe, because it was feared that the United States would lay a high tariff upon imported salt.

Sulphur springs are also frequent in this part of the island; and one in particular, which is tributary to the small creek Sesesipi (flowing into the Bay of Ocoa) is so rich in sulphur as to coat with that substance the pebbles and plants with which it comes in contact.

Almost due west from Agna de Compostela, and at a distance of about four miles, occurs another important product, namely, petroleum. These oil-springs have long been known to the inhabitants, among whom the petroleum is highly reputed for medicinal purposes. It will be remembered that the petroleum of the United States, under the name of Seneca oil, was also used medicinally for many years, before it was successfully applied on a large scale as an illuminating or lubricating material. The oil of Santo Domingo is the heaviest yet discovered. In its crude condition it is an excellent lubricator for the coarser parts, and, purified, it is equally applicable to the finer parts, of machinery; and, distilled, it furnishes a good "paint-oil."

The carboniferous formation, in which these oil-springs occur, is covered with loose conglomerate, varying in thickness from four to sixty feet. On the banks of the Rio Trabon, which flows by the springs, about a quarter-mile distant, a good opening exposed the following series of strata:

- 10 feet, loose conglomerate;
- 3 " sandstone (coarse grained);
- 1 " solid conglomerate;
- 5 " 6 inches sandstone (coarse-grained);
- 3 " gray slates;
- 2 " spherosiderite;
- 4 " sandstone (fine-grained); slates.

These lowest slates, when exposed to the air, easily disintegrate and crumble. They seem to form a very thick deposit; at all events, they are not passed through by a bore-hole ninety-five feet deep.

One of the petroleum springs yielded so much gas that the continual agitation was like boiling. The ground in the neighborhood of the springs is saturated with petroleum, and in many places asphaltum has been formed, frequently to a depth of several feet.

The carboniferous formation, which only occupies a small district on the Bay of Ocoa, appears in much greater development on the Peninsula of Samana. In this region petroleum also occurs; and what is probably of far greater importance, coal.

The significance of this fact will be apparent when it is considered, (1) that coal has not been, and probably will not be, discovered on any other of the Antilles; (2) that the coal beds of Venezuela have never been worked; (3) that commerce and industry in this quarter of the world are now dependent upon English coal; and (4) that the United States is negotiating with the Dominican government for the purchase of the Bay and Peninsula of Samana, with a view to the establishment at that point of a coaling station.

Safety Lamps.

Provisional protection has been granted to Mr. Samuel Higgs, junior, of Penzance, for certain "Improvements in Miners' Safety Lamps," which are described as follows:—For the purposes of this invention, the gauze of the ordinary Davy lamp is encased in a tube made partly of glass, and partly of gauze; this tube or casing forms of itself a separate safety-lamp, and encloses the whole of the Davy lamp. Instead of the ordinary wick, a flat plaited wick, dipped in a preparation of tallow, is substituted. By these means, 1st. There can be no chance of explosion however strong the current of air; 2nd. The lamp cannot be tampered with, the inner lamp being locked with one description of fastener, and the casing with another; 3rd. By the use of the prepared flat wick, the pricker or trimmer is done away with; 4th. That part of the tube or case around the lamp being made of glass, a much better light is obtained. The invention thus consists in the encasing of any safety-lamp in a tube or case made of glass, or of both; the double locks and the plaited wick as obviating the necessity of a trimmer.—*London Colliery Guardian*.

Yearly Mercury Production of the Earth

This is estimated at 61,000 cwt., of which 20,000 come from Spain; California (New Almaden), 28,000; other California mines, 7,500; Peru, 3,000; and from Germany, Austria, and France, 2,500. Mexico, Peru, Chili, and Bolivia consume yearly 23,000 cwt. in the production of silver; China and Japan, for making cinnabar and producing silver, about 10,000. The remainder is consumed in Australia and California for gold and silver extraction, and in Europe and the United States for various industrial purposes. The supply is about equal to the demand.

Roasting of Pyrites.

Experiments lately carried on in the laboratory of Prof. Otto (*Collegium Carolinianum*, Brunswick), as to the production of sulphur from pyrites, have shown that by the process of extracting the sulphur by roasting in a current of air, by far the larger proportion is evolved in white vapors of anhydrous sulphuric acid, the smaller part only (5:3) as sulphurous acid gas.—*Dingler's Journal*, 1868.

SAN FRANCISCO, CAL., March 18, 1868.

There is a fair inquiry for Pig Iron, with sales in lots of about 500 tons Scotch, chiefly from second hands, in lots, at \$40 cash; \$41, 30 days, and \$42 50 on 60 and 90 days. Holders are now asking \$42 50.

THE COAL TRADE.

New York, April 17, 1868. No new feature characterized the trade during the past week. Trade has been unaccountably dull for this season of the year.

The amount of coal exported from the port of New York for the week ending April 11 was: Exports for the week 993 tons.

From January last do 18,688 same time last year do 15,513

Decrease 1,825

Boston, April 15, 1868. English Canal is quiet and prices are nominally \$20 per ton.

PHILADELPHIA, April 14, 1868. The market continues dull. We quote Locust Mountain lump and steamboat at \$3 50, do broken, \$3 00 @ 65; do, egg, \$3 90 @ 10; stove, \$4 00 @ 25; Red Ash, Egg and Stove, \$4 10 @ 40; Lehigh lump, steamboat and broken, \$3 00; do, prepared, \$5 00; do, chestnut, \$4 25.

The following table exhibits the quantity of Coal passed over the following routes of transportation for the week ending April 11, 1868:

Table with columns: 1867, 1868, INC. OR DEC. and sub-columns for WEEK, YEAR, WEEK, YEAR. Rows include Pull. & Reading R. R., Schuylkill Canal, Lehigh Valley R. R., Lehigh Canal, Scranton North, etc.

Schuylkill Coal Trade.

Table with columns: RAILROAD, CANAL. Rows include St. Clair, Port Carbon, Pottsville, Schuylkill Haven, Auburn, Port Clinton.

Cumberland Coal Trade.

Table with columns: RAILROAD, CANAL. Rows include By B. & O. RAILROAD, By B. & O. CANAL.

Table with columns: SHIPPERS, RAILROAD, CANAL, Grand Total. Rows include FROM MAUCH CHUNK, WYOMING REGION, FRANKLIN REGION, etc.

Table with columns: FROM B. M. REGION, New York & Lehigh, Honey Brook Coal Co., Ger Pa. Coal Co., Spring Mountain, etc.

Table with columns: HAZLETON REGION, Central Coal Co., Ashburton Coal Co., Mt. Pleasant, Hazleton (A. P. & Co.), etc.

Table with columns: U. LEHIGH REGION, U. Lehigh Coal Co., Other Shippers.

Table with columns: MAHANoy REGION, Trenton Coal Co., Mount Eta Coal Co., Mahanoy Colliery, Coplay Colliery, etc.

