

THE INSTITUTION OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERS.

The Institution of Mechanical Engineers met in the Memorial Hall, Albert-square, Manchester, at 3 p.m. on Friday, Mr. P. Westmacott, president, in the chair. There was a very small attendance of members and visitors. After the minutes of the last meeting had been read, the names of new members were announced, and the secretary then read a paper by Mr. John Hayes, of London,

ON THE FROMENTIN AUTOMATIC BOILER FEEDER.

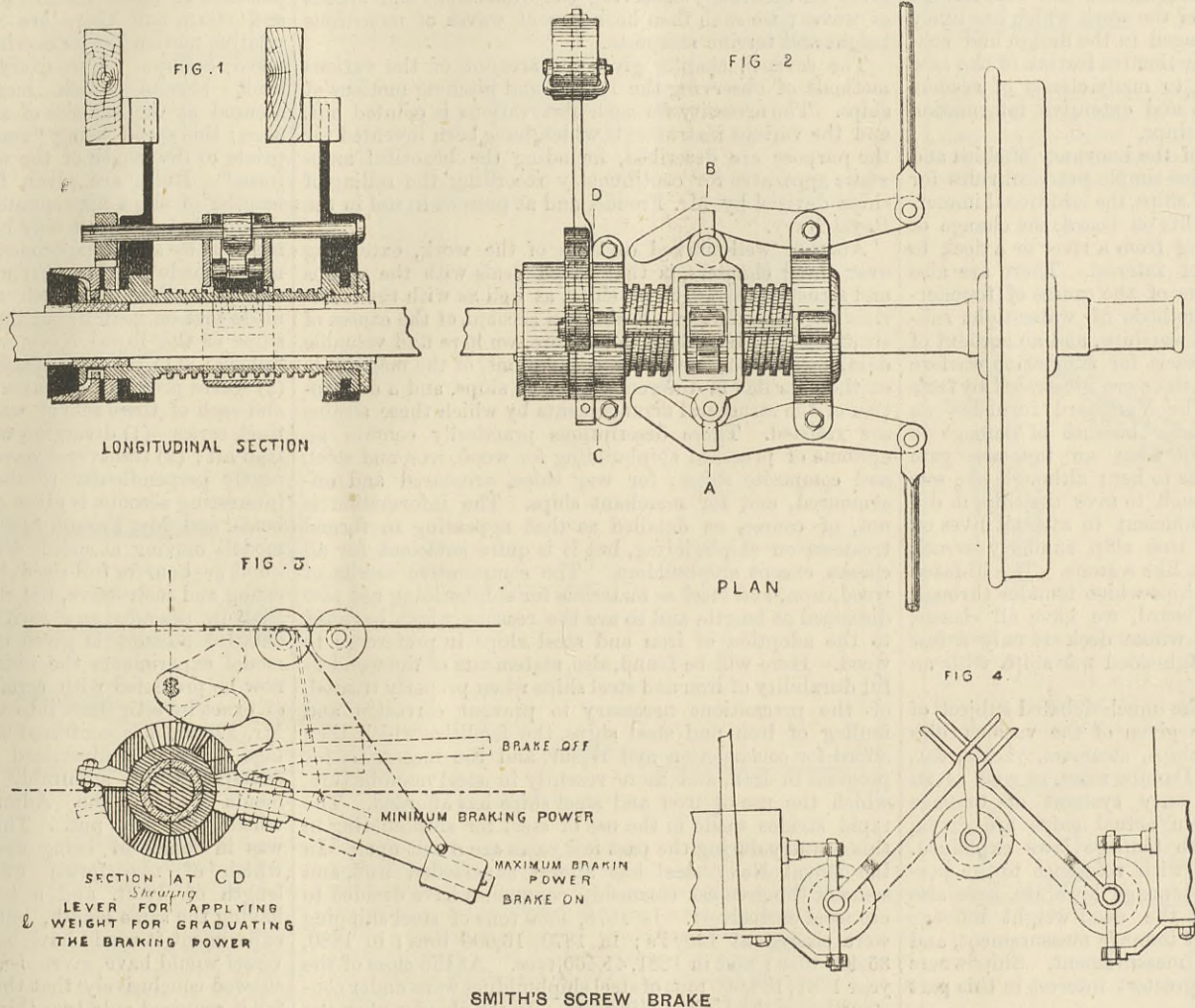
This apparatus has been fully described and illustrated in our impression for July 21st. The paper was very short and fully illustrated by excellent wall diagrams. It will be remembered that the Fromentin apparatus consists of two copper vessels at opposite ends of a kind of balance beam, which vessels are filled alternately with steam and water. As the water rushes into one it overbalances the other, and in its descent it moves a central disc valve, which lets the vessel empty itself into the boiler, and at the same time places the other bottle in a condition to be refilled. The author stated that one of these feeders has now been in constant work at the Chaillot pumping station of the Paris Waterworks since February, 1880, without undergoing any cleaning or repairs; it delivers about 440 gallons per hour, the reversals occurring about every 75 seconds. At Messrs. Bourgin and Co.'s bleach-works at Courbevoie, near Paris, the feed is about 660 gallons per hour, with rockings every 45 to 50 seconds. In London the feeder has now been working under the author's supervision since December last, on the 20-horse boiler; in which the rate of evaporation is so much slower that the reversals generally occur only once every three or four minutes. In the inventor's early trials, the bottles were made of cast iron and consequently much thicker than the copper or wrought iron bottles now used; the condensation of the steam in the bottles was thus rendered very slow, and practically the apparatus would not work until the thinner material now adopted was resorted to.

