

THE WOOL EXHIBITION.  
No. II.

MR. GEORGE HODGSON'S machinery at the Crystal Palace for weaving consists of eight looms of various widths; they are adapted for weaving different styles of cloth from plain light Orleans to the most complex heavy woollens. The first is a plain loom, well suited for the fabrication of either worsted, mohair, silk, cotton, or alpaca goods. At present it is weaving an Orleans piece, but this class of loom can be fitted up with as many as ten treadles; jacquards for producing figures or shedding motions from sixteen to twenty shafts can be applied with ease. A plain loom of 32in. reed space at the International Exhibition in 1862—London—ran at upwards of 450 picks per minute; but of course this was done as an experiment to show what could be accomplished in the way of speed by the machinery of this firm.

A patent loom for weaving lasting and Serge de Berrie cloth is the next machine which draws attention. Up to the present time, it has always been necessary to have some contrivance underneath the healds for drawing them down, after they have been lifted; springs, weights, or levers have been employed for this purpose, but there have always been difficulties to contend with, either by the springs giving way, or by the cards which connect the healds and levers, slipping or coming loose. The present invention has in this respect a great advantage over others, brought out as yet for weaving the above-mentioned fabric; possessing at the same time many other excellent points, which cannot fail to attract the notice of a practical man. The healds, which may be either of worsted or wire, are fixed in an iron frame by steel hooks that can be regulated by nuts, so as to make them higher or lower, tighter, or

end, and another in the centre on the underneath side. Backwards and forwards work two jacks, and these acting alternately, lift the knives accordingly as they are selected by pattern surface. To retain a knife in position when lifted, the pattern pin places a small catch behind the hook on the low side of the knife, and thus prevents it going back. The jacks are moved by treadles, actuated upon by a regular two winged Orleans tappet on the low shaft; this being a decided advantage, approaching plain weaving as near as it is possible, with a twilling motion.

Standing next to this is a 9/4 (82in. reed space) pick and pick drop box loom, suitable for heavy woollens. It is massively constructed throughout, having the old system of taking up the cloth by weight and double swords; these last have the advantage of producing a swell in the movement of the lay and give more time for the shuttle to get through the shed, thereby easing the friction upon the warp and causing fewer breakages of the threads, owing to the going part not working in a radius but nearly parallel. The system of shedding motion already described above is applied with slight alteration to this loom. On the same stud as the cylinder, which works the shafts, is the card cylinder for governing the box motion. There is a two-holed box on both sides, each working independently. The raising and lowering of the box is effected by means of a lever, operated on by a tappet with two elevations at the back of the loom. On the side of the tappet there are two pins, on each of which is fastened an upright rod, both rods having catches at their other extremities, but these face in opposite directions, so that when one is in gear the other is out. On the top shaft works a "broken-backed" lever with a slot at the end, in which the above-mentioned catches move. By this arrangement an oscillating movement is given to the tappet, which

small excentric, which works in the square opening; at the other end of the same stud is a bevel wheel, having twice as many teeth as the one on the low shaft, with which it gears; by this means the tappets are allowed to remain two picks in the same position without moving. The boxes are raised and lowered by means of a tappet with three elevations and three hollows, situated directly underneath and revolving on the axle of the swing rail; by thus working from the exact centre on which the going part swings all oscillation of the boxes is prevented. At the side of the loom hangs perpendicularly a lever, to the extremity of which a pulling rod is fastened which turns the tappet at each pick. Cards for governing the picking and boxes are absolutely done away with here.

The seventh is a 3/4—39in. reed space—circular skip box loom; it possesses the advantage of being able to spring from one shuttle to any other in the circle, and is suitable for weaving complex checks, such as Scots tartans. The method of skipping is entirely new; it is easy to understand, resembling, as it does, the regular circular box principle as much as possible, the ground work being exactly the same. The novelty consists in a sliding bowl or pulley in the middle of the broken backed lever, which works on a three rise tappet. This sliding bowl, by a very neat direct arrangement, is operated on by the cylinder or card motion, which slides it backwards and forwards on to any of the elevations of the tappet as required, two cylinder pegs of different lengths being used to effect this object. When the box is turning it is perfectly free, as all stress is taken off by an excentric, during the required time, allowing the spring to come into action again when the change has been effected. To avoid the possibility of a mistake, there is also applied a system of locks, which are operated upon by another excentric. This loom will weave at the rate of 130 to 140 picks per



THE PETER THE GREAT I

slacker. When once they have been fixed in position, there is nothing either to slip or give way. These frames are connected to the regular system of jacks on the top of the loom by small adjustable round rods. The treadles are in the same position as in ordinary looms, but instead of placing a bowl in a recess, it is put on a pin, cast on the side of the treadle, thus forming a projection, which runs in a groove in the treading tappet, similar to the Woodcroft system. The positive motion of the treadles is transferred to the jack rods by means of a strong treading rod. The wrought iron frames mentioned above work up and down in a sort of double fork, by which the weaver can give the healds the necessary incline. In case a heald thread breaks at any time, there is a very simple contrivance for drawing out the fork and thus liberating the healds, so that it is much easier to repair the breakage than in other systems. Furthermore, it is calculated that the healds will wear much longer when used in this loom, as they are prevented from rubbing against each other, being held in the framing as already stated. Besides a great reduction in the number of heald threads breaking, it will also be found that there is a saving in the quantity of ends that come down in the warp, owing to the easy movement and absence of all strain on the healds. The speed—160 to 170 picks per minute—at which the loom is running, alone proves the easy working and general efficiency of the system.

The third of Mr. Hodgson's looms is an 8/4 (76in. reed space) fast reed loom, specially made for weaving worsted coatings and serges, where only one class of weft is necessary. It is a compact machine, with picking wheels at both sides. It is now working at about 130 picks per minute, weaving a worsted coating, with a 16-shaft twill. The healds are lifted by means of a shedding motion. It is compact, occupies little space, and is easily within reach of the weaver, requiring no gantry, as it is firmly fixed on the top rail, and is substantial without being cumbersome, the whole altitude of the loom and shedding motion being less than the height of an ordinary man. It possesses the advantage of being able to retain the healds in a lifted position when they are required to be up twice or more times in succession. Directly attached to the angle levers, which lift the heads, are knives with double hooks at one

can be regulated by the pattern surface, to remain in one position or change at any given pick. The picking is on the sliding tappet principle, and can be arranged by cards to weave any pattern. The tappets are moved in a very neat way, by means of a scroll on a short shaft parallel to the low shaft, at the other end of which is a small casting with two pegs; working between these pegs is a back-to-back catch which lifts after each pick. In the scroll groove is inserted a single stud, projecting from a horizontal square rod, also parallel to the low shaft. At each end of this is fixed a clutch, which can slide the tappet nose backwards and forwards on any given single pick as directed by the cylinder. A double-nosed tappet is, of course, used opposite each of the two cones.

Next comes a 4/4 (43in. reed space) pick and pick loom, with a six-hold circular box at each end, working independently. As this loom is fitted up with a jacquard, it is calculated to weave the most complicated patterns that can be produced by machinery either in worsted, silk, or cotton. The boxes are turned on the regular circular box principle, that is by means of a broken backed lever, working on the low shaft. Parallel to this at the bottom of the loom is another lever, one end of which is connected to the box by pulling rods, and to the other end are attached hooked rods, which are operated upon according to the pattern. To prevent the boxes turning too far, there is an automatic lock motion applied, so that when the pulling rods turn the box they place the locks underneath certain pegs, thus stopping the box firmly in position. The picking motion is similar to that of No. 4. Close to preceding loom is a 4/4 (43in. reed space) pick and pick drop box loom, with a two-holed box on each side. It presents many new features, both in the picking arrangement and the box motion, and is specially adapted for weaving rep cloths, where the pattern is a series of single picks of two different kinds of weft. The mechanism throughout this loom is so simple and positive that it can be run with ease at 140 picks per minute. Although the picking is on the old principle of sliding tappets, yet there is a novelty in the mode of working them backwards and forwards. The two tappets are connected by means of an iron rod, in the centre of which is a large square opening. From the spur rail projects a stay, which supports a stud bearing a

minute; it answers the same purpose as a twelve-holed shuttle-box, but with this great advantage, that it makes only one-third the waste.

The last loom exhibited is a 9/4 (82in. reed space) pick and pick shedding motion loom, with a six-holed circular box at each end, working independently, on the same principle as No. 4. It is, however, for heavier work, such as woollens and backed worsted coatings. The boxes being of great dimensions, will take a shuttle large enough to admit a woollen cop. The connection of the different working parts with the cylinder is not of the usual stamp, for instead of having separate cylinders for the box and shedding motion, they are combined, as in the drop-box loom. The shaft machine and picking arrangement are similar to those already described. There is applied to this loom a patent loose reed motion, with which nearly as strong cloth can be woven in a loose reed loom as in a fast reed, with the advantage that the loom runs quicker and more easily.

THE PETER THE GREAT.

THIS warship, which we illustrate above, the largest and most formidable of the Russian navy, is now lying in the Clyde, off Greenock, where she arrived from Cronstadt, under command of Captain Vladimir Basargean. The Peter the Great and the Minin are the two mastless turret-ships of the Russian fleet of war-vessels, resembling in design those of the same type of our own navy, the Dreadnought more especially. Preparations are being made for the reception of the Peter the Great by Messrs. John Elder and Co., who are about to replace her present machinery, which has proved unsatisfactory, with that of higher power and improved construction. As she has on board a large store of ammunition, permission has been asked from the General Commanding the Forces in Scotland to store her powder in the magazine at Fort Matilda; at present she draws about 26ft., which must be considerably lessened before she proceeds up the river. The Peter the Great was built in Russia ten years ago, at the Admiralty Works, Gallery Ostroff, St. Petersburg, and her engines constructed by Mr. George Baird, a Scotch engineer, at St. Petersburg, from the designs of Mr. Norman Scott Russell. Her length is 321ft., and her breadth 64ft., but from her great draught it is difficult to realise that her displacement is nearly 10,000 tons, the greater portion of her hull being submerged. The vessel is divided into sixteen compartments by bulkheads with the usual watertight doors. The

bottom is double throughout; a portion of the space between the inner and outer skins above the water-line is utilised for the storage of coal. The decks are five in number, five of which are divided by the turrets, which are protected by armour plating about 14in. thick. Her armament consists of four 35-ton guns of Krupp steel, besides a number of vessels of smaller calibre, mounted on the various decks. Although generally spoken of as a mastless vessel, she carries in reality three masts; two of these are very light, but the mainmast is of iron, and of sufficient diameter to enable the men to go aloft by a stair inside it, ordinary ladders being thus unnecessary. She is built of iron sheathed with wood, and is worked by twin screws.

### THE BOILER EXPLOSION ON BOARD THE CITY OF ROME.

THE inquest on the bodies of the men killed in this unfortunate accident terminated on the 21st ult., the following verdict being returned by the jury:—"We come to the conclusion that the poor men lost their lives through the explosion which was caused by an over pressure of steam; and we would further suggest that the shipyard people test their boilers periodically." The foreman, in answer to the coroner, said, "that with regard to any neglect, they, the jury, considered the matter and had left it open. No doubt the fireman had exceeded his duty by allowing the over pressure."

The principal engineering witness examined during the inquiry was Mr. Robert B. Longridge, managing-director of the Engine, Boiler, and Employers' Liability Company, who stated that the explosion was "clearly attributable to the reduction in thickness of the fire-box plates, which materially reduced their strength; consequently the fire-box collapsed, being incapable of withstanding the pressure to which it was subjected, probably a pressure of 70 lb. to the square inch." He also stated that although "it was impossible to calculate the collapsing pressure of the fire-box, owing to the irregularity of the thickness of the plates, and the uncertainty as to its shape—for it may have been more or less flattened on the sides prior to the accident—yet, judging from many similar cases of collapse which had come under his

notice, he was of opinion that the bursting pressure could not have exceeded 70 lb. per square inch, and may have been less."

If Mr. Longridge's opinion be correct, the boiler was of course quite unfit for a pressure of 40 lb., which was that intended to be carried, according to the evidence of the representatives of the Barrow Shipbuilding Company, and which the fireman in charge of the boiler had been instructed not to exceed. Against Mr. Longridge's evidence, on the other hand, however, was that of Mr. Rodgers, the managing engineer of the shipbuilding company, who stated that the boiler had been tested by water to 60 lb. pressure three and a-half years ago, and then showed no signs of weakness. In Mr. Longridge's opinion no corrosion

had taken place since that date, the feed-water used being very good, and the corrosion of the plates of the fire-box having been due to the use of salt water before the test referred to. In fixing the collapsing pressure of the furnace at 70 lb., or less, there can be no doubt Mr. Longridge passed a judgment supported by evidence largely supplied by his own imagination. There was nothing to show that the sides of the furnace were flattened any more than that the form was fairly circular, in which latter case the furnace would have stood far more than 70 lb., and in the absence of any data as to the condition of the boiler in this respect, comparison with any "similar case of collapse" was clearly impossible.

Two prominent facts appeared to be clearly established—First, that a safety valve formerly on the boiler had been removed, leaving one valve only, which according to Mr. Longridge could only be loaded to 58 lb., and would probably blow at considerably less than this on account of the width of the face. Secondly, the pressure of steam in the boiler immediately before the explosion was seen to be 70 lb. by the gauge attached to the boiler.

No explanation was obtained as to why so high a pressure should have been reached in a boiler intended to be worked at 40 lb., and the safety valve of which would blow at considerably less than 58 lb. even if the weight had been placed at the end of the lever. There appears to be no reason to suspect that the safety valve had stuck fast in its seat, and the question therefore arises, had the valve been deliberately tampered with by the unfortunate fireman in his endeavours to stop the noise of the escaping steam, which had been complained of; or was the safety valve deficient in area, as appears to be suggested by part of Mr. Longridge's evidence?

On the whole we cannot regard the inquiry into the accident with any degree of satisfaction. The construction of the boiler will be readily understood from the annexed sketch.

The boiler after the explosion fell from a great height and completely staved in, so that its appearance conveys little information concerning the accident. There is no room to doubt, however, that the vertical fire-box gave way, a great rent being torn in it.

### THE FAURE SECONDARY BATTERY.

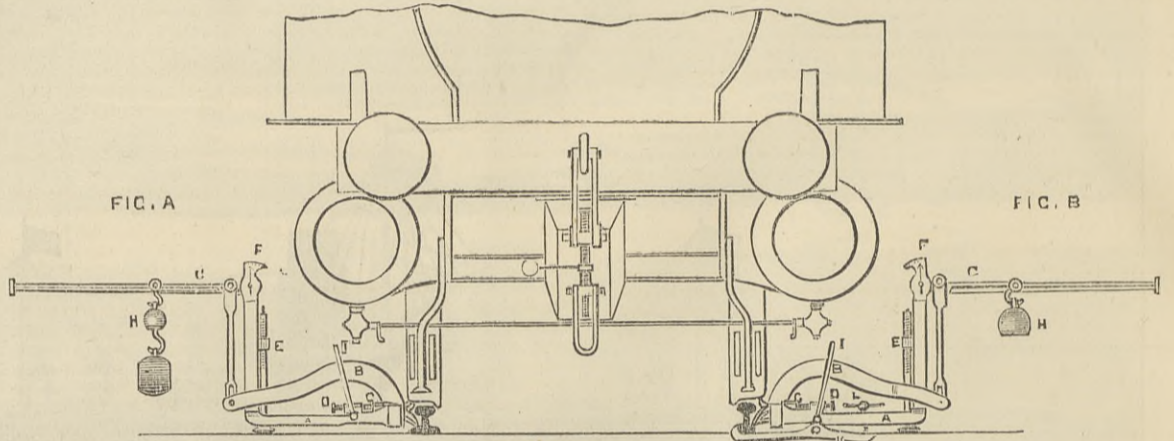
It cannot be said that there has been any delay in bringing this battery before the public. Hardly had the interest excited by the letters in the *Times* been raised, before boxes of these cells are brought over to England and exhibited in action before scientific audiences. Last Saturday at the *conversazione* at King's College, a number of cells were used to supply the current required by some score or so of Swan lamps. An evening or so later the battery was used at the house of the president of the Royal Society, when both Swan and Maxim lamps were rendered incandescent by its means. On Wednesday morning several scientific men witnessed experiments made at the rooms of the British Electric Light Company, Heddon-street, with the Lane-Fox lamp, the current being supplied from the Faure battery. These experiments, although they do not decide the economical question, do show that certain progress has been made. With this apparatus certain changes are obtained in the materials used under the influence of a current from a dynamo machine in a voltaic battery. The exact chemical change is as yet probably undecided, but whatever it might prove to be, the

material under the new conditions is in such a state that whenever required it will undergo another change, and give back, so to speak, an electric current similar to that which caused the first change. So far as we can gather, the best cells are those which after use show pure spongy lead on one electrode and pure peroxide of lead on the other. Originally the cell consists of two plates of lead, coated as uniformly as possible with a thin layer of red lead, separated by a piece of felt and rolled into a cylindrical shape. This is placed in a jar and acidulated water poured in to completely moisten the felt. A new form of cell is about to be adopted in which the plates of lead will be flat, because it has been found that however great care may be taken to spread the red lead evenly in rolling, the red lead does not remain in its original place, so that the coating on the plates is uneven. There is still much to be done to obtain the true scientific and commercial value of this secondary battery. For example, the question of durability is as yet unsettled, because the invention is so recent. M. Faure has, however, some of those first made, and they are as good now as when constructed some months ago. Sir W. Thomson and Mr. Bottomley are still engaged in the investigation, and the results thus obtained, together with those we may expect when the battery has been practically in use for a short time, and not merely used for exhibition purposes, will go far to enable us to judge the real value of the invention.

