

the sluices. The usual boulder crew consists of four men working one shift. Three air drills equipped with $\frac{7}{8}$ -inch hexagon steel are used for drilling. The depth of the holes is 5 to 30 inches, and 40 to 50 steels are used per shift. About 300 shots are averaged per day. In 1923, 1½ tons of 60 per cent dynamite costing \$11 per box, 25,000 detonators, and 72,000 feet of fuse were used. The compressed air for the drills is produced by a 12 by 10 single-stage compressor, belt-driven by a 20-inch Pelton water wheel operating under a 150-foot head.

DISPOSAL OF TAILING

Tailing from hydraulic mines in the higher bench deposits can usually be dumped over the bank into the stream below. With grades generally not less than 12 inches in 12 feet, the tail boxes can be extended from time to time and the tailing spread over worked-out or barren ground. The grade of the surface must be much steeper than that of the sluice to provide ample room for the tailing below the end of the lowest box.

Creek deposits and benches only slightly elevated above the stream bed seldom afford these required conditions, and the tailing must be stacked. This stacking is usually done with a giant or, where water is scarce, by scrapers of the Bagley or slip-tooth type or by cableway excavator, operated by steam. It may be practical to use part of the water that would be required by the giant stacker to provide water power for a scraper. Horse-drawn scrapers were at one time used, but they have been replaced by the cheaper mechanical methods.

In stacking tailing with water under pressure the stacker giant is set beside the end of the sluice and the heavier tailing material is piped into a pile, the lighter tailing being carried down the bedrock flume to the creek. On very low grades another giant is often set farther downstream to boost along this lighter material and keep the channel open (see fig. 51). Where there is much sand or fine material in the tailing to be stacked, the efficiency is lowered, as the fine material tends to run back into the sump. At some properties the stacking may have to be continuous, and at others an hour or two each shift may suffice; therefore the quantity of water required by a stacker giant varies widely and may range from one-fifth to the total amount required by a field giant. Where there is much heavy material or tailing room is limited, the stacker giant may require even more water than a field giant.

On Dan Creek tailing that holds many boulders, some 15 inches in size, has been stacked to a height of 52 feet by a giant with 4-inch nozzle under 310-foot head.

At one mine on Mastodon Creek in the Circle district (fig. 1, 37) tailing was stacked to a height of 35 feet without difficulty by a 3-inch nozzle under 100-foot head, the biggest stones being about 12

inches in largest dimension. The tailing was at one time piped up an inclined chute 4 feet wide and 3 feet deep, the bottom of which was fitted with beveled steel-shod riffles set at an angle to keep the sand and fine material from running back into the sump. In general, the tailing can be stacked to a height of one-third the head on the giant in feet and at a distance from the giant of one-half the head. The height and length of the tailing pile are, however, also governed by the character of the material; so for efficient giant stacking under average conditions the face of the pile should be kept as long as practical and at an angle of slope not exceeding 25°.

Former practice in tailing disposal at Crow Creek was to extend the sluices as the tailing accumulated. This required the addition



FIGURE 51.—Stacking tailing with the giant

of one or two boxes a day, so that the sluice eventually contained 60 to 90 boxes. As enough water under pressure is available, 8 to 10 boxes set on 6-inch grade are now used and the tailing is stacked with a giant. This method has been found to be more practicable and cheaper than the old method.

Although there are no debris laws in Alaska, tailing should not be dumped indiscriminately into the stream beds, but preventive measures should be taken to impound it, so it will not be eventually deposited over workable ground, the property of another, or pollute his water supply. Fortunately there are now few instances where this involves a serious problem or expense. Proper stacking partly overcomes this, although in narrow valleys subject to high floods exceptionally strong dams may be required.

to four men are engaged in the elevator pit per shift. Usually enough water is available for mining about 50 days of each working season. From 20,000 to 40,000 cubic yards of gravel and bedrock are elevated during a season, and from 75,000 to 100,000 cubic yards of muck are stripped.

DREDGING

HISTORY OF DREDGING IN ALASKA

The first gold dredge in the Yukon was started on the Lewis River in 1899. During that same year a dredge was started on Snake River at Nome, although active dredging really began in 1903 with two small dredges on the Seward Peninsula. Gold dredging started in the Fortymile district (fig. 1, 41) in 1907 and in the Iditarod, Circle, and Fairbanks districts (fig. 1, 21, 37, and 33) in 1912. The number of dredges increased rapidly, and in 1914, 42 were at work, producing 22 per cent of the Alaska placer-gold output for that year. In 1916 only 34 were active. Although the number of dredges operated since 1914 has decreased, the percentage of the gold output won by dredges has increased. In 1923, 25 dredges produced 51 per cent of the annual placer-gold output. In 1924, 28 dredges operated; 18 of these were on the Seward Peninsula and 10 in the interior districts, although four of the Seward Peninsula dredges ran for only about one month. Annual statistics on the number of gold dredges operated, the production, and the average quantity of gold recovered are given under "Production."

FUTURE OF DREDGING

Although many dredges have been operated in Alaska and much gold has been won, most of the dredging has been conducted on a comparatively small scale, due mainly to operating conditions and the character and extent of the deposits. The more favorably situated, richer, shallower deposits were dredged first, and permanently frozen areas avoided as much as possible. Recent advances in cold-water thawing have been of the greatest importance to Alaska gold dredging by making possible the working of large areas of so-called low-grade ground formerly regarded as too lean or too deep to be successfully thawed. The development of the Diesel engine and other means of reducing power costs and improved transportation facilities to the interior districts served by the Alaska Railroad have also favored dredge operation and development. Conditions have become more satisfactory for acquiring the different small holdings necessary to make a dredging area. Two fields in Alaska have been made available for large-scale operations. The year 1923 witnessed the beginning of such operations at Nome, and all indications point to an extensive dredging program in the Fairbanks district.

Alaska gold dredging is entering a new era, with prospects for success, particularly in the Nome, Fairbanks, and Kuskokwim districts. Much encouraging prospecting has been done during the past few years, and the results indicate that six or eight new dredges will be started within the next two or three years. Some small dredges that have been idle will resume operations in the near future, although five or six of the present active dredges soon will have exhausted their ground.

FACTORS DETERMINING DREDGING

Dredging possibilities in Alaska lie mainly in deposits formerly mined by other methods, including creek placers, low benches, elevated beach lines, and gravel plains. In these known fields low-grade gravels and wet areas that could not be mined successfully have been left. In former mining gold was lost in the tailings, and much gold may have been left where creviced, slabby bedrock was encountered. In fact, it has become almost axiomatic among dredge operators on the Seward Peninsula that any ground can be dredged profitably which has been worked profitably by hand methods, even when it has been worked over several times. Although the fact that such ground has produced gold is indicative, it is risky to install a dredge without thorough prospecting. Numerous failures have resulted from such procedure; prospecting is especially necessary in ground that has been cut up by former mining. Known placers that have not been mined to some extent, except possibly thawed, water-soaked deposits or properties acquired by dredging interests soon after discovery, seldom contain enough gold for profitable dredging.

Experience and sound judgment are essential in determining the dredging possibilities of a deposit. All the physical and economic features affecting dredging must be determined before a dredge best suited to a particular deposit can be selected. A volume of gravel must be assured which will repay all invested capital and leave a net profit commensurate with the undertaking. The surface conditions, the depth and character of the overburden, the value, character, and distribution of the gold or other valuable content, the depth, character, and extent of the deposit, the presence and extent of frost, the character and contour of bedrock, and the underground water level should all be determined by prospecting. Accessibility, transportation facilities, climate, length of the operating season, water supply, cost of labor, supplies, fuel, or power, and the cost of the property or royalties, taxes, and titles must be investigated, as all of these features affect mining costs. Adverse factors that reduce the digging capacity of a dredge and may prevent profitable dredging in-

clude frozen ground and the presence of stiff or sticky clays, boulders, slabby or hard bedrock, and high bedrock gradients.

DATA ON DREDGES

The following tables on Alaska gold dredges have been compiled from field data and from operators. Each season shows changes in the number of dredges operated, location, management, and mechanical detail. Eight or ten dredges that have been idle for a number of years and show no indication of future activity have been omitted. The tables are as complete as it is practical to make them. The daily yardage dug by the dredges fluctuates, but many of the figures given are averages derived from operating data. The amount of water used for sluicing can be stated only approximately. The table giving the physical condition of the placers dredged by the different dredges explains in a general way the application of the different sizes and types of dredges, daily yardage handled, and some of the difficulties that may be encountered.

TYPES OF DREDGES

The bucket dredge of the single-lift type is now the only kind in use. During the early days of dredging around Nome many so-called land dredges, often of freakish construction, were operated for short periods. Dipper and suction dredges were also tried, but none of these was a success. Moreover, many of the earlier bucket dredges failed.

Selection of the wrong type or size of dredge has often led to failure. Many dredges are too large for shallow deposits, necessitating the digging of much additional bedrock or the construction of dams to float them. In general, large dredges are unsuitable for Alaska, except in the more accessible districts (such as Nome and Fairbanks) where a large volume of gravel (20 or more feet deep) is assured. The size is also governed by other operating conditions and the capital available. The most practical sizes for average Alaska conditions are the 2½ to 5 cubic foot bucket dredges.

As a dredge is usually far removed from the source of replacements, it should be strongly constructed to lessen possibility of a serious breakdown. The dredge is put in repair before starting and is expected to operate throughout the season. One serious breakdown may cause the loss of much time and money. A large stock of additional parts should be kept on hand, and in isolated districts a machine shop must be maintained. An oxyacetylene welding outfit is indispensable for repairing broken parts, building up tumbler plates, mending buckets, etc.