Table with columns: SPECIAL COALS, DEALERS' QUOTATIONS. Rows include Diam'd Vein R. A., Schuylkill 6 00, Locust Dale W. A., etc.

Table with columns: At Philadelphia, April 17, 1868. Rows include Lehigh Lump and Steamboat, Broken and Egg, etc.

Table with columns: Prices for Pittston Coal at Newburgh, April 17, 1868. Rows include Lump, per ton of 2240 lbs., Steamboat, etc.

Table with columns: Lehigh Coal at Elizabethport, April 17, 1868. Rows include Lump, Steamboat and Broken, Egg.

Table with columns: Wilkesbarre Coal at Hoboken, April 17, 1868. Rows include Lump, Steamboat, Broken.

Table with columns: Prices of Gas Coals. Rows include Provincial, Coarse, Slack, Gold, etc.

Coal Freights.

Table with columns: Rates of Freight from Newburgh. Rows include On "Pittston" Coal, by boats and barges, etc.

Table with columns: Rates of Freight from Port Richmond, Philadelphia. Rows include St. Johns, Portland, Boston, Salem, etc.

Table with columns: Rates of Freight from Elizabethport and Port Johnston. Rows include Albany, Boston, Bridgeport, etc.

Table with columns: Rates of Transportation to Tide Water. Rows include Philadelphia and Reading R. R., Brunswick and South of Cape Henry, etc.

Table with columns: Prices of Coal by the Cargo. Rows include Schuylkill R. A., choice, Lehigh Broken, etc.

Table with columns: Dealers in these Coals may be found in our advertising columns. Rows include Lehigh Lump and Steamboat, Broken and Egg, etc.

Table with columns: Lackawanna at Rondout, April 17, 1868. Rows include Lump, Steamboat, Grate.

Table with columns: Lehigh Coal at Elizabethport, April 17, 1868. Rows include Lump, Steamboat and Broken, Egg.

Table with columns: Wilkesbarre Coal at Hoboken, April 17, 1868. Rows include Lump, Steamboat, Broken.

Table with columns: Prices of Gas Coals. Rows include Provincial, Coarse, Slack, Gold, etc.

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NEW YORK, SATURDAY, APRIL 18.

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THE PROBABLE EXHAUSTION OF ENGLISH COAL MINES.

Prof. W. STANLEY JEVONS, of Owen's College, Manchester, recently lectured on this subject at the Royal Institution, London. We quote the condensed report of the *Mining Journal*.

"In his introductory remarks he referred to the recent enormous increase in the quantities raised from the mines of Great Britain—64,600,000 tons in 1854, and 101,630,000 in 1856. He stated that about half the carrying power of British railways is occupied in conveying coal, and that it would require a fleet of five times the amount of tonnage of the whole of the vessels which now enter English ports in a year to bear the whole of that coal, it being the greatest trade ever carried on. Every pound of it is intrinsically of extreme value, since the heat it yields is capable of conversion into mechanical power, light, and electricity—in short, into any form of force. As almost all our manufactures are carried on by the aid of coal, directly or indirectly, there is every reason to suppose that its employment will become more and more general. It is thus the mainspring in our prosperity. Even the economical use of coal tends to extend rather than restrict its use, for the cheaper the performance of an engine is, the more profit is derived from it, and the more engines are employed; and this Mr. Jevons proved from the history of the steam-engine. He expressed the opinion that the notion that electricity would eventually supersede coal is fallacious, because coal is the cheap source from which electricity itself is derived, and new machines are now being invented by which electricity will be more economically obtained by its help; and, should any new and unknown source of power be some day discovered, we have no reason to suppose that Britain will possess supplies of it so richly as she possesses coal. Mr. Jevons said that the limited extent of the British coal mines will prevent us from much longer extending the production of coal as rapidly as in late years; and other countries will soon develop their more abundant mines, and in time will enjoy a larger supply of coal than we do. He desired that it should be especially understood that he had never supposed the English mines could be literally exhausted. What he had asserted was that coal would become dearer here and cheaper abroad; and that, instead of producing more than half the total supply of coal in the world, we should, after 60 or 100 years were passed, produce only a small fraction of it. This was what he meant by the exhaustion of our coal mines."

Prof. JEVONS draws a distinction between the literal exhaustion of the English mines, and their economical exhaustion. This may be well enough for philosophers, but it carries cold comfort for statesmen and owners of consols. To say, "we have plenty of coal left, but it will cost us more to get it than it is worth," is like saying, "I have a magnificent es-

tate, but it is mortgaged for twice its value, and if I would sell it, I should be obliged to add a bonus to induce a buyer to accept it."

We agree with the Professor that the discovery of new sources of motive power, more economical than coal, is a very unlikely thing. The developments of science indicate the improbability of any such discovery. We now know that electricity, chemical force, gravity, etc.—all the so-called physical forces, are correlatives of heat; and heat is that force which may be most conveniently transformed into motion. We may use electricity as a motive power; but we are only using another form, as it were, of heat; and, so far as we can judge, a much less convenient form. In other words, if all the work now performed by coal were performed by electricity, we should still consume as much coal, and probably more.

The world's treasure of coal exceeds the store of any other source of power with which we are acquainted. The sun, indeed, communicates to us daily an immense amount of force, which we consume in processes of organic life, radiating the remainder back into space. Will sunlight become a motor? But what is coal but sunlight, accumulated at compound interest! We draw checks on our coal-banks, for wealth that was deposited ages before our race was born.

Suppose, then, that in fifty or a hundred years, England's great supply of power becomes so exhausted that, "instead of producing more than half the total supply of coal in the world, she should produce only a small fraction of it." The result would be gradual, but inevitable and final, ruin of her commercial supremacy. We do not know why mankind at large, or even the English people in particular, should grieve at such a result. It is not only the diminution of the coal that portends this change. Several important social and political signs point in the same direction.

In the first place the encroachments of Russia in Asia, and the schemes of France in Egypt and Arabia, tend to deprive the British Empire of its vast Indian provinces, or, at all events, to take from England the only thing for which she values those provinces, the Indian trade. On the other hand, the Pacific railroad and the steamship line from San Francisco to China put New York like a toll-gate between England and that quarter of the world. English houses will be obliged to establish their branches and agencies here; American houses will multiply and wax strong: coal or no coal, the world's commercial center of gravity is changing its place.

The social condition of England herself is no less significant. Every year shows the soil of that country distributed among fewer proprietors. Large tracts of land are returning to the uncultivated condition, to serve as parks and preserves for gentlemen; the rich are constantly growing richer, and the poor, poorer. Hundreds of thousands are annually leaving the shores of their native land to seek in the New World that permanent foot-hold which they cannot maintain at home.

