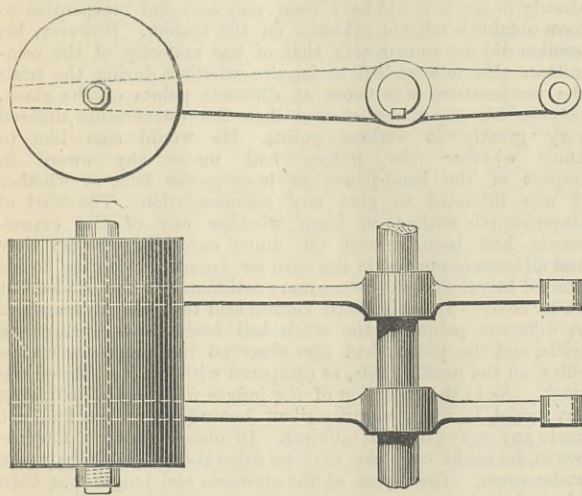


THE GREAT EASTERN RAILWAY ACCIDENT.

The daily press has already made our readers aware of the fact that a very curious accident occurred on the Great Eastern Railway last week. After the 4.40 p.m. up express train from Norwich had passed Ely a short distance, and was traversing the Fen district, the balance-weight of the link motion of the engine drawing the train fell off, dropped between the rails, and escaping from beneath the train, jumped across the six-foot into the down track. In getting from beneath the down train it struck and damaged an axle-box of the second coach from the engine.

At the moment that it entered the down road the 5.15 train from London was passing, and the balance weight came in contact with the engine drawing this train, which shortly afterwards left the rails, taking seven vehicles with it. The engine thrown off the rails was one of the new uncoupled type, built by Mr. M. Bromley while locomotive superintendent of the line. It weighs with water 42 tons, and without water about 40 tons; the weight of the tender is 25 tons. This is a bogie engine with outside cylinders 18in. by 26in. So far as can be surmised, the balance weight seems to have got into the bogie and probably bent an axle or smashed an axle-box. As the engine is now lying in the ditch half sunk in mud, nothing is certainly known on this point. The whole distance from the centre of the engine to the first mark of damage on the near or left-hand rail of the down line is only 114 yards. The balance weight was carried by the engine which it struck a distance of about 70 yards, but how this was done cannot be ascertained until the engine is examined, and even then it may not be known. The engine, after being hit, did not at once completely leave the rails. The ballast is not torn up, but chairs are smashed and rails bent, so that in point of fact the engine seems to have wandered about until a final oscillation threw it off the rails.

Probably in the annals of railway travelling no more remarkable accident ever occurred. The accompanying sketch illustrates the balance-weight. It was about 2ft.



long, and weighed, as we have said, 3 cwt. It was secured, as shown, by being slipped on to two levers, and then secured with a through pin, this pin having a head at one end and a nut at the other. The pin was not broken; the nut worked loose, and then the pin was shaken out. The link-motion was in such a position that the levers carrying the weight were nearly horizontal, and the weight slipped down their slope. Had the train been heavier, and the engine one notch more in gear, the slope of the levers would have been the other way, the pin-head could not have cleared the frames, and the pin could not have got out. Even though it had got out, the slope of the levers would have kept the weight on, and not permitted it to fall off. A most remarkable feature of the accident is the escape of the weight through the wheels of its own train, which followed each other over any given spot on the rails in very quick succession, the engine running at a high speed at the time.

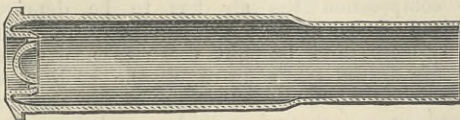
There has not yet been an accident which more conclusively proves the value of the automatic brake. The four trailing vehicles of the train stood on the rails entirely uninjured. Just in front of them was a London, Brighton, and South Coast saloon, with its leading wheels off the rails, but unharmed, save that it has a broken headstock and buffer. One of the coaches next the engine stood on its trailing wheels and leading end, the leading wheels being gone, but the next coaches were all upset; but the noteworthy fact is that not one of these vehicles telescoped with another or attempted to climb on it. Although the whole distance run was but 114 yards after the balance weight struck the engine, and although the speed was over forty-five miles an hour, there was no piling up of carriages, and in this respect this accident stands almost unique. If any other than a powerful automatic brake had been used the whole train would have been, beyond any question, piled up more or less on top of the engine, and the loss of life would have been dreadful. As it is, no one has been killed, and the damage done to property is comparatively small.

To get the engine out of the ditch in which it now lies will tax the skill of Mr. Worsdell, the locomotive superintendent of the Great Eastern Railway. The line is at this point almost a floating road raised about 5ft. above the fen. The ground all about is so soft that a walking stick can be readily thrust into it up to the handle. Probably a large area will have to be covered with planks to provide a platform for operations. We have not the least doubt, however, that Mr. Worsdell will be quite equal to the emergency, and the very softness of the ground may have served to protect the engine from severe injury.

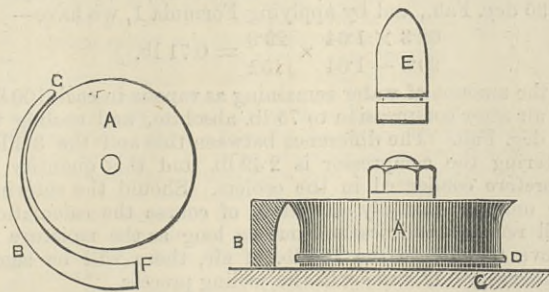
VISITS IN THE PROVINCES.

MESSRS. GREENWOOD AND BATLEY'S WORKS, ARMLEY ROAD, LEEDS.

ONLY two afternoons are set apart in the official programme of the summer meeting of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers at Leeds, commencing on Tuesday, the 15th inst., for visiting the numerous works which will be open for their inspection, but they will be open on other days, so that the members and visitors can make their own arrangements. The works which will perhaps excite the most general interest are those of Messrs. Greenwood and Batley, for here the visitors will find themselves in the manufactory of professional inventors, or at least in the works of a firm to which Governments and private capitalists turn when they want machinery to do work for which no machine has yet been made. Messrs. Greenwood and Batley are well-known as makers of machine tools; but Governments know them equally well as makers of machinery for the production of all the implements of war, from the smallest parts of cartridges to the largest of modern ordnance. The visitors will be able to see in course of completion a set of rifle-making machinery for an American Government, to turn out two hundred rifles per day; and in another part of the works a set of machinery for making metallic cartridges and bullets. From a mechanical and metallurgical point of view, the metallic cartridge-making machines are of remarkable interest, and have probably afforded M. Tresca some good illustrations of his ideas on the flow of solids. It has now long been known that comparatively elastic materials, such as wrought iron and soft steel, may be moulded cold, provided the operation be performed sufficiently gradually, or, in other words, provided the application of a suitable pressure continues over a sufficiently extended length of time, the latter being as important an element in the process as pressure. Brass having 83 per cent. by weight of copper and 17 per cent. of zinc, or having 74.58 per cent. copper, 25.42 per cent. of zinc, or an alloy of 49.47 of copper and 50.53 zinc will work well, but is not so strong as the others. Such brasses have long been chosen by plate-workers, though the addition of a third and fusible constituent into the alloy is advantageous and necessary when cutting tools have to be employed; but a strong and ductile alloy must be employed for the production, from a flat disc punched out of a plate, of a cartridge cylinder of the section shown by the annexed engraving.



This form is of course obtained by several successive stampings and pressings, the first press turning out a simple cup with depth and diameter of about equal dimensions. The next press materially increases the length of the cylinder, and finally, when it is increased by gradual changes to its full length, the head receives the finishing moulding and the open end is pressed into its smaller diameter. That the material need be good-tempered will be seen when it is mentioned that the change from the larger to the smaller diameter is effected by simply forcing the cylinder into a smooth, cylindrical, but slightly bell-mouthed hole in hardened steel. Both France and Brazil are about to receive from these works a set of bullet-making machinery, which includes the lead rod squirting machines; and for Russia machinery to turn out 600 rifles a day is being made. The bullet pressing and finishing machines are exceedingly ingenious pieces of mechanism, which could not be explained without drawings, and hardly with. The apparatus for finally sizing the bullets is, however, of that simple character which calls for remark. It consists simply



of a disc A, running slowly on a horizontal table C, the periphery of the disc being in form nearly half the profile of the bullet E, while the guard B, adjustably fixed to the table, has a similar form on its inner face, but is without the rib D which forms the groove in the bullet. The bullets are placed by a boy on their bases, and pushed between guard and disc at F, and when caught they roll round and round, and come out, of the proper size, at G. In another part of the works will be found a very powerful lathe, with 75ft. bed, for the French Government, for very heavy guns—a lathe which may be taken as forming part of the set of plant which would include the 100-ton and 160-ton steam crane, and 80-ton steam hammers, which we illustrated in THE ENGINEER of the 10th of May, 1878, and 28th of June, 1878.

In another part of the works will be found a large number of small printing machines of the treadle and power sizes, for circulars and bills, and similar work. These are in a shop or shops specially devoted to their manufacture, and visitors may here see the way in which tool makers use tools and templates. The frames of these machines are dropped into and fixed in a "jig" or frame in which are holes, the counterparts of all those for bearings and fixing purposes, which have to be bored in the frames. When once in this "jig" the machine frame does not come out until every bearing or hole has been bored or drilled, and yet not one of these has been set out or marked. In the same way visitors will see the holes

for the magnet bolts and bearings being bored out, without marking, in the frames of dynamo-electric machines of well-known make, for one of the largest electric lighting companies. These machines are being made in large numbers by Messrs. Greenwood and Batley, but the winding of the magnets and armature, or what may be called the electricians' work, is being done in London. The armature ring is carried on its spindle by means of a four-armed centre and boss, and some visitors will be surprised to see that this centre is of German silver of good quality, and is for the large machines of considerable weight. This metal is employed as being more completely non-magnetic than brass or gun-metal, of which these centres were formerly made. Messrs. Greenwood and Batley are also making a set of machine tools for the manufacture of these dynamo-electric machines by the electric lighting company to which the machine belongs.