The discussion which ensued was brief, and of small importance. Mr. Hawthorn Kitson, of Leeds, stated that he had fitted one of these feeders to a boiler, and that it worked perfectly for the fortnight he had it in use. He took it off because he fed his boilers in groups or batteries, and the boilers driven by heating furnaces were liable to have great variations of pressure in them, and the Fromentin apparatus would not work well under these conditions, as the boilers with the lowest pressure got all the feed. Mr. Kitson startled his hearers by stating that in the case of one battery of four boilers, each about 14ft. long and with a 2ft. 6in. flue through it, although all four boilers were connected by a 5in. steam pipe, yet he found the pressure to vary as much as 6 lb., the highest being 52 lb. and the lowest 46 lb. He had tested the pressure with a standard gauge, so that he could vouch for the truth of his statement. Mr. W. Anderson, of Erith, stated that he had had an experience of two months with the apparatus, which was perfectly satisfactory in its action. It kept the water level accurately right, and would even work a stroke or two now and then at night in ghostly sort of fashion; but he had some doubt as to whether an automatic feeder was the proper thing. Mr. J. Head, of Middlesbrough, spoke at some little length on the whole question of boiler feeding, pointing out that the working of the donkey was a good indication of the condition of the boiler, as when that was clean more fuel was used than when it was dirty. Mr. Paget, of Loughborough, did not think it was right to depreciate pumps and injectors, as they worked very well. He was afraid that there would be a good deal of leakage about the disc valve, and it was worth notice that thin vessels must be used, which meant loss of heat and want of economy. Mr. Cochrane objected to all automatic gear, as liable to lull a stoker into a condition of insecurity, and cited the case of a balloon boiler fitted with a float automatic feed of the James Watt type, the pressure being only 8 lb. on the inch. This float worked well for thirty years, but it stuck at last, and there was a narrow escape. We think Mr. Cochrane really bore unconscious tribute of the highest kind to self-acting arrangements, or at all events, to one; for a single failure in thirty years comes under the class of exceptions which prove a rule. Mr. Hayes replied generally and effectively on the whole discussion, and the secretary then read a paper by Mr. W. Parker Smith, of London,

ON THE AUTOMATIC SCREW BRAKE.

This very ingenious brake was described by the author. The apparatus consists essentially (1) of a screwed metal sleeve—Figs. 1 and 2—loosely encircling an axle of the coach, from which, by means of a coned friction

clutch, it may be rotated when desired; (2) of a part-nut contained in a cast iron box, which, by means of a cam—Fig. 3—may be raised and lowered, so as to engage with and be disengaged from the screwed sleeve. A lever performs by its descent and ascent the double duty of engaging and disengaging the part-nut, and also, when in its lowest position, acts as a lever for wedging together the surfaces of the coned friction clutch. The action of the apparatus is as follows: If the lever is held up in its highest position, as shown in dotted lines on the section—Fig. 3—the part-nut is held up clear of the screwed sleeve, and the surfaces of the coned clutch are not in contact. If the lever is permitted to descend, in obedience to its weight, to its lowest position, shown in full lines on the diagram, the part-nut becomes engaged with the screwed sleeve, and the surfaces of the cone clutch are taken into contact by the wedging action of the lever. Any downward pressure applied to the lever in this position results in the screwed sleeve revolving, and the part-nut being carried to the right or to the left of its central position—according to the direction in which the axle is revolving. It will be seen by the plan, Fig. 2, that a movement in either direction will cause the ends A B of the two brake rods to move inwards, and so bring the blocks against the wheels. For the purpose of obtaining downward pressure on the lever, and for graduating the friction between the surfaces of the friction cones, there is mounted loosely on the lever a sliding



SMITH'S SCREW BRAKE

weight of about 10 lb., Fig. 3. The lower the weight is permitted to slide down the lever the greater will be the friction produced between the surfaces of the cones; and as the power which the screwed sleeve is capable of exerting on the part-nut is governed by the amount of grip in the cones, it follows that by varying the position of the weight on the lever, more or less braking power may be obtained. As soon as the desired braking power is attained, the pressure is relieved from the friction cones by lifting the weight on the lever; the screwed sleeve then ceases to revolve, but the nut still retains its position, and the brakes remain on. To take the brakes off, the lever must be lifted to its highest or dotted position—Fig. 3—thus lifting the part-nut altogether away from the thread. By levers and weights throughout a train may be controlled by a series of spindles with universal joints between coaches; or by having longitudinal rods under the coaches, joined together between them by chain, as shown in Fig. 4. Pulleys are swivelled in brackets fixed to the buffer beams as shown. One pulley hangs in a stirrup which interlaces with forks formed at the ends of links. The chain is fastened together by two open links. It will be seen that this arrangement permits of the vehicles being turned end to end; and any alteration in their distance apart, due to compression of buffers or extension of draw-bars, does not practically produce any movement in the continuous connection.

No adequate discussion followed. Mr. Ramsbottom held that the brake would not answer because it would get out of condition when the carriages were put by, and the dust under long trains would act prejudicially. Mr. Tomlinson, of the Metropolitan Railway, said that after a battle of ten years they had not got the brake yet. His trains stopped twenty-two times an hour, and he feared that such incessant work would tell on Mr. Smith's brake. The great objection to it seemed to be that all the brakes would not go on equally hard at the same time, and this would cause jerking in the train. Mr. Davey, of Leeds, explained that on the Liskeard and Caradon Railway, where the brake was tried, there were few trains and the speed was slow, so that the test was not sufficiently severe. Captain Fairholm explained that he had got rid of all trouble with the Heberlein brake by making the friction wheels of cast steel, which would not wear out, and

acquired a surface as bright as silver. After a few words from Mr. Crampton, Mr. Smith replied, giving such explanations as were asked for.

A paper by Mr. Waldemer Bergh, of London, was then read on

A CENTRIFUGAL SEPARATOR FOR LIQUIDS OF DIFFERENT SPECIFIC GRAVITY.