### EHRHARDT'S PORTABLE LOCOMOTIVE WEIGHING APPARATUS.

We illustrate herewith a weighing apparatus very largely used on the Continent, though little used in this country. It is intended for the exact adjustment of the weight on the axles of locomotives, tenders, and railway carriages. The following are some of the advantages claimed for this apparatus over the platform weighing machines:—(1) Its portability, as it can weigh trucks, locomotives, tenders, carriages, &c., at the place where they are made or loaded, and thus avoid the labour and loss of time in moving the loaded trucks to the machine; (2) the great saving in prime cost, no foundations being required; and (3) its greater exactness than the three-table machines now used for ascertaining the weight on each axle of a locomotive, whereas this apparatus gives the exact weight on each wheel.

Two machines, which weigh each about 100 lb., are repre-



sented in Figs. A and B, applied to both sides of a locomotive. The makers give the following instructions for using it:—"Place one such apparatus under each wheel with the lower part *a*, which at the same time serves as main-frame, resting with its claw on the bottom flange of the rail, and the lever *b*, whose fulcrum is on the main frame *a*, touching the under side of the tire with its front edge. After setting each apparatus plumb by the screw *c*, you advance the wedge *c* by the screw *d*, until the lever *g* gets above the horizontal line to a certain angle. This angle, upon which depends the height to which the wheels are to be lifted from the rails, is shown by the index on the figured arched scale which is above the plummet *f*. If these apparatuses are placed under all the wheels of a locomotive or wagon, and if the levers *g* of all apparatuses are at the same angle, which is indicated by similar figures on the arched scale, you then move the weights *h* on the lever *g* until the index fingers of all apparatuses on the arched scale are brought to *o*. Each wheel is now at the same height from the rail, say one to two millimetres, and the respective weights on each axle can then be read off in kilos, or any other weights from the scale, which is arranged on the upper surface of the lever *G*. The difference in the weights indicated by the several apparatuses show most accurately the inequality in the load and tension of the bearing springs above the respective wheels, and the same can therefore be regulated surely and easily. The sum of these weights of the various apparatus gives exactly the total weight of the engine or wagon which underwent the above test. When used with "double-headed rails" the foot lever *k* and screw *l* are required as shown at Fig. B."

For loads of 37 cwt. to 145 cwt. they are provided with a single scale on the lever, and with a movable weight on the latter, but for loads of 15 cwt. to 32 cwt. and of 32 cwt. to 150 cwt. a double scale is provided on the lever, and a large and a small weight, both of which are movable. The smaller weight serves to indicate the load from 15 cwt. to 32 cwt. on the one side of the weighted lever, and both weights, the one suspended from the other, will indicate the load from 32 cwt. to 150 cwt. on the other side of the lever.

The machines are made by the *Sächsische Maschinenfabrik Chemnitz*, the English agents being Messrs. James Scott and Son, 10, Tib-lane, Cross-street, Manchester.

A report speaking in the highest terms of the practical value and successful working and economical results attending the use of the machine has been made to the Committee of Administration of the State Railways of Belgium by the engineer, Mr. Gustave Braet.

### MAP OF THE DERBY SHOWYARD.

We publish this week, as a supplement, a map of the machinery department of the Royal Agricultural Society at Derby. The arrangement of this map differs from that which we have adopted in previous years, and will we think be found an improvement. It will be seen that the whole map is divided into small blocks, each distinguished by a letter. The names of exhibitors are arranged alphabetically, and each is accompanied by a letter indicating the block in which the stand of the exhibitor is situated, and by a number which is that of the stand. The search for any given exhibitor is thus reduced to the simplest possible process, the locality of any given stand being defined within the small limits of the dimension of the block in which it is situated.

### THE INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.

THE originality, labour, and ingenuity displayed by the authors of some of the communications submitted to this Society during the past session have led the Council to make the following awards:—

#### FOR PAPERS READ AT THE ORDINARY MEETINGS.

1. George Stephenson Medals, and Telford Premiums, to Thomas Forster Brown and George Frederick Adams, M.M. Inst. C.E., for their Paper on "Deep Winning of Coal in South Wales."
2. A Watt Medal, and a Telford Premium, to John Isaac Thornycroft, M. Inst. C.E., for his Paper "On Torpedo Boats and Light Yachts for High Speed Steam Navigation."
3. A Telford Medal, and a Telford Premium, to Theophilus Seyrig, M. Inst. C.E., for his Paper "On Different Modes of Erecting Iron Bridges."
4. A Telford Medal, and a Telford Premium, to Max am Ende, Assoc. M. Inst. C.E., for his Paper on "The Weight and Limiting Dimensions of Girder Bridges."
5. A George Stephenson Medal and a Telford Premium to Benjamin Baker, M. Inst. C.E., for his Paper on "The Actual Lateral Pressure of Earthwork."
6. A Telford Premium, to Richard Henry Brunton, M. Inst. C.E., for his Paper on "The Production of Paraffine and Paraffine Oils."
7. A Telford Premium, to Charles Colson, Assoc. M. Inst. C.E., for his paper on "Portsmouth Dockyard Extension Works."
8. A Telford Premium, to Christian Hendrick Meyer, Assoc. M. Inst. C.E., for his Paper on the "Temporary Works and Plant at the Portsmouth Dockyard Extension."
9. A Telford Premium, to Benjamin Walker, M. Inst. C.E., for his Paper on "Machinery for Steel-making by the Bessemer and the Siemens Processes."
10. The Manby Premium, to Joseph Prime Maxwell, Assoc. M. Inst. C.E., for his Paper on "New Zealand Government Railways."

#### FOR PAPERS PRINTED IN THE PROCEEDINGS WITHOUT BEING DISCUSSED.

1. A Telford Medal, and a Telford Premium, to Professor Dr. J. Weyrauch, for his Paper "On the Calculation of Dimensions as depending on the Ultimate Working Strength of Materials."
2. A Telford Premium, to James Richard Bell, M. Inst. C.E., for his Paper on "The Empress Bridge over the Sutlej."
3. A Telford Premium, to John Lewis Felix Target, M. Inst. C.E., for his Paper "Experiments on Modules for Irrigation Purposes."
4. A Telford Premium, to William Thomas Henney Carrington,

Assoc. M. Inst. C.E., for his Paper on "Three Systems of Wire Rope Transport."

#### FOR PAPERS READ AT THE SUPPLEMENTAL MEETINGS OF STUDENTS.

1. A Miller Prize, to James Bernard Hunter, Stud. Inst. C.E., for his Paper on "Wood-working Machinery, as applied to the Manufacture of Railway Carriages and Wagons."
2. A Miller Prize, to Matthew Buchan Jamieson, Stud. Inst. C.E., for his Paper on "The Internal Corrosion of Cast Iron Pipes."
3. A Miller Prize, to Thomas Stewart, Stud. Inst. C.E., for his Paper on "The Prevention of Waste of Water."
4. A Miller Prize, to William Henry Edinger, Stud. Inst. C.E., for his Paper on "Brick and Concrete and Concrete Gasholder Tanks."
5. A Miller Prize, to Daniel Macalister, Stud. Inst. C.E., for his Paper on "Caissons for Dock Entrances."
6. A Miller Prize, to Lindsay Burnet, Stud. Inst. C.E., for his "Description of a Cargo-carrying Coasting Steamship, with detailed investigation as to its Efficiency."
7. A Miller Prize, to Edward Walter Nealer Wood, Stud. Inst. C.E., for his Paper on "The Improvement of the Old Harbour at Holyhead."
8. A Miller Prize, to Arthur Stuart Vowell, Stud. Inst. C.E., for his Paper on "Steel; its Chemical Constitution and Behaviour under Tensile Strain."
9. A Miller Prize, to William Marriott, Stud. Inst. C.E., for his Paper on "Boilers."

BOILER EXPLOSIONS.—We have had occasion recently to point out that it was possible a boiler explosion might be caused by the sudden withdrawal of a large volume of steam from it. If the *Pittsburg Commercial* is to be credited, an experiment has been carried out which confirms our views. It thus describes an experiment made on the 16th of June:—"Mr. Lawson exploded his boiler yesterday through the medium of a vacuum created by turning a full head of steam into the cylinder at once. The boiler itself was made of the very best material, and built especially for the experiment in the strongest manner known. It was 6ft. in length, with a diameter of 30in. The iron was made by Singer and Nimick, the boiler itself by W. W. Roberts, and the fittings by Wilson, Snyder, and Co., the latter firm also furnishing the engineers for the test. Just about five o'clock everything was ready for the explosion. At that time the boiler was three-fourths full of water, being 7in. or 8in. above the fire line, and the steam gauge showed a pressure of 380 lb. to the square inch, the tensile strength of the boiler being 604 lb. to the square inch. Everything being in readiness, the spectators safely ensconced in the bomb-proofs erected by the Government, the valve was pulled, and a full head of steam turned into the cylinder. Instantly there was a terrific explosion. The ground trembled as if from an earthquake shock, and in a moment there could be heard a rattle on the bomb proof. Mr. Lawson and one or two others waited only a few moments, and stepped out just in time to catch a shower of dirt and grime. Scarcely a vestige of the boiler and furnace was left. It was found that the boiler had been completely demolished. It had not given away merely in one point, but had been torn into fragments with a force that must have been tremendous. Fragments of the boiler, not more than a foot long and four or five inches wide, were found in different places. The fragments all showed that the iron was of an extraordinary good quality, and the force that rended it was of tremendous power."

\* Has previously received a Telford Medal and a Telford Premium.

† Have previously received Telford Premiums.

‡ Has previously received a Miller prize.



# THE LICHTERFELD ELECTRIC RAILWAY.

MESSRS. SIEMENS AND HALSKE, BERLIN, ENGINEERS.

(For description see next page.)

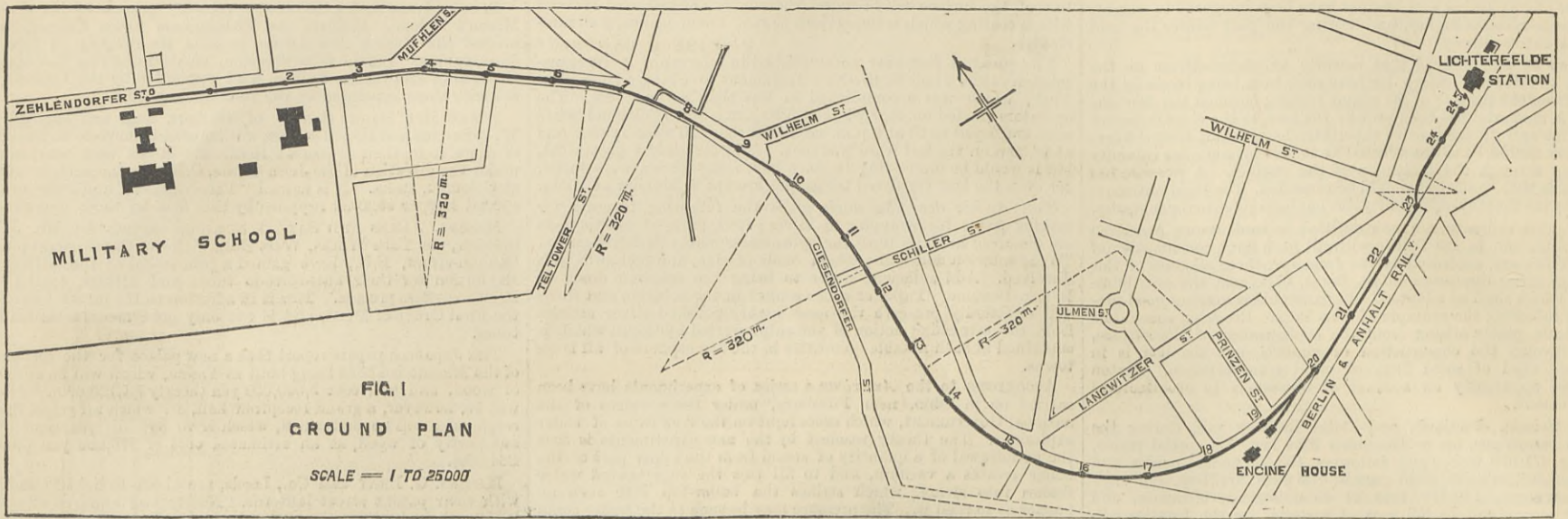
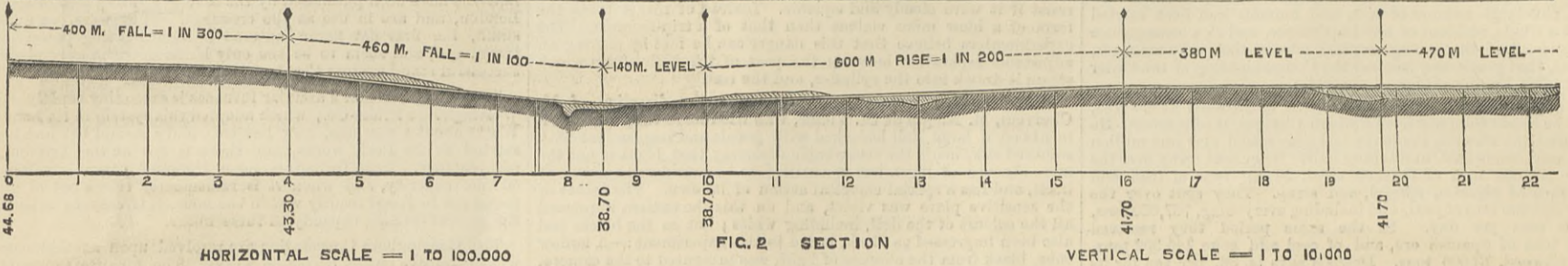


FIG. 1  
GROUND PLAN  
SCALE = 1 TO 25000



HORIZONTAL SCALE = 1 TO 100,000

FIG. 2 SECTION

VERTICAL SCALE = 1 TO 10,000

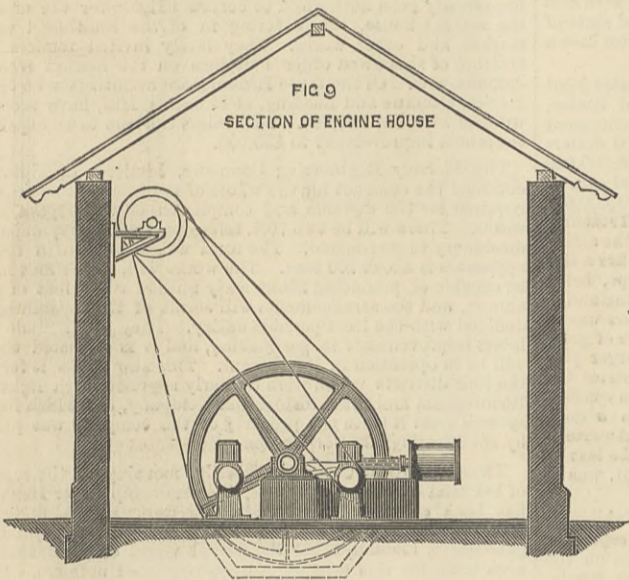


FIG. 9  
SECTION OF ENGINE HOUSE

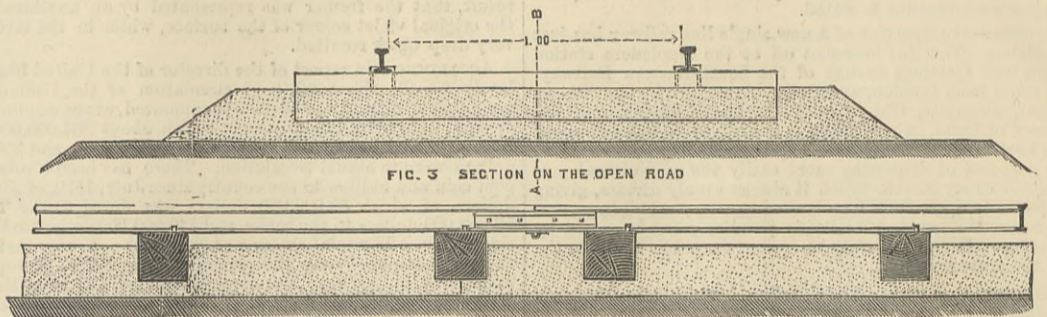


FIG. 3 SECTION ON THE OPEN ROAD

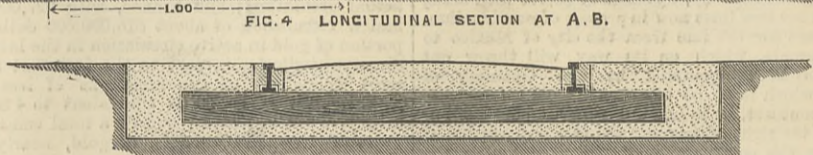


FIG. 4 LONGITUDINAL SECTION AT A. B.