Wise proprietors of mines or factories know very well that to secure willing, faithful, and permanent labor, they must give their workmen homesteads. "A cottage and a piece of ground" goes a long way. But society in England is organized on the opposite plan, and when that day has come, the portentous shadow of which already darkens the noon of national prosperity; when the diminished resources of England can no longer maintain, in spite of geographical disadvantages, her commanding commerce and manufactures, there will be nothing to prevent the workingmen from leaving that soil which they do not own. The operation of all these causes may be delayed by measures of wise statesmanship; but we do not see how the result can be considered otherwise than inevitable.

In the words of a youthful stump orator, "Sir, we are told that 'westward the star of the empire takes its way;' and history confirms the assertion of the poet. But that star, whose rays now begin to illumine this great American continent, can go no further west than this; for geography informs us that the other side of the Pacific Ocean is where the East begins! That star, sir, that star, I say, will soon have reached the climax of its glory, and will blaze resplendent in our zenith, nevermore to waver or to set; while round and round it, in brilliant constellations, will revolve the lesser lights of the other nations of the world!"

Patriotic and astronomical prophecy can no further go!

THE GEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF CALIFORNIA.

The telegraph has recently brought us news of a calamity that will be regretted by all interested in the progress of science and the prosperity of our Pacific States. The Legislature of California, with a short-sighted economy that appears to us perfectly incomprehensible, has abolished the Geological Survey of that State, at a point in its career when it was just about giving to the world the most important of its results. A small but laborious corps has been for upwards of seven years, under the leadership of a man whose position is deservedly at the head of his profession in the United States, contending against all the disadvantages and hardships incident to frontier travel, in a country where settlements are scattered, roads few, among rough mountains, exposed for weeks at a time to the snow and rain.

Inspired by the energy and indomitable pluck of their chief, they have persevered, in the belief that they would be amply rewarded by the eventual publication of the results of their labors in a manner alike creditable to themselves and to the State that had inaugurated so noble an undertaking.

There was not a man in the commission, from its chief to his most subordinate assistant, but could at any time have commanded a much larger salary outside the Survey than in it. Their continuance in the work was therefore a direct pecuniary sacrifice; and the action of the Legislature in not providing for the publication of the reports must be looked on as little short of an indirect breach of faith on the part of the State.

On no one does this blow fall more severely than on Prof. WHITNEY himself. To his individual zeal and pertinacity is due the continuance of the work up to the present time. He has fought for it through evil as well as good report. At a time, in its earlier history, when nearly the whole press of California was clamoring against him, he persevered, advancing his own private funds to keep his parties in the field. The State, meanwhile, was sometimes in his debt to the amount of more than half of an annual appropriation. During the "oil fever" he made for himself a noble record, and accomplished more than any one man towards saving the reputation of California, by opposing the preposterous speculative schemes of that period, instead of making friends, like the unjust steward, against a day of trouble. His uniformly upright and consistent course won for him the support of one after another of the papers, until during the last year there was not a single journal of any prominence in San Francisco, Sacramento, or any of the smaller cities, that did not speak in terms of commendation of the Survey.

But there is another and more comprehensive point of view from which this matter must be considered. During the continuance of the work, successive legislatures appropriated upwards of \$126,000, and with this sum an immense amount of valuable information was obtained. The whole general geological structure of the State had been worked out, its natural productions, animal and vegetable, had been collected and studied, its minerals and fossils investigated, and a series of maps nearly finished that would have surpassed in excellence and accuracy anything of the kind ever produced in the United States. These maps alone were worth more than the total amount of the appropriations. But one of them has been published; and so great was the demand for it, that the whole of the first edition was sold in San Francisco within a week of its appearance. The State, after having incurred the great expense of collecting this vast and varied information, now voluntarily foregoes the material advantage (to put it on the level of legislative understanding, let us plainly say, the MONEY) to be derived from its publication—a piece of suicidal policy which we cannot understand.

Had the plan of the Survey been carried out as ordered by the legislature that inaugurated it—"an accurate and complete geological survey of this State, with proper maps and diagrams thereof, together with a full and scientific description of its rocks, fossils, soils and minerals, and of its botanical and geological productions"—the reports and maps would have comprised a library of scientific and economic information, equalling in value the deservedly admired reports of the New York commission. Besides the persons directly connected with the work in California, many of the most eminent scientific men of the country had been engaged for several years as co-laborers in their specialties. Two complete volumes have already been published, one on general geology and one on the fossils; besides which, parts of three other volumes and the one map, above mentioned, have appeared. Professor WHITNEY's plan, as embodied in his letter to the Governor, was to publish in all from eleven to fifteen volumes; of which, besides those already issued, we are credibly informed, several were either ready for the press or in an advanced stage of completion.

The telegraph tells us that the legislature has made an appropriation of \$15,000 to pay deficiencies, and to carry on the office work to the end of the current fiscal year, or to wind up the affairs of the Survey. We sincerely trust that some additional provision has been made for the publication of the reports now ready. The information to be obtained from a meagre telegraphic message is, at best, unsatisfactory; and we can only hope for the best, while we fear for the worst. Professor WHITNEY, we understand, expects to sail for the East this month, and will doubtless very soon assume his new duties at Cambridge, where a professorship has been waiting for him for several years.

PRO AND CON.

There seems to be a lively difference of opinion concerning the new discoveries of gold-bearing quartz in the Sweetwater region, Utah. The Helena, Montana, *Herald* undertakes to expose the delusion that these discoveries are of great value, and goes so far as to say that "there is no such place as South Pass City, and no such mines as the Sweetwater mines, save in the imagination." At the same time, it asserts, that "of course there are taverns, saloons, gaming houses, and other public institutions there, ever ready to take the poor pilgrim and prospector in, and go through him for his bottom dollar."

The Fort Bridger, Utah, *Sweetwater Mines*, replies with vigor and directness, to the effect that the *Herald* is a "vehicle of falsehood and all uncharitableness," "a detestable sheet;" that its editor is an "ink-slinger," and ought to "put his head in soak, before he again exposes his ignorance of a country, of whose resources he is no more competent to judge than a jackass-rabbit;" and that "South Pass City contains over one hundred substantial buildings, and as many more in

course of erection, yet there is not, neither has there been, up to the present time, a single tavern, saloon, gaming-house, or other public institution in the country." "The fact of the Sweetwater mines," says their vivacious namesake, "being rich and extensive, is established beyond the shadow of a doubt, and the puny efforts of a thousand such slanderous sheets as the *Herald* can no more retard their progress and development than can the Niagara be dammed with straw."

The dispute turns, after all, on the meaning of words. What is a "city," and what is a "mine?" Doubtless the Montanese definition of the former term includes the saloons and gaming-houses; but as to the latter, the notions of all "Pacific coasters" and possibly also of the gentile inhabitants of Utah, are extremely vague. The prevailing impression appears to be that a mine is a stake set in the ground. The "ink-slinger" who charges that the Sweetwater mines exist only in imagination, should remember that nine-tenths of the mines in the country have the same indefinite locality. The Western use of language is prophetic, though sometimes the profits are deceptive! At all events, this is apparently a case where the pot should not call the kettle black.