This was a description of the Laval cream separator, already illustrated and described in our impression for July 7th. The author sketched the history of the machine, saying that the first attempt in this direction was made about twenty years ago in Germany. A disc about 4ft. diameter was made to rotate horizontally at a high speed. Round the rim of this disc were fixed strong iron hooks, on which buckets filled with milk were hung. After, say, twenty minutes' rotation, the heavier portion of the milk—or the skim milk—was forced to the bottom of the buckets, leaving the cream on the top. The disc was then stopped very gradually so as not to disturb the cream which was floating on the milk. When the disc was brought to a standstill, the cream was skimmed off by a spoon in the ordinary way. The next machine constructed was a great improvement on the first. This was a cylinder, the top of which was partially covered, leaving only a hole in the centre. After the milk had been passed into the cylinder, the latter was made to rotate at a high speed; the milk was thus thrown to the sides, leaving a cylinder of cream in the centre. When the separation was considered complete, the machine was again stopped very carefully, and the cream which was left floating on the milk was skimmed off. It will be seen from this description that the separation of cream from milk could easily be effected, but no arrangement for drawing off the cream mechanically was used until some six years ago. A cylinder very nearly of the same construction as the last described was then employed, having on the top a rim extending inwards 4in. or 5in. By the rotation of the cylinder the separation was produced as before. When the cream was formed, skimmed milk was passed into the machine, which, taking its place behind the cream, pressed the latter up and over the edge of the cylinder, where it was collected in a cylindrical receptacle round the machine. When the cream was drawn off the feed was stopped, and the cylinder emptied by means of a cock in the bottom. Subsequently Mr. De Laval brought out his invention of a tube fixed to the neck of the cylinder, and leading to the outside, so as to draw off the skim milk as shown on the diagram. It will readily be

understood that this machine, with some slight alterations, can be made to separate a great variety of fluids, as, for instance, in the purifying of oils, &c. An experiment was made some time ago at the Birmingham Gasworks with coal tar. The tar was taken direct from the converters, strained—so as to take away the grains of coal left in it—and then passed through a machine only constructed for separating milk. In an instant the clear ammonia liquor was flowing out of the one spout and the purest tar out of the other spout. Again, in one factory in Norway the machine is already in practical use for the purifying of fish oil.

The action of the separator was shown by a model, which worked very well. The desultory conversation which ensued is not worth reproducing, save so far as regards a suggestion thrown out by Mr. Davey, of Leeds, to the effect that the machine might possibly be used as an ore separator for dealing with slimes in tin mining. This terminated the business of the meeting.

LITERATURE.

A Manual of Naval Architecture. By W. H. WHITE, Chief Constructor Royal Navy, &c. London: John Murray. 1882.

TREATISES on the theory of naval architecture have usually been written in a style which has rendered them almost unreadable by persons who have not received a thorough mathematical education, and as a consequence they have been of service only to those who have desired to qualify themselves as naval architects. There are, however, numerous classes besides these who are interested in shipping and ship construction, and desirous of obtaining a general acquaintance with the principles of naval architecture, including the deductions from modern theory, and the results of recent experimental investigation. The naval officer, for example, who spends a large part of his life afloat, and has not usually received a high mathematical training, ought certainly to know something of the structural arrangements, the buoyancy, stability, and other qualities of his ship. This is true both of the Mercantile Marine and of the Royal Navy, but especially true of the latter; and only well-instructed officers can be expected to make the fullest use of the costly and complicated engine of war which the

modern war vessel has now become. The shipowner should understand the principles upon which the construction and proportion of his ships depend, for this knowledge well applied by a keen man of business will go far to secure enhanced efficiency and greater profits. The shipbuilder too often possesses but scant knowledge of the theory of naval architecture, or the principles which should govern ship construction, and has to content himself with perfecting the details of the ship he builds, and fails to note possible improvement of a more general character which the theory indicates. To all of these classes, and to many others in like case, Mr. White's book on naval architecture, the second edition of which is now before us, has come most opportunely, for it contains a comprehensive outline of the accepted theory of naval architecture, written in popular language, with ample illustrations drawn from all classes of ships, and is free from the details of abstruse mathematical investigations.

This work is well deserving of the great success attained by the first edition, and the new edition, in which the various subjects discussed are brought up to date, and much additional matter added, is even more deserving of success. The title page describes it as prepared for the use of officers of the Royal Navy, officers of the Mercantile Marine, shipbuilders, shipowners, and yachtsmen. Mr. White's most sanguine anticipations have been exceeded in the welcome which the first edition received from shipbuilders, naval architects, and engineers; and this has led him to amplify those portions of the work which are likely to be of service to readers engaged in the design and construction of ships. Another distinctive feature of the new edition which will be welcome to many classes of readers consists in the giving of exact and extensive information for various types of merchant ships.

The opening chapter treats of the buoyancy of ships and of cognate subjects. It contains simple practical rules for estimating the displacement of ships, the additional immersion produced by putting weights on board, the change of draught consequent on passing from a river or a dock to the sea, and other matters of interest. There are also rules for freeboard, descriptions of the causes of foundering, details of the various methods of water-tight subdivision used in merchant and warships, and an account of the principles upon which vessels for submarine warfare are constructed. All these sections are illustrated by facts taken from actual ships. The Vanguard furnishes an example of ships which founder because of damage to their skin, and it is shown what an immense gain her water-tight subdivision was to her; although she was not kept afloat by it long enough to save the ship, it did suffice to give an interval sufficient to save all lives on board, whereas an ordinary iron ship similarly struck would have gone to the bottom like a stone. The ill-fated London is an illustration of ships which founder through being swamped. As to freeboard, we have all classes, from the American monitor, whose deck is only a few inches above water, to the high-sided war ships with an upper deck 20ft. above water.

Next follows a chapter on the much-debated subject of tonnage. Full particulars are given of the various rules at present in use for sailing ships, steamers, yachts, &c., including the Suez Canal and Danube rules, as well as an interesting account of the early systems of tonnage measurements. Examples from actual ships are given, and foreign as well as British tonnage laws explained. The several recommendations with reference to the proposed revision of the British tonnage laws are here also discussed. These are chiefly the dead-weight tonnage measurement, the displacement tonnage measurement, and the parallelepipedon tonnage measurement. Shipowners and yachtsmen will have the greatest interest in this part of the book.