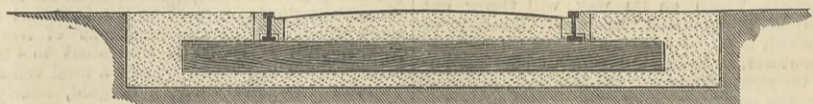
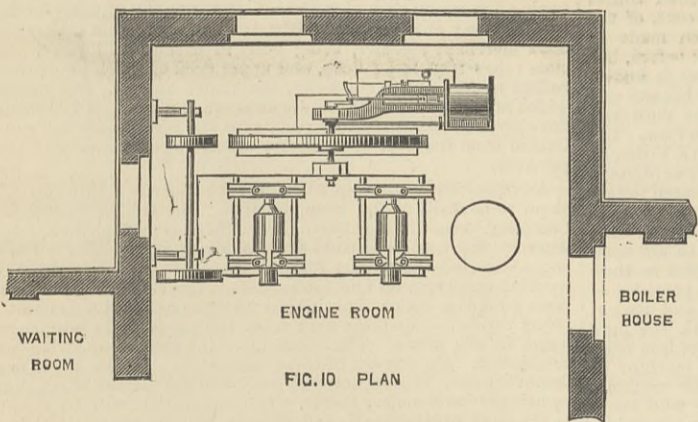


FIG. 5 SECTION AT CROSSINGS AND ON THE HORSE-ROAD



ENGINE ROOM

BOILER HOUSE

WAITING ROOM

FIG. 10 PLAN

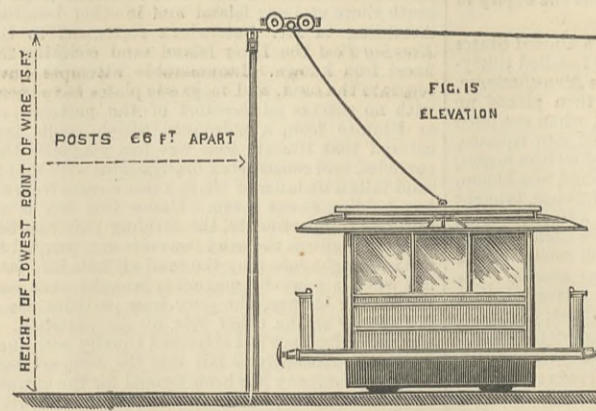


FIG. 15  
ELEVATION

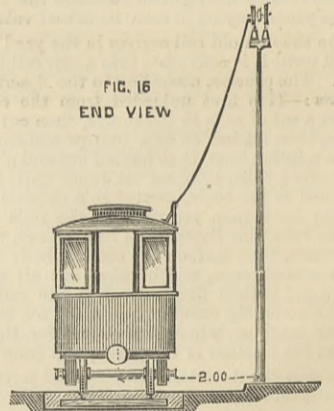


FIG. 16  
END VIEW

VIEW OF INSULATED WIRE TRAMWAY

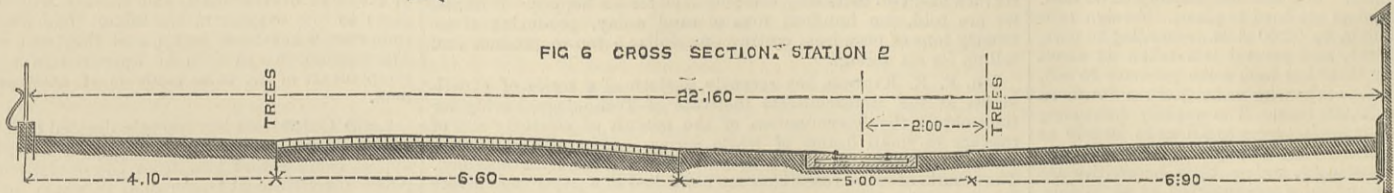


FIG. 6 CROSS SECTION. STATION 2

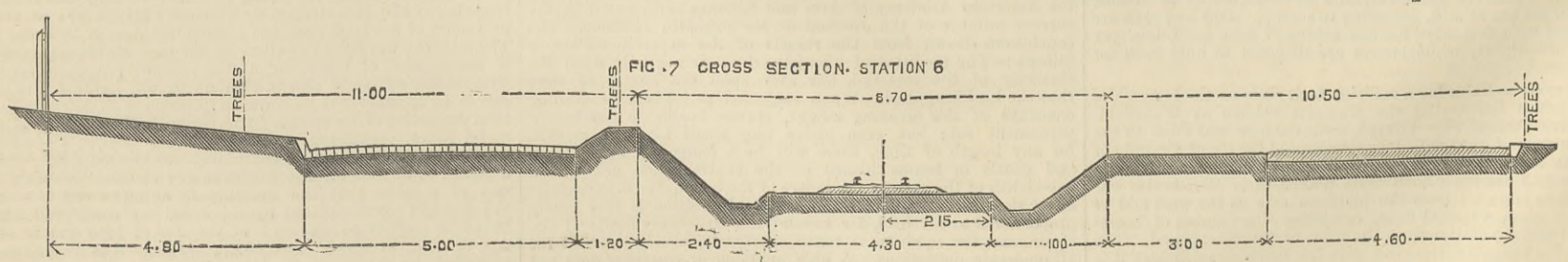


FIG. 7 CROSS SECTION. STATION 6

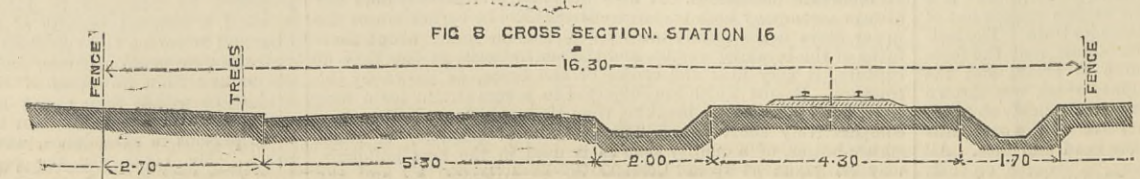


FIG. 8 CROSS SECTION. STATION 16

THE LICHTERFELD ELECTRIC RAILWAY.

MESSRS. SIEMENS AND HALSKE, BERLIN, ENGINEERS.

FIG. 12

ENGINE & GENERATOR

SECTION THROUGH THE ROTARY ENGINE

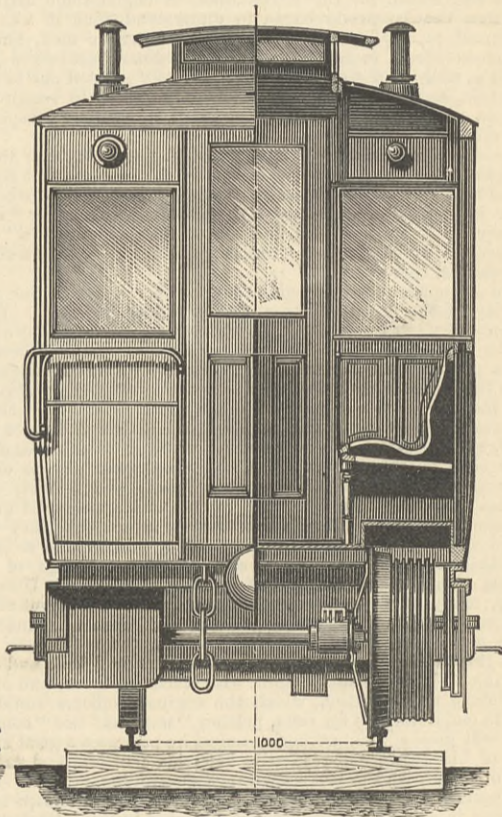
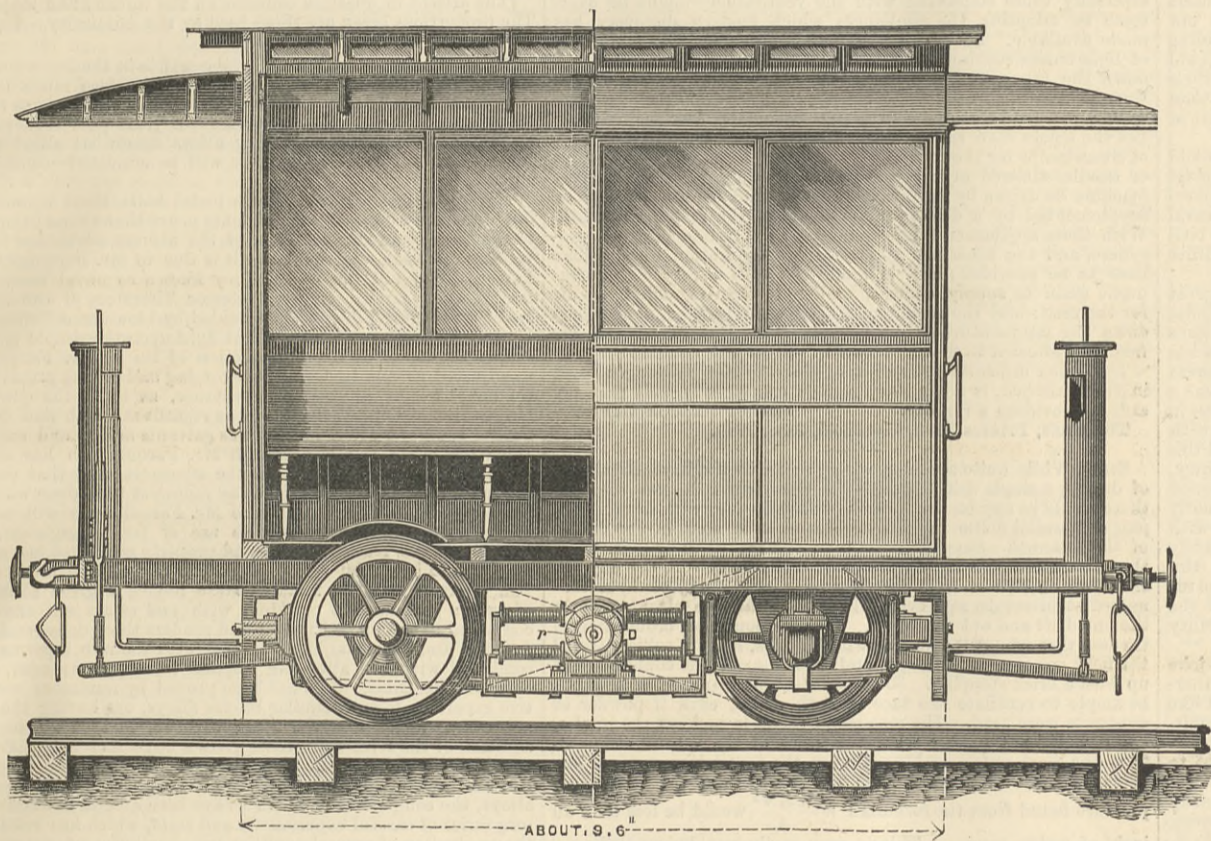
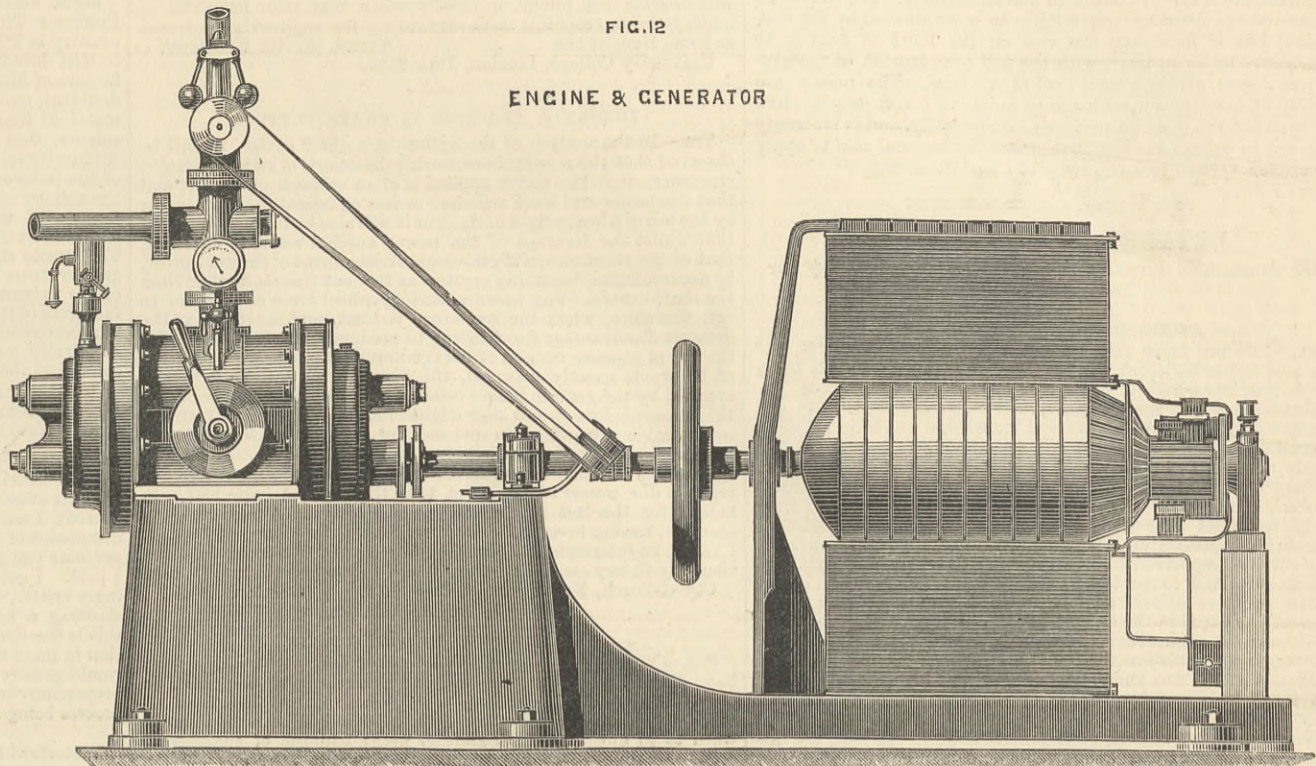
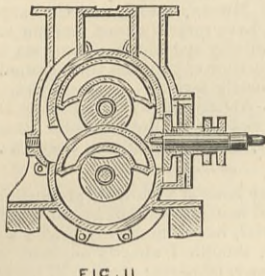


FIG. 13 SECTIONAL ELEVATION OF CARRIAGE

FIG. 14 SECTIONAL END VIEW

THE LICHTERFELD ELECTRIC RAILWAY.

THE following account of this railway, the opening of which has lately attracted so much attention, is condensed from a paper read by Dr. Werner Siemens before the Verein für Eisenbahnkunde, on 21st May last.

The laying down of this line grew out of a concession made to Messrs. Siemens and Halske, to lay an electric railway in the Friedrichstrasse at Berlin. This was found impracticable; but the firm, sooner than allow the honour of the first electric railway to be lost to Germany, determined on building a short line at their own cost, and cast about for a suitable locality. This was found at the Central Military School, recently built, which, during its building, had been connected by a short line of railway with the Lichterfeld station of the Berlin and Anhalt Railway. The earthwork of this railway was still in place, and with the consent of the various authorities it was utilised for the laying of the electric line. This line, although placed on the ground, was, however, arranged throughout with a view to the requirements of a line raised on posts, such as had been originally intended, in order that the experiment might be a conclusive one as to the working of such a line. Thus the two rails were chosen as the conductors for the forward and the return current, although this necessitates special insulating arrangements. The principle of the Siemens electric railway—as successfully applied at the Berlin and Düsseldorf Exhibitions—is now well known. A dynamo-electric machine—the generator—driven by a steam engine, sends a current of electricity through some metallic conductor—in this case the rail—to a similar machine—the motor—mounted on wheels, to which it is coupled by mechanism. The electric current rotates the motor, and through it the wheels whereupon the train moves. The two machines being similar, either of them is able to act as a generator or as a motor; and thus if the train be propelled by any other means—e.g., in running down an incline—the motor becomes a generator, and sends back electricity to the original generator, by which it can be converted into useful work. The result is that in practice the motor machine always generates a current of a certain strength, which goes in the opposite direction to the driving current and diminishes its effects. The amount of this diminution varies with the speed at which the train travels, being less—within the limits of practice—as the speed is higher, and *vice versa*. As a

consequence of this, it is found in practice that definite relations exist between the inside conductors, the coils of wire within the machine, and the outside conductors, and that the resistance of the last should not be higher than the resistance of the machine itself, otherwise the loss of effect is increased. Hence, with a given machine, it is necessary to have conductors, which, however varied in form, do not give a resistance exceeding this limit. Hence there is an obvious convenience in making use of the rails, which are always of section so large that even in a length of some miles their resistance does not exceed that of the wires in the machine. If separate wires are used their section must be increased at intervals by affixing additional wires or otherwise, which can be accomplished without any practical difficulty. This method, however, involves an increased expenditure of force, due to the increased section, and it is therefore desirable to find some other method of keeping the resistances within the proper limit. For this purpose, instead of diminishing the resistance of the conductor, we may increase the resistance of the machine, by using longer or thinner wires for the electro-magnets and induction coil. The whole question of designing the apparatus of an electric railway is thus rather economical than technical. But it must be remembered that currents which have to overcome a high resistance require a high degree of insulation. On the Lichterfeld line the small power required made the question of insulation less important, and it is worked in fact with a known and determinate amount of loss, due to the front end being on the street itself.