Alaska gold dredges in 1924 and physical condition of

Dredge	Operator	Location	Type	Size of bucket	Type of bucket line	Horse power	Make of engine	Kind of fuel or power	Foot meters (feet)
	Arctic Prefecture								
1	Alaska Dredging Association	Candle Creek	Flume	1½	Open	1-50	Western	Diesel	50 gallons
2	Alaska Investment & Development Co.	Oshorne Creek	Stacker	2½	do.	1-50	Standard	do.	100 gallons
3	Alaska Kongorok Co.	Taylor Creek	do.	3½	do.	1-50	do.	do.	120 gallons
4	Alaska Mines Corporation	Snake River	do.	3½	Chain	1-200	Metz & Widen	Diesel oil	120 gallons
5	Bangor Dredging Co.	Anvil Creek	do.	3½	do.	1-80	Rollender semi-Diesel	do.	165 gallons
6	Bangor Dredging Corporation	Kongorok River	(?)	3½	do.	1-60	Western	Disillate	200 gallons
7	Candle Creek Dredging Co.	Candle Creek	Flume	3½	do.	2-50	do.	do.	100 gallons
8	Candle Creek Mining Syndicate	Canyon Creek	do.	3½	Open	1-60	do.	do.	100 gallons
9	Crooked Creek Dredges	Crooked Creek	do.	3½	do.	1-30	do.	do.	110 gallons
10	Decker Creek Dredging Co.	Decker Creek	Stacker	2½	do.	1-50	do.	Gasoline	120 gallons
11	Dime Creek Dredging Co.	Dime Creek	Flume	1½	do.	1-25	do.	Disillate	50 gallons
12	Estimote Gold Mining Co.	Salmon River	Stacker	9	Close	1-200	Dow Williams Diesel	Diesel electric	70 gallons
13	Hammon Consolidated Goldfields Co. No. 1	Little Creek	do.	9	do.	502	Electric	do.	70 gallons
14	Hammon Consolidated Goldfields Co. No. 2	do.	do.	9	do.	502	do.	do.	70 gallons
15	Hammon Consolidated Goldfields Co. No. 3	Big Horn Creek	Flume	1½	Open	1-35	Western	Distillate	70 gallons
16	Iverson & Johnson	do.	do.	1½	do.	1-40	Standard	do.	130 gallons
17	Luther Gold Dredging Co.	Budd Creek	Stacker	2½	do.	2-35	Western	Diesel oil	130 gallons
18	Northern Light Mining Co.	Ophir Creek	Flume	2½	do.	2-35	Scandia semi-Diesel	Distillate	130 gallons
19	Shovel Creek Dredging Co.	Shovel Creek	do.	2½	do.	2-35	Scandia semi-Diesel	Hydroelectric	130 gallons
20	Swanson Creek Mining Co.	Swanson Creek	Stacker	3½	Chain	1-60	Electric	Diesel oil	130 gallons
21	Wid Goose Mining & Trading Co. No. 1	Ophir Creek	do.	3½	do.	2-50	Atlas semi-Diesel	do.	130 gallons
22	Wid Goose Mining & Trading Co. No. 2	do.	do.	3½	do.	2-50	do.	do.	130 gallons
	Yukon district								
23	Casho Creek Dredging Co.	Casho Creek	(?)	8½	do.	210	Electric	Hydroelectric	
24	Berry Dredging Co.	Marmoth Creek	(?)	2½	do.	2-75	Wolf locomobile	Wood	4 cords
	Fairbanks district								
25	Fairbanks Gold Dredging Co. No. 1	Fairbanks Creek	Stacker	4	do.	2-110	Scandia semi-Diesel	Diesel oil	250 gallons
26	Fairbanks Gold Dredging Co. No. 2	do.	do.	3½	Open	2-75	Wetspan Diesel	do.	150 gallons
27	Fairbanks Gold Dredging Co.	Cheney Creek	Flume	1½	Chain	2-32	Deuman tractor	Gasoline	110 gallons
	Interior district								
28	Riley Investment Co.	Other Creek	(?)	2½	do.	1-120	Atlas Diesel	Diesel oil	do.
29	Northern Alaska Dredging Co.	do.	(?)	2	do.	1-110	do.	do.	do.
	Yukon district								
30	Flume Dredges Co.	Yankee Creek	Flume	2½	Open	1-60	Western	Gasoline	100 gallons
31	do.	Little Creek	do.	2½	do.	1-60	do.	(?)	5 cords
32	Inokko Dredging Co.	Gauche Creek	(?)	3½	Close	2-75	Morris Condensing	Wood	100 gallons
33	Tuluan & Ames Dredging Corporation	do.	(?)	2	Open	1-60	Scandia semi-Diesel	Diesel oil	100 gallons
	Nome & McKinley district								
34	Kuskokwim Dredging Co.	Candle Creek	Stacker	3½	Chain	1-60	Rollender semi-Diesel	do.	150 gallons

- * Relative condition regardless of any frost difficulties: A, average; B, many bowlers;
- * Favorable: D, difficult; S, seasonal frost only; P/P, wholly permanently frozen; P/P/P,
- permanently frozen.
- * Idle during 1924.
- * Operated during 1904.

Alaska gold dredges in 1924 and physical condition of placers dredged

Dredge No.	Operator	Location	Type	Size of bucket	Type of bucket line	Horse power	Make of engine	Kind of fuel or power	Fuel consumption per operating day	Digging depth below water	Average digging per day	Manager or superintendent	Physical conditions of placer				General relative conditions	
													Depth of deposit dredged	Character of gravel	Frost conditions	Digging	Situating	
Green Peninsula																		
1	Alaska Dredging Association	Candle Creek	Flume	15'	Open	1-50	Western	Distillate	90 gallons	12	600	E. E. Pierce	5-10	A, light	PPF	A	B	
2	Alaska Investment & Development Co.	Okechone Creek	Shack	24'	do	1-50	Standard	do	140 gallons	15	1,000	D. R. Webb	6-12	A, B	B	A	A	
3	Alaska Kougarok Co.	Taylor Creek	do	23'	do	1-50	do	do	120 gallons	12	500	J. Kellner	4-8	A	PP	F	F	
4	Alaska Mines Corporation	Snake River	do	31 1/2'	Close	1-100	Metz & Wain	Diesel oil		20		J. J. Keenan	20-35	A	PP	A	A	
5	Banger Dredging Co.	Anvil Creek	do	31 1/2'	do	1-80	Boalder semi-Diesel	do	165 gallons	25	2,000	O. Olson	9-15	A	B	A	A	
6	Bering Dredging Corporation	Kougarok River	(?)	21 1/2'	do	2-50	Western	Distillate	200 gallons	15	1,500	J. Mathews	3-8	A, light	PP	A	A	
7	Candle Creek Dredging Co.	Candle Creek	Flume	31 1/2'	do	2-50	do	do	100 gallons	12	900	E. E. Pierce	4-12	A, light	B	A	A	
8	Candle Creek Mining Syndicate	Crooked Creek	do	31 1/2'	Open	1-60	do	do	110 gallons	12	900	C. L. Park	4-14	A	B	D	A	
9	Crooked Creek Dredge	Crooked Creek	do	31 1/2'	do	1-25	do	do				F. Mebes	4-14	A	B	A	A	
10	Deater Creek Dredging Co.	Deater Creek	Shack	24'	do	1-50	do	Gasoline	130 gallons	16	900	A. N. Kittleson	9-14	A	B	A	A	
11	Dine Creek Dredging Co.	Dine Creek	Flume	11 1/2'	do	1-25	do	Distillate	50 gallons	15	500	A. Garrod	4-10-15	A, light	PPF	A	A	
12	Estimo Gold Mining Co.	Estimo River	Shack	8'	Close	1-250	Dow Williams Diesel	Distillate	220 gallons	20	3,000	R. S. Oglesby	8-14	A	PP	A	A	
13	Hammon (consolidated Goldfields Co. No. 1)	Little Creek	do	9'	do	502	Electric	do	60	60	6,000	H. R. Edwards	55-65	A	PP	A	A	
14	Hammon (consolidated Goldfields Co. No. 2)	do	do	9'	do	502	do	do	60	60	6,000	do	53-65	A	PP	A	A	
15	Hammon (consolidated Goldfields Co. No. 3)	do	do	1 1/2'	Open	1-35	Western	do	70 gallons	10	500	P. Iverson	5-10	A, light	B	F	F	
16	Iverson & Johnson	Hig Hurrah Creek	Shack	24'	do	1-40	Standard	do		15	1,000	M. Luther	16	Light	B	F	F	
17	Kulter Gold Dredging Co.	Budd Creek	Flume	24'	do	1-40	do	do	130 gallons	15	1,000	G. Russell	5-15	A	PPF	A	A	
18	Northern Light Mining Co.	Ophir Creek	Flume	24'	do	2-35	Western	Diesel oil	110 gallons	15	1,500	A. Nylan	6-10	A, light	B	A	A	
19	Shovel Creek Dredging Co.	Shovel Creek	do	2 1/2'	Open	2-35	Scandia semi-Diesel	do		12		C. Rice	7-24	A	PPF	D	A	
20	Swanson Creek Mining Co.	Swanson Creek	Shack	2 1/2'	Close	140	Electric	Hydroelectric	160 gallons	21	2,200	F. Ayer	11-20	A	B	A	A	
21	Wild Goose Mining & Trading Co. No. 1	Uphir Creek	do	3'	do	2-50	Atlas semi-Diesel	Diesel oil		20	1,800	do		A	B	A	A	
Yreka district																		
22	Cedro Creek Dredging Co.	Cedro Creek	(?)	6 1/2'	do	310	Electric	Hydroelectric		20	3,000	R. Humphries	3-10	A+B	None	A	A	
Circle district																		
23	Berry Dredging Co.	Mammoth Creek	(?)	31 1/2'	do	2-75	W of locomobile	Wood	4 cords	18	2,200	Wm. Helman	4-5-15	A, B	B	D	F	
Fairbanks district																		
24	Fairbanks Gold Dredging Co. No. 1	Fairbanks Creek	Shack	4'	do	2-110	Scandia semi-Diesel	Diesel oil	250 gallons	25	2,200	G. Aarons	15-22	A	PPF	A	A	
25	Fairbanks Gold Dredging Co. No. 2	do	do	3 1/2'	Open	2-75	Western Diesel	do	150 gallons	26	600	do	12-20	A	PPF	A	A	
26	Fairbanks Gold Dredging Co. No. 3	Cheney Creek	Flume	1 1/2'	Close	2-32	Dorman tractor	Gasoline	110 gallons	14	1,000	F. H. Holbrook	12-25	A	B	A	A	
Hatcher district																		
27	Riley Investment Co.	Otter Creek	(?)	31 1/2'	do	1-120	Atlas Diesel	Diesel oil	do	15	1,400	H. Donnelly	12-15	A	PPF	A	A	
28	Northern Alaska Dredging Co.	do	(?)	3'	do	1-110	do	do	do	15	1,500	A. Matheson	12-15	A	PPF+B	A	A	
Inupiat district																		
29	Flume Dredge Co.	Yankee Creek	Flume	3 1/2'	Open	1-60	Western	Gasoline	100 gallons	12	900	J. Saupé	8-10	A	B	F	D	
30	do	Little Creek	do	3 1/2'	do	1-60	do	(?)	6 cords	12	1,500	do	8-15	A, light	B	F	A	
31	Inupiat Dredging Co.	Cheney Creek	(?)	3 1/2'	Open	1-60	Morris' centrifugal	Wood	100 gallons	16	900	J. Guinness	8-15	A	B	A	A	
32	Guinan & Ames Dredging Corporation	do	(?)	3'	Open	1-60	Scandia semi-Diesel	Diesel oil		16		do		A	PPF	A	A	
Moose Mc Kinner district																		
33	Kuskokwim Dredging Co.	Candle Creek	Shack	3 1/2'	Close	1-60	Boalder semi-Diesel	do	150 gallons	26	1,200	T. Akken	4-15-20	A	PPF	D	D	

* Relative condition, regardless of any frost difficulties: A, average; B, many bowlers; C, unfavorable; D, difficult; S, seasonal frost only; F, P, wholly permanently frozen; PPF, partly permanently frozen.
† Idle during 1924.
‡ Depth of gravel after stripping of overburden.
§ Combination revolving screen, one flume, and conveyor.
|| Revolving screen, two flumes, and conveyor.
¶ Staking screen.
‡ Power from 6-55 horsepower Workspoor Diesel unit plant.
§ Auxiliary 14-horsepower W. Ashburn distillate engine.
|| Revolving screen, one flume.
¶ Staking screen, two flumes, and conveyor.
‡ Installing hydroelectric plant.
§ 92405-27. (Page p. 179)

FLUME OR SINGLE-SLUICE DREDGE

The flume or single-sluice type of dredge has been developed for dredging relatively narrow, shallow, rich creek placers with coarse gold in easily washed material. Flume dredges are of light draft

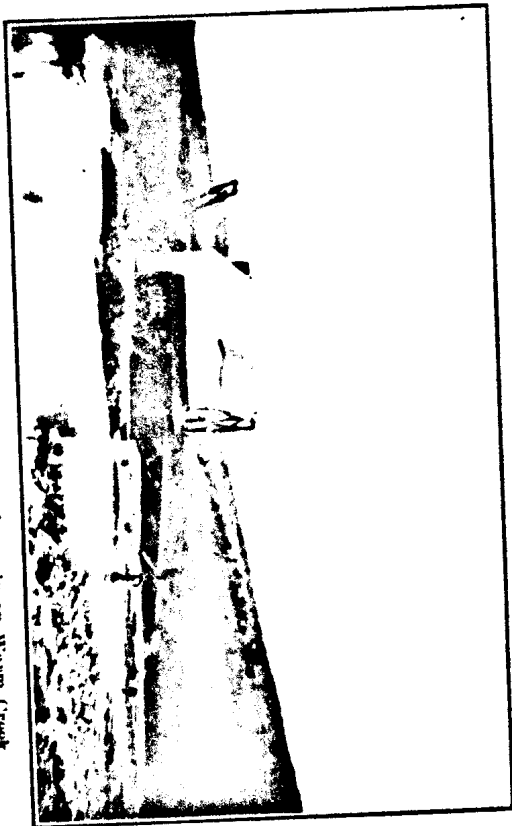


FIGURE 56.—A 1 1/2-cubic foot flume dredge, formerly on Warm Creek

and construction and are usually operated by distillate engines. The buckets discharge directly into the head of the flume, and the tailing is dumped astern. The depth of ground that can be dredged ranges

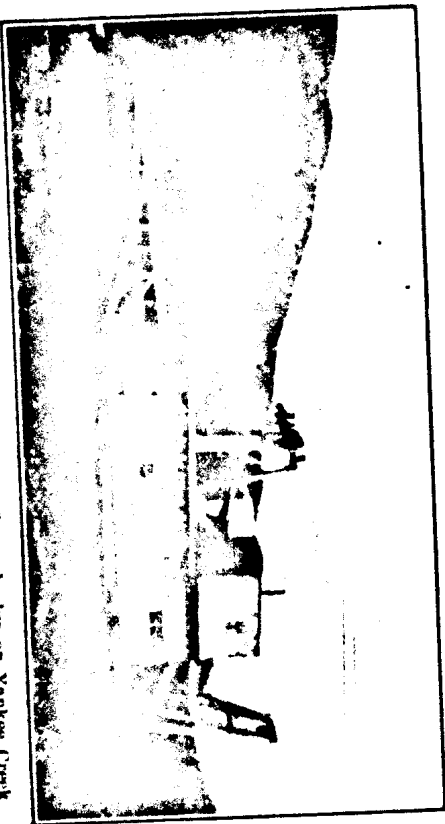


FIGURE 57.—The 2 1/2 cubic foot distillate-driven flume dredge on Yankee Creek

up to 12 and 15 feet and is limited by the disposal of tailing. For satisfactory operation the gravel and bedrock must permit easy digging and free sluicing (see figs. 56, 57, and 58).