The third chapter deals with the statical stability of ships. Statical stability is defined as the effort which a ship makes when held steadily in an inclined position to return towards her natural position of equilibrium—the upright—in which she rests when floating freely. The usual methods of obtaining the metacentre and the metacentre height, as measuring the statical stability for small angles of heel, are clearly explained, and so also are the terms stiffness, crankness, and steadiness, as applied to ships. The mode of constructing metacentric diagrams and the uses of such diagrams, and the construction and uses of curves of stability, are discussed in detail, with numerous illustrations from various classes of merchant ships and warships. The stability of cigar ships and submarine vessels, the effect upon stability of vertical movements of weights and the heeling produced by transverse shift of weights, the effects upon stability of water in the hold and of additions of and removals of weights, the stability of ships partially water-borne, and many other matters are all simply explained so that all may comprehend them.

A further section of the book, made up of three chapters, contains full accounts of the modern theories of the oscillations of ships in still water and among waves, and of the closely allied subject, deep-sea waves. This section is of great importance, and it exhausts the subjects discussed, so far as these subjects can be said at present to be exhausted. Exact knowledge on these branches has been rapidly extended during recent years, mainly by means of the experiments and observation made by the late Mr. Froude, who has done more to advance the modern theories of naval architecture than any other man. The results of Mr. Froude's investigations, which for many years enriched the "Transactions" of the Institution of Naval Architects, are not available to the general public, and even if they were, they are often necessarily so couched in abstruse mathematical language as to be beyond the ken of the general reader; but here in this work these researches are placed before the reader, with the practical deduction to be made from them, in a form in which they can be at once readily understood and made use of. Without producing any of the mathematics involved, the general character of the investigations of the modern theory of the rolling of ships are clearly described and simply illustrated by reference to the phenomena of pendulum oscillations. Then follows a valuable summary of the practical rules which

naval architects now have for their guidance in attempting to design ships that shall be steady and well-behaved, and examples drawn from the performance of actual ships of the verifications which experience has given to deductions from theory. These examples include ships of the most various types—the ironclad frigates and monitors of the Royal Navy, the various classes of unarmoured ships, American low freeboard monitors, Russian circular ironclads, and French war-ships, all find a place, and in the aggregate there is brought together a mass of information respecting the observed behaviour of ships at sea, such as can scarcely be paralleled in any work yet published. The chapter upon deep-sea waves is one of the most interesting parts of the book, appealing as it does to the widest circle of readers, for wave motion has a charm and attraction quite independent of its effect upon the behaviour of ships. The fundamental theory of trochoidal wave motion is fully explained, and the relation between the length of the wave and its speed of advance established. The summary of observations made of the speeds and dimensions of waves is based upon results collected by English and foreign observers in all parts of the world, and is well worthy of attention. The connection between the speed of the wind and the speed of the waves is expressed by a tentative empirical law, and also deserves attention, as does the account of the endeavour made to utilise ocean wave power. Naval officers will do well to study and act upon the rules given for accurately observing the dimensions and speeds of waves; we shall then hear less of waves of monstrous height and terrific steepness.

The seventh chapter gives an account of the various methods of observing the rolling and pitching motions of ships. The necessity for such observations is pointed out, and the various instruments which have been invented for the purpose are described, including the beautiful automatic apparatus for continuously recording the rolling of ships devised by Mr. Froude, and at present in use in the Royal Navy.

Another well-marked division of the work, extending over three chapters, is that which deals with the strains and structural strength of ships, as well as with the materials for shipbuilding. Besides an account of the causes of straining in ships afloat and ashore, we here find valuable data, based upon elaborate calculations, of the magnitude of these strains in different classes of ships, and a description of the structural arrangements by which these strains are resisted. These descriptions practically contain an epitome of practical shipbuilding for wood, iron and steel, and composite ships; for war ships, armoured and unarmoured, and for merchant ships. The information is not, of course, as detailed as that appearing in formal treatises on shipbuilding, but it is quite sufficient for all classes except shipbuilders. The comparative merits of wood, iron, and steel as materials for shipbuilding are also discussed at length, and so are the reasons which have led to the adoption of iron and steel ships in preference to wood. Here will be found, also, statements of the wonderful durability of iron and steel ships when properly treated, of the precautions necessary to prevent corrosion and fouling of iron and steel ships, the facilities which they afford for construction and repair, and the incentives for progress in iron, and more recently in steel manufacture, which the use of iron and steel ships has afforded. The rapid strides made in the use of steel for shipbuilding in this country during the past few years are dwelt upon. In the Royal Navy steel has almost superseded iron, and some of the greatest steamship companies have decided to use steel exclusively. In 1878, 4500 tons of steel shipping were classed as Lloyd's; in 1879, 16,000 tons; in 1880, 35,400 tons; and in 1881, 41,400 tons. At the close of the year 1881, 188,600 tons of steel shipbuilding were under construction in the United Kingdom. In the chapter upon the structural strength of ships, the various systems of framing in use in the Mercantile Marine and in the Royal Navy are described, and the reasons which have led to these are given. The advantages of the longitudinal system of framing over other systems is drawn attention to. Although the transverse system has been so generally adopted in the Mercantile Marine, there are not a few ships in which longitudinal framing occupies the chief place. The Great Eastern is the most notable example, and her structural arrangements—due to the joint labours of the late Mr. I. K. Brunel and Mr. Scott Russell—furnish good evidence of the superiority of the longitudinal system. It is pointed out in a foot-note that from the details given concerning the construction of the Great Western, the Great Britain, and the Great Eastern, in the life of Mr. Brunel, published by his son, at a very early period after the introduction of iron ships Mr. Brunel perceived the great advantages attaching to longitudinal framing.