We confess that the picture of the virtue and sobriety of the Sweetwater district given by our Fort Bridger cotemporary is "pretty strong painting;" and, if correct, it is calculated to raise a suspicion or two as to the remunerative character of the Sweetwater industry thus far. In spite of much faith in human nature, we are constrained to believe that only extreme poverty could force one of our western mining communities to go without its "public institutions." The saloon generally makes its appearance as soon as the gold; and if there are no sharpers after the "pilgrim's bottom dollar," the reason is apt to be, that the pilgrim has already parted with that interesting coin.

The *Deseret News*, of Salt Lake, discourses upon the same text in a different tone:

"We hear of gold mines being discovered on the Sweetwater and other places, and understand that some young men and others seriously think of going to dig for gold as soon as the roads will admit of their traveling. If they do, we can assure them that disappointment and sorrow will be the results of such attempts on their part. They will have the faith of this entire people to contend against, for in every household in our land, if the people are alive to their duties, fervent prayers ascend every day to God that the gold and the silver in our neighborhood may be covered up, so that none may be successful in finding them. Gold may be found in abundance at the Sweetwater. Of this we have no wish to express an opinion at present. But no matter how plentiful it may be, it is no place for a man professing to be a Latter Day Saint."

This sort of preaching will have the effect of stimulating the eagerness of the gentiles, and perhaps of increasing the restlessness of the faithful. We should not be surprised to see an irruption of the Saints into the mining business. At all events, the wealth of that agricultural community of patriarchs would be greatly increased by the development of the mineral resources of the country, and the consequent establishment of new markets for all products of industry. If the Church continues to protest and forbid, it will be Mammon vs. Mormon.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

The secretary of a copper mining company in New Mexico wishes us to favor him with a description of a copper furnace on a cheap plan, with the capacity to smelt, say, two tons at each smelting. He also desires to know the amount and quality of stone, brick and clay required for its erection, and what other articles are necessary to put everything in working order. As data for our judgment, he gives the facts that the company's shaft is 150 feet deep; that there are on the dump 100 tons of very fine ore, averaging 48 per cent. of copper, and that the "main bottom vein" is growing better and richer every day. An early answer will greatly oblige, as the company desires to begin smelting as soon as possible.

We are flattered by the childlike confidence with which these gentlemen submit to us a question of so much difficulty, without giving us any particulars to hamper our decision, and propose to act at once upon the advice we may give them. Yet, on second thought, the compliment appears to be but a dubious one. Only entire ignorance of the problems involved, and the labor required for their solution, could permit any one to believe that an inquiry like the above would be of assistance to him in the prosecution of the work. The metallurgy of copper is one of the most intricate branches of the art. There are innumerable varieties of method; and the choice among them must depend upon local circumstances. First of all, it is absolutely necessary to know what is the nature of the ore. Our New Mexican friends do not say whether it is an oxidized or a sulphuretted ore; whether it contains lead, silver, gold, antimony or arsenic; whether it has a siliceous or a calcareous gangue. They only inform us that it averages 48 per cent. in the "top vein," and that the "main bottom vein" is constantly growing "better and richer." How is this change taking place: by the gradually increasing predominance of ore over gangue, or by the disappearance of one variety of ore and the appearance of another? It would be wise to wait until the permanent character of the ore is ascertained, before deciding how to treat it.

Again, is it desired to make fine copper, or black copper, or copper matt? What is the market value of these products, and what are the costs of mining, sorting and freight? It is necessary to know these things, before deciding how much money can properly be expended in metallurgical operations. What building materials are available in the neighborhood?

What mineral fluxes? What is the cost of labor? Are there any skilled laborers—masons, blacksmiths, &c., not to speak of smelters—to be obtained?

When all these points, and others equally important, are fully elucidated, it is the work of an experienced metallurgist to combine them into a plan, to make the drawings and specifications for furnaces, and to decide upon the details of the process. If our friends desire this done, we can assist them in finding the proper person to advise them; but we warn them that any advice given at a distance, and without personal knowledge of all the circumstances, must of necessity be somewhat uncertain.

Moreover, when the plans are all fixed and elaborated, it is the most difficult work of all to build and run the works. The better the process and apparatus—i. e., the more nicely fitted to the particular case—the more certainly will they fail in incompetent hands. There is just one way, and only one, to carry on a manufacturing business; and that is, to secure a man who has been trained to superintend it. It is true that, in the course of time, people will learn something from experience; but it has taken the world several thousand years to learn by experience what is known about metallurgy; and this New Mexican company cannot afford to wait so long as that.

Finally, it may be asked, cannot ores be treated, in cases like the one under consideration, by rude and imperfect processes, so as to secure a profit to the proprietors, even though with considerable waste? We will not undertake to deny that this is sometimes the case; but we do not wish to encourage such reckless squandering of the mineral resources of the country; and we are glad to know that in most cases it brings its own punishment. Some loss is unavoidable in all the operations of mining; but loss through mere ignorance and greed of immediate profit is inexcusable.

We sympathize with our New Mexican correspondents. If we were in person on the spot, we might help them. At this distance, we must decline to judge for them; and our best advice to them is to light the lantern of Diogenes and go prospecting for a man.

THE LURMANN IMPROVEMENT IN BLAST FURNACES.

The description of the improvement in iron blast furnaces, invented by Herr FRITZ LURMANN, and represented in this country by Mr. GEORGE ASMUS, which we gave our readers a few months ago, has been copied into some of the most prominent foreign scientific journals, and made the subject of considerable comment. Although this is a German invention, the *AMERICAN JOURNAL OF MINING* was the first periodical in the world to give it public discussion and appreciation. Our readers will remember that we have frequently alluded to it since our first article on the subject, and have not hesitated to express our opinion, that it is one of the few radical improvements in metallurgy which the last twenty years have witnessed.

American ironmasters are too intelligent not to perceive the advantages offered by a closed front and continuous automatic slag-discharge; and it was not long after we called attention to these points before the Lehigh Crane Iron Works, at Cataqua, Penn., made trial of the new invention.

We have before us a letter from Mr. DAVID THOMAS, the veteran ironmaster, President of the works which bear his name, and well known to the iron men of this country as foremost in this department of industry. Higher authority upon such a subject could not be required nor obtained. Mr. THOMAS alludes to the LURMANN-ASMUS patent as follows:

"We have Mr. ASMUS' plan on No. 2 and No. 4 here (Cataqua) and also at Lock Ridge. The new furnace there is doing admirably well from the start. If I had a hundred furnaces, I would apply Mr. ASMUS' plan to every one of them. Crane Co.'s No. 2 is making fifteen per cent. more iron and better iron than last year on the old plan; and the labor is not more than two-thirds of the old way."