A great variety of work is turned out of these shops, and the quantity of their machine tool plant is enormous. As may be expected milling machinery is very largely used as well as manufactured for others. Small milling machines are used in large numbers, and every year makes it more necessary to design details, so that everything may involve the least possible amount of hand work. The cost of production, as compared with a few years ago, has thus been enormously decreased, but as every year for the past decade has added from five to ten per cent. on the cost of labour, this application of machines and expenditure of ingenuity in their design has been a matter of absolute necessity rather than choice. Thus small hand milling machines to which fitters may turn for rapid and easy shaping work are numerous employed, where a short time ago the file would have been used. Band saw machines are used extensively, but even those who are accustomed to employ them for cutting ironwork will be surprised to see a machine at work cutting planished bar steel into short lengths for spindles. These machines, however, do this work economically when the saws are not worked too fast or too long, and for keeping them in order a self-acting sharpening and setting machine is employed. The manufacture of screw and rotary gills for silk and worsted machines is carried on at these works, and here visitors may see the backs for the screw gills being drilled with holes about 0.03in. in diameter, with drills running at about 20,000 revolutions per minute. The little drill spindles are set to run at 22,000 per minute, and are driven by a thin cotton web belt, but slip probably reduces the speed 2000 per minute. About forty holes per minute are drilled through 0.3 of brass in these backs per minute, and experiments are being made with the object of drilling steel backs as rapidly. The construction of silk and wool combing, preparing, and spinning machinery may also be seen in these works, and visitors will marvel at the price at which the spindles for these machines are made. A large quantity of lock and key making plant has recently been made at these works for English lock manufacturers, so that American competition in this work will probably soon, if it has not already died out. Visitors will also be interested in the boot-sewing machinery department, where they will see not only the machines in course of construction, but the 3in. deal boards covered with leather sown on to the boards by the machines. There are many machine tools in course of construction to which we have not referred, but readers will, from what has been said, see that there is more in these works that will interest them than they will be able to see in one afternoon.

MESSRS. BUCKTON AND CO.'S 11FT. SHEARING MACHINE.

In our short account of Messrs. Buckton and Co.'s works we referred to the modern design of machine tool frames by which they are made independent of foundations. We now give illustrations of a very large shearing machine, which is a good example of this class of design. The machine illustrated will cut steel or iron plates cold up to 1 1/2in. thick 26in. from the edge; it has 11ft. face of knife, and a plate 8ft. wide will go clear through the machine; such a plate the machine will cut right across at any part of its length at a single stroke. The moving shear slide is balanced with a counterweight and fitted with a stop motion, so that while the engine, fly-wheel, and gearing may run continuously, the action of the shear can be stopped until the plate is put into position, when the two stop blocks are slid by a coupled motion simultaneously into their places, and the slide is pressed down by a parallel motion, being acted upon at its two extremities by connecting rods driven by parallel eccentric pins on the two ends of the main shaft. All the wheels in this machine are cast with split bosses, planed at the joints and hooped with wrought iron rings. There are two overhung wheels about the machine; they each work between a pair of brass bearings, in which any wear that takes place does not prevent the teeth from still bedding fairly across the faces. The main eccentric shaft is of wrought iron 20in. diameter, and works in solid brass bushes each 18in. long. At each stroke of this machine it overcomes a resistance in the plate of about 4000 tons of breaking load. The whole machine, with engine complete, is so self-contained that steam has been put into the cylinder at the makers' works, just as it stands depicted, on the floor, and a plate of the maximum dimensions cut into slabs with repeated strokes of the machine.

At present there is a machine of similar design, but for plates 1 1/2in. thick, in course of construction, at these works, and a machine of the size described is at work at the Bowling Iron Company's works, near Bradford.

THE MECHANICAL REFRIGERATION OF AIR.

By T. B. LIGHTFOOT, M. Inst. C.E., M. Inst. M.E.

No. II.

Having now briefly described the laws relating to compression and expansion, we may pass on to consider their application to the mechanical refrigeration of air.

Seeing that if air be compressed adiabatically and expanded, also adiabatically, back to its original pres-

sure, the final temperature must be precisely the same as before compression, it is obvious that if it be desired to produce colder air after expansion, means must be provided for getting rid of heat at some part of the process. It is for this reason that the air is compressed. In this operation, the temperature being raised above that of surrounding objects, the air is placed in such a condition as will permit of its imparting heat to a body at normal temperature. Any substance capable of receiving heat would act as such an agent, but from its plentifulness at suitable temperatures—from 50 deg. to 60 deg. Fah. in England, and from 80 deg. to 90 deg. Fah. in the tropics—and from its comparatively high specific gravity and heat, water has been selected and used for the purpose.

The heat imparted to the cooling agent is therefore the sole measure of reduction in temperature after expansion, and with a given weight of air the more heat abstracted the greater the degree of cold produced, so that as the temperature of the water in any locality is generally fixed, and the extent to which the compressed air can be cooled thereby determined, it is evident that for any one form of compression the more work done by the piston—that is to say, the greater the amount of heat developed—the lower will be the final temperature.

Knowing the temperature to which the compressed air can be cooled, and having the final temperature and pressure after expansion fixed, we can at once calculate by Formula 5 the pressure necessary to produce this result by adiabatic expansion, or more simply by referring to Table III.

As an example, suppose it is desired to produce cold air at atmospheric pressure, and at a temperature of 50 deg. below zero Fah., the air being cooled after compression to 65 deg. Fah. The ratio of initial to final temperatures being 460 + 65 to 460 - 50, or 1.28 to 1, from Table III. it will be found that with adiabatic expansion this ratio of temperatures requires a ratio of absolute pressures of 2.4 to 1, and therefore, as the final pressure is to be 15 lb. per square inch, the initial pressure must be 15 x 2.4, or 36 lb. per square inch absolute. If, then, we can provide a supply of air at a pressure of 36 lb. per square inch, and at 65 deg. Fah., we have with an expansion cylinder all that is necessary to produce cold air at the desired temperature and pressure.

The air refrigerating machines we have to consider are constructed to carry out the operations just indicated. They consist of a compressor in which ordinary atmospheric air is compressed to any desired pressure, a heat exchanging apparatus in which the heat of compression is imparted to the cooling agent, water, and an expansion cylinder in which the air is caused to perform mechanical work while being expanded to its original or other pressure. Various forms of machines have been designed, each professing to attain some special object, but they one and all agree in this general cycle of operations. The compressor is driven from a shaft at such an angle with the expansion crank that the work given out during expansion, which is roughly about 60 per cent. of that required in compression, is most effectively utilised for turning the machine. The difference between the power absorbed and that returned, plus friction, must be applied by a steam engine acting directly on the shaft, by a gas engine, or by any other convenient method.

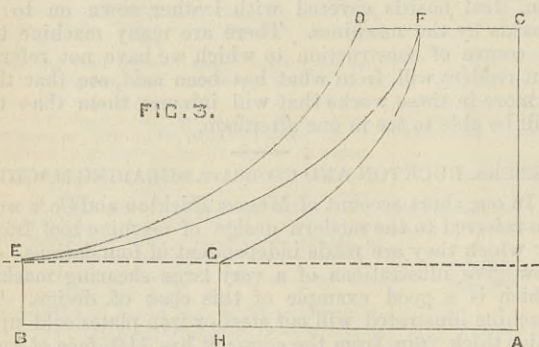


Fig. 3 shows graphically the whole operation of compression, cooling, and expansion. A B is a volume of air at atmospheric pressure, adiabatically compressed to pressure A C and volume C D. By the application of a cooling agent the heat imparted during compression is abstracted and the volume reduced under constant pressure to C F. Expansion is then effected adiabatically to volume A H. If  $t$  and  $t_1$  be the absolute temperatures before and after compression, and  $t_{11}$  and  $t_{111}$  those before and after expansion, the relations between temperatures and volumes may be put thus—

$$\frac{A H}{A B} = \frac{C F}{C D} = \frac{t_{11}}{t_1} = \frac{t_{111}}{t} \dots \dots (6)$$

and each of these expressions gives the efficiency of the whole process, showing the work that should be restored during expansion. The area E D F G is the deficiency to be supplied by the motive power, and this is, of course, greater, as the extent of compression is greater. On the other hand, however, assuming the temperature of cooling agent to be uniform, the cold produced after expansion will be correspondingly greater. Instead of cooling by a subsequent operation the heat may be abstracted during compression, and in this case the curve E F, which is a hyperbola, would represent the rise in pressure, and the area E F G the work to be applied in driving.

In actual practice we have not to deal with a perfect gas alone, but with air mixed with varying quantities of aqueous vapour. It is proposed, therefore, to follow out the actions taking place in an air-refrigerating machine working with ordinary atmospheric air, applying the rules and formulæ already laid down, and showing in what manner it is necessary to modify them to meet the actual case.

Neither adiabatic nor isothermal compression are ever quite carried out, though the two extremes are sometimes nearly reached, the former in a quick speed compressor with badly water-jacketed cylinder, and the latter in compressing at slow speed with a well-arranged injection of cold water.

Each system has its advantages; the water jacket when it is important to keep the air dry and free from impurities which might enter with the water, and the internal parts of the cylinder and the valves from any deleterious action which might be caused, especially if salt water be used, and the water injection when saving of power is of most consequence, and when a considerable quantity of pure fresh water can be obtained. With a proper circulation of water in a well-constructed jacket of a high-speed compressor the absolute terminal temperature may be taken at about 90 per cent. of the adiabatic temperature, but of course varies more or less according to special conditions. With efficient water injection and moderate speed the temperature can be kept down so that it does not exceed that of the cooling water by more than about 1 per cent.

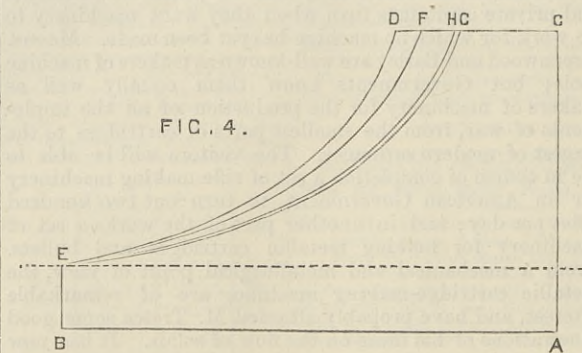


Fig. 4 gives the various curves of compression. E D is the adiabatic line and E F the curve in a high-speed compressor with efficient water jacket. E G is the isothermal line and E H the curve with well-arranged injection. The difference between the areas gives the difference in power required. The choice of the method of compression is purely arbitrary, but there is probably less liability of danger and derangement of working parts with the water jacket.