The treatment of the difficult subjects of resistance and propulsion in this book is of a very special character. The chapter on the resistance of ships is especially worthy of notice, and it will be welcomed as a great boon by the profession, for hitherto there has been no such account on record. Mr. White first glances at the earlier theories, shows what their fallacies were; then passes to the modern or "stream-line" theory, explains its principal features, and finally gives a complete description of the present condition of the question. New light has been thrown on the whole subject during the past few years by the investigations which the late Mr. Froude made under the auspices of the Admiralty. Since his lamented death these investigations are being continued by his son, Mr. R. E. Froude, who was always associated with his father in connection with these investigations, and who has made numerous contributions towards elucidating the difficult problems involved. Mr. White gives an excellent summary of these investigations up to the present date. The laws of surface friction as derived from the experiments are clearly enunciated, and the results of the experiments tabulated in a concise form, convenient for use. As a rule worth remembering, Mr. White deduces that the clean bottom of an iron ship moving at a speed of 12·8 knots per hour experiences a resistance of 1 lb. per square foot. According to modern theory, the total resistance experienced

by a ship is made up of three principal parts:—(1) Frictional resistance due to the gliding of the particles over the rough bottom of the ship; (2) "eddy-making" resistance at the stern; (3) surface disturbance or wave-making resistance. The first and third of these are the main causes of resistance in well-formed ships, the eddy-making resistance being only about 8 per cent. of the total resistance, while the surface friction is from 80 to 90 per cent. in such ships at low speeds, such as from 6 to 8 knots, and even at the very highest speeds it is as much as from 50 to 60 per cent. of the total resistance. When the bottoms become foul, the coefficients of friction are doubled or trebled in consequence. In order to reduce eddy-making resistance as much as possible, outlying pieces, such as stern-posts, rudders, struts to shaft tubes in twin-screw ships, supports to spousons in paddle steamers, &c., should be properly shaped. "It is blunt tails rather than blunt noses that cause eddies." The after terminations of outlying parts should be made as fine as possible consistently with other requirements. The general character of the causes which create waves at the bow and stern of ships, and the way in which waves operate in producing resistance, are clearly described. A body moving at a uniform velocity at a great depth below the surface would experience no resistance from this cause, and if it were moving in a frictionless fluid it would experience no resistance whatever. In the case of a ship moving at the surface, the motion of the particles of water relative to the ship is least at the bow and stern, and there are wave crests. Amidships the relative motion has its maximum speed, and there may be wave hollows. For every vessel there is a certain limit beyond which increased speed can only be secured at the expense of a very rapid growth in resistance; this speed being "somewhat less than that appropriate to the length of the wave which the ship tends to form." Rules are given for fixing approximately the lengths of ships appropriate for certain speeds, but it is shown that this can only be arrived at in a satisfactory manner by actual experiment, such as the model experiments made by Mr. Froude. The experiments on the character of waves which accompany a ship have been made first on models, but they have been verified in actual ships of the Royal Navy. These waves are classified as follows:—(1) Waves produced by the advance of the bow; (2) waves produced by stream-line motion near the stern, and each of these sets of waves may be divided into distinct series—(1) diverging waves, the crest lines of which trail aft; (2) transverse waves, of which the crest lines are nearly perpendicular to the keel line of the ship. An interesting account is given of the performance of torpedo boats, and Mr. Froude has determined the resistance of models moving at speeds corresponding to from 50 to 130 knots per hour for full-sized ships. The results are most interesting and instructive, but they do not encourage the hope that in practice any such speed will be realised. A detailed account is given of the process by which from model experiments the resistance of full-sized ships can now be predicted with certainty. In putting this power of exact investigation into the hands of naval architects, Mr. Froude has conferred a valuable and lasting advantage. This is illustrated by Mr. White by a single example, which admirably shows how well the experiments recoup the Admiralty for the expense to which they are put. The Medina class of gunboats was in course of being designed, and a question arose which of two forms was preferable—one having a length of 110ft. and a beam of 26ft.; and a second having the same length, but a beam of 34ft. Apart from experiment, it would have been expected that the narrower vessel would have given least resistance, but experiment showed conclusively that the broader form was the better, for it required only two thirds of the engine power of the narrower type to attain equal speed. The boats were built, and experiments on the measured mile fully justified the prediction based on the model experiments. The importance of this single case will be appreciated when it is remembered that the first cost of the machinery of these vessels, as well as the subsequent cost of maintenance and repair, were largely decreased. It is impossible here even to indicate the variety and value of the information given in these chapters; no previous work has been equally furnished with facts and useful rules for practice based upon experience and theory. Steam navigation is of recent date, and has been rapidly developed; but Mr. White gives the results obtained in vessels of every variety of type in both war fleets and Mercantile Marine, Russian circular ironclads, English ironclads with single and twin screws, merchant steamers capable of crossing the Atlantic or steaming to Australia at high speeds, and others, all have their performances analysed; and so have those swiftest of swift vessels, the torpedo launches, which can make their 18 or 20 knots in smooth water.