We do not wonder that Mr. FRITZ, of Bethlehem, superintendent of the new Northampton furnace, has adopted this extraordinary improvement at the very outset. In a word the result of the experiments of the last three months is regarded by all parties as a complete triumph. One of the most difficult problems of the metallurgy of iron is solved; and it cannot be long before the tymp and dam and forehearth, with their manifold inconveniences and wastes, will be things of the past.

In a short time we shall be enabled to lay before our readers the details of actual working of this new method. The *AMERICAN JOURNAL OF MINING*, which was the first to introduce it to the public, will continue to watch and report the progress of its success.

The Cryolite Flux.

DINGLER'S *Polytechnic Journal*, No. 1685, just received, contains a curious error for which we suppose an American correspondent is primarily responsible. In a brief notice of the so-called STEVENS flux, which consists, as our readers are aware, of fluoride of aluminium and calcium, the residuum of the soda-fabrication at Natrona, Pa., this authority gives potassium as one of the metals of the double salt, in the place of aluminium. A moment's consideration will show that this is a mistake. The formula of Cryolite is, according to BERZELIUS, $3\text{NaF} + \text{Al}_2\text{F}_6$, with 53.6 parts of fluorine, 13 of aluminium, and 33.3 of sodium. There is no potassium in it, nor does the process of soda manufacture introduce any.

The STEVENS flux, by the way, seems to be going a-begging.

What is the matter? Does not the Lisbon Gold Company require a new supply?

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

FIRST AND SECOND ANNUAL REPORT of Progress by the State Geologist and the Assistant and Chemist of the Geological Survey of the State of Iowa; together with the Substance of Popular Letters Contributed to the Newspapers of the State During the Years 1868 and 1867, in Accordance with Law; also, Extracts Originally Contributed to Scientific Journals as a Part of the Work of the Survey. Des Moines, 1868.

These reports are highly creditable to Dr. CHAS. A. WHITE, the State Geologist, Mr. O. H. ST. JOHN, his assistant, and Prof. GUSTAVUS HINRICH, the Chemist of the Survey. We shall take a future opportunity, after a more careful perusal, to discuss their contents more critically and in detail. A large part of Prof. HINRICH's report, comprising his researches into the constitution of Iowa coals, has already been presented by the *AMERICAN JOURNAL OF MINING*, through the courtesy of the author, in advance of its official publication.

REPORT of the Directors to the Stockholders of the Peawabic Mining Company, for the Year ending Dec. 31, 1867.

EIGHTH REPORT of the Directors to the Stockholders of the Franklin Mining Company, for the Year ending Dec. 31, 1867.

REPORT of the Central Mining Company for the Year 1867.

These three Reports, from three of the most respectable and successful mining companies at Lake Superior, present a picture of the present condition of mining enterprise in that district, to which we shall make hereafter more particular allusion.

AN ADDRESS on the Propriety of continuing the State Geological Survey of California, Delivered before the Legislature at Sacramento: to which are appended: Two Letters to the Governor Relative to the Progress of the Geological Survey; also the Report of the Commissioners to manage the Yosemite Valley and the Mariposa Big Tree Grove, for the years 1867 and 1868. By J. D. WHITNEY, State Geologist. San Francisco, 1868.

We have expressed in another column our views upon the principal topic treated in this pamphlet; and we will only add, at the present, that Prof. WHITNEY's address and letters are admirable arguments in behalf of his survey. We regret that they fell upon such poor soil.

We learn with pleasure that "Lyndon's" MARGARET, which has attracted much interest as a serial in the *Examiner*, is to be published in book form by SCRIBNER.

Scientific Meetings.

POLYTECHNIC BRANCH OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE.

NOVA SCOTIA IRON—ELECTRO-MAGNETIC LOCOMOTIVE ENGINES—DR. VAN DER WEYDE ON MAGNETISM—NEW OIL FEEDERS.

There was a large attendance on Thursday evening last, April 16th, at the meeting of the above Association; and the proceedings were of an exceedingly interesting character.

Dr. FEUCHTWANGER presented specimens of iron ore of unusual richness from a recently discovered bed near Truro, Nova Scotia. He said that the ore contains from 60 to 65 per cent. of pure iron. Plenty of wood and good coal, from which can be made charcoal or coke, are found in the same neighborhood with the iron ore. Pig iron, he stated, can be made from it for seven dollars, gold, per ton, whereas other pig iron costs twenty dollars per ton.

Mr. F. G. FOWLER explained the construction of his electro-magnetic engine, from a neatly delineated chalk sketch of a locomotive. He spoke of the introduction of an electrical railroad at Rutledge & Davidson's Business College in Springfield, Illinois. The practical department of this institution is furnished with commercial centres, represented by cities, located in different countries. An electrical railroad connects the cities, which contain post and telegraph offices, miniature business establishments, &c. A small locomotive and train, moved by electro-magnetism, runs round a circuit of 300 feet, and bears messages, goods, &c., from one point to another.

This device has been in successful operation for one year. It takes three days to exhaust the battery, and the expense of running the whole apparatus is but fifty cents per week. The locomotive itself weighs eighteen pounds and the train twelve pounds. A speed of six feet per second can be obtained, and a load of eighty pounds is drawn at a moderate rate of speed. Prof. Van Der Weyde then took the stand and gave a most interesting and instructive lecture on magnetism, elucidating his remarks with numerous apparatuses. The style of this lecture met our ideas exactly of what a scientific lecture should be, viz., delivery without written notes, plain and comprehensive explanation combined with practical illustrations and working apparatus. We trust to hear many such lectures. From the crowded state of the lecture-room on Thursday evening, we were convinced that there is a growing interest in all scientific subjects. After the lecture Mr. T. P. PEMBERTON exhibited Nickersham's new oil-feeders for the journals of machinery. The white metal used in the cups was considered an excellent feature, for the reason that the white metal will not oxidize, while brass or copper render the oil of a greenish color, and frequently of a gummy consistence that does not properly lubricate. A full description of these oil-feeders is given on our first page.

Manufacturing and Mechanical Notes.

No. XV.

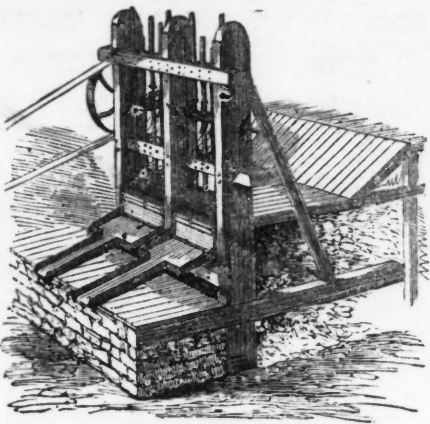
Bridges.

Public attention being now frequently called to the construction of large bridges, such as those proposed to be erected between New York and Brooklyn, Boston and East Boston, &c., a few figures and facts respecting bridges in different localities may prove to be interesting to our readers.