During compression the presence of aqueous vapour entering in solution with the air is of no consequence as regards its effect upon the power taken up in compression, whichever system is adopted. With injection the reason is obvious, and with a jacket, owing to the great rise in temperature, the capacity of the air for holding moisture in solution increases in a much larger degree than it is diminished by increase of pressure.

After compression the air has to be deprived of its acquired heat, greater or less according to the method adopted, and brought down as nearly as possible to the initial temperature of the cooling water. This is effected by surface cooling in the case of air compressed in a jacketed cylinder, and by a further actual intermixture with water if compression has been carried out with internal injection. In either instance, with proper care, the air may be cooled to within 5 deg. Fah. of the temperature of the water. In ordinary conditions during this process, more especially with surface cooling, an important deposition of water takes place, for the air, losing to a large extent its power of retaining moisture in solution, a portion of the vapour it contains is condensed and precipitated as mist, which may be collected and run off as water if suitable means be provided. During injection compression, if the temperature be sufficiently reduced, part of this condensation takes place in the cylinder itself, a result which at first sight seems somewhat of a paradox, as the air may be actually dried by its intermixture with cold water when under pressure.

To take an example, suppose that air at 90 deg. Fah. and 29.9 in. pressure is entering the compressor; then by Table I. every 100 lb., if saturated, will carry with it 3.2 lb. of aqueous vapour. With cooling water at 90 deg. Fah. the air compressed to say 75 lb. absolute, will be reduced to 95 deg. Fah., and by applying Formula 1, we have—

$$\frac{62.3 \times 1.64}{29.9 - 1.64} \times \frac{29.9}{152} = 0.71 \text{ lb.}$$

as the amount of water remaining as vapour in each 100 lb. of air after compression to 75 lb. absolute, and cooling to 95 deg. Fah. The difference between this and the 3.2 lb. entering the compressor is 2.49 lb. and this quantity is therefore condensed in the coolers. Should the entering air only be partially saturated, of course the calculation will require modification, but so long as the moisture is above 0.71 lb. to the 100 lb. of air, there will be some condensation of vapour in the cooling process.

The quantity of cooling water required is dependent on the efficiency of the heat exchanging apparatus. If this was perfect the ratio of weight of water to weight of air to be cooled would be inversely as the ratio of specific heat of water to specific heat of air under constant pressure, plus that amount requisite to take up the heat given out in the condensation of the aqueous vapour. But the apparatus in use is very far from perfect, and as a rule is only capable of raising the water through about 40 deg. Fah., while the air is reduced perhaps 200 deg. Fah. With injection the amount of water required is very large, as from the nature of the cooling process it can only be raised through some 5 deg. Fah., otherwise the air is not cooled as much as it might be. In any case knowing the range through which the air is to be cooled, and that through which the water can be raised, the determination of the volume to be supplied is an easy matter. In some localities, however, where water is expensive and scarce, it is desirable to specially construct the coolers with the view of economy, or if admissible, to provide tanks which would receive and cool the water after its passage through the machine, and from which it would be again used after being mixed with a small portion of fresh cold water.

As the subsequent process of expansion is carried out under different conditions in three distinct types of machines, it is proposed to deal with this final operation under three heads:—First, those machines in which the cooled compressed air is expanded to about atmospheric pressure in one

operation, nearly all the contained moisture being converted into ice; second, those in which the compressed air before expansion is subjected to a further cooling action, derived from the cold expanded air itself, with the object of inducing a condensation and deposition of moisture, and is then expanded at one operation; and thirdly, those machines in which a condensation and abstraction of moisture is effected by carrying the expansion at first only to such extent as will give a terminal temperature of about 35 deg. Fah., the moisture thus condensed being separated from the air as water, after which the air dried in this manner is finally expanded to atmospheric or any other desired pressure.

#### THE ROYAL AGRICULTURAL SHOW AT READING.

At the monthly meeting of the council of the Royal Agricultural Society held on Wednesday, under the presidency of the Duke of Richmond and Gordon, K.G., the prizes won at the recent Reading Show were ordered to be paid, and cheques were accordingly drawn and signed. Lord Vernon, senior steward of implements, reported in reference to the trial of hay dryers that the hay has all been stacked, and some of the stacks are probably sufficiently dried, but others require further exhaustion. During the absence of the judges, Mr. Box, assistant steward, has been left in charge with instructions to observe and record the temperature of the hay stacks, and to make the necessary arrangements for a further trial. The trials have been carried far enough to enable the judges to reduce the number of competing fans from seven to three, viz., Mr. James Coultas's fan driven by steam, Mr. C. D. Phillips's fan driven by steam, and Messrs. R. A. Lister and Co.'s fan driven by steam. The judges propose to try these fans upon the produce of forty acres of barley which have been secured for that purpose at Twyford, about three miles from Reading. In presenting this report Lord Vernon remarked that one of the greatest difficulties in the way of these trials had been the weather, and it seemed extraordinary that this should be the case, inasmuch as it was supposed by some very sanguine people that hay could be made with ease in wet weather. That had proved to be certainly not the case, and the trials had been very much prolonged owing to that particular cause. Mr. James Howard, M.P., as a member of the Implement Committee, wished to absolve himself of any responsibility in the great outlay incurred by the trials of hay dryers. His original proposal was that the Society should get a report upon the system of exhaustion, and as there were several machines already in use it would have been very easy and inexpensive to have obtained reliable evidence on the system. However, his opinion did not concur with that of the majority of the committee. He now wished to inquire whether during the trials the temperature was taken at different points of the stack, because his experience showed that the temperature differed very greatly at various points. He would also like to know whether the judges had made any award in respect of the hand-power or horse-power fans, or whether it was intended to give any commendation. The Earl of Ravensworth wished to know whether any of the experiments had been carried on under cover, or whether they had all been conducted in the open air, because, according to his limited knowledge, they were more satisfactory when carried out under cover. In reply, Lord Vernon said that the temperature at different points of the stack had been taken during the trials, and the judges had also observed the difference of the effect on the weather side, as compared with the lee side of the stack. As to the intention of the judges with regard to giving any award, he was necessarily silent, because the judges had not made any report on that subject. In answer to Lord Ravensworth, he could only say that no experiments had been made under cover. The report of the stewards and judges was then adopted.

#### LETTERS TO THE EDITOR.

[We do not hold ourselves responsible for the opinions of our correspondents.]

#### SEWAGE AND AIR.

SIR,—The treatment of sewage has, perhaps, occupied of late years more attention from scientists than almost any other question. Indubitably there is good reason why this should have been the case, for the daily increasing tendency of mankind to congregate in large centres renders this question one of vital importance. It is not my purpose now to review the different methods adopted by a thousand-and-one inventors to apply certain definitely received principles. Ingenious as these methods have been, they are, after all, but modifications on certain lines which have been accepted as a basis ever since the disposal of sewage, apart from the old system of cesspits, has occupied men's minds. New departures have been rare in the extreme; at least, those have been so which have been brought to the test of practical experience, and success with them has in all cases been but very partial, and but few have possessed merit enough to be proceeded with beyond the experimental stage. Results observed by myself during the course of many years incline me, however, to think that there may be much in a new system which has recently been patented by M. Mouras, of France; or, rather, I should say, in the principle which that gentleman's system is intended to practically develop. This principle may be briefly described by stating that it recognises the fact that in animal excreta there are contained certain agents which, when unfructified by germs contained in the atmosphere, react upon each other and cause almost complete and innocuous liquefaction. What these agencies are is as yet matter of almost entire conjecture, nor have I anywhere seen recorded the results of M. Mouras' proposed apparatus on a sufficiently large scale to warrant the assumption that he has succeeded in proving by practice that his theory can be successfully applied. It is with that theory, and not with M. Mouras's particular proposed application of it, that I propose to deal.

It has not needed any particularly close observation to lead to the conclusion that in many cases nature has seemed to point out that animal excreta should be kept from contamination by external agencies, and she appears to have kept apart, as it were, in her wise provision, those forms of it which are the production of carnivorous and herbivorous animals. Those of the latter are useful as the habitat in which a large proportion of insect life is matured, and we therefore find that with them there is a comparative absence of the mucous or fatty envelope which guards for a certain period the excreta of the carnivore from the effects of air. It seems to have been recognised by nature that such excreta should be buried out of reach of all contamination as soon as possible. Witness the fact that many carnivorous animals, more especially the cleanly felines, endeavour to cover up their droppings immediately after defecation, while such habits are quite absent in the herbivorous animals. It does not do to argue too far upon this presumption of nature's intent, but it undoubtedly may be accepted as pointing towards a conclusion, and when taken in connection with other well-established facts, it certainly strengthens the inference I desire to consider.

To a very considerable extent the earth closets introduced by the late Rev. Mr. Moule fulfilled the purpose of an agent by which effect was given to what I surmise to be one of nature's laws. Not