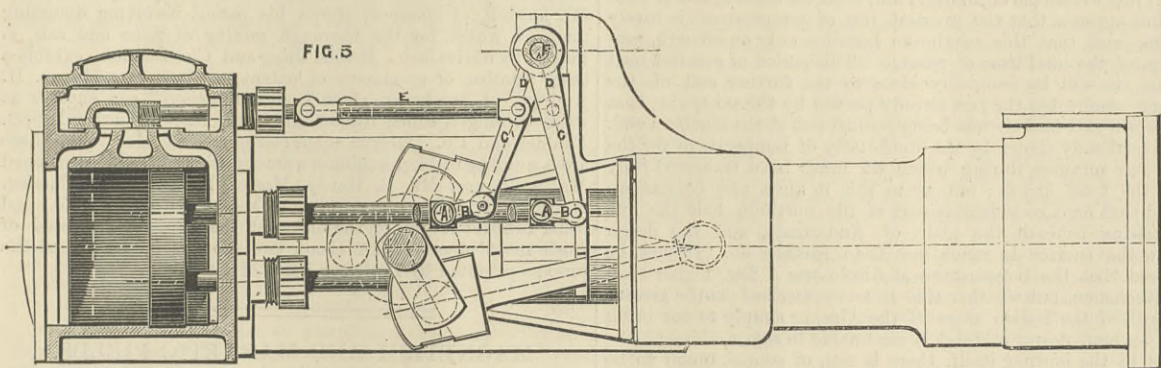
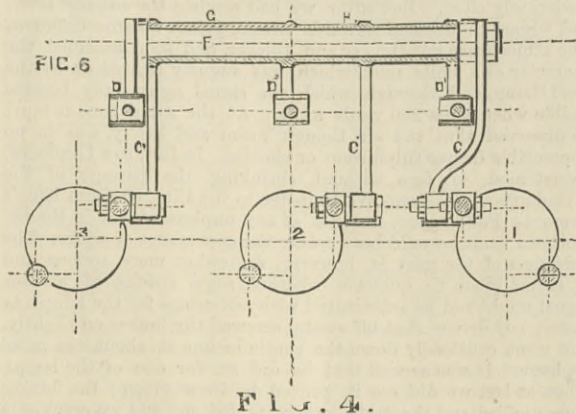
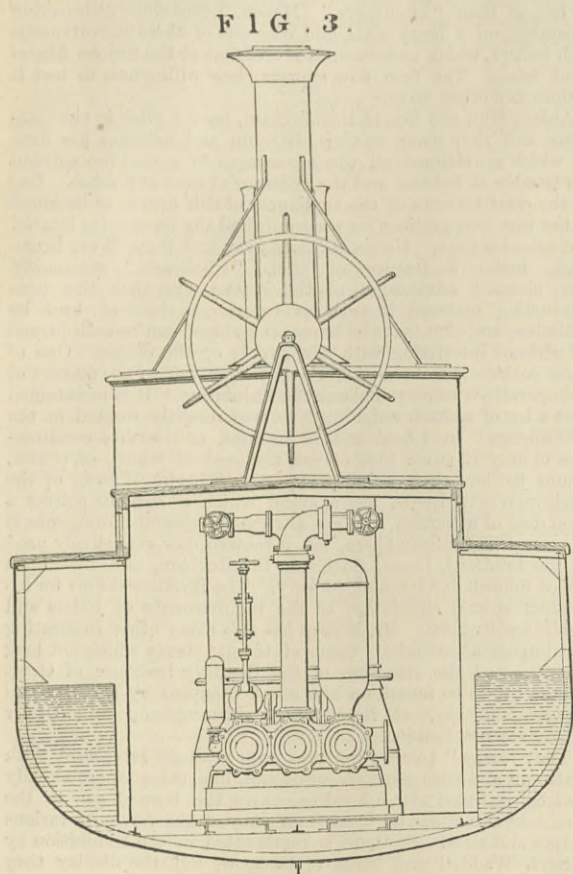
The book concludes with an admirable chapter on steering, including a description of the principles which govern the action of the rudder, the relative advantages of ordinary, balanced, and special rudders; steering by the use of propellers, such as twin screws, water jets, &c.; steering by means of auxiliary appliances, and rules for the forms and areas of rudders. The practical deductions made from the steering trials of ships of the Royal Navy form a valuable feature in this chapter.

Mr. White states in his preface to the first edition that he undertook the work mainly in consequence of numerous requests made to him by naval officers studying at the Royal Naval College for information of the kind. Such a request so urged is good evidence of the awakening interest felt by naval men in these subjects, and Mr. White has not merely met their wants and the wants of other classes similarly situated, but he has furnished a book which, as we have pointed out, will be most useful to naval architects and engineers. The present position and probable future of the science of ship construction cannot be better studied in any other work with which we are acquainted.

GAS AS FUEL.—St. Louis is to be supplied with water gas for fuel purposes. The *Scientific American* says the laying of pipes is progressing rapidly.

STEAM FIRE FLOAT FOR BRAZIL.

MESSRS. SHAND, MASON, AND CO., BLACKFRIARS, ENGINEERS.



We this week illustrate above and on page 350, a floating steam fire engine, constructed by Messrs. Shand, Mason, and Co., for the Brazilian Government. A highly satisfactory trial of the same, at which we were present, has been described in our issue of the 29th September last. The boiler is on the makers' patent inclined water tube system, specially designed for raising steam rapidly and evaporating a large quantity of water in a small space. The fire engine can be used with steam of 160 lb. per square inch, although 120 lb. is sufficient for ordinary purposes, and also for the propelling engine.

The fire engine is Shand, Mason, and Co.'s well-known "Patent Equilibrium," having three steam cylinders, the piston rods of which are connected directly to the rams of three double-acting bucket-and-plunger pumps; from a jaw on the bottom of each ram a connecting rod extends to the pin of a three-throw crank; the slide valves are worked by a simple arrangement of levers shown in the accompanying engraving—one engine working the slide valve of another. By this arrangement of triple engine a very easy motion is obtained, all parts being perfectly balanced, and with the advantage of being able to start in any position. The fire engine draws its supply either through a sea-box in the side of the vessel or by means of a flexible suction hose, the latter arrangement being used for pumping out water-logged ships and barges. There are four outlet valves to connect four lines of delivery hose, these being governed by a patent relief valve to prevent over pressure. Self-acting lubricators are fitted to all working parts. All the forgings are of steel; the pump, suction chamber, pump-head, and frames are in one gun-metal casting. Great strength and solidity have been obtained, and smooth working is obtained at 300 revolutions per minute. The engine is capable of delivering 1000 gallons of water per minute, and works up to a pressure of 220 lb. per square inch, and in one of the trials with 1 1/2 in. jet a horizontal distance of 225ft. was obtained, measured to where the body of the water fell, a strong wind at the time blowing across the course.