Should special means of insulation be required many are available, the choice varying according to circumstances. In a line elevated on posts, and resting on wooden sleepers, these latter form an insulation in themselves. In a line laid upon the ground, but so that the rails rest usually on the sleepers only, and are only exceptionally in contact with the ground, the experience at Lichterfeld shows that, even in a length of several kilometres, no special means are required; but chairs of glass, asphalt insulators between rail and sleeper, and asphalt coatings for the rails, have all been tried with success. Where, however, the line is actually laid in the street such means are insufficient; a wire tramway hung from insulators on the telegraph posts must then be resorted to, as in Fig. 2. A small trolley running on this way, and connected by a wire to the carriage, keeps up the electric communication. By this means

the electric system may be applied even to tramways; while in tunnels, or where great speed is required, light rails may be substituted for the wires.

The question often asked, whether in an electric railway two trains may be on the road at once, may be answered in the affirmative. It is only a question of properly proportioning the resistance of the outer conduction to that of the machine. In fact a service of frequent light trains is specially suited to the electric system, since the motor is not in itself, as in the case of steam, a ponderous object. The general arrangements of the line are shown clearly in Figs. 1 to 8. In Fig. 4 is shown the mode of jointing the rails; in addition to the ordinary fish-plates light strips of iron are rivetted on the bottoms, passing from one rail to another, and forming an electrical connection. In Fig. 5 is shown the cross section at crossings, &c., in Figs. 6, 7, 8 the detail of the cross sections at the three stations, No. 2, 6, and 16. The horizontal steam engine, shown in Figs. 9 and 10, belongs to the pumping station for the Lichterfeld water supply, and is only used provisionally. The motor to be used permanently is a rotary steam engine of Dolgorouke's patent, as shown in Figs. 11 and 12. We shall not give a full description of this engine at present, as it is not yet at work. It will be seen, however, that it consists of a casting in the form of a double cylinder, within which rotate two rotary pistons. Two such castings are placed end for end, so as to form a twin machine, with pistons at 180 deg. interval; by this means the balancing of the strains, which has always been a difficulty with rotary engines, is provided for. The parts are so arranged and so exactly fitted that no packed joints are needed. The rapidity of rotation makes the engine specially suitable for making a dynamo-machine.

Figs. 13 and 14 show the carriage, which resembles an ordinary tram-car, but carries between the two axles a dynamo machine. The current is conducted from the rails into the wheel tyres, and from them to strips of metal fixed on the wooden bodies of the wheels. On these strips rest springs, which are themselves prolongations of the two poles of the machine. The wooden bodies completely insulate the tyres from the axles, and no other metallic parts of the car come near the electric connections. The car is provided with an electrical regulating apparatus, in place of the mechanical apparatus used at the exhibition railways, and with another apparatus which at once governs the speed within certain limits, and prevents accidental interruptions of current.

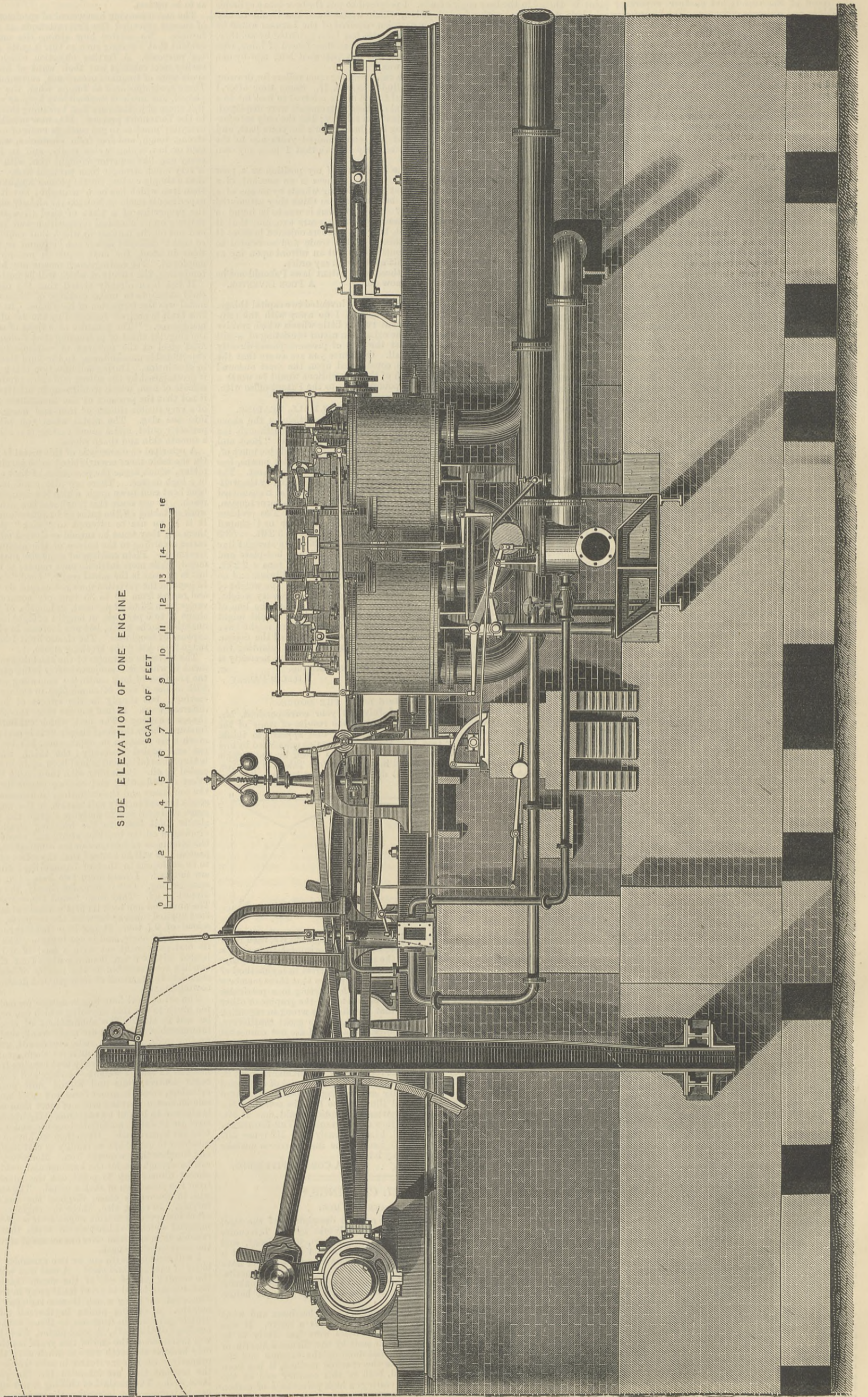




No. 3 WINDING ENGINE, SILKSWORTH COLLIERY.

DESIGNED BY MESSRS. J. DAGLISH AND H. LAWRENCE, CONSTRUCTED BY THE GRANGE IRON COMPANY, DURHAM.

(For description see page 29.)





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ENQUIRER.—A letter lies at our office for this correspondent. J. W. C. (Morrison).—We shall be happy to meet your wishes. H.S.—If you refer to the appointments to county surveyorships, every information is supplied to intending candidates by advertisements which appear from time to time, as vacancies occur, in our own columns and those of other journals.

A. B. (Dumbarton-road).—There are no single treatises on the construction of bridges, or locomotive and marine engines, which cover the whole ground. Nor is it possible to advise you as to the best books to buy until we know what you have already read. If you have read very little, then the treatise on "Iron Bridges" in Wcale's Series, and Bourne's "Catechism of the Steam Engine," will do to begin with.

RODGERS' JET EXHAUSTER

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)

SIR,—Can any of your readers give me the address of Mr. Rodgers, patentee of the steam jet exhauster for forming a vacuum in the condenser previous to, and to facilitate the starting of the engines? Any information from parties having had experience of the above will greatly oblige.  
 Hull, July 4th. G. S. H.

PATENT FUEL-MAKING MACHINERY.

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)

SIR,—I shall be obliged if any of your readers will inform me what is the best machinery for manufacturing patent fuel from coal-dust, and who is the maker. The coal-dust to be treated is in heaps which have laid for many years, and contains a quantity of small shale. This shale must be eliminated by suitable machinery.  
 July 5th. A.

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THE ENGINEER.

JULY 8, 1881.

MARINE BOILERS.

A MOVEMENT has been set on foot in Liverpool which may lead to very material changes in the construction of marine boilers. Alterations are suggested—and, indeed, are being carried out, we understand, by two or three firms independently of each other—and if the changes in design proposed are found to answer, there can be no doubt that the example set by Liverpool engineers and shipowners will be freely followed. Nor is it unreasonable that a change should be made. The modern high-pressure marine boiler is by no means all that a boiler should be—by no means so good that it is out of the question to think that it can be improved upon. We may take as a type a three-furnaced boiler, to carry 70 lb. Such a boiler will be about 12ft. in diameter by 10'6ft. long. It will contain three furnaces, each 3ft. in diameter and a little more than 7ft. long, and each furnace will have a separate back up-take, and sixty 3in. tubes 7ft. long. A boiler of this kind, if fitted with a large steam drum, will steam well, and may be depended upon with fair coal, to work a pair of compound engines up to 500 indicated horse-power. Its shell plates will be nearly 1in. thick, and its total weight without water will be, roughly, 28 tons, and it will hold 14 tons of water. Its gross weight, there-

fore, will be, under steam and allowing for grate-bars, &c., not far short of 45 tons. It will have a grate surface of about 57 square feet, a tube surface of 900ft., the crowns of the furnaces will amount to about 100 square feet, and the uptakes may be taken as 120ft. more. The total heating surface will be, therefore, a little over 1100 square feet. If we contrast this with a locomotive boiler, we find that the latter will not weigh, complete with water and in working order, more than 12 or 13 tons. It will have 1100ft. of heating surface and 18 to 20 square feet of grate, and it may be depended upon to develop 600-horse power in a non-condensing engine. The cubical space occupied by the locomotive boiler will not be more than one-fourth of that taken up by the marine boiler, and it will be, on the whole, quite as economical, if not more economical. Thus, for the given weight and space it would be possible to have four locomotive boilers for one marine boiler. It will, of course, be urged that the objections to the locomotive type of boiler would prove fatal to its use at sea. When we come to examine these objections, we find that they are—that it would not be possible properly to fire a locomotive boiler at sea, because of the position of the fire-door; that the tubes would be quickly choked up with soot, rendering constant sweeping necessary; that the water-spaces are so small that they would become furred up, and that a great deal of priming would take place. In dealing with these arguments we may point out, to begin with, that a boiler of the locomotive type never yet has had a fair trial at sea in the mercantile marine; and that when it has been tried in the Navy—as in torpedo boats—it has given great satisfaction. As to the firing, nothing is needed save a rearrangement of the fire-door—easily contrived—to settle that point. If proper smoke-burning appliances such as are used in locomotives were employed, the sooting up of the tubes would not present an insurmountable difficulty; and the water supplied to the boilers being distilled, is at least as pure as that fed to locomotives. There is no reason save prejudice why a locomotive boiler should not be used with great success in steamers making short voyages, say of ten or twelve hours' duration; but we are very far from supposing that the boiler of a locomotive engine if put into a ship would be suitable for Atlantic voyages. Still we believe that it is quite possible to learn an important lesson from railway practice. It cannot be indispensable that a marine boiler of a given power should weigh four times as much as a locomotive engine boiler of the same power. The difference is so great that there must be room for reducing the weight of the marine boiler without impairing its efficiency.

The engineers to whom we have referred, favour the opinions expressed in the preceding paragraph; and we understand that the modifications which they are introducing in marine boiler practice take the direction of reducing the diameter of the shells, and augmenting the draught, and consequently the weight of fuel burned per square foot of grate per hour, while the furnaces and their tubes are also made of smaller diameter than is now the rule. This is to say, that the changes are changes in proportion more than in anything else. To put the idea involved in other words, it will be seen on reflection that a two-furnace boiler may be made which will be much more powerful for the weight and space occupied than a boiler with three furnaces. We may cite as an example a boiler of the following dimensions: Grate surface, 23 square feet; heating surface, 520 square feet; number of tubes, 114; diameter, 2½in.; length, 6ft. 3in.; length of furnaces, 6ft.; diameter of furnaces, 2ft. 4in.; length of boiler, 8ft.; diameter, 7ft.; weight, 9 tons; weight of water, say 4 tons. The total weight would be 13 tons, or, about one-third of that of a three-furnace boiler. Two such boilers would take up in a ship about 3ft. more in width, 5ft. less in height, and 2ft. less in length than the three-furnace boiler. The cubical space occupied would be for the latter 12 × 12 × 10½ = 1512 cubic feet, while the space occupied by the two boilers would be, allowing 1ft. between them for lagging, 840 cubic feet. At 40ft. of displacement to the ton, the three-furnace boiler would represent 37'8 tons, and the two smaller boilers 21 tons only. Their actual weights would stand in the ratio of 45 tons to 26 tons. The heating surface of the single boiler would be 1100ft., that of the two smaller boilers very nearly the same. The first cost of the small boilers, their safety, and the ease with which they would be made—no plate more than ¾in. thick being required in their construction—the augmented strength of their flues, and the comparative ease with which they could be put into a ship and taken out of it, are all strong points in their favour; and others will no doubt suggest themselves to our readers.

We do not think it can be generally questioned that improvements are urgently required in the design and construction of marine boilers. The existing boiler is at the best the heaviest and most unwieldy steam generator that it is possible to make. It is extremely costly; it is very easily ruined; for its weight and dimensions it makes but little steam, and its failure when, as is usually the case, there is but one boiler in a cargo boat, will totally disable the vessel. Any reduction which can be effected in its size, its weight, and its present cost, without the sacrifice of any of the good qualities it possesses, is to be desired; and we are pleased to find that in so important a shipping centre as Liverpool, proposals for changes in its construction are not only tolerated, but fairly discussed, and even put in practice. For the present we cannot speak fully of what is being done in Liverpool, but at the proper time we shall say more on the subject.

COMMON ROAD RAILWAYS.

JUST now the construction of railways along the sides of highways and parish roads is being advocated by many persons; and the scheme has been suggested as specially applicable to Ireland. So far gold mines have apparently absorbed all the floating capital available for rash speculation; but there are evidences that the tide is beginning to turn, and it is very probable that common road railways

will have their day. We do not intend to class them with intensely speculative gold mines; but it is just as well that the possible value of such lines should be fully understood. In one sense, such railways as the Wantage tramway, are to the last degree speculative. Whether they can or cannot be made to pay depends solely on the conditions under which they are made and worked, and according as these are favourable or the reverse, so will they succeed or fail; but concerning the nature of these conditions it is almost impossible for the general public to know anything, and even engineers may fall into grave mistakes. It will not be out of place to say a few words concerning the whole subject for the benefit of our readers.

As a rule, a proposal for the construction of a common road railway is based on certain propositions. The traffic has become too great to be accommodated by the highway—this applies very rarely indeed. The making of a tramway or railway would be followed by an immense increase of traffic between the two points to be united. The district would be greatly benefitted. Shareholders are certain to make a large profit. The whole cost of land for a railway would be saved by laying the rails on the highway. Such lines have proved very successful in Italy and elsewhere on the Continent, why not here? We believe that these are all the more important arguments which are adduced in favour of any new scheme of the kind, no matter what. Putting sentiment on one side, and away with it, the desire to benefit country folk, morally and physically, by the introduction of cheap means of transit, we have remaining nothing but questions of pounds, shillings, and pence. Can a line made on a highway pay a fair dividend to the shareholders to whom it belongs? To say that whether it will or not depends on circumstances, is not to answer this question; but to say what the circumstances are that will make it pay, is a good answer. Let us see what some of the circumstances affecting the prospects of a common road railway are. Few lines of the kind at present exist in this country, but enough is known to enable us to speak with tolerable certainty. The reason why railways are to be laid on the roads is to save the purchase of land and the construction of earthworks, bridges—in short, the whole substructure of a railway. Given the common road, and the railway company have little or nothing to do but find the permanent way. The cost of a single line in the country will not be great. The rails will weigh 45 lb. per yard, and each 20ft. length will have eight sleepers. Then for a mile the cost will be, for materials, say £1000; labour and miscellaneous expenses ought not to cost more than £500 more, so that it ought to be possible to lay a line for £1500 per mile. It is very unlikely, however, that the cost will ever be kept down to this, but we shall assume that it can be kept down. To work such a line by steam there must be at least three engines, three passenger cars, and let us say half a dozen goods wagons. These will cost not much less than £4000. The total cost of a mile of common road railway will therefore be, fully equipped, £5,500, and the interest on this sum at 5 per cent. is £275. If the railway were situated in the outskirts of a populous town there would, perhaps, not be much difficulty in making this profit; but we are not dealing with populous towns but with country lines, and it requires no great shrewdness to see that a line one mile long could not be made to pay. As for passengers, they would not care to be carried only a mile, and goods would not pay for the loading and the unloading. We mention a mile line only to impress on our readers' minds the fact that the length of a common road railway is one of the circumstances which may materially affect its prosperity. A certain quantity of rolling stock must be provided, no matter how short a line is; and it may be taken as an axiom that—other things being equal—that line is most likely to pay which has the greatest length for the smallest quantity of rolling stock. Thus, for example, five miles and ten miles may be taken as reasonable lengths for common road railways. Now in a rural district, three engines, three passenger carriages, and half-a-dozen goods wagons, would probably suffice to conduct the traffic of either line, but on a ten mile line it would be fully employed, while on the five mile line it would not. The total cost per mile of the ten mile line equipped, would be £1900, while that of the five mile line would be £2300. The cost of working the long line ought to be less per mile than the cost of working the short line. We need not say more, we think, to prove that the length of a line will be found to exercise an important influence on its prospects.