FLUME-TYPE DREDGE WITH REVOLVING SCREEN

The flume-type dredge with revolving screen is an improvement over the single-sluice dredge. The dredge at Cache Creek (see No. 23, in table, and fig. 59) is working shallow gravels with many

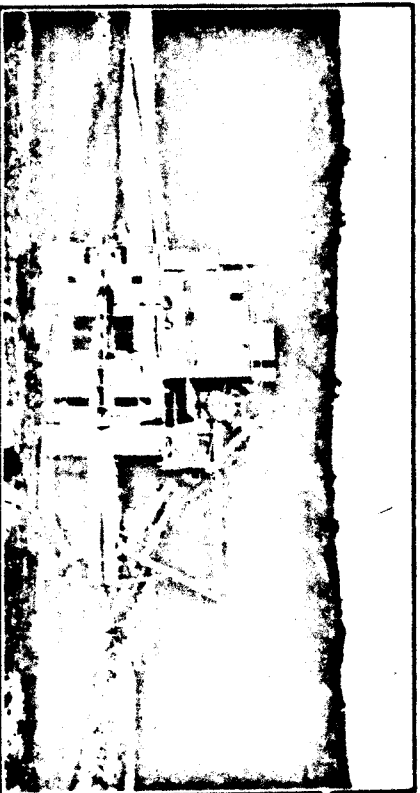


FIGURE 59.—Electrically driven 6 1/2-cubic foot screen flume dredge on Cache Creek

large bowlders and some clay. The buckets deliver to the revolving screen. At the lower end of the screen are three high-pressure 1 3/4-inch nozzles for disintegrating the material. The oversize (over 8

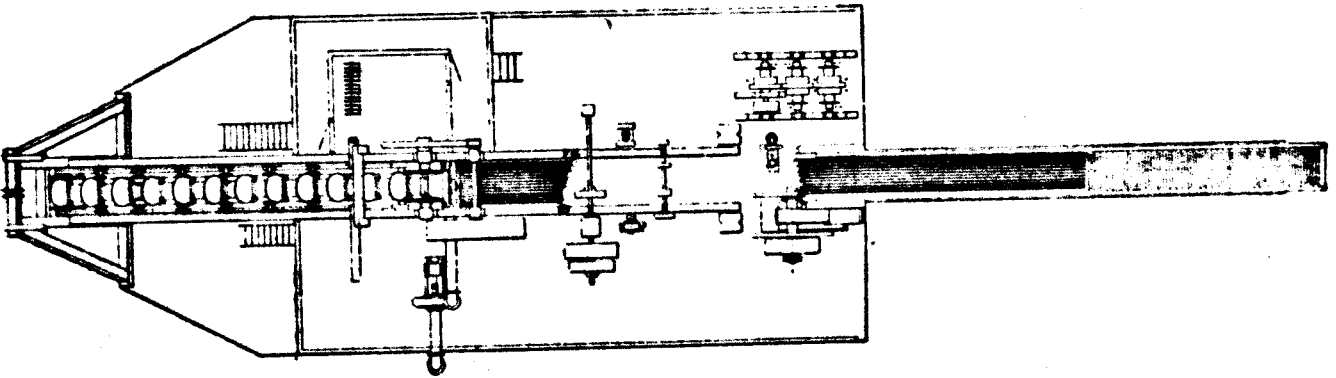


FIGURE 58.—Plan of 2 1/2-cubic foot distillate-driven flume dredge with undercurrent

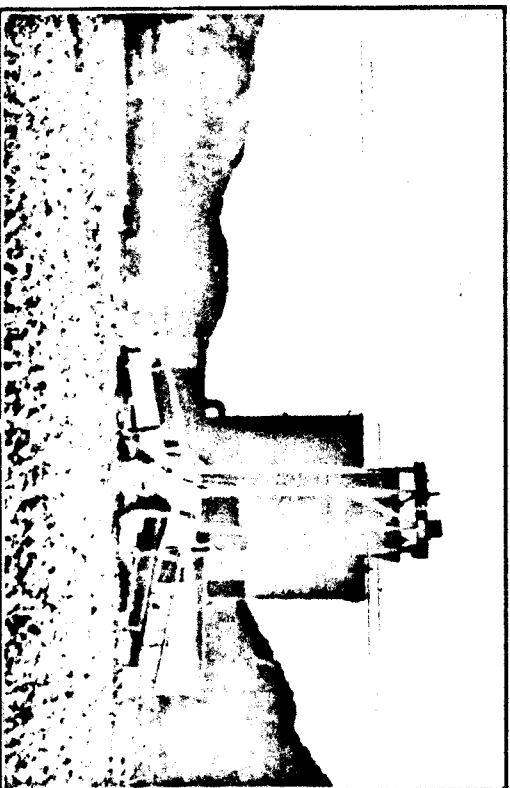


FIGURE 60.—Flume of the Cache Creek dredge

inches) passes through a chute which has two outlets and is dumped 10 feet astern. The undersize goes to the head of the riffled flume. The lowest 20 feet of this flume is divided into three branches, and

by shifting the flow from one to the other the tailing is dumped level across the series of cuts. With these arrangements the gold saving is greatly improved, the sands are prevented from running back under the dredge, and the water level in the pond can be better maintained (fig. 60).

COMBINATION-TYPE DREDGE

For average Alaska dredging conditions, where the gravels are not more than about 20 feet deep or not too shallow for proper flotation, the combination type of dredge with revolving screen, flume, and conveyor is, in general, better adapted than other types. The material is disintegrated on the coarse-mesh screen with water under pressure, the oversize going to a belt conveyor and the undersize to the flume. The conveyor is really a fixed stacker (figs. 61

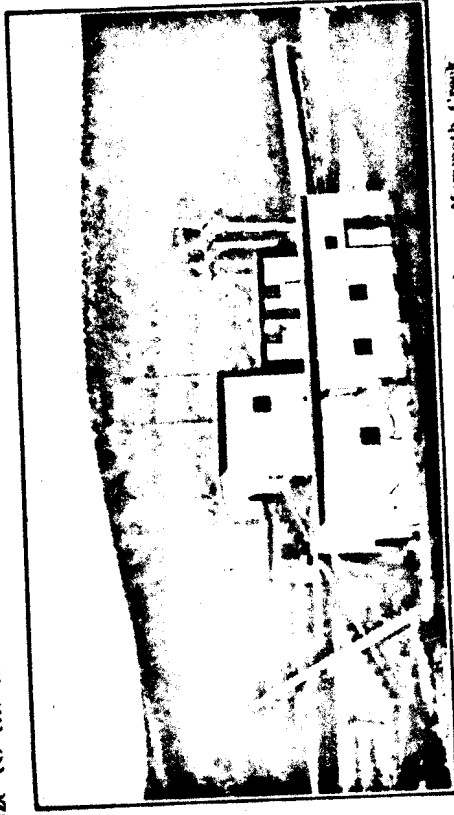


FIGURE 61. Steam-driven combination-type dredge on Mammoth Creek.

and 62). Such dredges are lighter and less expensive than table-stacker dredges of similar capacity.

Two dredges of the combination type (Nos. 24 and 32 in table) have two flumes, one at either side of the screen and conveyor (fig. 63). The undersize from the screen drops onto a short, wide, riffled sluice set on a steep angle, then passes onto another sluice set in the reverse direction, and is distributed to the two flumes. These two dredges have more than double the gold-saving area of the dredges with single flumes and in many respects are quite similar to the table-stacker dredge.

The conveyor on the combination dredge stacks the heavy material where it is most needed. Thus, when the deposit contains much fine material, the flume is extended beyond the end of the conveyor. The heavy material from the conveyor then prevents the fine material from the flume from running back under the boat. Should the

dredge have only one flume, the conveyor is installed on one side or over it. To maintain the pond, if the gravel contains little clay or

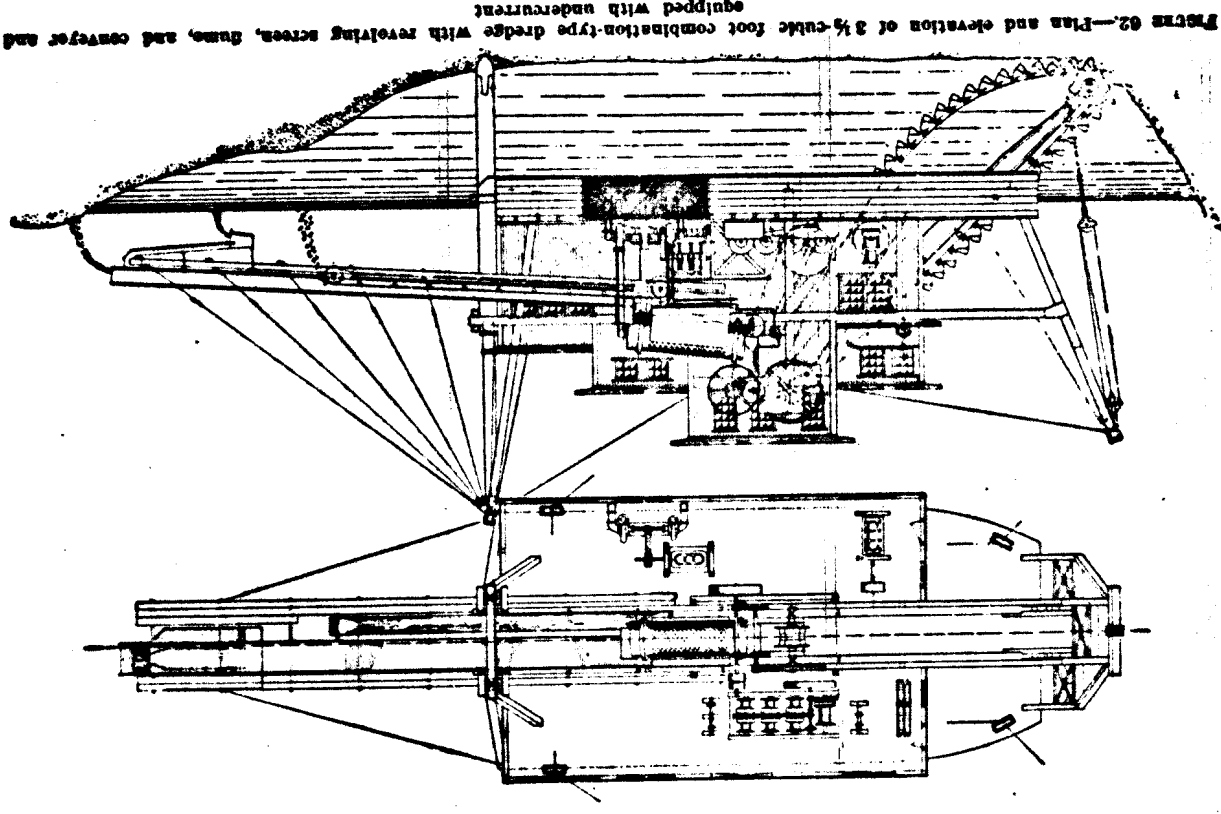


FIGURE 62. Plan and elevation of 3 1/2-cubic foot combination-type dredge with revolving screen, flume, and conveyor and equipped with undercurrent.

fine material, the conveyor is extended beyond the end of the flume, so that the fine material is backed by the coarse gravel.