## THE NIEDERBAUM SWING BRIDGE, HAMBURG.

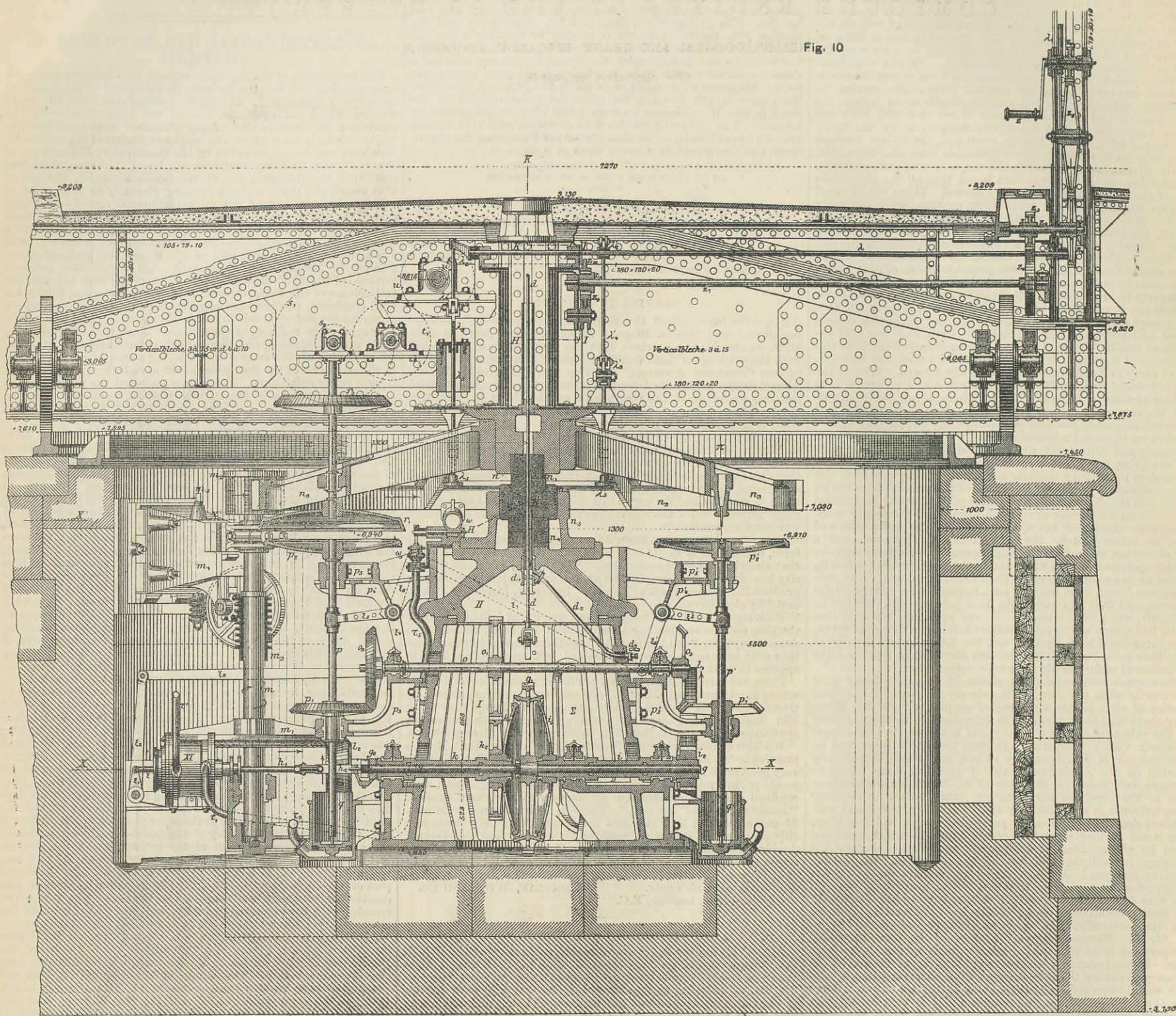


Fig. 10

## THE NIEDERBAUM SWING BRIDGE.

## No. II.

WE now proceed to a description of the mechanism in the case of this bridge, of which a general description and drawings have already appeared in our issues of June 23rd and July 21st. In the details we have only fully illustrated those of special interest. In a succeeding impression we shall give additional illustrations.

The motors for turning the bridge are two water pressure engines (II. and III., Fig. 9), which take their water originally from the main A, shown in Fig. 2. This main is connected with C, which is led along the brackets of the footway to the pier F, and then dips under the harbour to join the pipe VII. (Figs. 8 and 9) in the central pier. Through the air vessel V. it passes to the valve chamber IV. (Fig. 8), which is a cylinder containing a piston worked by a piston rod *b*, and having inlet and outlet pipes at either end. The piston rod is connected by levers to the upright shaft *d*, which passes through the pivot *n*, and its step *n*<sub>2</sub>, and is worked by the lever *e* and handle *f* at the top. To prevent shocks a dash-pot A is provided at the other end of the cylinder. From this cylinder the water passes, as required, to the motors II. and III. These are of the type made by A. Schmid, of Zurich, and have 160mm. diameter, 200mm. stroke; they are intended to run at 90 revolutions per minute. They are coupled at right angles to the shaft *a*, Figs. 8 and 9, and can be reversed like a locomotive, so as to turn it in either direction. This is effected by an arrangement in the valve gear, which, on altering the position of the central shaft *d*, changes the inlet to the outlet and *vice versa*. The exhaust water from the motors passes back again through the valve and thence by the pipe VIII. into the Elbe. The turning of the bridge to the right is effected by lowering the central shaft *d*, and that to the left by raising it.

On the first motion shaft *a* (Fig. 8) is fixed a wheel *a*<sub>1</sub>, gearing into the bevel wheel *g*<sub>1</sub> on the shaft *g*. This shaft traverses the conical pedestal I., on which rests the cap II., carrying the step *n*<sub>2</sub> of the bridge pivot *n*<sub>1</sub>. At its further end the shaft *g* is connected by the piston rod *h*<sub>1</sub> (Fig. 10) to a horizontal hydraulic cylinder XI., by which the shaft can be traversed endways about  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. without putting the wheels *g*<sub>1</sub> and *a*<sub>1</sub> out of gear. On either side of the wheel *g*<sub>1</sub> are two hollow sleeves *i* and *k*, fixed longitudinally, and carrying friction cones *i*<sub>1</sub> and *k*<sub>1</sub>, which can bear against corresponding cones fixed on each side of the wheel *g*<sub>1</sub>. If the shaft *g* is pushed to the right, so as to bring the cone *i*<sub>1</sub> into action, the sleeve *i* is made to rotate; if to the left, the sleeve *k*. Now on *k* is fixed the spur wheel *k*<sub>2</sub>, which gears with the wheel *o*<sub>1</sub> on the shaft *o*. This shaft carries at its ends bevel wheels *o*<sub>2</sub> and *o*<sub>3</sub>, which gear with wheels *p*<sub>1</sub> and *p*<sub>2</sub> on the vertical shafts *p* and *p*<sub>1</sub>. The bosses of these wheels are held fast in the brackets *p*<sub>3</sub> and *p*<sub>3</sub>,

but the shafts, which are driven by means of feathers, are capable of vertical movement. This movement is given them, to a distance of about 4in., by admitting or withdrawing pressure water under the pistons *q* and *q*<sub>1</sub>. On their upper ends are friction wheels *p*<sub>2</sub> and *p*<sub>2</sub><sup>1</sup>. One or other of these, when raised according to the position of the bridge, gears with the friction wheel *r*<sub>1</sub>, while the other merely bears against a point for the sake of balance, but turns idle. The hydraulic cylinder XI. is worked through an independent lever  $\lambda$  (Fig. 8) which opens or shuts communication with the air vessel V. By a special arrangement this lever can only be made to manipulate the valve when the bridge is in one or other of its positions of rest. There are two attendants, one of whom works the lever  $\lambda$ , and the other the lever *f* of the hydraulic cylinders.

The operations of opening are as follows:—The first thing to be done is to lift simultaneously the ends of the main girders by means of the counterweights shown at *v* (Fig. 7), and acting through a system of levers. The "pendulum bearing,"  $\delta$ <sub>2</sub>, which enables the bridge to contract and expand freely with temperature, can then be swung out of the way by the lever  $\beta$ <sub>2</sub>; and the bridge end is then made to rise about  $\frac{1}{2}$  in., which makes it free to turn. The power for these operations is thus obtained:—The shaft *r* (Fig. 10), which is put in motion by means of the friction wheel *r*<sub>1</sub>, as already described, actuates through the train of wheels, *r*<sub>2</sub>, *s*<sub>2</sub>, *t*<sub>1</sub>, and *u*, the shaft *u*. This shaft is hollowed and screwed internally at each end, the thread at one end being right and the other left-handed. Into each end is inserted a screwed rod, which is attached to a forked key, allowing it to move endways but not to turn. These rods, in moving, actuate through the rod *u*<sub>3</sub> the shaft *w*<sub>1</sub> (Fig. 11), and this, through another series of cranks and levers not shown, moves the counterweight lever *v*<sub>1</sub>, and so works the series of levers *v*<sub>2</sub>, *v*<sub>3</sub>, and *v*<sub>4</sub>, which actually raise the end of the girder. In the section Fig. 11 the block *v*<sub>5</sub> is shown down upon the fixed pedestal XIII., and the pendulum bearing  $\delta$  is also in place. The effect of the lever action is to force the block *v*<sub>5</sub> further out from below its guide XIV., thus raising the end of the girder, and freeing the pendulum bearing  $\delta$ . The swinging of this pendulum bearing out of its place is accomplished by the bridgeman from the centre of the bridge by the crank traveller *z*, worked from the footpath (Fig. 10). This handle, by means of a train of wheels *z*<sub>1</sub> to *z*<sub>6</sub>, turns the shaft *z*<sub>7</sub>. On the other end of this shaft is a pinion *z*<sub>8</sub>, which gears above and below into two racks *z*<sub>9</sub> and *z*<sub>10</sub>. These racks belong to rods running along the bridge, and by turning the shaft *z*<sub>7</sub>, one way or the other the bolt *y* (Fig. 7) fastening the bridge end is shot or withdrawn as required, and the pendulum bearing is afterwards swung into or out of place respectively by means of the system of levers  $\beta$ <sub>2</sub> (Fig. 8).

In order to bring the bridge easily to rest, a buffer arrangement  $\alpha$ , Fig. 5, with counterweight  $\alpha$ <sub>1</sub>, is fixed at the jib end of the

bridge and at its axis. When the bridge is to be turned, this buffer frame is lifted by the counterweighted bar  $\alpha$ <sub>1</sub>, so as to pass clear of the buffer guide rails  $\alpha$ <sub>2</sub>. As the bridge comes round to its place of rest, the frame being lowered strikes against the end of the rails  $\alpha$ <sub>2</sub>, and then drops into the recess  $\alpha$ <sub>3</sub>, the force of the shock being taken up by the buffer springs  $\alpha$ <sub>4</sub>. The bridge is now in its closed position, and the bolt *y* (Fig. 7) can be shot into a socket prepared for it and fixed to the pier. It is then possible to swing into place the pendulum bearing, which is provided with a counterweight slightly in excess to keep it raised till required.