It must not be forgotten that although a cheap substructure is obtained by using the high road to carry a railway, the route taken is, as a rule, unfavourable to steam traction. So unfavourable are the gradients in some cases that although a road can be made and worked, it cannot be made to pay. A short steep hill often constitutes the ruling gradient, and the engines are, to use an expressive phrase, "killed by inches" in trying to haul their loads up it. The difference between working on a level or nearly level road—say, one with no incline steeper than 1 in 100—and working roads with inclines of 1 in 30 or 40, is enormous. There can be no doubt but that the working of such steep banks has had much to do with the failure of all attempts hitherto made to work tramways with steam successfully. We have no hesitation in saying that no railway ought to be laid on a common road if the incline in any place, however short, exceeds 1 in 50. It is just because the lines worked by steam on the Continent are nearly all comparatively level that they have been successful—so far. Those who have any scheme for the construction of common road railways brought before them will do well to consider very carefully what the inclines are. Curves can be managed by radial rolling stock, but inclines must be got over by sheer power. It may be argued that railways are made to pay which work inclines of 1 in 50 and even steeper. To this we reply that the proportion of such railways to the great mass of our iron roads is very small; and the proportion of such steep inclines to the more level portions of any paying British road is very small indeed—much more minute than it is likely to be in the case of a common road railway.

Furthermore, there is little analogy between a railway locomotive and the engines which have hitherto been worked on steam tramways. When, therefore, it is found that a moderate length of steep hill has to be overcome, it will be better to construct, even at considerable cost, a piece of railway to avoid this hill, than to attempt to work it by, so to speak, main force. The engineer called upon to pronounce an opinion concerning the merits of a given route will do well to make a very careful personal examination of the road proposed to be used, and satisfy himself that the gradients are not prohibitive, which they may very easily be.

In all cases where rural common road railways are constructed, they will be found to unite a small town to a railway-station, as in the case of the Wantage line; or they will unite a village or villages with some market town, perhaps a seaport. What we have said concerning the length of line will be seen to have a very important bearing on its goods traffic. It would not be worth while to load garden produce, for example, into railway wagons for conveyance for a short distance, save under peculiar conditions, to which we shall come in a moment; but it might be very well worth the farmer's while to have his produce carried ten miles for him, although he had first to load up his own carts and then haul his corn or roots a couple of miles to the station. There is, however, one method of utilising even short lengths of common road railway for goods traffic which has not yet received the attention it deserves. If the goods wagons are so made that they can travel either on the common road or on the railway—a thing which involves no great difficulty—then the whole labour of carting to the station may be avoided. In such a case the farmer could send his horses to the railway for a couple of wagons, these he would have loaded at his leisure, and returned full to the station. They would then be run on the line and taken away by the engine to their destination at the proper time. Arrived there they might be hauled by horses at once to the quay, the market, or the store. A system of working such as this would at once impart that flexibility to the common road railway, the lack of which is now one of its most serious defects.

#### TEES-SIDE WATER SUPPLY.

THE question of water supply for the Tees-side district, and especially for manufacturing purposes, is coming into prominence. It is five years since the Act passed which compulsorily took the supply out of the hands of the private company, and placed it in that of the Water Board chosen from the members of the two corporations of Stockton and Middlesbrough. The Board paid very dearly for the works, and as there was from the trade depression a falling off in the demand, it did not feel inclined to enter on the construction of those vast works which it deemed necessary five years ago, and for which its compulsory powers of purchase are fast running out. But for the last year the demand for water has been rapidly growing, and the Board deems it expedient to exercise its powers of purchase before they expire; but there is a serious financial difficulty. The great cost of the works—between £800,000 and £900,000—rendered the revenue that had given a good dividend to the private company insufficient to pay interest now; and the balance has to be drawn from the rates of the two corporations. Hence there is on the part of many of the most influential members of the latter a not unnatural desire to prohibit further expenditure till the present supply is remunerative. The Board may draw from the river Tees, its present source of supply, not more than 60,000,000 gallons of water weekly. When it acquired the works it was pumping about 48,000,000 gallons weekly—a little more than one-half being for manufacturing purposes. At the present time it is pumping close upon 58,000,000 gallons a week—nearly 38,000,000 gallons being for manufacturing purposes—so that it is apparent that there is not an adequate margin for increasing needs. Indeed, the difficulty is how the needs of the next year or two will be met, for any works entered upon must take years to complete, and the demand is rising rapidly, whilst the supply is near its full, and is incapable of being exceeded. Naturally, as the demand increases, the revenue of the Board rises, but the fact that there was in the last financial year a loss on the supply to the Middlesbrough Corporation alone of £6951, and that for the year now expiring a loss of about £1000 was calculated on, shows that the construction of works at a cost of from £200,000 upwards, would mean a burden of no light weight for years to come on the ratepayers. It is by no means easy to point a way out of the difficulty, for the demands of the consumers in the statutory area of the Board must be met; the present source of supply is almost drawn upon to its full limits, and within those limits a profit is only just possible under favouring conditions, so that there will be a natural reluctance of the ratepayers and their representatives to undertake expensive works in the Tees Valley that must be unprofitable for many years to come. If a temporary source of supply could be found by the purchase of water from neighbouring works, this would relieve the Board until the normal increase of revenue and the decrease of expenses had given a balance in favour of the works, or of the owning corporations rather. Without some such expedient a financial millstone will be hung round the necks of the two towns for years to come, and even with that very great straits must be endured during the period of construction. The cost of the works may be said, for the capacity they are intended for, to be low when it is remembered that the two reservoirs in the Wear Valley of the Weardale and Shildon Water Company, cost nearly a quarter of a million, and that, roughly speaking, their capacity is only three million gallons daily. It is thus doubtful whether the scheme of the Water Board will be completed for the amount named; but whether it is or not, its carrying out will entail a heavy further cost on the ratepayers in the two towns for some time to come.

#### THE RIVER TEES.

THE Tees Conservancy Commissioners have been greatly troubled during the past spring by the enormous quantity of silt which has been brought down from the upper reaches of the river and deposited in the navigable parts. This silt, amounting to many thousands of tons, must be dredged up at a heavy expense if the full depth of the channel is to be maintained. The banks of the river are largely composed of soft clay, loose in texture, and sloping down somewhat abruptly from a considerable height. Heavy rains acting upon such banks produce a continual series of landslips. Observations show that these movements are always in progress. The banks everywhere resemble a series of steps separated by fissures. As the lowest

one falls into the river, a new one separates itself at the top, and the whole series slips down a stage. Trees and shrubs of considerable size slide down gradually with the soil in which they are rooted, and eventually float away, unless caught and made secure in the meantime. No practical way has yet been found of preventing this disintegration of the river banks, which operates equally against the landowners and the commissioners. The latter have recently inquired whether they could not compel the riparian owners to take better action to prevent the nuisance, but were legally advised in the negative. Consequently they decided at their last meeting to try persuasive means. They have therefore passed a resolution declaring that henceforth they will contribute 4d. per ton upon all slag used for protecting the banks of the river in such a way as their engineer may approve. And further, that should they decide at any future time to increase such contribution, then any frontager who may have taken advantage of their present offer shall be entitled to claim any such excess retrospectively. Dirt has been scientifically, or rather perhaps pedantically described as "matter out of place." All will agree that any slag removed from the unsightly tips, where it is now commonly deposited, and made to do useful duty in the above way, will deserve a new and honourable name hereafter to be invented.

#### LITERATURE.

*Text-Book of Systematic Mineralogy.* By HILARY BAUERMAN. Longmans, Green, and Co. 1881.

A SYSTEMATIC mineralogy has long been much wanted, which would occupy an intermediate position between the small elementary text-books which confine themselves to giving briefly and in a more or less disconnected form a general description of minerals, and the large works which partake more of the nature of a dictionary. The author of the work under consideration has endeavoured to make the book connected and systematic throughout. Even if he had not succeeded, credit would be due to him for the attempt. It is extremely difficult in compiling a small text-book so to arrange that every part of the subject shall receive attention in exact proportion to its merits. In the endeavour to accomplish this, and at the same time to avoid giving meagre descriptions of important things, the author has been forced to consign descriptive mineralogy to another volume, not yet issued. It is true this would not have been necessary had a greater amount of knowledge on the part of the student been assumed. In this, however, we think the author has acted wisely. Instead of stating bare facts, he has prefaced them with a brief description of the principles on which the various phenomena depend. Thus, in treating of the optical properties of minerals, the various theories concerned, such as that of wave motion, are first elucidated. Whether these explanations of points relating to physics will be sufficient for a student without previous knowledge of the subject, is extremely doubtful; but even if they are not, they will materially assist him in obtaining the necessary information by marking out its nature and boundaries. The same thing may be said of the chapter relating to mineralogical chemistry. A student would be very unwise to attempt to obtain from this work alone the knowledge of chemistry requisite to any one studying mineralogy; but he may get useful hints as to the points to which his attention should be more especially directed.

About 200 pages of this book, containing in all about 390 pages, are devoted to physical crystallography. The methods here followed are mainly derived from Groth's treatise. The order adopted has, however, been reversed, and the geometrical properties of crystals are considered before their physical structure. This latter arrangement is, perhaps, on the whole, the more convenient, and further, it is sanctioned by custom. This part of the volume is extremely well illustrated by carefully-drawn woodcuts. The notation of the faces is by indices on Miller's system, while the forms are designated in the text by the symbols employed by Naumann. The author tells us in the preface that he would have preferred to adopt the former system exclusively, but taking into consideration that Naumann's system is largely used in many text-books and original memoirs, he thought it better to give the student an opportunity of familiarising himself with both systems. In dealing with the hexagonal system, in order to show clearly the relation between it and the tetragonal system, the Bravais-Miller notation by indices on four axes has been adopted. Twining and irregularities in crystals are extremely well treated; better, in fact, than in any book with which we are acquainted. The same remarks apply equally to hemihedrism and combined forms. That part of the crystallography relating to the hexagonal and tetragonal systems might with advantage be revised, being faulty in several places. The mathematical problems and crystallographic formulæ on page 76 are also by no means free from errors. It is not easy to see why the formula  $3\Delta = 0$  is given instead of that usually employed; and, as it is not correctly worked out, the advantage of the substitution is still less apparent. In the chapter on the physical properties of minerals, we find hardness defined as specific cohesive power. It is sufficiently evident that the author has never, designedly or accidentally, sat down on a piece of cobblers' wax, otherwise he would never have asked us to accept in good faith such a definition. Lead containing much antimony would be hard, yet its specific cohesive power would be nothing at all compared with that of copper, which is relatively very soft. A substance may be hard, yet brittle; soft, yet tough.

It will be new to most people to hear that mineralogists, as a class, look upon brittleness, flexibility, elasticity, and malleability as degrees of tenacity. So says Mr. Bauerman on page 212. We are glad to see on page 213 a most useful table of minerals, arranged according to their specific gravity, taken from the *Annuaire of the Bureau de Longitude*. In the description of the methods of taking the specific gravity of minerals, mention is made only of the use of a delicate balance, which is very costly, and of methods in which the volume of water displaced is gauged or some form of spring balance is employed. For most purposes sufficiently exact determinations can be made with a pair of ordinary dispensing scales. We have seen this done in the Metallurgical Laboratory of King's

College, London, where, by weighing the water before and after immersion of the substance, a result is obtained not varying on the average more than 0.05 from that obtained with the most delicate balance. On page 218 is the somewhat astonishing statement that "the same method—i.e., the separation of minerals of widely different specific gravity by means of a fluid having an intermediate density—is applied on the larger scale in the separation of gold from galena and iron pyrites by a fluid of intermediate density, namely, mercury, in the Hungarian gold mill, although in this case the result is not quite so simple, the metal being, to some extent at any rate, dissolved in the separating fluid." Nothing is less likely to have been the intention of the users of this process than that imputed to them. Mercury has the power of dissolving gold, and for that reason alone is it used. About seventy pages are devoted to the optical properties of minerals. Here, as in the treatment of crystallography, illustrations are plentiful. Polarisation and dispersion phenomena are treated very fully and clearly. The statement on page 291 that chlorophane is a green variety of fluor is misleading. This substance is usually white; its name is derived from its emitting, when heated to 200 or 300 deg. C., a brilliant green phosphorescent light.

The chapter on blowpipe analysis, perhaps, the least satisfactory in the book; still, though not all we should wish, it contains a great deal of useful information in a comparatively small compass. It is necessary to bear in mind in considering a book of this kind that each portion cannot possibly be treated as fully as a specialist would desire; the information contained in it must be supplemented by the study from time to time of works treating of special points, and also by actual practice under the guidance of an expert. Inaccurate descriptions cannot, however, by any means be excused. That relating to the reducing flame is such. We are told of a flame "which is of a neutral or non-oxidising character, and is called the reducing flame." The reducing flame is what its name implies. There is insufficient oxygen in it to consume the whole of the gaseous hydrocarbon. This is easily shown by a bead of borax containing oxide of manganese held on a platinum wire. The bead is coloured when held in the oxidising flame, but becomes colourless in the reducing flame. Again, further on, boracic acid is spoken of as hygroscopic, and lower down a bead containing nickel is said to be coloured in the oxidising flame reddish to brown when hot, whereas it is of a violet colour, and might easily be mistaken for a manganese bead. On p. 307 tin is said to give no incrustation on charcoal. It gives a white incrustation easily obtained. We are surprised to find the test for distinguishing between lead and bismuth not given. The use of potassic iodide and sulphur—Cornwell's test, should be known to everyone; the red incrustation it produces being particularly characteristic.

In the chapter on the relation of form to chemical constitution, orthoclase and albite, are spoken of as isomorphous. The one is monoclinic, the other triclinic. Further on it is stated, in speaking of change by oxidation, that ferrous sulphate crystals "can only be preserved in absolutely dry air, or in the vapour of a hydrocarbon." This substance effloresces, and therefore the drier the air the less favourable would be the conditions for preserving the crystals; for the same reason hydrocarbon vapour would be useless. Change of temperature is an important function in these cases. In pointing out these errors we have no intention to depreciate the value of the book as a whole, but simply to put the student on his guard.

The text is very free from printer's errors. We notice "dihexagonal" for tetragonal. The publishers are certainly to be complimented on their part of the work, and on having introduced to the public a book which will prove very useful to many. Those who would study mineralogy scientifically will find in this volume what is wanting in others which in respect to price are within the reach of those for whom this series of text-books was designed.

#### TENDERS.

##### LLANSAMLET, NEAR SWANSEA.

TENDERS for roofs, woodwork of three sulphuric acid chambers, and woodwork of mill and mill engine-house, for the Swansea Complex Ore Company, Limited. Mr. James W. Chenhall, C.E., engineer.

|                            | Roofs. |       | Acid chambers. |       | Mill-house, &c. |       |
|----------------------------|--------|-------|----------------|-------|-----------------|-------|
|                            | £      | s. d. | £              | s. d. | £               | s. d. |
| Thomas Watkins and Jenkins | 4300   | 0 0   | 1100           | 0 0   | 100             | 0 0   |
| Thomas White               | 3303   | 10 10 | 1255           | 6 6   | 236             | 4 11  |
| Isaac George               | 3161   | 13 0  | 1117           | 6 2   | 242             | 12 7  |
| Thomas Williams—accepted   | 2498   | 11 1  | 1029           | 13 0  | 273             | 19 3  |

THE Council of University College, London, have appointed Mr. G. Roger Smith Professor of Architecture, in succession to Mr. Hayer Lewis, who has resigned and has been appointed Emeritus Professor. Mr. Roger Smith has discharged the duties of the post for two or three sessions.

PROTECTION.—For years past English newspapers of every class have been denouncing the demand made by some manufacturers for protection, under the name of reciprocity, as nothing short of madness. They have pointed to its inconsistency with the whole doctrine of English economy, and insisted on the absurdity of "laying burdens on the English consumer, simply because the French or the American consumer was already burdened." Yet the new French tariff has aroused such resentment in England that some of these very papers begin to talk of retaliation by the imposition of duties on French wines, silks, bric-a-brac, and the like, as far from unlikely. This is a sign of how great the decay there has been of orthodox political economy in its native home. For thirty years back every foundation of the science has been undermined by the ablest English writers. While here and there a Fawcett or a Cairns has been patching the old edifice, we have seen Stuart Mill, Cliffe Leslie, Thornton, Patterson, Ingraham, Bagehot, and a host of others, labouring for the discredit of the principles which McCulloch, Cobden and Senior regarded as all but axiomatic. The strange thing is that these iconoclasts have all been pronounced free traders, some of them violently such. They seemed to think that after they had destroyed every prop on which the free trade theory rests, the theory could stand without their support. The full harvest of their labours will be reaped when England comes to reject a doctrine which has left her dependent on all the rest of the world for food, without securing her access to the foreign markets for her manufactures, upon which she has placed her dependence. —*The American.*

VISITS IN THE PROVINCES.

SILKSWORTH COLLIERY, DURHAM.  
No. I.

Of all the industries which have made, and still continue to make our country take the first position in point of importance in the world, none have added more to her greatness than coal-mining in Northumberland and Durham, with Newcastle as a great centre of a rich district. For generation upon generation, ever since the time when King Henry III. granted the "honest men of Newcastle" liberty to dig for coals, has the name of Newcastle been a household word, and its neighbourhood has been the birthplace of engineers and of the greatest engineering projects.