STACKER-TYPE DREDGE

The stacker or California type dredge has the widest field of usefulness of any of the dredges. It is the best dredge for gold that is



FIGURE 63.—Conveyor and two flumes on the Berry dredge.

difficult to save and is the only dredge satisfactory for the more difficult and deep deposits. The buckets deliver to a revolving screen with perforations generally not more than 1 inch in diameter.

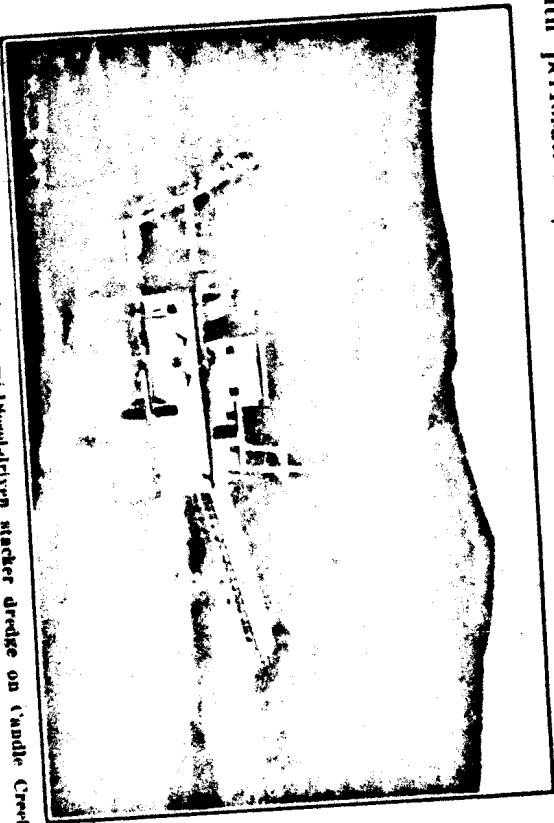


FIGURE 64.—The 8 1/2-cubic foot semi-flume-driven stacker dredge on Candle Creek in the Kuskokwim.

After disintegration and washing, the oversize is stacked behind the dredge, the undersize is distributed to the gold-saving tables and sluices, and the tailing is discharged astern (figs. 64 and 65).

Two dredges of this type (see Tables 12 and 22) are equipped with slaking screens made in two sections, lined to work in opposite directions. The motion is imparted by eccentrics, and on the No. 12 dredge was 124 three-inch strokes per minute. The screens are equipped with bars, and cast-iron "fingers" suspended over them retard and help disintegrate the material, which is washed by jets of water under high pressure. The oversize, which may still include some unwashed clayey material, goes to the stacker, the undersize falls on riffled chutes and is distributed to the tables, and the tailing is discharged through sluices astern of the dredge. An extra man must be employed as a screen and flume tender.

Dredges 26 and 34 were both digging downstream, and to keep back the sand were equipped with sand elevators. The tailing from the tables is delivered to a sump and thence is elevated by the sand

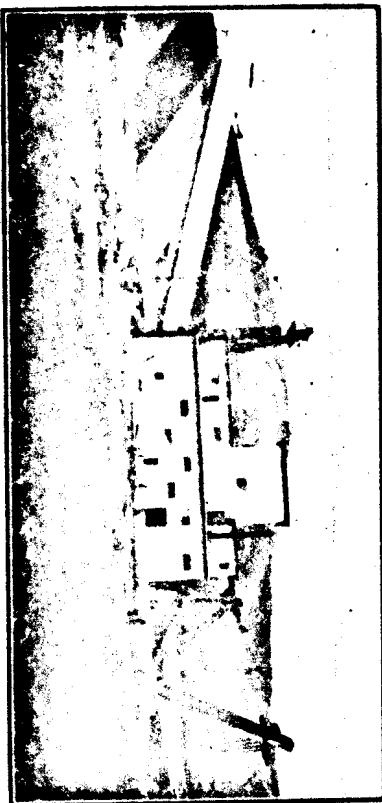


FIGURE 65.—No. 1 dredge of Hammond Consolidated Goldfields Co., at Nome; a 9-cubic foot electrically operated stacker dredge.

buckets into a chute, which delivers it to the stacker. No. 26 has one elevator and No. 34 has two, one for each set of tables. Few dredges on the creeks experience difficulty with sand unless they are digging downstream. In fact, several dredges have to deliver tailing to provide anchorage for the spuds.

In addition to the water required for stripping or thawing, plenty must be available for floating and sluicing. For the average Alaska dredge not less than 35 to 50 miner's inches of clear water should flow constantly into the pond, otherwise the pond water will become too thick, causing excessive wear of the pumps and interfering with the gold saving. For some dredges larger quantities may be required. The straight flume type requires more water for sluicing than dredges of similar capacities with screens. Except in dry seasons the local creek supply is generally ample for dredging purposes.

DETAILS OF DREDGE CONSTRUCTION

It is not practicable to discuss the many details of dredge design, construction, and operation; the reader is referred to the various books and articles on this subject. Special reference should be made to "Cold Dredging in the United States," by Charles Janin, published as Bureau of Mines Bulletin 127. Some of the principal features which apply especially to dredging in Alaska are, however, mentioned below.

HULLS

Many of the hulls made for use in Alaska were too small, as shown by the number that have been extended and widened or have pontoons added to increase buoyancy. Smaller dredges have used

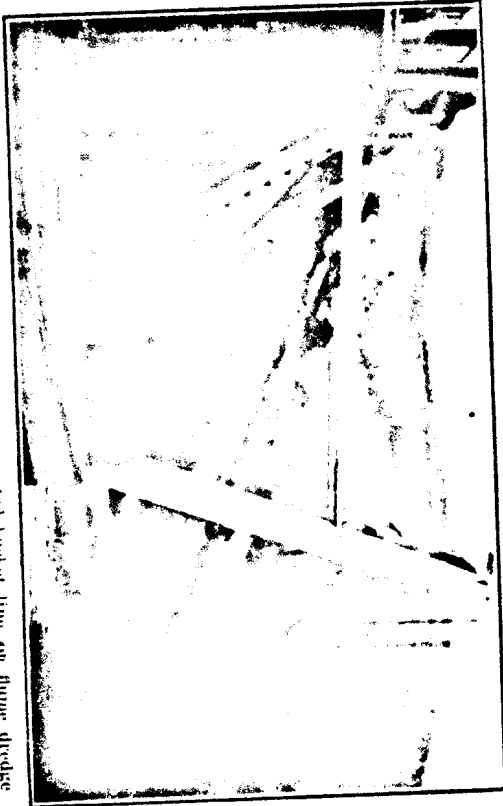


FIGURE 66.—A light 2 1/2-cubic foot open-connected bucket line on flume dredge.

empty oil drums for this purpose. Wooden hulls are used exclusively; the large dredges recently constructed at Nome have steel frame-work. With reasonable care, a hull should last the life of the property. One hull is still in fair condition after 20 seasons of dredging. Native timber makes very poor hulls.

BUCKET LINES

Most of the smaller dredges have open-connected bucket lines (fig. 66). Their main advantages are lighter weight and lower power requirements, and at one time they were favored for digging difficult bedrock and bowlders. The advantage of the modern close-connected line is so marked that comparison is hardly necessary. The shape and weight of the buckets are determined mainly by the character and depth of the ground and the size of the gravel. For

tight, hard digging ground a smaller, strongly built bucket should be used. (Ground with bowlders requires larger buckets (fig. 67). For clayey ground the buckets should be wide, shallow, and free from inside projections so their load can be more easily dumped. With a strong, properly designed manganese-steel bucket line and enough power, practically any unfrozen bedrock in Alaska dredging fields can be satisfactorily dug. Dredge 21 on Ophir Creek has dug 10 feet of slabby limestone bedrock with no great difficulty. Except on some of the smaller flume dredges, most of the ladder trusses are equipped with chutes or pans to catch the spill from the buckets and return it to the digging face. During freezing weather steam or hot water run down this chute helps to keep the material from freezing to the ladder. In discharging into the screen hopper



FIGURE 67.—A 6 1/2-cubic foot close-connected bucket line of special design.

or flume the buckets also spill some material, which falls onto a steeply inclined grizzly in the well hole, the undersize going to the save-all shives.

Upper and lower tumblers of various shapes are used on the older dredges. The newer and the modernized dredges are mostly equipped with a round lower tumbler and a five or six sided upper tumbler. Except on the larger dredges and several other stacker dredges, the main bucket line is driven by a single bull gear. This subjects the shaft to severe strains, and has caused many breaks of the shaft or gear. The double-gear drive equalizes this strain and improves the working of the bucket line.

Lack of enough power for the bucket line is sometimes due to having the engine which drives the bucket line also drive other equipment. One dredge in interior Alaska has recently increased its

daily capacity by about 300 cubic yards by changing a pump drive to the other engine. The speed of the bucket line should be readily adjustable to suit different digging conditions. The variable-speed motor on electric dredges answers this requirement most successfully. The buckets and lips last three to five or more seasons of average digging, for the yardage handled during a season is relatively small. Frozen ground causes the most wear and requires much additional power. At a mine recently worked at Nome all the bucket lips on one of the large dredges had to be replaced after one season's digging in partly thawed ground.

EFFECT OF DIGGING CONDITIONS

High bedrock gradients increase the difficulties of operation and seriously affect the operating cost. Dams must be constructed to raise the level of the water in the pond, and in the shallower ground much additional bedrock must be dug to provide enough draft. A dredge should not dig downstream unless the conditions are not a handicap. It generally means working against the "lay" or gravel flow, especially if the gravel is flat and shingled. Downstream work usually necessitates the building of dams unless the gradient is very low, complicates tailing disposal, and makes digging more difficult.

One dredge in the interior started at the head of the creek, working downstream on a $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent grade. Digging conditions were generally bad, including numerous boulders to be disposed of; moreover, dams had to be constructed across the narrow channel about every 40 feet of advance. The cost of the dams alone is stated to have amounted to about 60 cents for every cubic yard of ground dredged. Although the grade has now decreased to about 2 per cent and dams are no longer necessary, digging from that direction is more difficult. The dredge averages only about 60 per cent of the yardage that one of this size will normally handle, partly due to the reasons stated and partly to the fact that much clay is present, which also slows down washing.

LENGTH OF DREDGING SEASON

The dredging season in Alaska normally lasts three to five months. On the Seward Peninsula it averages about 100 days, most of the dredges starting in June and closing in October. A number work 120 to 145 days during a favorable season, others about half this time. One of the large dredges at Nome started July 6, 1923, and operated until December 2, or 149 days; and another started on May 1, 1924, and continued to December 7, or 220 days, which establishes a new record for Alaska. In 1912 and 1915 the Blue (goose, which then had steam power, ran for 162 days on Ophir Creek.

Starting is generally delayed on creeks fed by springs, as the successive overflows build up thick ice known as "glacier" ice, which generally covers the entire valley. In the spring of 1922 the ice on Shovel Creek was over 15 feet thick; it virtually covered the dredge and caused serious damage. On July 13, 5 feet of this ice still remained, and dredging was not possible until August, when further difficulties were encountered because of the seasonal frost. The average season on this creek is about 75 days.