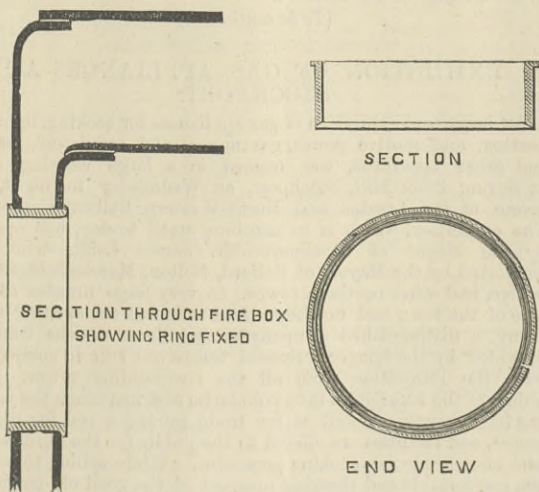
The propelling engines are twin-cylinder inverted high pressure engines, especially designed for high speed, and work at 260 revolutions per minute, at which rate a speed of 9.34 knots per hour was obtained at the measured mile. The length of boat is 51ft., beam 11ft., depth 6ft. The hull is built entirely of mild steel, the deck and fittings being of teak. Coal bunkers are provided for 2 1/2 tons of coal. There is a cabin in the fore part of the boat with accommodation for three men. Two hose reels are fitted on deck, capable of holding 3000ft. of hose, and shelves below for 3000ft. more. The boat is arranged to be used as a tug, in which way she will be very useful in towing ships or barges on fire into open water and then extinguishing them. We have added to the illustrations two sections showing the construction of the special slide valve motion referred to above, an improvement upon working the slide valves by the ordinary eccentric, introduced by Mr. J. C. Hudson, a member of the firm, and which is now applied to the whole of Messrs. Shand, Mason, and Co.'s equilibrium steam fire engines.

Fig. 5 is a side elevation, and Fig. 6 a longitudinal section of valve levers. In Fig. 5 a pin A on one of the piston rods gives motion through a link B to the lever C, which is connected to a lever D actuating the slide valve rod E. It will be seen in

Fig. 6 that the lever C connected to the piston rod of No. 1 engine is keyed on the shaft F, on which is forged the lever D, which works the valve of No. 3 engine; also that the lever C', connected to No. 2 engine, and the lever D' working the valve of No. 1 engine, are attached by a hollow sleeve H, through which shaft F passes. In a like manner the lever C² connected to No. 3 engine is attached to lever D² working the valve of No. 2 engine. The proportion of lever C to D is such as to reduce the travel of the piston to that of the valve.

BOULTON'S FIRE DOOR RING.

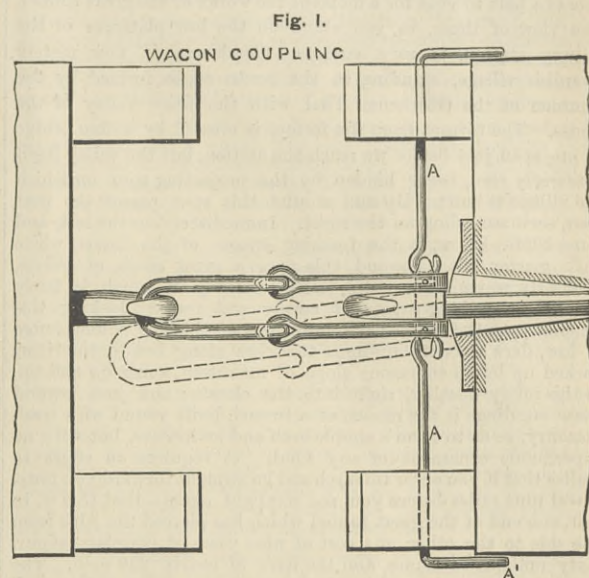
MR. J. W. BOULTON, of Ashton-under-Lyne, proposes to dispense with the ordinary thick closely rivetted in fire door ring as used in portable and locomotive fire-boxes, by means of a thinner ring rolled to the section shown in the annexed wood-cut. The iron for this ring is rolled with a small rectangular fillet on one side, and a thinned or bevelled edge on the other. The ring is placed in circular holes bored in the inner and outer fire-box, and the thin edge is then rivetted over all round on to the inner fire-box plate, the edge, as well as that of the outer



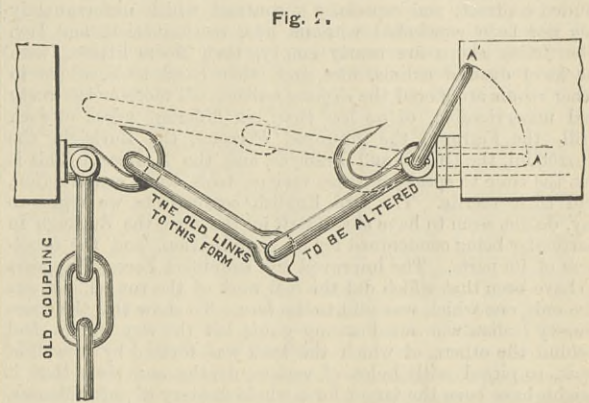
fillet, being caulked to make it steam-tight. This ring undoubtedly offers some economical structural advantages, as it avoids the usual ring of rivet holes and rivets used to hold the ring in, and it seems to promise to overcome the constantly recurring leakage which cannot be permanently stopped where the very heavy solid ring is rivetted into thin plates. Mr. Boulton has tested it with a ring 17in. in diameter, and with satisfactory results as far as manufacture is concerned, but has not, we believe, given it extended trial in a fire-box in use.

RAILWAY WAGON COUPLINGS.

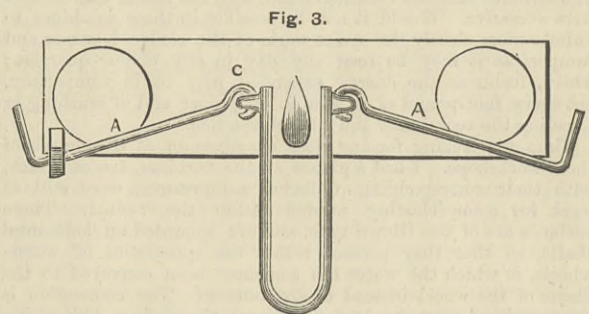
ONE of the wagon couplings exhibited at the recent Exhibition of Railway Wagon Couplings at Darlington we illustrate herewith. The invention consists in the application of two rods A A to each coupling hook pin, so as to move the hook on its pin.