It is a curious circumstance that the most successful contriver of an iron bridge, and that of the very boldest design, was no other than the celebrated Thomas Paine. He studied mathematics and mechanics, and became acquainted with Goldsmith and Franklin; the latter persuaded him to go to America. He settled down at Philadelphia to mechanical and philosophical studies, and speculations on electricity, minerals, and the uses of iron. In 1788, when a bridge over the Schuylkill was proposed to be constructed without any river piers, as the stream was apt to be choked with ice in the spring freshets, Paine boldly offered to build an iron bridge, with a single arch of 400 feet span. When he again visited America, in 1803, he presented a memoir to Congress, on the construction of iron bridges, with several models. It does not appear he

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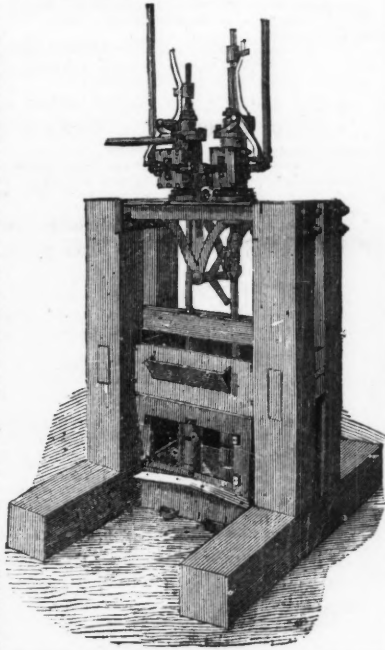
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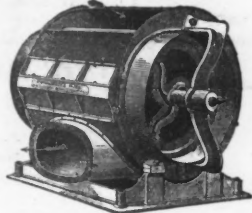
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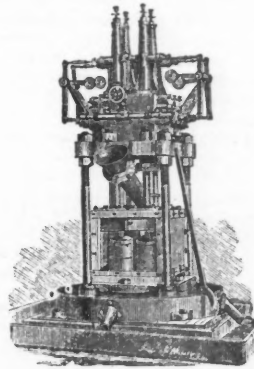
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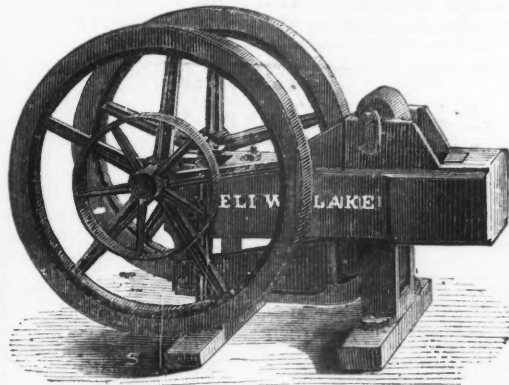
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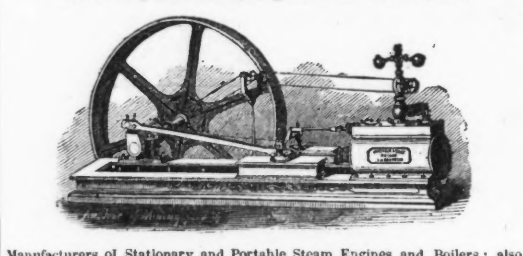
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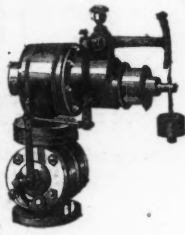
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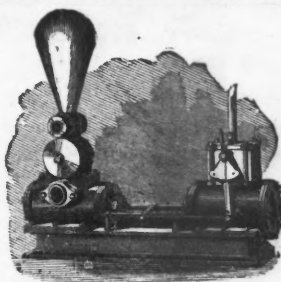
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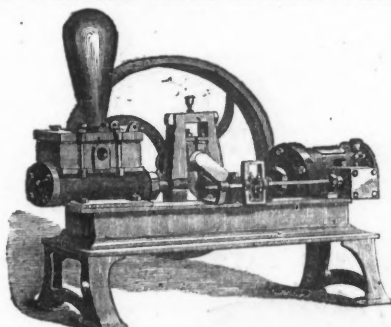


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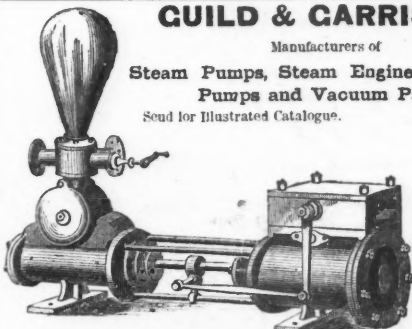
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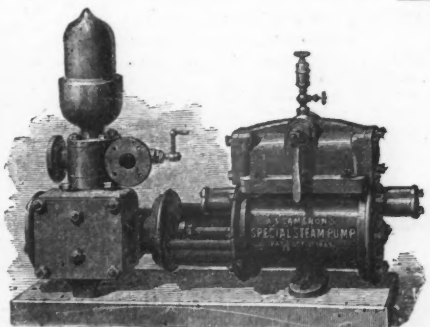
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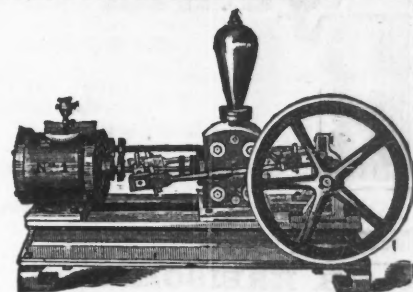
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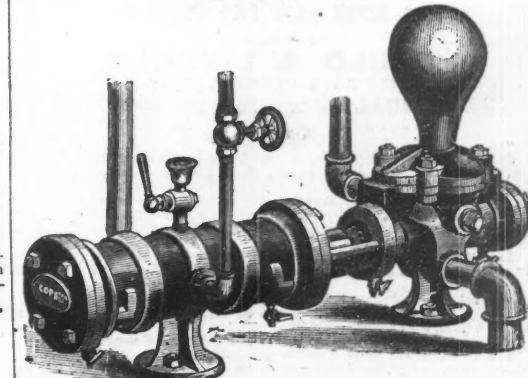
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GETTY'S PATENT PIPE CUTTER.

The consumption of iron pipe and tubing for steam-heating and gas-fitting purposes is enormous. We find in extensive factories and stores of all descriptions, vast quantities—in some cases, miles—of piping for heating and lighting the premises. The fittings, too, required for the several connections of this piping, are very numerous and varied in character. In putting up piping, the manipulation of the work has generally to be done in the buildings where the piping is to be used. This fact necessitates the use of many hand tools, and involves much manual labor. Piping in both steam-heating and gas-fitting has to be cut in certain lengths to suit the length of walls and height of rooms: it is therefore evident that all tools which, in the hands of the fitter, will facilitate the work, are truly valuable.

Our illustration, Fig. 1, represents an ingenious tool for cutting pipe, invented by Mr. Henry Getty, and patented Aug. 6th, 1867. This implement is a great improvement on some of the pipe-cutters now in use.