The dredging season in the interior averages 130 to 165 days, from early in May or June to late in October or early in November. The record is 194 days, attained by one of the Otter Creek dredges in 1916. In 1923 the Kusko-kwim dredge and the Cache Creek dredge each ran 174 days.

ICE

In the fall the ice as it forms is broken and pushed aside by the dredge, or the cakes are removed. Slush and anchor ice, however, quickly close on the dredge and soon freeze it in tightly. There is no practical way of combating this kind of ice, although heating the hulls or the pond water with steam has been tried. Experienced operators know that when thick ice starts to form the end of the season is at hand, and the dredge should be put into winter quarters. Some dredges continue to dig until frozen in and are left until spring. This practice may leave the dredge unprotected from early spring floods and other dangers. The better procedure is to stop early enough to dig a level bench at some protected place and lower the water, letting the dredge rest on an even bottom. Dredges are only removed from the ponds when repairs of the hull become necessary.

In the spring the dredge is cut loose from the ice, water run into the pond, and the dredge floated. The ice in the pond is sometimes cut with saws and axes, but more often with steam points or steam ice cutters. Figure 68 shows one of these ice cutters. The pond

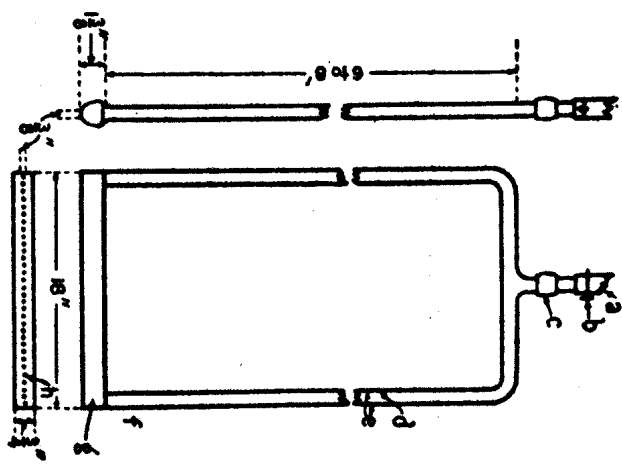


FIGURE 68.—Steam ice cutter, 120 pounds pressure: a, Steam hose; b, hose clamp; c, sleeve; d, $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch gas pipe; e, asbestos tape insulation; f, outer steel casing; g, 1-inch outside diameter brass tubing; h, $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch boiler.

ice may also be blasted. For an early start the ice cakes are removed from the pond, and the ground ahead of the dredge is stripped of snow and ice. Where the seasonal frost is shallow, some good results have been obtained by scattering ashes over the ground. Enough ground is thawed ahead with steam, at some operations with water, to get the dredge under way. Experience has shown that the best practice is to start dredging as early as may be practicable in the spring and stop earlier in the fall rather than fight the freezing weather.

HEAT AND LIGHT

The dredges are heated with steam when necessary, generally with a boiler supplied just for this purpose. During freezing weather the stackers and sometimes the flumes are housed in canvas and steam heated. Hot water or steam is applied to the ladder chute, or the line is relieved of the accumulating frozen material from time to time with a steam jet.

Virtually all dredges are lighted by electricity. Daylight is continuous during several summer months. The lighting generator is generally driven by a small auxiliary internal-combustion engine, except on the electric and the steam driven dredges.

OPERATING DATA

Alaska dredges dig 20 to 60 per cent of their theoretical capacity, this wide range being due mainly to the differing efficiency of the various dredges and conditions of operation. An average derived from the performance of all the dredges would be of no practical value, but most dredges working under average conditions realize 40 to 45 per cent of their theoretical capacity. The short dredging season makes it especially imperative that the greatest possible operating time be realized. Many of the dredges work 22 hours daily, sometimes a little longer, for days at a time. The flume dredges often average a longer operating time than other dredges. Some operators claim an average operating time of 50 per cent, which would be possible only under exceptional conditions, but the running time should average 75 to 85 per cent of the total time available. The principal causes of lost time are engine or power trouble, mechanical accidents, floods, lack of water, frozen ground, stepping ahead or moving in shallow ground, and clean-ups.

The following table shows the causes and the amount of time lost by two dredges operated under widely differing physical conditions; further data are given under "Dredging costs."

Lost time in percentage of total time

Cause of delay	W. H. D. (Dredge No. 1)		C. H. D. (Dredge No. 2)
	1919	1920	
Step ahead	Per cent 2.57	Per cent 2.84	1.72
Moving to catch	91	86	1.66
Moving line	1.47	2.12	1.56
Reels	1.62	2.85	1.26
Pen-up	.04	.02	1.09
Shutes	.02	.02	.19
Shutes	.52	.21	
Reelers	1.47	1.22	
Reelers, machinery	1.27	1.53	
Engine trouble	2.57	1.59	1.15
Bucket line, ladder	.12	.20	
Between	.20	.20	
W. inches	.80	.20	1.15
Pumps	.80	.20	.42
Electric equipment	.11	1.27	.06
Shutes	.06	.46	
Frost	1.09	1.09	
Pond and dam	.65	.35	
Miscellaneous			18.20
Lower turntable, oiling			.07
Upper turntable, repairs			.21
Power plant, ditch, etc.			.16
Hopper			
Lost time	15.58	15.94	26.40
Do	255.42	400.25	1,085.08
Running time	1,924.56	2,158.75	3,066.97
Total time	2,104.00	2,598.00	4,152.00

* Dredging downstream.

* Time lost in 1917 was 34.9 per cent.

* Time lost on account of floods, pond, and ditch trouble.

Most dredges are operated on 12-hour shifts, the shore men, stripping and thawing crews, and others that may be required working 10 hours. Several companies have adopted the eight-hour shift. On account of the short season and the increased wage, dredge men usually prefer the longer shift. The average shift on the dredges comprises one winch man, one engineer, and an oiler, with one or two shore men or roustabouts on the day shift. Most companies employ a dredge master as superintendent. On distillate-driven flume dredges the engineer spends about half his time with the engines and may also act as oiler and flume tender. In all, five men constitute the entire crew for steady operation on the smallest flume dredges.

WAGES

The wages paid by the dredging companies vary widely, even in the same districts. The following is the average scale; board and lodging is provided in addition. The shore men and other laborers are paid the prevailing wages, as given in the section on "Labor."

Dredge wages

	Wreck men	Engineers	Others	Dredge master
Dredge Foreman	\$1.00-2.00	\$5.00-10.00	\$5.00-7.50	\$10.00-12.00
Foreman	1.00-2.00	7.50	7.50	12.00-12.00
Assistant Foreman	1.00-2.00	7.50	7.50	12.00-12.00
Engineer	1.00-2.00	7.50	7.50	12.00-12.00
Assistant Engineer	1.00-2.00	7.50	7.50	12.00-12.00
Electrician	1.00-2.00	7.50	7.50	12.00-12.00
Boiler	1.00-2.00	7.50	7.50	12.00-12.00
Blacksmith	1.00-2.00	7.50	7.50	12.00-12.00
Welder	1.00-2.00	7.50	7.50	12.00-12.00
Painter	1.00-2.00	7.50	7.50	12.00-12.00
Teamster	1.00-2.00	7.50	7.50	12.00-12.00

Dredge masters, winch men, and engineers living in the United States or elsewhere out of the district are generally given traveling expenses both ways and receive wages only when on the property.

POWER COSTS

The table on Alaska dredges shows the power used and the amount of gasoline, distillate, fuel oil, Diesel oil, or wood fuel consumed by the dredges in an average working-day. The cost of power on distillate-driven dredges and dredges in isolated districts, where cheap fuel or hydroelectric power is not obtainable, is generally the greatest single item of the operating cost. Two companies operate their electric shore plants with Diesel engines; both are located close to tidewater. Two dredges are operated by hydroelectric power, and one of the companies in the Innoko district (fig. 1, 2) is now installing a hydroelectric plant. In most districts there is little opportunity for developing reliable and economical water power. The Wild Horse Co. had available for power use the ditch and pipeline from former hydraulic operations. This water power is available for about 100 days each season, and an auxiliary distillate engine aboard the dredge is used when the water fails. Although climatic conditions at Cache Creek would permit the use of water for power during the entire season, the head is low, and during an unusually dry season there may be a month or so when lack of water seriously affects the operation of the power plant.

The Diesel engine has greatly reduced power costs and will receive greater attention for dredge power in future.

Steam is the ideal power for the average Alaska dredge but should not be installed unless there is an abundant supply of good wood or coal near by. Early steam dredges had old and inefficient steam equipment, which consumed large amounts of fuel. As the wood supply soon had to be hauled long distances, the power costs became prohibitive, necessitating a change in power generation. Locomotive-type steam equipment is the most practical and economic

cal dredge power in those isolated districts where wood can be obtained at reasonable cost.

The Berry dredge is equipped with two 75-horsepower locomobiles which have given satisfactory service. For power purposes they consumed an average of 4 cords of wood per operating day. An additional half cord of wood is consumed during the spring and fall, when the dredge must be heated. The wood now costs \$15 per cord on the dredge. At \$60 per day for wood and \$23 for the wages and board of two engineers, one on each shift, this daily power cost is \$83, or \$0.554 per horsepower-day. On a basis of 2,900 cubic yards dredged per day, this amounts to \$0.038 per cubic yard.

The following table has been compiled from data on 11 dredges operated on the Seward Peninsula in 1921, and shows that the cost of power is exceptionally high on the distillate and semi-Diesel dredges.

Dredge power cost, Seward Peninsula, 1921

Number of dredges	Kind of power	Cubic yards dredged in season	Total horsepower	Cost of power *		
				Per day	Per cubic yard dredged	Percent use of yard operating cost
1	Distillate	200,700	320	\$441.00	\$0.142	46.6
2	Semi-Diesel	475,250	342	\$31.50	.009	28.1
3	Diesel-electric	778,000	200	\$27.75	.004	28.0
4	Hydroelectric	12,000	140	\$0.00	.005	12.0
11	Average	12,470	1,003	\$10.25	.75	28.6

* Includes only cost of fuel, bunkering oil, and labor in attendance. At most of the distillate-driven dredges the engineer devotes only part of his time to the engine. Per day.

The average cost of distillate delivered to the above dredges was 63 cents per gallon. The 24° Diesel oil at the semi-Diesel dredges cost 36 cents per gallon and at the Diesel-electric plant 30 cents. Distillate cost 17 cents and 24° Diesel oil 6½ cents per gallon at Seattle. The charge of \$50 per day at the hydroelectric plant includes the proportional cost of ditch maintenance and attendance at the plant, the latter being mainly part of the dredge master's wages, all prorated on the basis of 100 days for the season.

CACHE CREEK DREDGE

Until 1921 the Cache Creek dredge was steam operated, and a poor-grade lignite coal mined close by was used for fuel. The coal proved unsatisfactory, the steam power too costly, and with the heavy steam equipment aboard the dredge drew too much water for proper draft. Hydroelectric power was then developed, a 1-mile

ditch be constructed to deliver the water through a double pipe line 1,500 feet long and 34 inches in diameter to a 23-inch double-discharge turbine water wheel under 85-foot head. The 300 kw. belt-driven generator produces the alternating current, which is transformed at 11,000 volts to the transformer near the dredge, where it is stepped down to 2,300 volts and transformed to 440 volts aboard the dredge. An average of 3,800 kw. h. is used per operating day. In 1922 power, which included ditch and pipe-line maintenance and the cost of labor, supplies, and power-plant repairs, cost \$20,000 per kilowatt-hour, or \$80,000 per cubic yard dredged. The average cost of this power for three seasons has been \$52.43 per day, or \$0.0258 per cubic yard dredged. The pipe line, turbine, and most of the electrical equipment was secondhand. The entire power installation cost \$52,634, including \$19,475 for the ditch and pipe line and \$30,078 for the dredge electrical equipment.