The following is a sketch of the succession of operations in opening the bridge:—The two bridgemen, after ringing a bell, and lowering the bar E (Fig. 1) to stop traffic, proceed to the middle of the bridge. One of them inserts his lever *f* (Fig. 8) in the socket *e*, the other grasps the handle *z* to release the bolt. The first, acting by his lever *f* on the shaft *p*, and thence through the wheel *r* on the shaft *w* (Fig. 7), lifts the end of the girders. The second releases the bolt and swings away the pendulum bearing. The first lifts the end still further, and until it can swing clear. The second now takes the other lever  $\lambda$  (Fig. 8), puts the friction wheel *g*<sub>1</sub> into gear with *i*<sub>1</sub>—for opening the bridge—and depresses the upright shaft *p*. The bridge is now free to move. The motors are started and turn the hollow shaft *i*, Fig. 10, through the friction wheel *i*<sub>1</sub>. On the outer end of this shaft is the wheel *i*<sub>2</sub>, which, through a train of wheels, actuates the shaft *m* (Fig. 8), and the wheel *m*<sub>2</sub> on this shaft gears into the large wheel *n*<sub>3</sub>, fixed to the underside of the main girders, and so turns the bridge. As the motors are made to revolve one way or other, so the bridge turns to the right or left. When it has moved through 180 deg. and has stopped, the motors are placed by the valve gear in the middle position, and the bolt *y* (Fig. 7) is run into its socket by means of the handle *z*, thus precisely fixing the position of the bridge, which has already been fixed approximately by the buffer gear; and the pendulum bearings are then swung down against their bearings. The second bridgeman then adjusts the motors for lifting the ends of the girders, and the first then lifts them, by manipulating the lever until they are at their highest point. The pendulum bearing can now be swung fairly into place, and the ends of the girders are then lowered, so that the bridge rests on its bearing. The bridgeman then puts in a catch to hold the levers in their mid-position, takes away the lever *f* and handle *z*, and returns to the ends of the bridge to throw up the bar E, and admit the traffic.

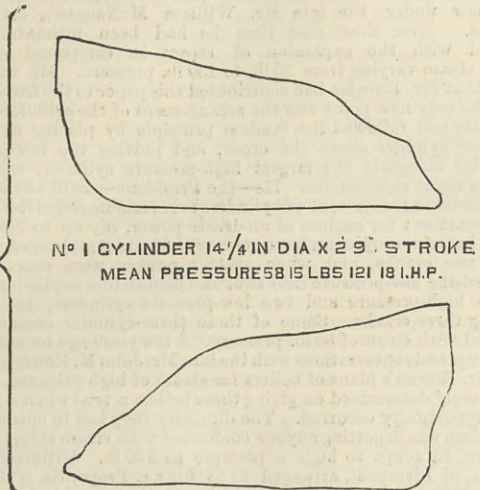
The working of the bridge by hand is arranged either for two men or four. The setting up gear for the end girders is counterweighted, and as this is connected with the rest, the power required is so small as to enable the same mechanism to be applicable for hand or hydraulic power. The hand gear for setting up—which is not shown in the drawings—is worked by handspikes turning

COMPOUND ENGINES OF THE S.S. CLAREMONT.

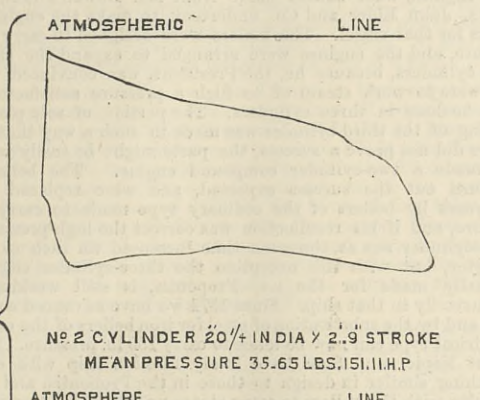
MESSRS. DOUGLAS AND GRANT, KIRCALDY, ENGINEERS.

(For description see page 84.)

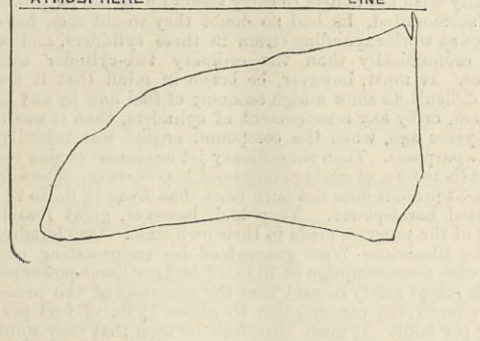
DIAGRAMS TAKEN FROM 3 CYLINDER COMPOUND ENGINE OF THE  
S.S. CLAREMONT TOTAL I.H.P. 445.18  
79 REVOLUTIONS PER MIN



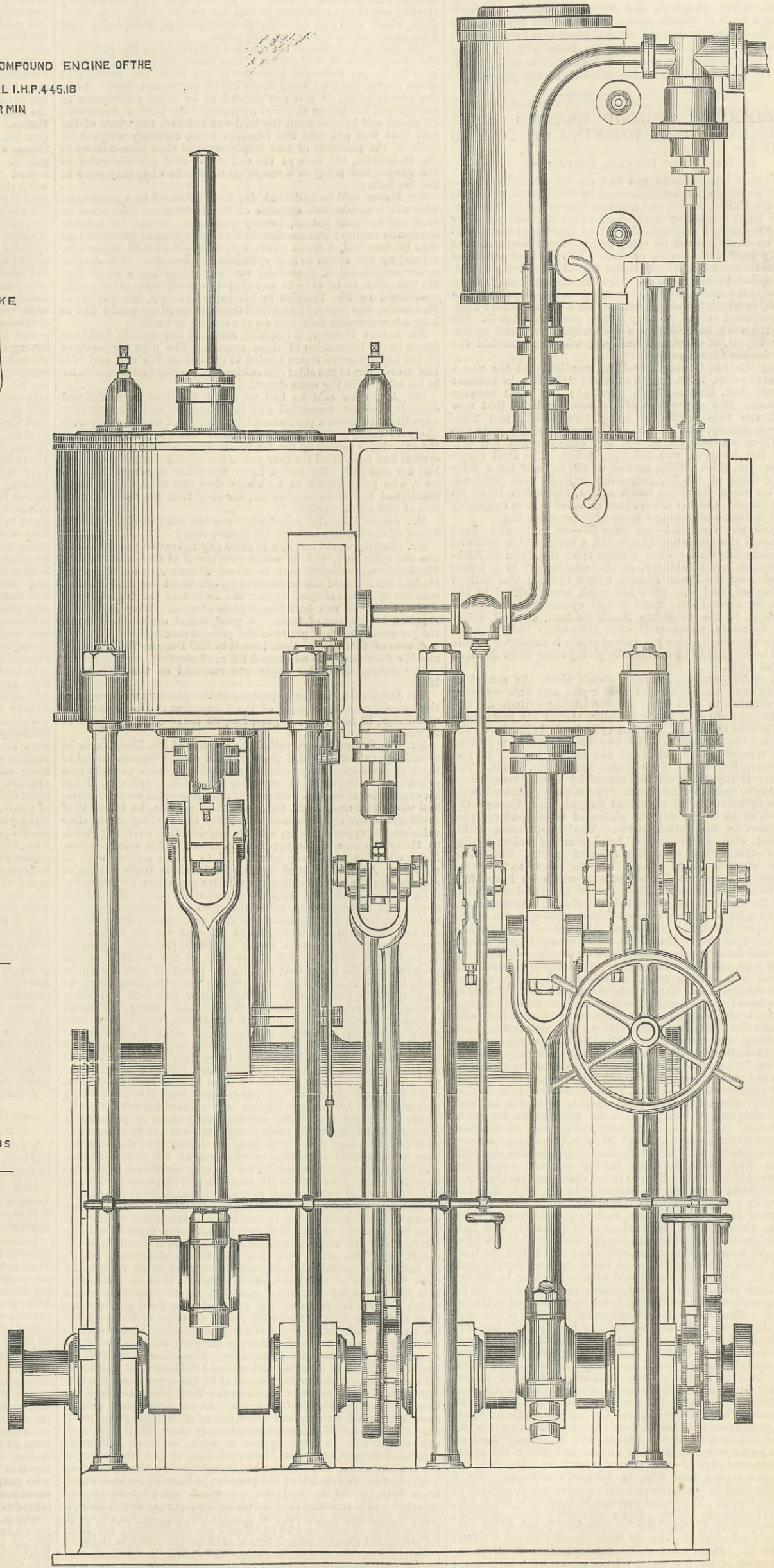
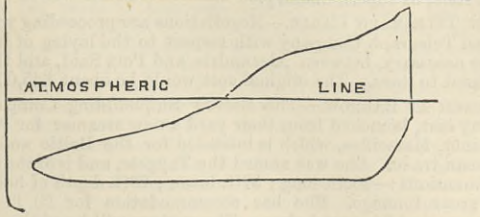
NO 1 CYLINDER 14 1/4 IN DIA X 2 9" STROKE  
MEAN PRESSURE 58.15 LBS 121.18 I.H.P.



NO 2 CYLINDER 20 1/4 IN DIA X 2 9" STROKE  
MEAN PRESSURE 35.65 LBS 151.11 I.H.P.



ATMOSPHERIC LINE  
ATMOSPHERIC LINE  
NO 3 CYLINDER 40 IN DIA X 2 9" STROKE  
MEAN PRESSURE 10.45 LBS VACUUM 15.5 LBS  
ATMOSPHERIC 172.9 I.H.P. LINE







THE NIEDERBAUM SWING BRIDGE, HAMBURG.

(For description see page 82.)