Some few years ago Sir William Armstrong, in his address before the British Association, explained that when coal was first taken away from this quarter the pack-horse, carrying a load of 3 cwt. from the mine to the point of shipping, was the only mode of conveyance to be had. The insufficiency of this method suggested the making of roads, and on these roads and by means of carts 17 cwt. could be taken as a load; but the roads were rough and uneven, so wooden rails were next adopted, on which the wheels of the wagons used could run, and thus a load of 42 cwt. might be drawn. Ever since the first discovery of coal in Durham and Northumberland, the demand for it has been pressing and increasing; but from the earliest times there have been found gloomy men to prophecy the working out of all the mines. In 1611 we find an eminent authority giving twenty-one years as the limit of the life of the pits or seams of that time, the output being then at the rate of something like 500,000 tons per annum. Less than twenty years ago, Sir William Armstrong gave the life of the coal-fields as 200 years; but about four years ago a report was made by a number of the leading mining engineers of the country, as to the probable quantity of coal still to be mined, with the result that in the county of Northumberland very nearly 2,000,000,000 tons still remained in the beds, and that Durham possessed almost a like quantity. It is calculated that only something like 1,100,000,000 tons have yet been taken since the beginning. Now the present rate of output is about 35,000,000 tons per annum, so that if the deductions of these mining engineers be correct, we have still a fine balance to draw upon, and generations still unborn will suffer from no lack of North Country coal. As the produce of coal has increased, so as a matter of course has the capital employed. In the year 1829, Mr. John Buddle stated before a committee of the House of Commons, that he estimated the amount of capital laid out in the coal trade of the Tyne to be £1,500,000, exclusive of the shipping interest, while the estimated capital employed in the Wear collieries, that is those of Durham, was just £1,000,000 sterling. In 1854 the capital employed in the production of 16,000,000 tons was estimated at £30,000,000, some £14,000,000 of this representing pit plant, £10,000,000 railways, and £6,000,000 shipping. Since 1854, a revolution has taken place in the shipment of the coal, and now the smart and fast iron screw colliers which carry the coal produce from the Tyne and the Wear, represent a greater outlay of capital than did the old wooden ships of years ago. Considering this there can be little doubt that not much less, if anything, than £70,000,000 sterling are invested in the coal trade of the counties of Durham and Northumberland.

The profits from mining have at all times been small, and before coal and coke became to be so largely used in the manufacture of iron, disaster upon disaster followed those who meddled with coal. However, heavy losses a couple of centuries ago were of rare occurrence, the getting of the coal being then very inexpensive. The collieries were, as a rule, of limited depth, and worked in a very crude fashion. A report made to the Earl of Mar, in 1709, informs us that the usual depth of pits then sunk in Northumberland was from twenty to thirty fathoms; that the expense of sinking was about £55; and that the cost of the only machine then in use for drawing coals, a horse gin, was £28. In the last years of the last century, Hebburn Colliery was sunk to a depth of 144 fathoms. This was, however, considered a remarkable achievement, and on "that account could hardly fail to be attended with disaster." In the beginning of this present century, out of thirty-four sea-coal collieries not more than a dozen were sunk to the depth of 100 fathoms. In 1842 there were no less than twenty-two collieries sunk to the depth of over 100 fathoms, the total number of collieries then at work in Durham and Northumberland being seventy-seven. The seams near to the surface are gradually becoming worked out, and so we must look forward to going deeper and deeper, and no doubt great changes will take place in the methods of working, as well as of sinking collieries to a great depth, in a very short time. In some workings the cost of conveying the coals to the shaft is much greater than in others, and the cost of pumping is very dissimilar in pits even close together. Statistics compiled some years ago show that the cost of pumping in some cases exceeded that of drawing by some 300 or 400 per cent. A few instances of this may interest our readers. At Tyne Main the pumping engines represented 260-horse power, as against 103-horse power for drawing engines. At Heaton the pumping engines were 304-horse power; drawing engines, 113-horse power. The most remarkable case, however, and one that has never been paralleled, is that of Dalton-le-Dale Colliery, where the pumping engines registered 1150-horse-power, while the drawing engines only did 60-horse power. When we say this case has never been paralleled, it is meant as a comparison between the coal gained and the water pumped. At the village of Whitburn, a few miles from Sunderland, in the county of Durham, possibly the most remarkable case of difficulty from the opposition of water is to be found; but as coal has not yet been won, it was not included amongst the above examples. Some three and a half years ago the Whitburn Coal Company started to sink two shafts, with the intention of going to the Hutton seam—some 300 fathoms below the surface. No difficulty was experienced

until some 23 fathoms had been sunk, when such a quantity of water was encountered as to form an obstacle which could not be surmounted by the ordinary methods of sinking. Under the direction of Mr. John Daglish, every engineering means was undertaken to overcome the difficulty, and all to no purpose. The following pumping sets were continually at work:—Two of 30in., having a 6ft. stroke, and making 14 revolutions per minute; two of 20in., having a 5ft. stroke, and making 22 revolutions per minute; and two of 20in., with a 5ft. stroke, making 18 revolutions—the quantity of water pumped being at the rate of 10,578 gallons per minute. But this was of no avail, and after a fair trial it was abandoned, and the Belgian or Kind-Chaudron mode of sinking, by means of tubbing, was adopted. This method, which has been most successful, is very ingenious and elaborate, and is too well understood by our readers, no doubt, to require description here.

Situated within two miles of Sunderland is one of the largest, and certainly the deepest colliery in the North of England, and its name, Silksworth, ought to be familiar to every coal user in the country. Its geographical situation, in the fact of its close proximity to the river Wear, with which it is connected by an easy and efficient rail service, renders its coal easy of shipping, or of sending to the interior of the country, natural advantages which the Marquis of Londonderry, one of the greatest coalowners of the north, means to heighten, and has heightened, by the introduction of every appliance which is calculated to promote the efficiency, and to meet the prospective wants of the mine. Large permanent workshops have been constructed at the pit head, where almost every needful repair may be done. At one end of this pile of buildings are spacious offices of unpretending though substantial architecture. Next the offices comes a storehouse, with an upper floor for light goods, and then in order come a saddler's shop, rope house, timber shop, joiner's shop, iron store, smith's shop—in which there are punching and drilling machines, and a small forge hammer, as well as five single and two double fires. Next comes a fitting shop, in which there is an engine, lathe, shaping, screwing, and drilling machines. Then comes a hay-cutting room, sawmill, granaries, lamp cabin, and repairing shops, the whole line of buildings being brought to end by a pick-sharpening shop, containing four fires, at which competent men ply their busy trade in keeping the tools of the hewer in order. Near to and around the pit head a large and thriving colliery village has sprung up, the first brick of which was laid in the early part of 1868, and since then the building of house after house has gone on, and as the resources and workings of the colliery increase, so of necessity will the little colony of its immediate dependents increase. Up to the present time over 626 houses have been built, and some more are in course of erection. They are divided into different classes for the accommodation of miners of different conditions, the miner with but a wife and no children having a house to suit his requirements in the same way as his more lucky brother who "has his quiver full" can find a house of larger proportions. All the houses are, however, designed in character, and each of a class exactly like its fellow. Little plots of ground of about 80 square feet are attached to each house. The whole town is laid down on the system of American towns—that is, the streets are at right angles with each other; and seen from the road as the visitor drives or walks from Sunderland, the whole village presents an appearance at once compact, regular, clean, and substantial. In these houses live the 1048 miners who work the colliery, and with them, and depending on them, are women and children to the number of 2156, making thus a grand total of 3204, in addition to which there are eighty-five lodgers in the houses not immediately connected with the masters thereof, but who are, nevertheless, engaged in the work of the colliery; and thus we see that the workings of this pit represents daily bread for no less than 3289 mouths. The men are engaged in the workings during eight of the twenty-four hours, and so have sixteen hours a day to themselves for rest and for recreation. They are divided into three gangs or shifts. The first day shift begins at 4 a.m., and continues till 10 a.m., when a fresh batch of men is ready to relieve duty; the second day shift terminates at 4 p.m., when the first night shift begins, and when its eight hours has run the second relieves. The great bulk of the work is done during the day shifts, the men engaged in the night work only driving the winnings, there being but few hewers at work.

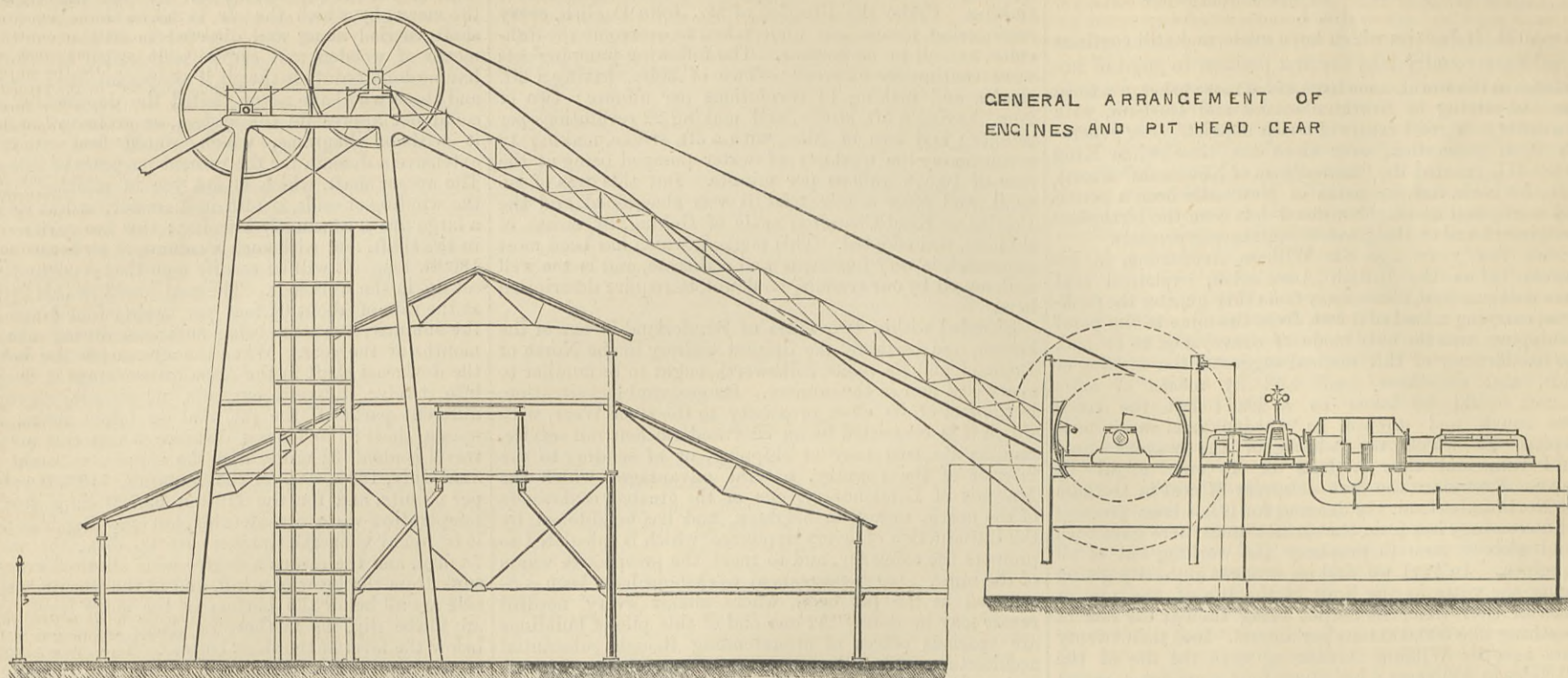
The work of sinking the pit was commenced on the 16th of August, 1869, and two years later the first seam of coal was reached; but as this vein was of a poor quality and thin, operations were pushed on, and sinkings were continued. In February, 1873, at a depth of 270 fathoms—1620ft.—a rich vein of first-class household coal was reached, and this was known to be part of the Maudlin seam. The engineers, knowing that another seam ran close to this Maudlin, continued sinking, and exactly a month later they reached that which has been termed the Hutton seam, at a depth from the surface of some 1740ft. The sinkings for the No. 2 pit were commenced on December 3rd, 1869. The first seam was reached in April, 1872; the Maudlin seam reached on March 3, 1874; and the Hutton on May 1st, 1874. The downcast shaft to both of these seams is 16ft. 7in. in diameter, and is divided into two equal parts by means of a 3in. wooden brattice. One side of this is used for winding coal from the Maudlin, whilst the other works the Hutton seam. Up to the present time the Maudlin seam has been, and continues to be, worked considerably more than its fellow, the present rate of output being—Maudlin, 1150 tons; Hutton, 350 tons per day. The entire Silksworth royalty extends over an area of some 2728 acres, and there is little doubt that both seams extend over the entire of it; but a much greater yield of coal will be had from the upper or Maudlin seam, from the fact of its being 17in. thicker than the lower one, their respective thicknesses being—Maudlin, 5ft. 9in.; Hutton, 4ft. 4in.

It would be a very difficult matter for us, within the limits of this article, to explain the admirable and elaborate

system of ventilation which is adopted in collieries. Those of our readers who have had the good fortune of visiting some of our great coalfields will be quite conversant with the means by which the air is taken from the downcast shaft, carried along and directed to all the workings by means of wooden and canvas walls called brattices until, having done its duty in the pit, it escapes into the upcast shaft, and those who have never visited the depths of a colliery could not appreciate the system, or probably understand it without diagrams, which would lead us into too extensive a domain for the present purposes of this article. The upcast shaft, which is not yet in working order for the winding of coals, is 14ft. in diameter, and at its bottom a large fire is constantly burning: this fire rarifies the air in the shaft, and with such a column of air heated—nearly 1800ft. long—it will be readily seen that a current will be set up in the workings. The coal burnt in this furnace is at the rate of about 6½ tons per twenty-four hours during the summer, five tons being sufficient during the colder months of the year. When the air reaches the bottom of the downcast shaft in the Maudlin workings it is split up into twelve different currents, which are conveyed to different parts of the pit, and so taken round to the upcast shaft; the longest distance which this air has to travel is about 3½ miles, and the supply, as tested on the 32rd July, 1880, was, for the Maudlin, 110,650 cubic feet per minute, and for the Hutton 69,720 cubic feet. The temperature varies considerably, but speaking as to average it is found that the intakes are 66 deg., the workings 78 deg., and the return a degree less. Both the shafts are sunk from the brow of a hill, and in the workings the east side are all below the bottom of the shaft level, as they are to the dip, the farthest in places being about 100ft. below the level of the shaft bottom. The natural gradient of the seam is 2in. to the yard, or 1 in 18; in many parts, however, faults are to be met. These faults seem to be convulsions of the strata, where it dips more precipitously, and at some of them the gradient is as quick as 7in. to the yard, and remains at that incline for a very considerable distance. A certain amount of difficulty was felt in getting the coal up these steep ascents, but that has been overcome by the use of a double line of rails, and thus the wagons can be made to nearly balance each other in their transit. Each wagon is made to contain 10 cwt. of coal, and is drawn along by a pony. During a visit to the mines, and whilst plodding along some of the offshoot workings, one may hear a far-away rumbling, which seems to increase in sound; soon a light is seen afar, and a gallant well-conditioned little pony comes along at a good pace, having his load behind him, the charioteer being comfortably ensconced on the shafts between his steed and the wagon; and in this way is the wagon drawn to one of the great highways of the workings, where it with many others is attached to a steel rope and drawn by engine power to the bottom of the shaft; arriving here, it is run into the cage, and so sent to bank. A large and comfortable stable is provided for the accommodation of the horses and ponies in the pit, the number employed at Silksworth being 172, and, judging from the sleek, glossy, and well-fed appearance which they present, there is no doubt that they are well cared for, and that quite as much as many of the carriage horses which we daily see in this our upper world. Most of them are blind, which is probably caused by the perpetual darkness in which they live; in some cases, however, they have been made so by the cruelty of their drivers, and with the assistance of red-hot irons. Happily this is but rare in any colliery, the natural humanity of the men, as well as a wholesome terror of the law, forbidding such cruel measures. The ventilation of the whole of the workings is, as we have hinted, very good, so much so that there is scarcely any accumulation of gas, and no explosion of any kind has taken place in this pit. A careful system of examination of the lamps used is adopted. The lamps are trimmed and lighted at the bank, and before being handed to the miner they are locked, each one having a supply of oil which will keep it in going order during the eight hours of the shift. No two locks on any of the lamps are alike, and so it is virtually impossible for the miner to carry a suitable key were he inclined to open his lamp. The men, however, are themselves fully aware of the danger of so doing. As soon as they reach the bottom of the shaft an officer examines their lamps again, so every precaution against danger is taken. The hewers up to this time have used the "Clanny" lamp, but it is now being superseded, and the officials use the "Davy." The engineers are but little troubled with water, a very small quantity being found, and if we put it at 2500 gallons per day we are within the mark. This water is taken out in tubs, each of which holds about 130 gallons.