The head block, A, is forged of wrought iron, and is slotted for the reception of the knife, B, which is V-shaped, and thus makes a drawing cut, no matter how it is turned, and while making a splendid cutting tool, it also serves the double purpose of a rest for the pipe while being cut, and a protection to

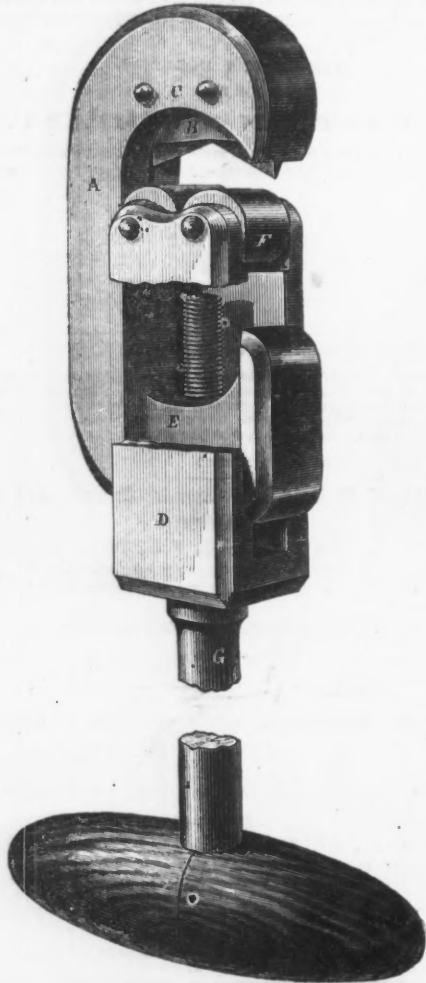


FIG. 1.

the head block. The pins, C, which are tapering, pass through the head block and knife, and thus, though holding the latter perfectly firm, allow it to be easily removed. The slide, D, is of malleable iron, and travels in a broad groove, E, formed on the sides of the head block. It carries the two steel anti-friction and pressing rollers, F, which allow the cutter to work

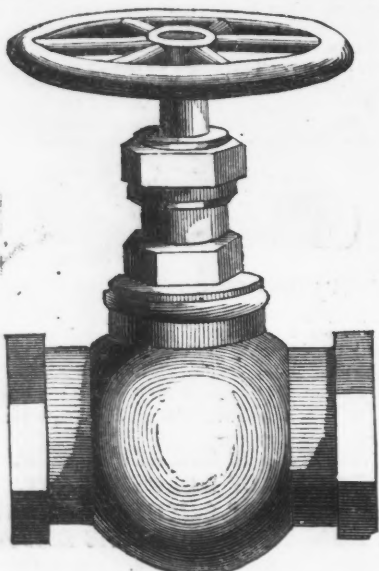


FIG. 2.

smoothly and easily, and also rolls down the burr edge thrown up by action of the knife, and presses the pipe to be cut up against the knife. The handle, G, has a boss formed on it for the purpose of pushing the slide, which carries the anti-friction rollers forward. One end of it is screwed, and works in a thread formed in the head block. The other end has a wooden handle for the purpose of working the implement.

The advantages of this cutter are as follows.—The knives are simple, durable, easily replaced, and they are interchangeable; the rollers roll down the burr edge, and make the cutter work easily; the slide is always held perfectly steady, no matter how small the pipe being cut, by means of the grooves in the head block, and also by the handle-rod; the head block and slide cannot wear out, as the former is protected by the knife and the latter by the rollers. There are two sizes; one cuts from one inch down, the other from two inches to three quarters of an inch.

This is but one of the many useful tools furnished by the well-known firm of McNAB & HARLIN, who are manufacturers and dealers in wrought iron pipe, brass and iron fittings for steam, water and gas. The great demand for globe valves and other fittings, which are so generally used with piping, has incited much enterprise in their manufacture.

Fig. 2 represents the style of globe valves made by the above named firm, who have them in iron or brass of all sizes, from one-quarter of an inch. McNAB & HARLIN employ over fifty hands at their works, No. 86 John street, N. Y., where can be seen a large assortment of plain and galvanized iron pipe and fittings, pipe taps, tongs and dies, pipe wrenches, gauge cocks, oil cups, steam-whistles, Scotch water-gauge, glasses, &c., &c. These are all so neatly and systematically arranged at the sales-rooms that engineers, machinists and fitters are able to select what they require without delay.

Nitroglycerine or Glonoin.

Nitroglycerine was discovered by the well-known Dr. Sobrero, now Professor of the Technical Institute at Turin, somewhere about twenty years ago. The substance was studied simply in a scientific interest by Dr. J. E. de Vrij, the chemist of the Netherlands Indian Government, well-known for the Analysis of this and testing of the Cinchona bark, and also by Dr. Gladstone, and of late by Dr. Kopp. Up to the end of 1864, nitroglycerine was not only not familiarly known, nor to be had in quantity in commerce, but continued to belong entirely to the domain of science. This may be easily accounted for by the fact that glycerine itself is only in use and to be had on the large scale since the last eight or ten years. When pure, nitroglycerine is a liquid of from 1.525 to 1.6 specific gravity; it has no odor, is often colorless, or yellowish, has a sweet, pungent, aromatic taste, and is powerfully poisonous. It is only very slightly soluble in water, readily so in ether, alcohol, and methylated spirits; it does not inflame when touched with a light, nor does it explode by being so touched; but concussion, touching with a red-hot iron, or the concussion due to the explosion of gunpowder, and, better yet, detonating mixtures, and fulminates, sets off the nitroglycerine.

According to Dr. Johann Rudolph Wagner, the well-known technologist to the Bavarian Government, nitro-glycerine may be cooled down to 4° F., without becoming solid; but it appears, after all, that the nitro-glycerine of commerce, if exposed for a continued period to 46.4° F., becomes solid, crystallizing in long needles, which are most dangerous to handle, since they explode, even on being gently broken, with a frightful violence. At 32° F., the nitro-glycerine begins to decompose, giving off red vapors; and if the heat be suddenly applied, or slightly raised above this point, the substance explodes instantaneously, and with great violence, shattering even open vessels to atoms. Nitro-glycerine may be assumed to consist of anhydrous glycerine, in which 3 atoms of hydrogen have been replaced by 3 atoms of NO. The products of the complete combustion of 100 parts of pure nitro-glycerine are the following:

Water.....	20
Carbonic acid.....	58
Oxygen.....	3.5
Nitrogen.....	18.5
	100.0

Since the specific gravity of nitroglycerine is 1.6, one volume, say 1 cubic inch of the material, yields on combustion or explosion—

Aqueous vapor.....	554 volumes, or bulk.
Carbonic acid.....	469 "
Oxygen.....	39 "
Nitrogen.....	236 "
	1298

According to Nobel, these gases expand on explosion to 8 times their bulk. 1 cubic measure volume of nitroglycerine will, therefore, give 10,384 cubic measures of gases; while 1 cubic measure of gunpowder will only yield 800 cubic measures of gases. Hence, it follows that, for equal bulks, nitroglycerine is 13 times stronger than gunpowder; while, by equal weights, the former is 8 times stronger than the latter.