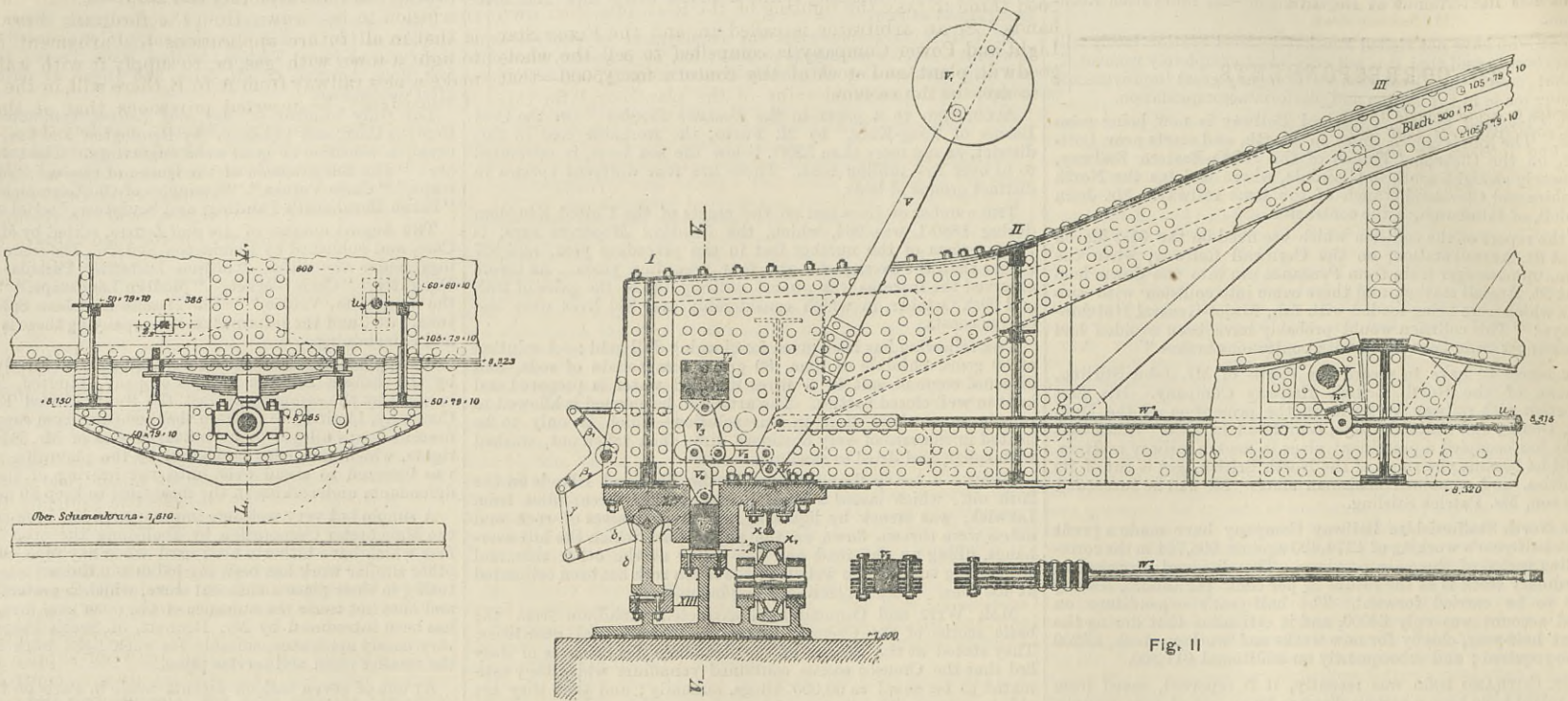
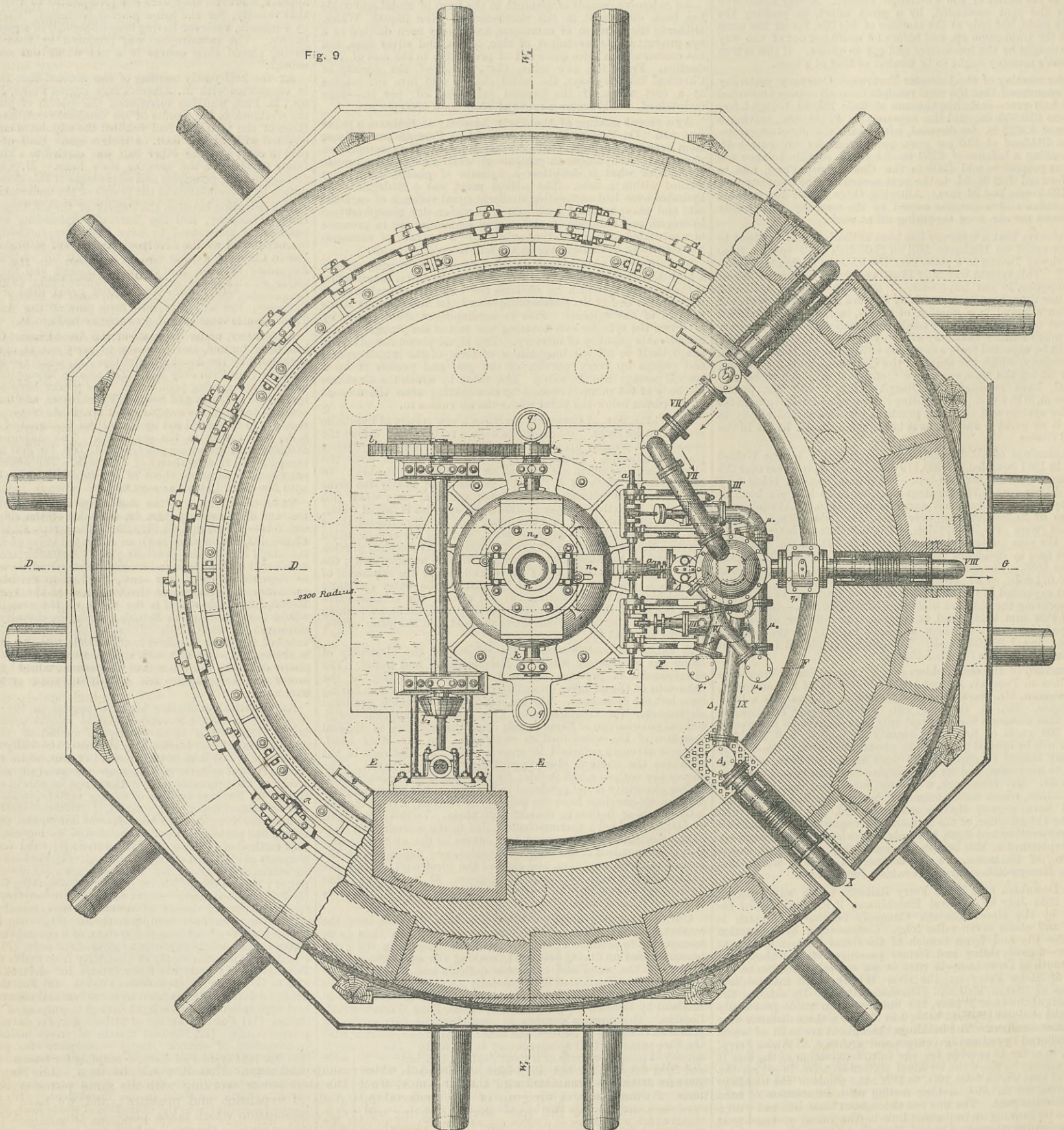


Fig. 9

Fig. II







To be consistent, the advocates of the compound system must admit that the transfer of heat will take place in the ratio of the range of temperature. We shall not be far wrong if we assume that the weight of metal heated and cooled will vary as the surface. We may then make the following calculation:—Let the weight of the single cylinder of a simple engine, or the large cylinder of a compound engine be 1000. If we multiply this by the range of temperature in the single engine, viz., 208 deg., we have as a co-efficient of condensation 208,000. If we deal with it in the same way, regarding it as the low-pressure cylinder of a compound engine, we have 120,000. To this must be added, for the high-pressure cylinder,  $333 \times 116 = 38,628$ , giving as a total 158,628, which, deducted from 208,000, leaves a balance of 49,372 in favour of the compound engine, or about 23 per cent. This is not very much, but even with this the compound engine cannot be credited, because it is well known that owing to the fall in pressure between the two engines, there is a gap in the diagrams which represents loss of power. For this reason the low-pressure cylinder of a compound engine must be made larger for any given power than would suffice if it were used alone as a single engine. Furthermore, we have said nothing about the continuously varying temperature in the intermediate receiver, nor have we taken into account the extra dimensions and surfaces of ports and passages. Including all these things it will be found, we think, that, as we have said, the saving in condensation due to the use of two cylinders is mythical, and of course we have to set against it, even if it existed, multiplication of parts and additional friction. We have over and over again pointed out that the modern marine engine is popular and is excellent, because it gives more regular turning than any single engine could, or even any two-cylindered non-compound engine; and that it is not more complex than an ordinary pair of engines, while the overwhelming argument in its favour is that it allows high pressures and measures of expansion to be used without the complex valve gear which would be indispensable if a single engine were employed. Let us speak well of the compound engine, especially for marine work, but let us form a rational appreciation of its merits, and praise it for what it has, and not for that which it has not.

Now let us see what Mr. Longridge has to say on this subject, and let it be borne in mind that he brings to bear not his own experience only, but that of other engineers. Mr. Longridge has combined in a convenient table the results of a large number of experiments carried out in this country by himself, and quite independently by the Société Industrielle de Mulhouse, which appointed a committee under M. Hallauer to report on certain engines in the district. The table goes to show that there is not a pin to choose between the compound and non-compound engine in the matter of economy of fuel. The general conclusions proved by the experiments quoted are (1) that for each class of engine there is a certain ratio of expansion which gives the best result; (2) that the limits within which the ratio of expansion may be varied without materially affecting the economy differ with the relative proportions adopted for the cylinders; (3) that steam-jacketted single-cylinder engines give practically as good results as compound. Now these are just the very truths which we have been pointing out for years. "The question of simple *versus* compound engines," says Mr. Longridge, "is still a matter of controversy, owing to the absence of any reliable data for forming an opinion. . . . At pressures varying from 40 lb. to 65 lb. above the atmosphere the experiments show that the results are practically as good with a simple as with a compound engine," precisely what we have urged on our readers for years. The true test of the economy of an engine is the weight of water used per horse per hour. In the case of a single-cylinder Corliss engine, Hallauer found the best result to be 17.58 lb. of feed-water per indicated horse-power per hour. A single-cylinder unjacketted engine required 22.28 lb., but when the steam was superheated to 419 deg. the consumption fell to 15.65 lb. The best result obtained with a Woolf engine, steam jacketted, was 18.58 lb., so that the single-cylinder Corliss was the more economical of the two. A compound horizontal engine tested by Mr. Longridge, unjacketted, used 16.81 lb. The best result got by Hallauer with compound jacketted horizontals working cranks at right angles was 16.44 lb.; and it is worth notice that a similar engine unjacketted used but 16.86 lb. of feed-water per horse per hour. With another compound Mr. Longridge got down to 16.26 lb.; but with a Woolf beam engine jacketted the best result M. Hallauer got was 17.99 lb. Mr. Longridge draws instructive comments from such figures. "Isolated experiments," writes Mr. Longridge, "unless they form part of a series are delusive. Compare, for instance, the compound engine, No. 29, with the simple engine, No. 2, both steam jacketted; the simple engine has the advantage by 43 per cent. Compare, again the simple engine No. 4 with the compound No. 15, both unjacketted; the compound beats the simple by 32 per cent. In making a comparison the initial pressures ought to be the same, and each engine should be worked with the best ratio of expansion. Let us see what the figures tell us when compared in this way. Take first the lower pressures, and compare No. 5 unjacketted simple engine with No. 12 jacketted compound; the consumption per indicated horse-power per hour differs by 1.22 lb., or 6.5 per cent. If the simple engine had been jacketted, and the consumption per horse-power developed at the brake compared, the difference would have been considerably less, and might have vanished altogether." It must be carefully borne in mind that we are not dealing here with theories, or assumptions, or deductions from mathematical formulae, but with hard facts; and we feel some pleasure in reproducing such facts, because they support views the soundness of which has been keenly disputed by many who permitted prejudice to blind them to the truth.