DREDGING AT NOME

The largest power plant for dredge operation in Alaska is at Nome and has six 525-horsepower Diesel engines. These use 14 to 16° fuel oil delivered to the Nome anchorage in tank steamers. The fuel consumption under average load is approximately 25 gallons per hour per engine. The engines are direct connected to 2,300-volt alternating-current generators. This current is transformed to 11,000 volts and transmitted $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles to the dredges. Conditions are also favorable for developing cheap power from coal or Diesel oil in the Fairbanks district, where the plant can be located close to the Alaskan Railroad.

METHODS OF ESTIMATING YARDAGE DREDGED

Method of estimating the volume of ground dredged vary. A number of the smaller operators roughly measure the area dredged at the end of the season and, knowing the average depth dredged, can approximate the yardage. Several operators dredging shallow deposits use the unit, "square feet of bedrock dredged," but also state the average depth dug during the season. The more systematic operators make a survey every two weeks, or each month, recording the area in square feet, the average depth in feet, and the volume in cubic yards. Allowance is made for the slope of the banks and irregularities in the slope or depth of the cut, especially in the deeper ground.

A method used by a number of the companies is to lay out a base line also on one or both sides of the course to be dredged, setting stakes at intervals of 100 or more feet. From these points the survey is then plotted, and the area obtained with a planimeter,

or calculated. From the area and the average depth of ground dug, derived from the daily dredge reports, the yardage is determined. The area ahead of the dredge is often staked out in 100-foot or other size squares. With either method the position and progress of the dredge and the cut measurements can be quickly determined. In ground where the distribution of gold is irregular or prospecting has not been thorough, close drilling may be done ahead of the dredge. The course to be followed by the dredge and the depth of the bedrock to be dug are further ascertained by frequently panning the material dug, and unprofitable areas can thus be avoided.

GOLD CONTENT OF GROUND DREDGED

The average recovery of gold per cubic yard dredged in Alaska each season from 1911 to 1922 was 51 to 77 cents per cubic yard, according to Brooks.⁴⁵ In 1923 this average dropped to 40 cents, the lowest in history. Most of the gold gravels now being dredged yield 20 to 50 cents per cubic yard, about one-third averaging around 50 cents. Three dredges report gold recoveries of 60 to 75 cents per cubic yard and one more than \$1.25. There appears to be small opportunity of acquiring dredgeable ground which will exceed 40 to 50 cents per cubic yard unless new virgin fields should be discovered.

DREDGE OPERATING COSTS

Alaska dredging costs are usually high and vary widely, as the dredges differ in size and efficiency and work under widely differing conditions. Moreover, the operating cost for the same dredge may vary greatly from season to season. This report gives the operating cost only, and unless otherwise noted does not include depreciation, depletion, royalty, interest, or other charges against capital invested.

The operating cost is 15 to 35 cents per cubic yard. The higher figure has sometimes been exceeded, due to unusually adverse conditions, serious accidents, or inefficient management. Costs of 15 to 18 cents are only realized by a few well-managed properties in the more accessible districts under generally favorable conditions. Some of the low costs claimed are often due to the bookkeeping system employed or to the fact that office expense, management, etc., are not included. From incomplete data supplied by operators of 11 dredges running under widely differing conditions on the Seward Peninsula in 1921, an attempt has been made to estimate the cost of dredging for that year. The data cover operation of

⁴⁵ Brooks, A. H., and Cooper, R. R., "The Alaskan mining industry in 1922"; Mineral Resources of Alaska, 1922; U. S. Geol. Survey Bull. 755, 1924, p. 15.

four dredges in the Nome district, three in the Solomon district, and four in the Council district. With the exception of a very small yardage which was artificially thawed at two of the places, the ground dredged was unfrozen, except for some seasonal frost. The 11 dredges dug 1,323,500 cubic yards, but 740,000 cubic yards of this were handled by three dredges.

The operating costs were 15 to 38 cents per cubic yard, the average being 21.6 cents. The total amount of capital invested in dredging equipment was estimated at \$590,000. This is low, but a number of these dredges were acquired for nominal sums and could not now be replaced for twice the amount. Although the life of the property usually could not be definitely determined, the depreciation on equipment roughly averaged 4.64 cents and simple interest at 6 per cent averaged 2.67 cents, a total of 7.31 cents per cubic yard; at the various mines it ranged from 2 to 20 cents. In this estimate the cost of land, royalties, etc., are not included. The season of 1921 was longer than the average season and operating conditions were generally more favorable. The number of days worked by the dredges varied from 75 to 129, the average being about 100.

One engineer estimates that the frozen ground on the Nome tundra can be dredged at an operating cost of 9 to 10 cents per cubic yard, exclusive of thawing costs. The total cost, including thawing and all capital charges, is estimated at 23 cents per cubic yard. The estimate is based on the assumption that four dredges are operated for a season of seven months and are capable of digging 800,000 cubic yards per month.

DETAILED DATA FROM INDIVIDUAL OPERATIONS

The following detailed data and costs cover operations conducted by dredges of different sizes and types under differing conditions. Much of the information obtained concerning production and capital charges of mining operations, and in some instances the operating costs, is confidential and must be omitted. It is particularly gratifying to be able to present complete costs for the Wild Goose Mining & Trading Co.'s No. 1 dredge, which were freely given, for these data contain detailed accounts of its very successful operation from 1910, when it started, to the shutdown in 1924. This dredge was formerly driven by distillate engines. In 1915 it was electrically equipped and operated by hydroelectric power, except during the late fall or during short periods of water shortage, when power was supplied by the auxiliary distillate engine.

Operations of Wild Goose dredge No. 1
[Total cubic yards dredged, 1910-1924, inclusive, 3,023,794]

Year	Length of season, days	Operating time, Per cent	Dredged—		Average value recovered per cubic yard	Operating value per cubic yard
			Per season	Per day		
1910	135.6	66.4	12,550	1,499	\$1.2013	\$2.59
1911	135.6	72.0	224,710	1,657	1.8472	21.20
1912	124.5	75.0	224,400	1,802	1.8372	21.20
1913	124.5	75.0	197,730	1,585	1.8372	21.20
1914	124.5	75.0	272,400	2,180	1.8372	21.20
1915	122.2	64.9	265,200	2,165	1.8372	21.20
1916	143	66.1	220,870	1,548	1.8372	21.20
1917	143	66.1	215,720	1,508	1.8372	21.20
1918	143	66.1	146,500	1,024	1.8372	21.20
1919	143	66.1	146,500	1,024	1.8372	21.20
1920	129	64.1	317,347	2,461	1.8372	21.20
1921	129	64.1	300,000	2,325	1.8372	21.20
1922	111	57.7	220,000	1,982	1.8372	21.20
1923	108	54.7	201,000	1,861	1.8372	21.20
1924	77	60.1	116,700	1,515	1.8372	21.20

* Exclusive of management, which amounts to from 2.5 to 4 cents per cubic yard.

* Difficulty with frozen ground conditions. Retarded digging.

NOTE.—Before 1920 some small areas were thawed. Ground usually contained only seasonal frost. Depth dug varied from 7 to 24 feet. Bottom was thin and thin bedded limestone. Gravel was medium size with some bowlders. Dredge was digging downstream.

Operating costs of Wild Goose dredge No. 1

	1917	1918	1919	1920
Labor and men	\$13,725.10	\$7,000.37	\$6,081.50	\$10,746.00
Repairs and renewals	12,541.75	14,436.52	11,186.52	9,777.56
Distillate and oil	4,415.47	4,357.32	2,151.20	1,306.96
Hull and machinery	9,925.92	2,349.96	4,036.67	1,645.32
Supplies	1,525.22	1,256.26	1,712.12	1,884.37
Freight on supplies	1,011.92	1,402.45	1,915.19	2,104.14
General expense	4,001.92	2,645.53	4,424.92	3,444.91
Stable	1,402.00	2,067.01	3,052.05	4,206.25
Items			2,721.00	1,203.00
Camp installation	216.00	207.71	345.65	416.26
Hull charges		1,750.00	3,361.91	3,446.00
Insurance	4,654.30	4,300.53	5,057.90	5,796.00
Management, etc.	316.26	4,000.15	744.40	1,057.01
Traveling expense				
Total	\$1,704.26	\$4,004.14	\$9,128.02	\$7,409.40
Per cubic yard	.260	.2615	.2901	.241

NOTE.—Capital invested in dredge and its equipment, \$125,000; in power plant, \$15,000. Depreciation and interest, 6 per cent, amounts to \$18,576 per season, or \$0.67 to \$0.76 per cubic yard (estimated).

Operations of Wild Goose dredge No. 2

Year	Length of season, days	Cubic yards dredged—		Average value per cubic yard, cents	Operating cost per cubic yard, cents
		Per season	Per day		
1910	137	200,000	1,459	26.61	21.00
1922	169	213,707	2,152	24.67	17.79
1923	91	101,300	1,113	22.66	17.75

NOTE.—Cost includes management, etc. Formerly three (three dredges purchased by Wild Goose Co. for \$15,000; operated by them for three years only; shut broke hole in 1923; operation finished; ground condition similar to No. 1 dredge but digging was upstream.

Riley Inletment Co., dredging costs and data. *Uller Creek*

	1921	1922	1923
Operating cost:			
Labor, material, management, etc.	\$24,461.79	\$40,094.27	\$40,094.27
Interest on investment	7,706.09	1,206.80	1,206.80
Depreciation	2,827.47	6,624.15	6,624.15
Insurance, including management	96,572.10	22,651.68	22,651.68
Total	111,660.85	71,542.00	71,542.00
Per cubic yard:			
Operating cost:	209,475	464,969	464,969
Interest on investment	14.5	14.0	14.0
Depreciation	241,004	241,004	241,004
Insurance, including management	209,000	209,000	209,000
Total	23.0	23.0	23.0
Per cubic yard:			
Operating cost:	23.0	23.0	23.0
Interest on investment	14.5	14.0	14.0
Depreciation	241,004	241,004	241,004
Insurance, including management	209,000	209,000	209,000
Total	23.0	23.0	23.0

includes sinking dredge, \$7,475, not included. Includes \$8,572.84 for new buckets, lip, etc.
 The average depth dug was 15 feet. About two-thirds of the gravel was thawed with steam and half with water.
 The average depth dug was 15 feet. About two-thirds of the gravel was thawed with steam and half with water.
 The average depth dug was 15 feet. About two-thirds of the gravel was thawed with steam and half with water.

Benton & Donnelly dredge data. *Uller Creek*

	1920	1921	1922
Operating cost:			
Labor, material, management, etc.	\$24,461.79	\$40,094.27	\$40,094.27
Interest on investment	7,706.09	1,206.80	1,206.80
Depreciation	2,827.47	6,624.15	6,624.15
Insurance, including management	96,572.10	22,651.68	22,651.68
Total	111,660.85	71,542.00	71,542.00
Per cubic yard:			
Operating cost:	209,475	464,969	464,969
Interest on investment	14.5	14.0	14.0
Depreciation	241,004	241,004	241,004
Insurance, including management	209,000	209,000	209,000
Total	23.0	23.0	23.0

Berry dredge data

	1922	1923	1924
Operating cost:			
Labor and superintendence	\$20,902.08	\$25,723.42	\$25,444.08
Supplies, etc.	15,082.66	12,709.57	14,632.34
Office expense	662.61	474.44	469.32
General expense	1,138.99	773.94	2,076.78
Traveling expenses	1,324.97	1,153.83	1,791.14
Insurance and taxes	2,632.06	2,641.68	2,804.04
Total	42,644.36	44,208.88	47,128.08
Per cubic yard:	\$2.37	\$2.17	\$2.20
Operating data:			
Days operated	127	125	125
Operating time	127,125	125,000	125,000
Cubic yards dug	127,125	125,000	125,000

Note.—Cost of prospecting labor and supplies in 1923, \$1,804.76, not included in above cost. Moving and reconstruction of dredge completed June, 1922 (cost \$13,267.42) and charged to capital account. Steam-operated dredge, ground partly frozen, mostly seasonally frozen; from 5 to 18 feet deep after stripping off 4 feet of overburden; average depth, 10 feet; bedrock, schist, and granite; some light, hard rocks; large granite boulders now.