The danger of the use of nitroglycerine is greatly enhanced by the instability of this compound; even when pure, it is affected by increase of temperature, and at from 68° to 75° F. it is prone to incipient spontaneous decomposition, accompanied by a slow but sufficiently strong escape of gaseous compounds, which, while exerting a slight pressure on the vessels the liquid is contained in, also can cause the fluid to explode on the slightest concussion. During the slow and spontaneous decomposition of the glonoin, there are formed divers products; among these, glyceric, oxalic, and hydrocyanic acid, and ammonia, and others unknown. Nobel's patent nitroglycerine, or blasting oil, is made in the following manner:—To 13.5 parts, by weight, of strong sulphuric acid, is added 1 part, by weight, of nitrate of potash of best quality, and this mixture cooled down to 32° F.; the result of which is the crystallizing out of a salt which contains 1 equivalent of potash, 4 equivalents of sulphuric acid, and 6 equivalents of water; the strongly acid liquid is decanted from the crystals, and to the liquid, commercial glycerine is added, taking care to keep the liquid cold; the ensuing nitroglycerine is separated from the acid by water, once washed with fresh water, and is fit and ready for use.

The best mode of manufacturing nitroglycerine where it is desirable to use it,—and that is the case in open quarries where one has to deal with tough, hard, rock,—is to make it extempore on the spot where it has to be applied. Take a sufficient quantity of strong nitric acid, density from 1.4758 to 1.4902; mix therewith the double of its weight of strong sulphuric acid; weigh off 3,300 grammes of the acid mixture when quite cool; take 500 grammes of glycerine, which must be free from either lime or lead salts, and mix the same cautiously with the acid, while keeping the mixture very cool by constantly stirring. Let the mixture stand quietly for about ten minutes, then pour it out in from five to six times its bulk of

cold water, taking care well to stir the same all the while. The nitroglycerine will sink to the bottom; the dilute acid is removed by decantation, the nitroglycerine once more washed with water, when it would be fit for use after the removal of the latter. The glycerine to be used should have a specific gravity of from 1.2459 to 1.2562; i. e., contains from ninety-four to ninety-six per cent. real glycerine. Dr. Gladstone has found, while engaged with his researches on nitroglycerine, that the perfectly anhydrous glycerine did not yield, when treated with a mixture of nitric and sulphuric acids, an explosive compound; but, on the contrary, one which, when touched with a flame, or red-hot metal, burns off pretty quietly. Impure nitroglycerine is dangerously self explosive, even while standing quietly.—*Journal of Chemistry.*

Coal Statistics.

An interesting blue-book has just been issued, containing reports from Her Majesty's Secretaries of Embassy and Legation, respecting the production of coal in different countries. According to these reports, the production of coal in Belgium, in 1866, from 286 mines, was 12,774,662 tons; the quantity exported in the year was 3,938,768 tons, nearly all of which was sent to France. With reference to the exhaustion of the coal mines, a subject to which public attention has been directed in Belgium, it appears that in Hainault alone, of a coal-producing surface of 54,173 hectares, only 23,423 hectares had been explored in 1860. It is estimated that there were about 4,700 millions of tons yet to be worked, at an easily workable depth, and the exhaustion of the Hainault coalfields above a depth of 1,000 metres, would not take place before the expiration of a century and a half. In Brazil large coalfields have been discovered in the province of St. Catherine's. In China, coal has been discovered at Ponghou, the chief island of the Pescadores. It is reported that no coal useful for steam purposes had yet been found; a judicious miner, however, could alone settle the question as to the extent of these mines, and the quality of the coal.

At Iwanai, in the island of Yeddo, in Japan, coal mines had been discovered. An experiment was made with some of the coal picked out from the surface of the seams, in the galley fire of Her Majesty's ship Salamis; seventy-nine lbs. of coal yielded 12.27 per cent. of ash, 1.5 per cent. of clinker, an average volume of smoke, and a strong, durable flame. Another coalfield was found at Yeddo, in the immediate vicinity of the port of Hiogo. The natives had been working it for the last ten years, but not continuously.

Prussia, as is well known, is rich in mineral fuel, especially in very good coals. The quantity of coal to be obtained by the working of the coal pit of the river Saar would suffice for the supply of 3,000 years, at the rate of 2,500,000 metrical tons per annum. The coal pits of the river Ruhr extend over ten miles in length, on the Lower Rhine—a Prussian mile being equal to 24,000 Prussian feet—nearly 4½ English miles. There were 65 strata of coal more than twenty inches deep, the united thickness of which gives a pure coal 210 feet. It has been estimated that the produce of these pits will last more than 5,000 years, at the rate of 1,000,000 metrical tonnen per annum. In 1865, there were 402 pits at work in Prussia, producing 371,842,299 centners, or nearly 18,000,000 tons of coal—value, £4,954,986; they gave employment to 89,192 persons. Hanover possessed thirty-three coal pits. The more considerable fields of brown coal were in the provinces of Saxony and Brandenburg. In 1865, there were 511 of these pits at work, producing £710,437. An appendix to the consular reports shows that in Tasmania, workings have been successfully opened at the north end of the Douglas river coal field. Coal of good quality for steam purposes has been discovered on the east coast of South Brani Island, at Adventure bay; and a bituminous coal of fair quality has been discovered near Hamilton. Coal deposits are reported in Trinidad; the finest quality was found at Point Noir; it burns rapidly, with much flame, and little smoke.

A report by Mr. Oldham, superintendent of the Geological Survey of India, shows that the British territories cannot be considered as either largely or widely supplied with coal. Extensive fields exist, but they are not distributed generally over the districts of the Indian Empire. Specimens of coal from seventy-four localities, showed that the average composition per cent. was, fixed carbon, 52.2; volatile matter, 31.9, and ash, 15.5; against an average composition of five English specimens of fixed carbon, 68.1, volatile matter, 29.2, and ash, 2.7. He states that the very best coal of the Indian fields only touches the average of English coals, and that Indian coals are not capable of more than two-thirds—in most cases not more than one-half—the duty of English coals. These results of the quality of Indian coals would show the groundless nature of the hopes which have been expressed, that the coal-fields of India, Borneo, Australia and New Zealand, would not only contribute large supplies, but would also serve to coal the ocean steamers trading between Europe and those far distant regions. As far as Indian coal is concerned, Mr. Oldham fears it will never supplant the better fuel, now obtainable elsewhere, for ocean voyages.

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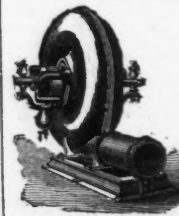
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