The diagrams which Mr. Longridge publishes are many of them so remarkable that they appear at first sight to be fancy sketches. Nor is our wonder at these diagrams greater than our amazement at the ignorance which has

led to their production. It is indeed almost incredible that engineers should exist to construct and manufacturers use engines with the defects revealed by the indicator. In one case the company was called in to examine a new engine which could make only 42 revolutions per minute although put down to make 50. The slide valve had been altered several times without effect. The indicator showed a rise in the back pressure to an enormous extent near the middle of the stroke, and it was found on examination that the slide valve had a travel of 8 $\frac{1}{2}$  in., while the exhaust port was only 2 in. wide, and the bar between it and the steam port only 1 $\frac{1}{2}$  in. The result was that the valve entirely closed the exhaust port during a portion of the stroke. The travel was reduced to 4 $\frac{1}{2}$  in. and the lap of the valve shortened, when the engine worked very well. This was a small tandem compound, the cylinders being 11 in. and 24 in. diameter, by 48 in. stroke. It can hardly be credited that any engineer, capable of building an engine at all, should make such a mistake. But Mr. Longridge mentions a worse case than this. An engine, intended to develop 350 indicated horse-power, could hardly be got to turn round. On examining the valves, they were found to have 3 $\frac{1}{2}$  in. lap on the exhaust edge. This was reduced to 3 in., and the engine then worked, but not well. The ports were found to be too small. But what shall we say of the man who designed the condenser? The air-pump was horizontal, double-acting, the bucket being worked by a prolongation of the piston-rod. Unfortunately, it was placed above the level of the condenser and above the level of the exhaust pipe, so that, before water could enter the pump at all, both the condenser and the exhaust pipe must be filled with water, and the outlet from the cylinder sealed. Comment seems to be superfluous. It would be impossible to do adequate justice to the genius of the man who planned this engine. The extended circulation of Mr. Longridge's report may, perhaps, reduce the chance of such blunders being made in future.

#### RECENT ACCIDENTS ON THE GREAT NORTHERN AND GREAT EASTERN RAILWAYS.

The accident on the Great Eastern Railway, which occurred to the down express train near Ely on Friday evening, the 28th ult., and to which we have more fully referred in another page, arose from a curious cause, and affords another illustration of those emergencies which may at any time arise, and how they may best be met. It seems that when the up express to London, due at Cambridge at 6.57 p.m., was about to pass the down express about three miles from Ely, the balance weight on the arms of the weigh-bar shaft fell off, and rolled in front of the advancing down train, which was travelling at a speed of over fifty miles an hour, and the engine left the rails, and after running about 100 yards, turned quietly over into the ditch upon the same side of the line. Fortunately the train was fitted throughout with the Westinghouse automatic brake, which had at once been applied by the driver. No one was killed, though several passengers received serious injuries, the only wonder being that the result was not more severe. The front carriages do not appear to have left the line until the engine turned into the ditch, and the rear part of the train was brought to a stand upon the rails. This accident furnishes another instance of what we have for years insisted on, viz., the value of an automatic brake, for though in this instance the brake was not self-applied, it remained hard on after the engine had separated from the carriages, and thus the rear part of the train was prevented from overrunning the front. Colonel Yolland's report on the accident at Werrington Junction on the Great Northern Railway on the 26th June last has just been issued, and a comparison of the circumstances attending this accident with those of the one mentioned above will be instructive. In this case the engine of the 6.30 p.m. express from York to London broke a side rod; the train was fitted throughout with the Smith vacuum brake, and the broken rod appears to have struck a portion of the engine brake work, which, being thrown under the tender, caused it to leave the rails and break away from the engine. The latter, entirely bereft of a brake, ran on for very nearly a mile, taking with it of course the power for working the brakes on the train. The tender and the remainder of the train came to a stand, having run 470 yards from the first indication of anything being wrong. All the carriages were off the rails, and some were lying on their sides. Colonel Yolland says he "was not able to obtain any distinct evidence whether the opening of the valve of the brake by the engine driver had the effect of putting on any of the brakes of the train or not," but he does not go on to say that even if they had been applied it could only have been for a moment, and that they must all at once have been released when the engine separated from the tender. It is instructive to learn too that although "the whole of the vehicles remained coupled to each other and to the tender in front," nevertheless "the vacuum brake gear was more or less damaged throughout the train." A list of the damage to the train is given in an appendix to Colonel Yolland's report, and from this it appears that the vacuum pipes were broken on almost every vehicle. What we mean to point out is that, although the carriages may not separate in an accident, they have practically separated, so far as the brakes are concerned, when the pipes are injured, and, if non-automatic, the brakes are released; if automatic, they remain on, as illustrated by the accident on the Great Eastern Railway. The contrast between a train running 470 yards all off the rails, and another being pulled up in 100 yards on the rails is sufficiently striking. Had the circumstances been reversed, and the Great Northern engine, instead of running away for a mile, been turned into a ditch at the end of 100 yards, the consequences must have been of the most fatal character.

#### THE GREAT EASTERN STORAGE AND REFRIGERATING COMPANY.

For some time past the Great Eastern Railway Company has been carrying out works which are perhaps without a parallel in any part of the United Kingdom. We refer to the conversion of the area below the old terminus at Shoreditch into a meat, fish, fruit, and vegetable depôt. In the midst of a densely populated district, the establishment of such increased facilities for the disposal and distribution of provisions cannot fail to be of immense importance to the metropolis. Already about one-third of the total fish supply is conveyed over the lines of the Great Eastern Railway Company, and it is expected that so soon as the depôt is fully opened, which it will be in a very short time, a great impetus will be given to the fish traffic from the North-Eastern Counties, especially on the completion of the joint lines with the Great Northern Company in the neighbour-

hood of Spalding. A very important feature in connection with this depôt will be the establishment of large cold dry-air storage chambers by the Great Eastern Storage and Refrigerating Company. This company has leased two of the largest arches near to Wheeler-street and Bethnal Green-road, the cellars of which are to be immediately fitted up for the preservation of all sorts of meats, fish, fruit, vegetables, and dairy produce by the cold dry-air process. There will be eight large chambers, insulated with a new material, by which a saving of nearly 6000 cubic feet of space will be effected over what would have been available with the non-conducting substances generally in use. Two dry air refrigerators, together capable of cooling 100,000 cubic feet of air per hour, are to be erected at first, and these are to be driven by a pair of double-cylinder gas engines, indicating nearly 200-horse power, which will be specially constructed by Messrs. Crossley Bros., of Manchester. The company proposes to receive and store fresh meats from all comers, and either to sell to wholesale buyers on the spot, or to deliver to the metropolitan market or other centres of consumption certain quantities daily as required, so as not to overstock the market, thus acting as an insurance against loss to those using the stores. The company will also act as consignees and agents, when required, at inclusive rates, and will take in and dispose of produce, whether from America, Canada, Australia, or the home counties. The whole of the work is to be carried out from the plans and under the superintendence of Mr. T. B. Lightfoot, M. Inst. C.E., the consulting engineer to the company.

#### FRENCH STEAMERS AND BOUNTIES.

It had been expected that the effect of the adoption by France of the bounty system would have been a very great development of the shipping industry; and this impression was apparently confirmed by the orders that were given from France to British shipbuilders. But it turns out that many of these orders are for fleets of vessels which are subventioned, and do not therefore receive the bounty. The Messageries Maritimes has at the present time not fewer than five large and costly vessels so being built, and others of the companies receiving State subventions have such contracts, so that the number of the shipowners who would be entitled to receive the bounty must be much less than had been expected. The accounts of two of the great lines of France show that during the past year there has been—without the bounty—a tolerably good profit on the working. The Messageries Maritimes divide seven per cent. amongst its shareholders, after having added to the reserve fund and provided out of revenue for the partial redemption of debentures; and the dividend of one other company is the same. Both are likely largely to increase their fleets; and in the report of one it is stated that the directors are hopeful that the mail contracts that expire in a year or two will be renewed, but if not "the navigation bounty, which is not allowed to subventioned mail lines, with the savings that would be effected from the charges imposed by the mail contracts, would be a very appreciable substitute for the loss of the subsidies." It is now beginning to be shown that the bounty will be of less effect in increasing the tonnage of the country than had been expected, because it will be of less benefit to the individual vessel, seeing that so many of them are not native built, whilst in the aggregate its cost to the country will be not small, and it will add to the extraordinary financial burden that the French ratepayer is now growing restive under; and even then it will be doubtful whether it would enable the bounty-aided vessels to compete with those of this country, which are built cheaply, and worked without the conditions that the bounty system exacts from those in France who apply for it.