Uller Creek dredge data

	1921	1922	1923	1924
Operating cost:				
Labor, material, management, etc.	\$14,620.08	\$18,492.07	\$27,509.76	\$40,794.37
Interest on investment	7,467.34	12,543.20	12,543.20	22,118.39
Depreciation	3,901.34	6,624.15	6,624.15	6,624.15
Insurance, including management	96,572.10	22,651.68	22,651.68	22,651.68
Total	111,660.85	71,542.00	71,542.00	71,542.00
Per cubic yard:				
Operating cost:	209,475	464,969	464,969	464,969
Interest on investment	14.5	14.0	14.0	14.0
Depreciation	241,004	241,004	241,004	241,004
Insurance, including management	209,000	209,000	209,000	209,000
Total	23.0	23.0	23.0	23.0

Note.—The above shallow creek deposit, gravel medium size with numerous boulders in certain areas; mus, dug up to about 6 feet of easy-digging coal formation bedrock to provide dredge location; digging upstream over average grade of about 2.5 per cent.
 The average depth dug was 15 feet. About two-thirds of the gravel was thawed with steam and half with water.
 The average depth dug was 15 feet. About two-thirds of the gravel was thawed with steam and half with water.

Alaska Mining Co., Nome, dredging costs, 1920

	Operating cost	Cost per cubic yard dredged	Per cent of operating cost
Labor, dredge only	\$9,523.89		
Material, dredge	383.49		
Repairs, labor and material	1,911.51		
Merchandise	1,202.65		
Total	13,146.94	6.73	24.4
Thawing	10,145.10	5.20	19.0
Power	30,586.10	15.61	56.6
Total operating	53,978.14	27.54	100.0
Overhead	11,423.00	5.83	
Total	65,401.14	33.37	

This 8-cubic foot electric-driven dredge was formerly operated at Nome. It dug 196,000 cubic yards in 1920, of which 25,290 cubic yards were old tailing. During the 100 days the dredge operated the actual running time was 79 per cent, the greatest loss of time being due to lack of oil for power. Power was produced by a 650-kilowatt shore plant at a cost of 6.5 cents per kilowatt hour, which was excessive. Of the ground dredged, 88,807 cubic yards were thawed with water at natural temperature at a cost of 11.49 cents per cubic yard.

TYPICAL PLACER IN INTERIOR DISTRICT

The following will illustrate the operation of a 2½-cubic foot, distillate-engine driven, flume dredge in an isolated interior district. In 1922, the second season of its operation, this dredge dug 136,000 cubic yards from June 3 to October 22, or 142 days, averaging about 90 hours of digging time each day. The average depth dug was 11 feet. The ground was unfrozen, but for some seasonal frost, and afforded favorable digging conditions. The operating costs for 1922 were:

Operating costs for distillate-driven flume dredge

	Total	Per cubic yard
Labor	\$14,072.54	
Mine	3,807.41	
Mining material	640.40	
Distillate and oil	10,709.65	
Repairs and postage	483.50	
Traveling expenses and miscellaneous	895.50	
Management, Nam Francisco office expenses, etc.	31,727.91	\$0.2335
	6,081.16	.0417
	27,838.07	.2762

The capital invested in the dredge is \$12,700; depreciation in eight years plus 6 per cent simple interest amounts to 5.8 cents per cubic yard dredged in 1922. Dredges of this type and size were formerly operated on the Seward Peninsula at an operating cost of about 15 cents per cubic yard.

COST OF GOLD DREDGES

The cost of the gold dredges has increased 50 to 70 per cent since 8 or 10 years ago. As formerly mentioned, some of the earlier Alaska dredges could not be duplicated and placed in operation now for twice the original cost. Although it is difficult to estimate the cost and capacity of a dredge unless all conditions are known, the following table, compiled from data obtained from several dredge builders, gives the weight, approximate average monthly capacity, and other details for dredges of different sizes and types and their approximate cost f. o. b. Pacific coast.

Approximate cost and weight of gold dredges

Type of dredge	Size of bucket	Type of bucket	Average monthly capacity	Kind of power	Approximate horsepower	Digging depth	Lumber in hull	Total weight of dredge	Approximate cost f. o. b. Francisco
Flume	Cubic feet	Open	Cubic yards	Distillate	Ft.	Board feet	Tons		
Combination flume screen and conveyor	1½	Open	17,500	Steam locomobile	30	12	52	415,000	
Do.	2	Close	36,000	do.	60	30	210	825,000	
Do.	2½	Open	30,000	Distillate	75	18	64,000	45,000	
Screen and stacker	3	Close	45,000	Diesel engine	100	20	80,000	24,500	
Do.	3½	Open	52,000	do.	150	35	105,000	62,000	
Combination flume screen and conveyor	4	Open	64,000	do.	150	35	105,000	75,000	
Screen and stacker	4	Open	64,000	Steam locomobile	220	55	200,000	100,000	
Do.	5	Open	80,000	Steam electric	250	60	220,000	200,000	
Do.	6	Open	100,000	do.	300	70	220,000	215,000	
Do.	7½	Open	120,000	do.	400	90	220,000	285,000	

* Cost of machinery only.
* Includes steam shore plant.

NOTE.—Full Diesel engine power costs \$1,000 to \$1,500 more than steam-locomobile power on 3 to 3½ cubic foot dredges.

From a study of the preceding table and the tables on ocean and inland freighting costs an approximate estimate can be made of the cost of a dredge landed at the property. To this must be added the cost of erection. Under average conditions, 2½-cubic foot flume dredges have been erected for \$7,000 to \$9,000, the combination 3½-cubic foot dredges for \$12,000 to \$18,000, and the 3½ to 4 cubic foot stacker dredges from \$18,000 to \$25,000. Dredge 32 (see table on Alaska dredges, p. 178) was recently erected in 43 days at a cost of \$15,000.

FRESHMEN COSTS

Dredge 2 was ready to operate cost \$50,000 in 1911. Dredge 5, as originally erected on Bangor Creek in 1914, cost \$127,000. It cost \$90,000 in (Oakland). Dredge 6 cost \$85,000 erected in 1915. About 10 years ago a 2½-cubic foot flume dredge similar to dredge 8, cost about \$27,500, erected in the Council and Solomon districts. These dredges, erected in districts of average accessibility, would now cost \$45,000 to \$50,000. Although the cost of the large dredges is not definitely known, dredge 13 cost about \$500,000 erected and dredge 14 about \$600,000. Their erection was completed during the winter when extremely cold weather added greatly to the cost. Dredge 21, as now constructed, cost about \$125,000. Dredge 24 cost \$86,000 erected in 1915. Dredge 25 cost \$135,000 at Oakland in 1917 and erected at the property \$180,000. Dredge 28 cost \$80,000 erected. Dredge 30 cost \$50,000 in 1921. Dredge 33, as originally erected on Glacier Creek, cost \$28,000 in 1915. Dredge 34 cost \$112,000 erected in 1918, but an additional sum has been spent in changes made later. Many dredges on Seward Peninsula have changed ownership at least once or twice and have often been acquired for very nominal costs through direct sale or bankruptcy proceedings. Others have been constructed with parts from older dredges.

MOVEMENT OF DREDGES

Some dredges which have proved unprofitable or which have completed the dredging of their original ground have been moved to new locations. These used dredges have at times been acquired for a small part of their original cost or have been amortized during their earlier period of operation, and thus made it possible afterward to dredge lower-grade gravels or smaller areas which could not otherwise be worked at a profit. This is typical of a number of the dredging operations, particularly on the Seward Peninsula. Dredges have been moved to new localities on the same creek, to distant creeks, and often to new districts. Some small dredges on Seward Peninsula weighing from 125 to 200 tons have been moved over the snow without dismantling; dredges weighing 250 to 400 tons must be dismantled, and the hull is cut in half, lengthwise. During the winter of 1921 dredge 5 was moved from Bangor Creek to Anvil Creek, a distance of 14 miles. The dredge was dismantled and the hull cut in two lengthwise. The dismantling cost \$4,500, the hauling \$11,000. The entire job, including the re-erection of the dredge, was contracted for at \$25,000. In 1916 dredge 18 was moved from Mystery Creek to Ophir Creek, a distance of 12 miles. The dredge was dismantled and the hull cut in half. The contract cost of dismantling and rebuilding the dredge was

\$3,000, and the cost of moving was \$3,000. The dredge ready to operate on Ophir Creek cost the company \$28,500. Dredge 24 was dismantled and hauled 2½ miles down the creek for \$3,500 and reconstructed. This entire cost was about \$15,000, which included additional material. Several dredges have dug their way for several miles downstream through old tailing to a new area, the gold recovery by the dredge paying a part of the moving cost.

GOLD SAVING

The high cost of placer mining in Alaska and the lower average gold content of the gravels now being mined necessitate efficient gold-saving equipment. At most mines the gold is chiefly coarse or heavy, and although some fine gold is generally present, practically all can usually be saved with very few refinements in gold-saving practice if the gold-bearing material is thoroughly washed and disintegrated. Quite often the gold is coated with a film of iron oxide or with some compound of sulphur, arsenic, or other impurity. It is difficult to save coated fine gold in the sluices. Light flaky or flour gold is rarely present in appreciable quantity, and only a very small proportion can be saved by usual methods.

The loss of gold in the tailing can not be accurately determined, as there is no practical way of accurately sampling the gold-bearing material or the tailing. The average placer miner does not like to admit that gold is being lost. However, many dumps contain chunks of unwashed material which carry gold and sometimes amalgam. Gold loss in tailing is further evidenced in the number of "snipers" working over old dumps and in the results of drilling or subsequent mining.

Gold losses in the earlier days were probably larger than at present, for the deposits contained a higher gold content, and a loss was not considered so serious. The sluices were often poorly adapted for the work or were overloaded. Purlington⁶ estimated that in the interior districts where two or five boxes with no drops were used in saving the gold, 10 to 20 per cent of the gold lifted into the boxes was lost. Losses of 50 per cent were not uncommon in those days, and there still are a few mines where only 70 per cent of the gold put into the sluices is recovered.

With free-washing gravel—that is, gravel free of difficult clay—a high percentage of the gold can usually be saved by the customary methods. Most gold losses are accounted for by the presence of stiff sticky clay, which is difficult to disintegrate and tends to rob the riffles of gold or amalgam, and by the lack of suitable sluice

⁶ Purlington, C. W. *Methods and Costs of Gravel and Placer Mining in Alaska*: U. S. Geol. Survey Bull. 263, 1905, p. 191.

gradients. Some loss may also result from shortage of water for sluicing; or the intermittent use of water in "splashes," which agitate the riffles, carries gold through the boxes. Lack of grade may prevent employment of added refinements in gold saving at most hydraulic and some open-cut mines; however, refinements in gold saving should be practiced at the drift mines where only the richer part of the deposit is mined and at mechanical or other operations where large amounts of barren or low-grade material are first removed at considerable cost to get to the "pay." Conditions are generally favorable for this at such mines, as the gold-bearing material is elevated and grade thus provided.

Although it is unnecessary here to discuss the refinements of gold saving, certain Alaska methods will be briefly mentioned.

GOLD SAVING IN MINING METHODS OTHER THAN DREDGING

SUICES

Long sluices are seldom used in Alaska on account of lack of grade. Except where special hydraulic mining methods are employed, sluices more than 200 feet long are used only to aid in disposal of tailing. The longer the sluice the more thoroughly can the material be disintegrated. Narrow sluices and a deep flow of the material through them generally cause gold losses, especially if the gold is fine. The flow through the sluices should be deep enough to cover the largest boulders but under average conditions should not be over 6 or 8 inches. The tendency for the riffles to pack increases with the depth of the flow.

In hydraulic mining, where the material is quite thoroughly disintegrated before it reaches the sluices, short lengths of sluices may prove satisfactory, although if conditions permitted longer sluices and undercurrents would be better practice. In hydraulic mining of creek placers grades of 4 to 6 inches to the 12-foot box are the rule, although higher grades are often created by using special methods of setting the sluice boxes. A grade of 6 inches in 12 feet is generally considered the practicable minimum under average water supply, and higher grades are preferred when available. The sluices should have enough grade to prevent blocking without excessive use of water. At a number of the hydraulic mines a large quantity of ground-sluice water is used because of the low grade available, so the sluices run almost full; yet the gold loss is very slight, for the gold is coarse and heavy, the material is well washed, and the sluices are long.