The coal having been won from the workings and sent to one of the main highways, as we have shown—for indeed a colliery is in all respects like a town under ground, with its streets and alleys, its highways and its byways—is drawn along to the shaft bottom by means of a steel rope, which coils round a drum. There are in the Maudlin workings, three such drums, two 6ft. 6in. in diameter, and one 7ft. 6in. They are driven by a double cylinder engine, designed somewhat like the well-known engine of Messrs. Robey, of Lincoln, having the engine fixed to a bed-plate, over which a long boiler, like that of a locomotive, stands. The cylinders of this engine are 18in. in diameter, having a stroke of 2ft., and the gearing with the drums is in the proportion of 3 to 1. A similar type of engine is used, though of smaller dimensions, for hauling the coal from the workings of the Hutton seam. Steam is exhausted from both of these engines by means of a large pipe leading into the upcast shaft. The coal having reached the shaft bottom, it is run into the cage which is there in readiness, and which is able to carry at a load eight of these wagons or tubs, as they are termed in pit phraseology. The load being secured in its hoist, a signal is given to the engine man at bank, who begins to draw up his load, the weight of which is—Cage and chains, 6720 lb.; eight tubs containing 10 cwt. each, 8960 lb.; weight of tubs alone, 5 cwt. 5 lb. each, 4520 lb.; rope, 27 lb. per fathom, 7290 lb.; total weight, 27,490 lb., or just

## SILKSWORTH COLLIERY.—ELEVATION OF No. 3 ENGINE AND PULLEY FRAME.

GENERAL ARRANGEMENT OF  
ENGINES AND PIT HEAD GEAR

12 tons 5 cwt. The rope above mentioned as weighing 27 lb. per fathom, is  $5\frac{1}{2}$  in. circumference, and is made of improved "plough steel." It is attached to the top of the cage, and of course the weight of the load when close to or at bank is diminished by the weight of this rope, which is then coiled round the drum. The coal on reaching the bank is run out of its cage, and is emptied from its tub over some screens, which divide the produce into various qualities. There are twenty-eight of these screens now in use, and more can be added when wanted. Below the screens a line of railway runs, and wagons are put under that screen through which the quality of coal is being run that they are to be loaded with, and when full they are sent off to be shipped at Sunderland or at Seaham, or they are sent inland by means of a junction with the North-Eastern Railway some two and a-half miles from the pit mouth.

The winding plant at this colliery is perhaps the most perfect and the most remarkable in England. We give this week, at page 26, a view of one of the engines, and also above a diagram showing the arrangement of the pit-head gear. In a subsequent impression we shall give additional drawings and a description of this machinery. It will suffice to say now that the winding engines are fitted with Daglish and Lawrence's automatic expansion valve gear, and are, we believe, the only winding engines in England the cut off in which is controlled automatically by the governor.

THE AVERAGING MACHINE, AN EXPONENT  
OF THE PRINCIPLE OF MOMENTS.\*

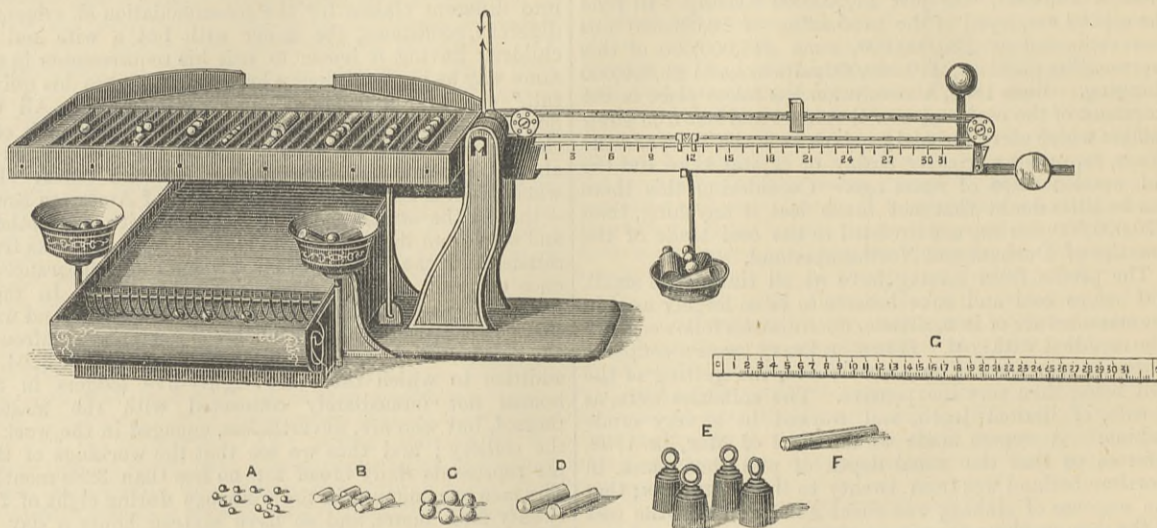
By W. S. AUCHINCLOSS.

THE processes of mathematics and mechanics have, in many respects, mutual relations, like those existing between force, light, and heat. Many of the formulæ of mathematics find direct expression in mechanical devices, so that the mind naturally glides from one to the other. The greater the attention paid to this characteristic the clearer will the principles of mathematics appear, and the more marked the rapidity with which solutions can be effected. The averaging machine, illustrated herewith, is an exponent of the principle of moments. In the development of this machine, the first effort was to determine a simple rule for computing average dates. For this purpose the principle of moments was found applicable, and a rule constructed thereby. The next step was to give mechanical expression to the rule. This has been secured by the device represented in the adjoining cut. The machine consists of a scale and a series of weights. The scale, when not laden, maintains its equilibrium irrespective of the position of the scale pan. The arm of the beam has thirty-one notches, representing the days of the month, and the scale pan is hung on a small saddle capable of being moved from end to end of the beam. A carrier bar is fastened directly over the scale arm, and upon it a counterweight slides freely. This counterweight exactly equals in weight the scale pan with its saddle. Two delicate watch chains are attached to opposite sides of the counterweight. They pass around little carrier wheels secured to the extremities of the arm, and are fastened to opposite sides of the saddle. In this way the saddle and the counterweight become, as it were, links in an endless chain, so that the counterweight responds instantly to the slightest motion of the scale pan, and maintains the equilibrium of the system, for all positions of the same. By this device the weight of the pan is no longer a factor in the problem, but in effect the pan is rendered imponderable. The two balls shown at the extremity of the scale arm are used simply for purposes of adjustment as customary on all scales. Directly over the fulcrum are the usual index pointers. The platform of the scale has 31 transverse grooves. These are arranged equidistant, and are capable of receiving the weights. The platform is hinged to the opposite arm of the scale, and is surrounded by a metallic fence, that is shaped like a spout on the far side. This spout serves to guide the weights in their descent to the separator, after the solution of any problem. Each groove is properly numbered from 1 to 31, inclusive, to correspond with the number on the scale arm. The various problems of "average date" are determined by the use of five varieties of weights shown in the cut, under letters A, B, C, D and E. The A and C balls are made of lead. The B and D cylindrical bodies are made from wrought iron rods. All of these weights are nickel-plated to prevent soiling the hands. Each ball, C, is equal in weight to 10 balls of A, while each weight, E, is equal to 10 of C. In this way A, C and E may represent units, tens and hundreds; or 10, 100, 1000; or 100, 1000, 10,000; and so on; expressing as the occasions requires, whole numbers or decimals. The weights B and D are used for the purpose of economising time. One of B equals five of A, and one of D equals five of C. The use of these intermediates

saves tedious counting of the balls, A and C, and their characteristic form prevents possibility of mistakes.

It remains only to describe the separator before explaining the mode of using the machine. The separator is located directly under the platform. The balls, when dumped by the latter, are received on an inclined plane, which are covered with rubber to deaden the sound. This incline causes the balls to roll to the front of the machine, where they fall upon a wire screen. This is of suitable size to allow A balls to drop into their own compartment, but retains the C balls, thus effecting a perfect separation. The weights B and D should be lifted from the platform and lodged in cups on the right and left of the separator. When it is required to determine the average date of a number of purchases made during any month, it is only necessary to place weights representing the amounts purchased in the grooves representing the days, fill the scale pan with exactly the same amount of weight as placed on the platform, then move the pan along the scale arm until the weights in the pan exactly balance those on the platform. The

placed in the groove will balance the weight in the pan, which latter represents the speed of the small pulley. It is evident that if any three quantities are given, the fourth can at once be determined. Again, if the distance of any groove from the fulcrum be taken as unity, and the scale pan located at a distance in the opposite direction equal to  $3.14159+$ , then any weight in the pan that will balance a given weight in the groove will represent the diameter of a circle; while the weight in the groove will represent the circumference of the same circle. By using weights of different specific gravities in the pan and on the platform, or else by using specially graduated scales, problems in square root can be determined with like facility. For every day services these capabilities are of little moment, as compared with the process from which the machine derives its name. They are, however, of interest to the student, for they clearly illustrate the intimacy of the relation existing between the processes of mathematics and mechanics. In the matter of averaging commercial accounts, the machine leaves the workings of the mind far in the



reading of the scale arm will give the "average date" of the purchases to which 30, 60 or 90 days must be added according to terms of sale. The woodcut shows but one form of averaging machine, but as occasion requires, the number of grooves can be greatly increased and the machine adapted to various requirements. The machine can be used for solving a great variety of problems by varying the grooves, notches, and weights. If, for instance, a vertical line passing through the fulcrum is made to exactly divide the system of grooves and notches, so that all are equidistant, and no blank spaces intervene between the line and the No. 1 groove, or the No. 1 notch; then the machine will solve a vast variety of problems of direct and inverse proportion; as, for instance, the diameters and speeds of pulleys; the diameters, circumferences, and areas of circles, of ellipses and so forth. With speed problems it is only necessary to let the grooves of the platform represent the diameters of the large pulleys, and the notches on the arm the diameters of the small pulleys; whereupon the speed of the large pulley will be represented by whatever weight

distance, for by its aid one can solve 100 accounts per hour without fatigue, or uncertainty as to results. The machine has an additional advantage, for it can be successfully operated by those who have but little skill with figures. The writer ventures the opinion that for every formula or rule in mathematics—possibly excepting higher mathematics—a suitable mechanism can be devised which will perfectly illustrate and express the same. It is not claimed that in every class of problem the extreme precision of a mathematical solution can be attained, for as a matter of expense, it may not be expedient to seek a perfection of adjustment that will insure such results. This is illustrated in the case of the averaging machine. It would be possible to adjust it with the perfection found alone in an assayer's balance, so that the wing of a fly, or even the scratch of a pencil would affect the equilibrium, but the outlay would be entirely unnecessary, and what would it signify? The machine might indicate a certain payment should be made at 3.30 a.m., when in practice no one could be found at that early hour either to pay or to receive the money.

THE IRON, COAL, AND GENERAL TRADES  
OF BIRMINGHAM, WOLVERHAMPTON, AND  
OTHER DISTRICTS.

(From our own Correspondent.)

THE net average selling price of bars of all descriptions during the months of March, April, and May, was £6 9s. 6<sup>4</sup>/<sub>5</sub>d. per ton. Compared with the average price of the previous three months, this is a drop of 3s. 5d. per ton, since the prevailing figure of the earlier period was £6 12s. 11d.

But for the fact that the sliding scale provides a minimum, puddlers' wages would fall 3d. per ton, and millmen's wages in like proportion. This minimum figure of 7s. 3d. has, however, prevailed throughout the past quarter; hence there will not now be any change in wages.

Medium bars are quoted about £6 10s. per ton, and common sorts £6 to £5 15s. Marked bars remained at £7 to £7 12s. 6d. with only a slow sale. Hoops and strips were reported as continuing in capital demand at, for the former, £6 5s. to £6 10s. for ordinary merchant sorts; and for the latter, £5 15s. to £5 17s. 6d. for gas tube qualities. Cooper's hoops were about £6 10s. to £6 15s. Sheet makers were again in a position to announce gratifying sales. Singles were quoted £7 10s. to £8; doubles, £8 5s. to £8 10s.; and lattens, £9 10s. to £9 15s. and £10. Galvanisers announced the receipt of a satisfactory Australian mail this week, and most of them are very well filled up with orders. Boiler-

plates were not improved in demand, and makers found it impossible to realise better prices. Common sorts were £8 10s. to £9; and superior, £9 10s. to £10.

The tin-plate trade was somewhat disorganised. Native makers quoted this afternoon:—Cokes, ordinary quality, 16s.; best cokes, 17s. to 18s.; charcoal, ordinary qualities, 20s.; best ditto, 22s. per box. The chief buyers at present are the United States and Australia.

Pig iron maintained previous strength. Messrs. Alfred Hickman and Son, who are the largest pig makers in the district, quoted—common, £2; part-mine, £2 10s.; and hydrates, £3. Their stocks, they reported, have decreased upon the month 400 tons.

Hematites were stiffer than for some time. One Cumberland brand was up 2s. 6d. per ton upon the quotation of only about a week before. The rise left the price at producers' furnaces at 57s. 6d., and is due mainly to increased sales to the Sheffield steel makers. Barrow hematites were—No. 1 foundry, 72s. 6d.; No. 3 foundry, 69s. to 70s.; and No. 4, grey forge, 65s., all delivered in this district. Tredegar hematites were 65s. to 66s. delivered. Staffordshire all-mine pigs remained at £3 to £3 2s. 6d.; part-mine sorts were £2 10s.; and cinders, £2 to £1 17s. 6d.

The quarterly meetings come off in Wolverhampton next Wednesday, and in Birmingham on the following day.

With the end of last month Mr. Richard Williams, the general manager of the Patent Shaft and Axletree Company, severed a connection of thirty-seven years with the concern. But although

\* Read before the American Society of Civil Engineers, March 2nd, 1881.







by the successive vibration of a series of levers connected by a flexible material through arcs in planes at right angles to the direction of the wave, and actuated by levers connected to cranks on a shaft revolved by steam or other power.

4855. VENTILATING SHIPS' CABINS, &c., W. R. Lake. -23rd November, 1880.-(A communication from P. Mihan.) 6d.

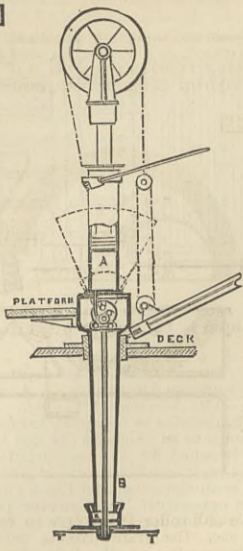
This relates, First, to a peculiar form of injector by which pure air is introduced into the space to be ventilated; and, Secondly, in combination therewith of an exhaust or outlet through which the foul air is expelled by the introduction of pure air.

4858. BREAKING OR SCUTCHING FLAX, HEMP, &c., W. R. Lake. -23rd November, 1880.-(A communication from G. Milliken.) 6d.

A rotating cylinder D is perforated, open or spaced at intervals to permit the shive to fall through, and in contact with it is a fluted or grooved roller K mounted on arms J, to which reciprocating motions are im-

the water passing into the hollow pillar. For a double power lift the water is cut off from the upper chamber,

4889



any water therein being forced out through a pipe leading to the exhaust.

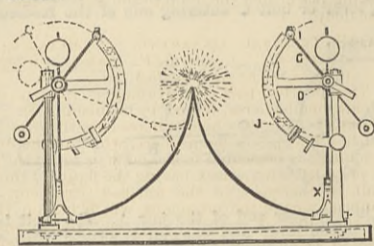
4902. LOOMS, J. Lyall. -25th November, 1880. 10d.

This relates to improvements on patent No. 3377, A.D. 1872, and consists in forming the loom to weave three or four pieces of fabric at the same time, the weaving of each piece being independent of the others, except that one weft thread runs out or breaks in either of the fabrics grouped in one loom. The entire loom is automatically stopped, and the attendant can also stop the entire loom when standing at any place along the breast beam. All the heddle motions are connected by rods running from the prime mover to the harness straps; the shuttle drivers are connected by rods, and the stop motion consists of a belt shifter acted upon by a lever and crank, a pinion moved by a sector and a bar running along near the breast beam.

4914. IMPROVEMENTS IN ELECTRIC LIGHT APPARATUS, W. L. Wise. -25th November, 1880.-(A communication from J. A. Mandon.) 8d.

This invention relates to a method whereby two carbons are kept with their upper poles in proper relative positions, notwithstanding their consumption, &c. One arrangement is that each carbon is formed as an arc of a circle, each carbon being carried and balanced by apparatus arranged so that in proportion as the carbon is consumed it will automatically move upward in a circular path about a centre coincident with that of the circle whereof it represents an arc. The figure is a side elevation of the apparatus. In operation the carbon is carried by the adjustable balance lever X supported in its insulated axis D. This axis has connected to it the second balance lever G, to which is connected by the circularly curved arm I the

4914

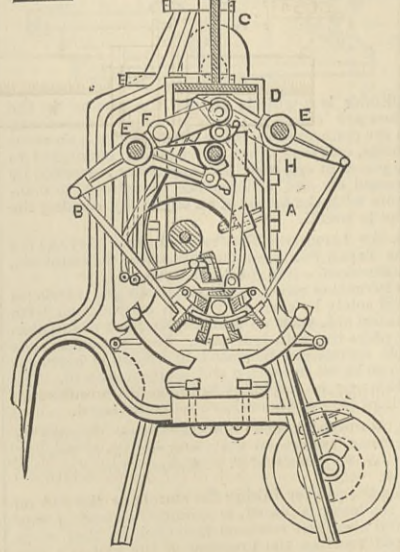


float J immersed in the bath of mercury, which is insulated and traversed by the current. The curved arm I is so proportioned and arranged that as the carbon is consumed and reduced in weight the float gradually ascends in the mercury and the curved arm emerges from the liquid, so that the loss of carbon will be correctly compensated for by a proportional upward movement thereof. The axis of the balance levers has cone centres. It works in insulated bearings. The current is conducted first to the mercury bath (itself insulated at the under part), thence through the float stem, oscillating axis, and balance levers, to the carbons. The position of the left-hand carbon when nearly consumed is shown by the dotted lines. Another arrangement is also described in the present specification.