#### EXHIBITION OF LIFE-SAVING APPLIANCES.—ALEXANDRA PALACE.

##### NO. II.

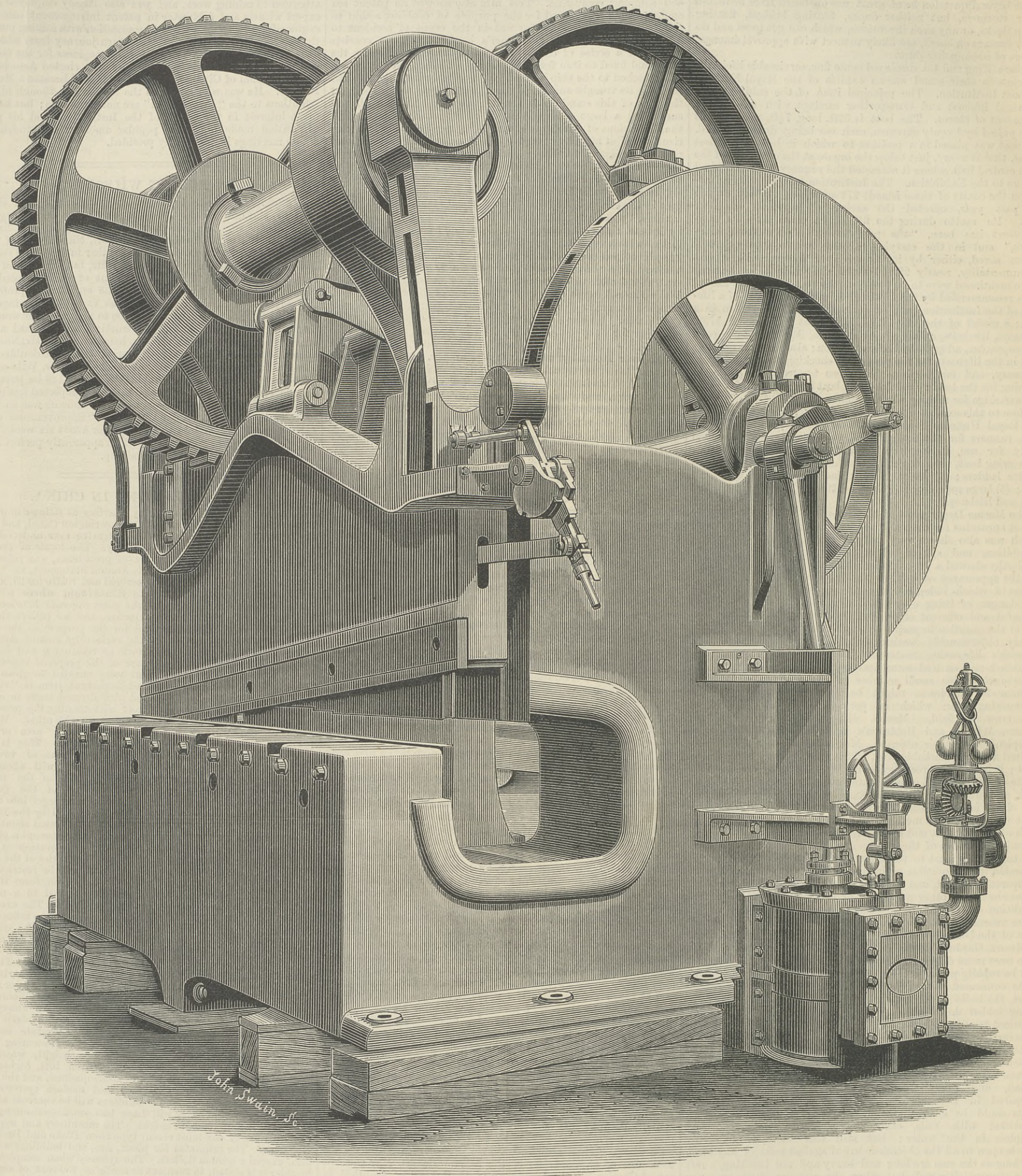
In last week's impression of *THE ENGINEER* mention was made of a few of the more important exhibits in the first section of the Exhibition, and we have now to briefly notice the other classes. In Class 2 were found many inventions and appliances for the saving of life in "marine emergencies," and under the heading of this section some eighty more or less ingenious inventions were exhibited. The first exhibit we came to, if endeavouring to work by the catalogue, was No. 44, Marr's automatic life raft, an elaborate apparatus for the saving of life in the event of shipwreck. The raft is composed of a number of waterproof tubes placed side by side, and inclosed by a light framework of hinged flanges; a system of thin cordage is arranged underneath the framework, and there is a deck of canvas above the tubes. The tubes are at low pressures impervious to the water, but by means of what Mr. Marr calls "breathers," or spaces on their surface, allowance is made for the admission of air. In the model exhibited there are eighty-two such tubes, and each of these has from sixteen to thirty-two such means of access for the air. When the raft is stowed on board, the tubes lie flat together, but when it reaches the water, being merely cut adrift, the wetted cords contract, and so open out the framework and the tubes, which latter inspire the air through the breathers, and the raft having greatly increased its dimensions, is ready for use. There can be no doubt that all river or coasting steamers should be provided with some simple and efficient means of saving life such as this raft, which seems to require no preparation, save only the mere cutting adrift; but as we have not seen it at work, we cannot say what it could do in practice. The next exhibit, good in its way, but hardly capable of being squeezed in under the head of life-saving appliances for marine emergencies, was No. 36, Gandy's improved belts or bands for steam engines. Mr. Sutherland came next with his scheme for providing ships with a floating saloon deck, which, in the event of a vessel sinking, would remain on the surface of the water, and in the form of a raft be capable of saving many lives. Buoyancy is obtained by making the floating deck double, the interval between the planking being filled with cork. The best invention of this kind which has been brought before the public recently was that of Captain Fewster, which was shown at the Naval and Submarine Exhibition in April. Instead of constructing the life-saving part of his ship in the form of a raft, which must be under all possible circumstances very imperfect, unsafe, and miserably uncomfortable, Captain Fewster gave it the form of a boat, which took up but little room on board the ship, and in the event of a catastrophe, being provided with mast, sail, rudder, &c., this little ship, which was called the Duck, could be sailed to land or until succour came. Contrivances of this kind, however, are by no means to be advocated, and it is open to serious question whether in the case of wreck they would not do more harm than good. It is a very poor criterion of the utility of such inventions to show them doing their duty, on a very small scale, in very smooth water, in a tank. To be of any practical use these inventions must be so designed as to be ready for duty at a moment's notice, and for this reason they must not be lashed into their berths on board ship. But all practical sailors, and many landmen who have been to sea, know the inadvisability



## ELEVEN-FEET SHEARING MACHINE.

MESSRS. JOSHUA BUCKTON AND CO., LEEDS, ENGINEERS.

(For description see page 79.)



## THE CRYSTAL PALACE INTERNATIONAL ELECTRIC EXHIBITION, 1882.

THE jurors have awarded prizes to the exhibitors at the recent Crystal Palace Exhibition. Diplomas of honour for the general excellence of their exhibits have been awarded to exhibitors not competing for trade motives, viz., her Majesty's Postmaster-General, the Secretary for War, the Anglo-American Telegraph Company, the Eastern Telegraph Company, the Telegraph Construction and Maintenance Company, the Submarine Telegraph Company, the South-Eastern Railway, the London, Brighton, and South Coast Railway, C. F. Varley, for his induction machine and condensers; R. H. Froude, for dynamometer.

Gold medals have been awarded to Messrs. J. R. Voss, for induction machine; Elkington and Co., for their deposition of gold alloys and general excellence; H. Wiggin and Co., improvements in electro deposition of nickel and cobalt; the Faure Electric Accumulator Company, for Faure battery; T. A. Edison, for complete system of lighting and other exhibits; British Electric Light Company, for Gramme dynamo machine and exhibit; R. E. Crompton, for Bürgin dynamo machine and Crompton arc lamp; Anglo-American Brush Company, for Brush dynamo machine and arc lamp; Swan's Electric Light Company, for incandescent lamp; Electric Light and Power Generator Company, for Weston and Maxim dynamo machines and lamps; White House Mills, for dynamo machine; Rowatt and Fyfe, for Pilsen arc and Joel semi-incandescent lamps; G. G. André, for arc lamp and

regulator; Gerard and Co., for arc lamp; Davey, Paxman, and Co., for steam engines; Galloway and Sons, for steam engines; Marshall and Co., for steam engines; Robey and Co., for steam engines; Ransomes, Head, and Jefferies, for steam engines; Hornsby and Son, for steam engines; E. S. Hindley, for steam engines; Crossley Brothers, for Otto gas engine; Thomson, Sterne, and Co., for Clerk's gas engine; Roos and Ostrogovich, for their application of the automatic system to Hughes' type-printing apparatus; Johnson and Phillips, for the general excellence of their exhibits; Direct United States Cable Company, for the excellence of their exhibits; Edward B. Bright, for his fire alarm system; the Exchange Telegraph Company, for the general excellence of their exhibits; Prof. Dolbear, for his new electrostatic telephone.

Silver medals have been awarded to Messrs. Coxeter and Sons, Class X.; W. Elmore, Class XI.; United Asbestos Company, Class XII.; J. and H. Gwynne, for steam engines; Fyfe and Main, for arc lamp; National Electric Light Company, for dynamo machine and lamps; Gravier and Co., for arc lamp and exhibit; R. Hodson, for steam engines; Hammond Electric Light Company, for installation of Brush machines and lamps; A. Cance, for arc lamp; Domestic Electric Lighting Company, for the general exhibit; Electric Lighting Supply Company, Electric Lighting Engineering Company, Strode and Co., W. Ladd and Co., for the early historical dynamo machine; W. J. Hammer, for historical collection of incandescent lamps; W. T. Henley, for his cable core; W. R. Sykes, for his electric locking and blocking system of railway signals; the Consolidated Telephone Construc-

tion and Maintenance Company, for the general excellence of their exhibits; Saxby and Farmer, for their railway signals; R. Johnson and Nephew, for their iron wire exhibit; F. Smith and Co., for their iron wire exhibit; R. S. Newall and Co., for the general excellence of their exhibit; W. T. Glover and Co., for the general excellence of their exhibit; Phillips Brothers, for the general excellence of their exhibit; Professor Monnier, for his detector and analyser of fire-damp; J. W. Gray and Sons, for the excellence of their exhibit; Sanderson and Co., for the excellence of their exhibit. And bronze medals to Messrs. Binko and Co., for their improved agglomerate battery; E. Dent and Co., for their non-magnetising watches; E. Patterson, G. Skrivanoff, for his dry battery; R. Webster, for his non-magnetising watches; Roth, Schlaefli, and Co., for their electric self-winding clocks; J. F. Pratt, Class X.; H. Whiteside Cook, for his electric governor for screw marine engines; Arnold and Sons, Class X.; L. H. Borrell, for electric self-winding remontoire clock; T. R. Brailsford, for water-level indicator; J. Storer, for electrical table fountain; J. Willing, for electrical signs; B. Verity and Sons, for brass work; G. Hawkes and Co., Zanni and Co., E. Müller, E. Blouzon, C. R. Goodwin, Mignon and Co., J. E. Liardet, A. R. Sennett, J. H. Athole Macdonald, Philadelphia Dynamic Company, Alfred Apps, J. E. and S. Spencer, Julius Sax, W. Groves, Doulton and Co., Automatic Telegraph Company, J. Davis and Co., School of Submarine Telegraphy, Electric Railway Signal Company, G. C. Lewis and Son, and Waterlow and Sons.