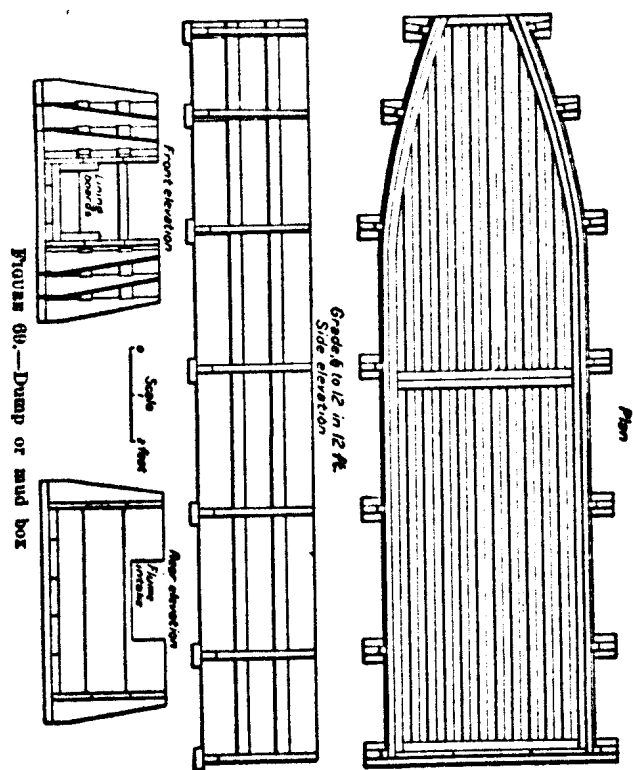
Fine gold, whether bright or coated, requires special attention. The sluices should be wide, so that the flow may be shallow, and set on steeper grades to keep riffles from packing. The saving of fine

gold is best accomplished by separating the heavier material and passing the undersize over gold tables or undercurrents. When the gold is bright, the use of quicksilver is advisable.

In general, 80 to 90 per cent of the average gold recovered is retained either in the dump box, if one is used, or in the first three or four sluice boxes. The lower end of the sluice usually contains only a very small percentage of the total gold recovered.

SUICE DROPS

Where practicable, vertical drops in the sluice help in disintegrating the material. Although a fall of a few inches will help, the most efficient drop is 1 to 5 or more feet high and is placed where



the material is first passed over a grizzly or inclined grating. The fine material and water fall into the sluice below, and the washed oversize is dumped outside of the sluice.

MUD OR DUMP BOXES

The use of mud or dump boxes in sluicing is characteristic of drift mining and mechanical mining in Alaska when the material contains clay or mud and is difficult to wash or is delivered intermittently in relatively large loads. Small mud boxes are also used at some placers mined by "shoveling in."

Figure 69 is a sketch of a dump box. The latter is merely a wide sluice box, tapering at the lower end to the width of the regular

shive box and set on a grade of 7 to 14 inches on 12 feet. The box may be paved with pole riffles (usually set lengthwise), with block riffles, or sometimes with steel rails. Where a dump box is used, an extra helper or two may be required to pack the clayey material, fork out the large rocks, and see that the shives do not clog. The dump boxes at some mines worked by mechanical methods are 100 feet or more long. Unless the box is of ample size to hold the load properly, it may become clogged and the material on being released bounces through the box and shives, carrying unwashed material to the dump.

RIFFLER

The principal requirements of riffles for Alaska practice are that they be efficient gold savers, cheap but durable, and not too heavy and bulky. However, riffles which are efficient under one set of conditions may not prove suitable under others. The Hungarian or transverse riffle is commonly considered the best, although it retards the flow more than the longitudinal. It is generally good practice to use both, placing the transverse riffles in the upper boxes with the longitudinal below, or alternating with short sets of the transverse. The rolling action of transverse riffles tends to disintegrate the material more readily than the sliding action characteristic of longitudinal ones. The spacing between riffles is regulated by conditions and by the results obtained. At Alaska placers it generally ranges from 1½ to 3 inches; the longitudinal riffles are sometimes given wider spacing.

POLE AND WOODEN-BLOCK RIFFLERS

Spruce poles are more generally used in Alaska for making riffles than any other material, especially for the smaller sluices. Pole riffles are cheap and easy to handle but should only be used where the gold is coarse. They are placed longitudinally in the sluices in sets of three to five small green spruce poles 3 to 8 feet long, peeled and held together by nailing them to crosspieces at each end; they are often shod with strips of iron or steel.

Wooden-block riffles are used more at the hydraulic and mechanical operations and are generally made in sets. A number of blocks are set on end with spaces between them and held so by a strip of wood nailed on one or opposite sides. The sets are placed crosswise in the shive, so that the longitudinal spaces between the blocks are offset or staggered (see fig. 24). The strips should extend beyond the end blocks to allow the liners on the sides of the box to fit over them and hold the riffles in place. Some operators merely " toenail " the blocks to the boxes, but sets properly made are more

easily handled and held in place. Spruce and cottonwood blocks are used, but cottonwood makes a poor block.

At one mine the three upper boxes were paved with wooden blocks, with longitudinal rail riffles below. On cleaning up, very little gold was found in the upper boxes, but most of it was found in the rail riffles. The block riffles had been closely spaced and had " broomed " over.

STEEL-RAIL, ANGLE-IRON, AND CAST-IRON RIFFLERS

Steel-rail riffles are rapidly replacing wooden blocks, especially where oil rails are obtainable from railroads and other sources at comparatively low cost, but the expense of haulage prevents their use in the more remote localities. Rail riffles answer all requirements for efficient gold savers. The steel rails used weigh 12 to 40 pounds per yard and are placed transversely or longitudinally, usually with the ball side up. When used with the bottom side up, the rails are commonly spaced 1 to 2 inches between edges. It is said that riffles placed bottom side up do not pack, as they cause the proper " boil," and that the gold readily lodges beneath and is protected by the broad flanges. The wide surface of steel exposed when placed longitudinally with the bottom side up lessens the frictional resistance to the flow, which is of advantage where the grade is low. There are numerous kinds of spacers, flanges, and methods of fastening the rails together in sets and for holding them in place in the sluices. Bonney⁶ made an extensive study of riffles at the La Grange hydraulic mine in California.

Angle-iron riffles are used mainly on dredges, in some hydraulic elevator sluices, and at a few small open-cut mines. Under favorable conditions they are good savers of fine gold. They should not be used where coarse material is sluiced. The angle irons are set transversely, with the point of the angle usually facing the flow. At several properties in the interior the use of angle irons set at a small inclination improved the " boil " and proved successful. At other mines where angle irons were tried they packed hard and failed, possibly because they were spaced too closely or not set on proper grade.

Cast-iron or manganese grate riffles, some of which are patented, are generally constructed so they can be set either transversely or longitudinally. They are easily handled, are excellent gold savers, and are long-lived, but are too expensive for the average operation. Boiler tubes and old plates from dredge screens are used for riffles at several mines.

⁶ Bonney, F. "A study of riffles for hydraulicking"; Eng. and Min. Jour., vol. 95, May 24, 1913, pp. 1053-1060.

STEEL PLATES

Plates of high-carbon steel are sometimes employed. They are elevated above the bottom of the sluice and a transverse space is left between plates, forming a pocket where gold is recovered. This type of riffle is used mainly to save grade and is generally followed by other kinds set at higher grades. The bottoms of the smaller sluices are often lined with boards, so that a space is left between the ends and the sides of the boards where gold can lodge. These are known as "false bottoms," and as they reduce frictional resistance can be

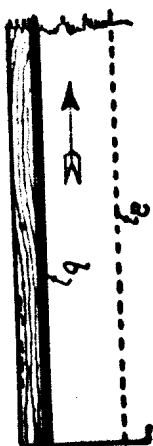
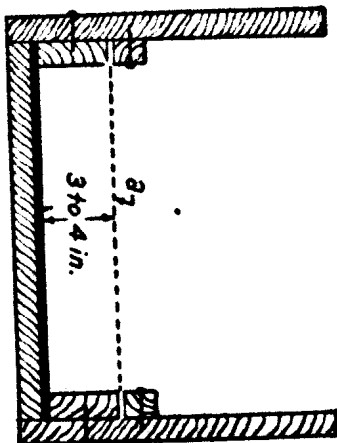


FIGURE 70.—Sluice-box undercurrent. A, Cross section; a, $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch steel plate, $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch holes. B, Longitudinal section showing riffle and plate; a, perforated plate; b, expanded metal screen or wooden cloths over matting, burlap, etc.

The material should be disintegrated as thoroughly as practicable before it reaches the grizzly or screen. Undercurrents are therefore placed near or at the end of the sluice, and all of the water and undercurrent should pass through the grizzly to the undercurrent, only the clean oversize being retained and dumped to waste.

A sluice-box undercurrent (fig. 70) is used to good advantage at many smaller operations in interior Alaska. An ordinary sluice box is used, but the last box or two is equipped as shown and usually set at a slightly higher grade than the others. The oversize from the

set on lower grades, in the same manner as sheet iron or steel is used to line the bottom of unriffled sluices or tail sluices.

ROCK OR COBBLE RIFFLES

Rock or cobble riffles are rarely used. They require steeper grades and, being difficult to lay and take up, are more adapted for tail sluices or others which are cleaned up only after long periods of use.

UNDERCURRENTS AND GOLD TABLES

Undercurrents and gold tables are used for saving fine or coated gold. At many mines their use has been discontinued, often for the reason that the small amount of gold recovered by them did not justify the additional attention.

grizzly or plate goes to the dump and the undersize passes over gold-saving blankets of burlap, matting, or other material. The material and arrangement of the blankets depend on the character of the fine gold to be saved. Such undercurrents require cleaning every day or two, as the blankets become slimy with mud. They are removed, washed in a tub, and returned. These undercurrents have been credited with 5 to 20 per cent of the total gold recovered; they save much fine rusty gold. Even better results should be obtainable if conditions would permit these undercurrents to be made wider than the regular sluice and placed on higher grades.

On the Upgrade Association property in the Iditarod district the gold is both coarse and fine, sharp and bright, and some of it is attached to quartz. Plenty of grade is available, as the mines are on the side of a mountain. There are no difficulties with clay. The deposit is hydraulicked, usually with a small intermittent water supply. From 8 to 12 boxes 24 inches wide are set on a 17-inch grade and paved with longitudinal riffles made of 2 by 6 inch timbers shod with pieces of manganese steel $\frac{5}{8}$ inch thick and $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide. These riffles are spaced $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches apart and held together by a crosspiece similarly shod in sets 6 feet long. One or two boxes may be paved with manganese-steel grids set transversely.

At the end of these boxes is a grizzly of manganese-steel bars set transversely with $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch spacing, the undersize going through a chute to an undercurrent 4 feet wide and 12 feet long, set on a 24-inch grade. The surface of this undercurrent is covered with cocoa matting, in turn covered with wire screen of $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch mesh. Strips of wood 1 inch thick and $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide are fastened transversely to this at 30-inch centers. No mercury is used. The material which continues over the grizzly goes to one box equipped with a sluice-box undercurrent similar to the kind described. The undercurrents at this property have recovered from 5 to 20 per cent of the total clean-up.

GOLD SAVING IN DREDGING

The loss of gold in dredge tailing is usually small if the material is thoroughly washed and disintegrated before it flows over the tables or sluices. The same principles for gold saving hold on dredges as for other methods of placer mining but can, in general, be better applied on a dredge. Although numerous factors enter into the saving of gold, much also depends upon the winch man. Bedrock may not be dug clean or the sluices may be overloaded. Unless the gold is coarse or heavy and the gravel is free of sticky clay there may be a large loss of gold on flume dredges. According to the operator, one flume dredge working a deposit containing much sticky clay was losing about 40 per cent of the gold. Another