4917. BOBBIN-NET OR TWIST LACE MACHINES, J. R. Hancock. -26th November, 1880. 10d.

The machine is constructed as follows: Two end standards A, and one or more intermediate standards B, if the length of the machine requires it; these standards are connected together by a top tie bar C

4917



and a bottom tie bar. In addition to the standards there are four or more brackets D, which, with the standards, either form bearings for or bearings are secured to them for two rocking shafts E; the upper ends of the brackets clip the lower flange of the top tie bar, to which they are secured by screw bolts; the rocking shafts carry the levers for operating the point bars. Under the top tie bar is a cam shaft H, which revolves in bearings, forming part of or being carried by the standards and brackets; this shaft carries the cams for operating the several parts of the machine.

4915. STEAM STEERING GEAR, W. Clarke and J. B. Furneaux. -25th November, 1880. 6d.

This relates to improvements on patent No. 1558, A.D. 1878, and the objects are to simplify the reversing mechanism, obtain a more economical use of the steam, with less liability to injurious strains, and facility for being repaired at sea. A bed plate carries the cylinders fitted with slide valves and link reversing gear. Two upright frames carry the main shaft and above it a spindle. On the crank shaft of the engine is a worm gearing with a wheel on the main shaft, and having on it a sliding clutch to engage with a corresponding clutch on a spur wheel keyed to a boss on a chain wheel free to revolve on the main shaft. On the other side of the chain wheel a scroll wheel is keyed on the main shaft and gears with a sleeve worm free to slide vertically on an upright spindle fitted at top with a bevil wheel. The upper spindle, to which the steering hand wheel is fixed, has on it a double ended pinion sliding on keys so as to gear either with the spur wheel on main shaft or with a small spur wheel cast in one with a bevil wheel gearing with the wheel on the upright spindle. A clutch on the double ended pinion is connected by levers with the clutch on the main shaft, so that they move simultaneously.

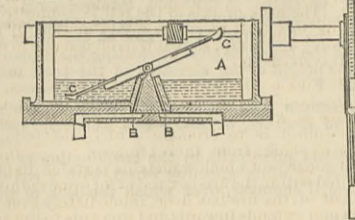
4920. EARS FOR HANDLES OF BUCKETS AND PAINT POTS, R. Read. -26th November, 1880. 6d.

This relates to a machine in which the ears are first stamped out by dies from a sheet of metal, then the holes are punched out, and finally they are bent to shape by other dies, the blank formed by the first dies passing automatically forward to the punch and then to the shaping dies.

4921. LUBRICATING MAIN SHAFING, &c., T. Monk and J. Anderton. -26th November, 1880. 4d.

This relates to self-acting lubricating apparatus for lubricating heavy shafting at intervals. The oil-box A has apertures B, and within it are spoons or ladles C working on a stud, and caused to reciprocate by a

4921



pin fixed on a worm wheel and working in a slot in the lever connecting the ladles. Oil taken up by the ladles runs down the lever and is delivered to the apertures B, from whence it passes to the shafting.

4925. UMBRELLA AND PARASOL RIBS, T. Warwick. -26th November, 1880. 8d.

This relates to the manufacture of trough-shaped ribs, and consists of a stationary die fixed on the bed of the machine and a movable die over the fixed die, and capable of rising and falling vertically. The lower die consists of two parallel bars adjustable to the required distance apart by set screws, such distance being equal to the breadth of the rib. This lower die is somewhat longer than the rib to be made. The upper die consists of a plate equal in thickness to the width of the interior of the trough, and rounded at its lower edge. It is connected by rods to cranks on a shaft, so as to cause the die to rise and fall.

4926. COPPERS FOR BOILING WORTS, T. Bloom. -26th November, 1880. 6d.

The body of the "setting" of the copper is of brick-work. Air is conducted by two flues from the exterior to below the grate to keep the bars cool. Within the furnace is an arch to direct the current of air to within a short distance of the top of the bridge at the opposite end of the grate, thereby heating the air before coming in contact with the bottom of the copper. At the back of the bridge is a chamber to receive the heavy dust, and at the centre of the back of the bridge is a partition which divides the products of combustion as they pass from the furnace. The copper is arranged on a seat of fire-brick. In front of the "sturr" pipe is an arch to protect it from the heavy fire.

4927. CLOSING STONEWARE JARS, &c., H. Doulton. -26th November, 1880. 6d.

The jars are formed with a ring or flange on the neck, and there is a narrower raised surface which stands up from the face of the ring all round. A flat cover also has a raised surface corresponding to the surface on the jar. A narrow band of metal passes across the top of the cover, and is bent at its ends so as to take under the flange on the jar. The band is also bent inwards beneath the edges of the cover, and in the centre it is bent upwards, the cover being recessed at such part so as to receive a ball, through which passes a pivot attached to the forked arms of a lever, the ends of the arms being cam-shaped and bearing on the top surface of the cover.

4928. GLOVES, H. Urwick. -26th November, 1880. 6d.

This consists in forming the slit for the introduction of the hand, and that to receive the thumb-piece in one, that part to receive the base of the thumb-piece being at an angle across the palm of the glove, whilst the slit in the wrist is in a line with the length of the glove. By this means the hand can more readily be introduced into the glove.

4930. PLIERS, NIPPERS, AND SMITHS' TONGS, W. McL. Cranston. -26th November, 1880.-(A communication from J. F. Cranston.) 6d.

One jaw of the pliers is curved, and to it is pivoted a tongue piece so shaped that articles of an inclined or tapered, and also articles of a parallel form, may be held between it and the other jaw. The tongue piece has a cutting edge, with which wire may be severed, the cutting edge in such case being caused to impinge against the fixed jaw. The back of the tongue piece is roughened, and also the inner portion of the curved jaw, to act in conjunction with the roughened face of the fixed jaw for use as a wrench, the tongue piece adjusting itself to the diameter of the pipe to be turned by it.

4931. MATTRESSES, W. E. Brown. -26th November, 1880. 4d.

So as to enable the mattress to be constantly shifted in position on the bedstead, in order to prevent it becoming hollow and consolidated in places by the weight of the body resting always on the same part, it is formed in the shape of an endless band—that is, with its two ends united. By slightly shifting the position of the folds of the mattress a fresh part is brought into use.

4939. GARDEN SEATS, A. W. Noel. -27th November, 1880. 6d.

The seat is provided with a footboard, on the front of which are rollers, so that by lifting the back of the seat it may be wheeled to any desired place, and when not required the seat may be tipped up so as to be protected from the action of the weather.

4947. CHARCOAL BOX IRONS, T. B. Salter and G. Asher. -27th November, 1880. 6d.

The iron does not require a chimney. In the body of the iron is placed an inner body with a space all round it, through which the heated air circulates. Air enters at holes in the body of the iron and through a slot in the lid, and the products of combustion escape through openings in the edge of the sides of the lid.

4948. VELOCIPEDS, &c., W. H. Thompson and F. G. Henwood. -27th November, 1880. 6d.

This relates to improvements on patent No. 2372, A.D. 1879, and consists, First, of a novel framing of metal in two parts joined together; Secondly, of an arrangement of rowing levers and mode of steering; and Thirdly, of an improved arrangement of brake

to be actuated by the feet instead of by the hands, but if desired may also be arranged to work by the latter.

4951. MUSIC SEATS AND RECEPTACLES, H. B. Fox. -27th November, 1880. 4d.

The combined seat and receptacle for music has the appearance of an ottoman, the top being stuffed, and having in it one or two seats which screw up like ordinary music stools.

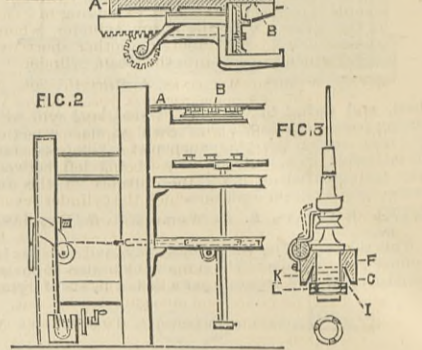
4954. FACING, TIPPING, AND SUSPENDING BILLIARD CUES, &c., C. F. Hengst. -29th November, 1880. 6d.

The cue is suspended by inserting its end into a conical clip in two parts, each suspended from a pair of links, and having a lateral movement. Between the ends of the links are two levers, on one side of each of which is a cam bearing against the clips, the other end of the lever being attached by links to a gudgeon working in guides fitted with a screw to raise and lower if, the end of the screw bearing on a horizontal bar. When thus held the cues can be acted upon by a rotary cutter so as to face it to receive the tip.

4956. SPINNING AND DOUBLING COTTON, &c., B. Brown. -29th November, 1880. 6d.

The First part relates to the wire boards, to which are fixed the wire guides, through which the threads pass, and is illustrated in Fig. 1, which represents a vertical section through the roller beam and wire board. It is also illustrated on a smaller scale in Fig. 2, which is a partial front view of the machine,

4956



A being the roller beam and B the wire boards. It is necessary that each separate wire board should be capable of being raised up independently when required for piercing or other purposes, and that the whole series should be capable of being raised or otherwise moved out of the way for doffing. The Second part relates principally to what is known as the rabbit spindle, and more especially to the method of fixing into the spindle rail F (as shown in Fig. 3) the long sleeve or collar G, in which the spindle revolves, and consists in the use below the spindle rail F of a loose ring or hoop I fitting round the lower part of the collar, and provided with chisel-shaped teeth or projections K on its upper side. The hole in the spindle rail F is bored out rather larger than the diameter of the lower part of the collar G, so that the latter can be adjusted in any direction till the spindle is absolutely perpendicular (and in the centre of the ring. The loose ring or hoop I is then placed on the lower part of the collar G and screwed up by means of one or two nuts L, which will force the teeth or projections K to take a firm hold of the lower side of the spindle rail F; and thus holding the collar G firmly in position.

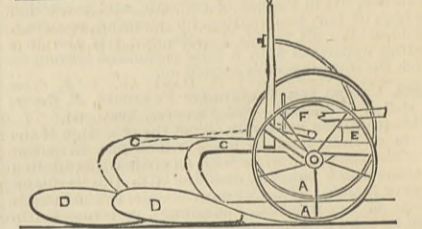
4962. CHESTS OR CASES FOR SCREW STOCKS AND DIES, &c., W. T. Eades. -29th November, 1880. 4d.

The blocks or fittings to be secured in the chest are cast or formed in moulds either from metal or any plastic material.

4963. PLOUGHS, &c., J. Howard and E. T. Bougfield. -29th November, 1880. 10d.

This relates to means for lifting ploughs and other tilling implements out of work and increasing their efficiency. AA are the land and furrow wheels mounted on a crank axle capable of rocking in bearings

4963



carried by the plough beams C, which are braced at their front ends by a cross tie rod, and are fitted with plough bodies D. The tie rod forms a fulcrum for a rocking frame E, to which the draught pole is attached. To the hub of one running wheel a friction brake is keyed, the strap to act upon it being operated by a short rock shaft F, which passes through a frame mounted on the crank of the axle, and is attached to the opposite ends of the brake strap. On the rock shaft is a treadle to operate the brake, when the further traverse of the implement will cause the brake wheel to rock the crank shaft in its bearings and lift the plough out of work.

4965. HEEL STIFFENERS FOR BOOTS AND SHOES, H. H. Lake. -29th November, 1880.-(A communication from S. L. Bailey.) 6d.

This relates to improvements on patent No. 4211, A.D. 1879, in which the stiffeners are made in two pieces, and it consists, First, in turning over the upper edge of a metal stay so as to form a beaded edge that will not cut the counter or lining of the boot, nor irritate the heel of the wearer; Secondly, in corrugating the sides of the support so as to give greater strength and permit the use of lighter metal; Thirdly, the combination of a metal counter stiffener with a counter made of strips of leather; and Fourthly, in making a stay or support of two or more thicknesses of metal united by turning over the edges.

4968. APPARATUS FOR DISSOLVING AND FILTERING IN CHEMICAL AND METALLURGICAL PROCESSES, J. F. N. Macey. -29th November, 1880. 6d.

Within a cylinder of wood or hard earthenware, an annular space being left between the two, and the inner one perforated and covered with wood, which divide the space in place by divisions of wood, which divide the space into a number of compartments. The matter to be treated is placed in a pulverised state in the inner cylinder with the reagents or solvents and a number of earthenware balls, and the whole rotated, the liquid passing into the annular space when at the bottom, but passing back again to the cylinder as it reaches the top.

4972. FIRE-GRATES, A. C. Engert. -29th November, 1880. 6d.

So as to prevent the formation of smoke the coal is first heated in a partially closed chamber before being delivered into the open grate, such chamber being formed at the back of the grate.

4974. MOTIVE POWER AND PUMPING ENGINES, T. and G. Wilson. -30th November, 1880. 6d.

This relates to the valves by which steam is distributed to the steam cylinder, and it consists of a







MAP OF MACHINERY DEPARTMENT, ROYAL AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY'S SHOWYARD, DERBY.

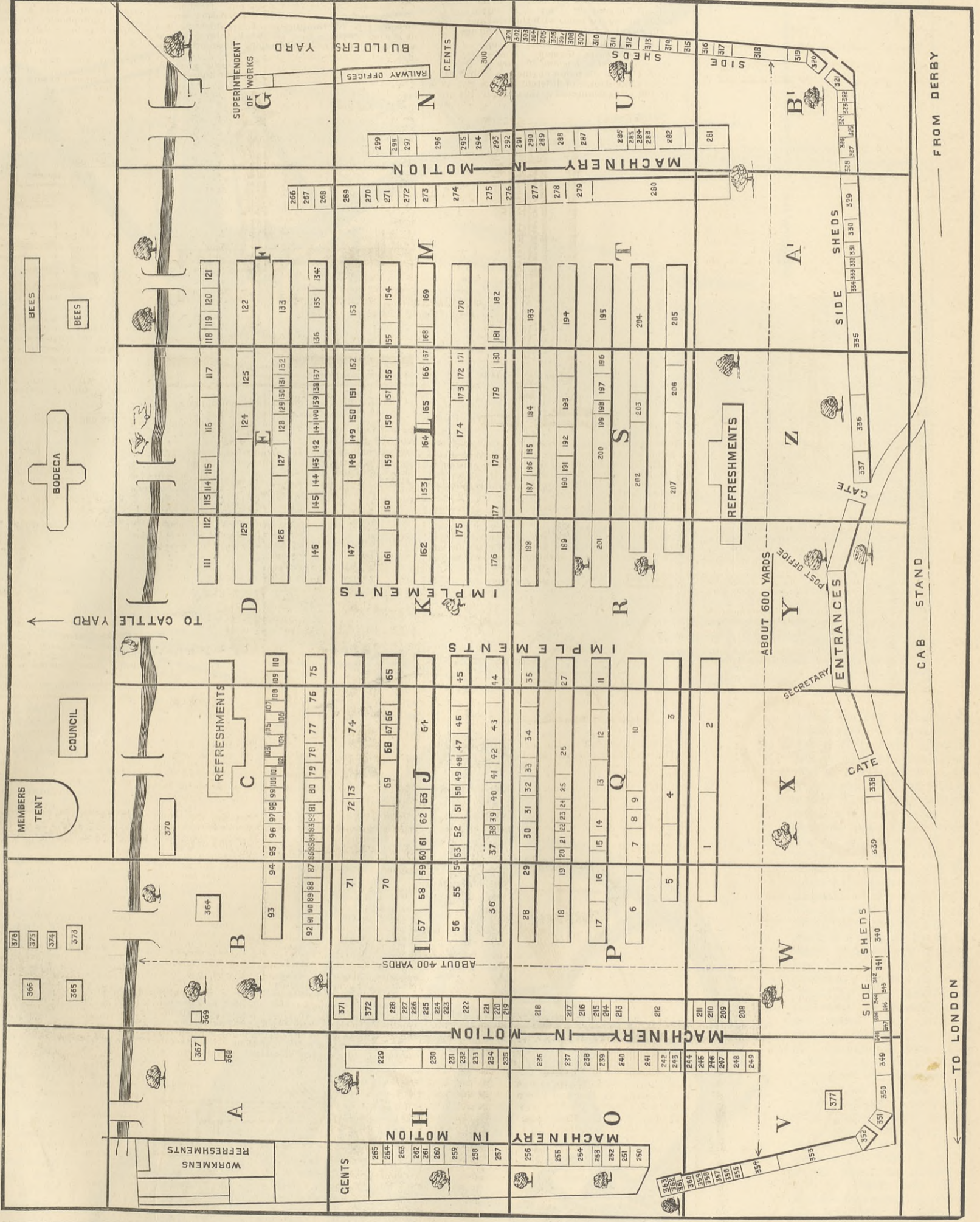


Table listing exhibitors and their stall numbers. The table is organized into columns for Exhibitor, Block, and No. It lists a wide variety of exhibitors such as Aveling & Porter, Alexander and Co., and many others, with their corresponding stall numbers.

Table listing exhibitors and their stall numbers, continuing from the previous table. It includes exhibitors like Kiffner, Kell, Meats, & Co., and many others, with their corresponding stall numbers.

Superintendent of Works—G Secretary—Y. Post-office—Y.