The rods extend to the outside of the wagon, one on either side, the ends being bent to form a lever handle. The links are hinged in the centre, as shown at Figs. 1 and 2, one end being fastened to the pin and revolving with it, lifting the opposite end off or on the hook of the next wagon by means of the lug, Fig. 2,



welded on the eye of the outer link. To insure introduction a coupling must not only be efficient, but must be so made that it will work with those in use, as no railway company could be persuaded to fit all its wagons now in use with a new form of coupling. The coupling we illustrate avoids these



difficulties; it has few parts, and is not liable to get out of order. It is inexpensive, costing but little more than the ordinary link coupling. Fig. 3 shows that the coupling can be applied to wagons having spring buffers. This coupling is the invention of Mr. Thos. Burall, of Thetford, Norfolk.

CONTINUOUS BRAKES IN SWITZERLAND.—The Paris journal, *Les Travaux Publics*, of October 29th, contains a reference to the late calamity in Alsace, by which nearly sixty persons were killed and about 200 injured, sixteen carriages out of the twenty-five composing an excursion train having been completely wrecked. It says:—"The recent terrible railway accident at Hugstetten, the recollection of which is still far from being effaced, and in which so many persons found their death, in consequence of a train leaving the rails, gives a special interest to a communication which we extract from one of the leading Swiss newspapers, describing a similar occurrence with a direct train from Berne to Lucerne, but which was, however, unattended by any serious consequences, owing to the train being fitted with automatic and continuous brakes which saved the travellers from almost certain death." The *Intelligenzblatt* of Berne, the Swiss newspaper referred to, says:—"The 7.20 a.m. through train from Berne to Lucerne left the rails near Werthenstein, between Wohlhausen and Malters, in consequence of a landslip which partially blocked the line immediately before the passing of the train, which was then going at a speed of 65 kilos. an hour. The train was fitted with the Heberlein automatic brake, and owing to its instantaneous action the train was stopped in a distance less than twice its own length, and thus it avoided what would certainly have been a frightful accident, for without the continuous automatic brakes, the train, thus turned off the line, would have been precipitated from the top of the embankment into the river Emme, over which the line passes just at that spot. Only the stoker received any injuries." This account affords another illustration of the value of automatic brakes, and shows that the terrible accident at Hugstetten would have been avoided if all, or at least a large portion, of the vehicles forming the excursion train had been fitted with brakes like those above referred to. The Heberlein automatic brake has been fitted to all the lines of the Jura-Berne Railway, and the value of the brake as shown by the Berne-Lucerne incident is pointed to as an illustration of the great loss of life which might have been saved by it if fitted to the Hugstetten train, instead of the few brake vans with which that train was provided, and which were valueless in assisting the driver to check the speed of his train in descending the gradient off which his train is, by some of the German writers, thought to have been pushed. The Heberlein brake has received important improvements since its more extended use in Germany, and to these we may refer more particularly at an early date.

THROUGH THE ALPS BY LOCOMOTIVE.

AN ENGINEER'S TRIP OVER THE ST. GOTHARD.

(Continued from page 332.)

My last communication ended at Göschenen, where I took advantage of a halt to visit for a moment the works of the great tunnel. The view of these, as you stand on the low platform of the railway station, is very curious. Göschenen is now merely a largish village, standing in the acute angle formed by the junction of the Göschenen Thal with the main valley of the Reuss. The torrent from the former is crossed by a fine bridge of one span just before we reach the station, but the valley itself is scarcely seen, being hidden by the projecting spur on which the village is built. Up and around this spur passes the post road, seen ascending on the right. Immediately on the left, and some 100ft. below, is the foaming stream of the Reuss, white with glacier silt. Beyond this rises a great slope of *débris*, evidently an enormous "tip," the level top of which is fairly covered with long trains of empty and forlorn looking tip-wagons. At the further and lower end of this tip a long range of low, dark wooden buildings stretches along beside the river, backed up by an enormous slope of mountain, going up and up, in this misty weather, right into the clouds; and just beyond these buildings is the mouth of a tunnel, built round with fresh masonry, so as to form a simple arch and architrave, but with no superfluous ornament of any kind. It requires an effort to realise that if you enter this arch and go straight forward you must travel nine miles before you see daylight again—that this is, in fact, one end of the great tunnel which has pierced the Alps from one side to the other, at a cost of nine years of ceaseless labour, sixty millions of francs, and the lives of nearly 200 men. The great tip just mentioned is of course what remains of the spoil excavated during construction, the wagons are those used in conveying it from the interior to the mouth, and the buildings contain the turbines and air-compressors, together with the other tools, stores, &c., needed for the various works of construction.

On entering these buildings we find the interior forlorn and dreary enough, as may well be expected in the domain of a concluded contract, and especially a contract which unfortunately has not been concluded without loss, recrimination, and law. The fitting shops are nearly empty, their floors littered with stacks of disused chisels, files, and other hand tools, whilst in other rooms are stored the *disjecta membra*, all more or less rusty and unserviceable, of no less than six different types of rock drill—the Ferroux, the improved Ferroux, the Burleigh, the Turretini, the Dubois and François, and the McKean. This is not the time to speak of these various tools, their construction, and their merits. The two English competitors, we regret to say, do not seem to have stood well in the race, the Burleigh in particular being condemned for its complication, and the smallness of its parts. The improved and simplified Ferroux appears to have been that which did the real work of the tunnel, and was the only one which was still to the fore. To show this the spare sinewy Italian who acted as my guide led the way into a shed behind the others, of which the back was formed by a wall of rock, so pitted with holes of various depths and sizes that it might have been the target for a whole battery of mitrailleuses. It was really the practice ground of the rock drills, and one Ferroux drill was still in its place, mounted on a strong frame, with the end of its long chisel buried in the rock before it. The guide opened a valve and the tool at once started into life, the double rack arrangement, above and below, drawing back and releasing the chisel alternately, and with lightning-like rapidity. The advance into the rock was rapid, but the shock and clatter were excessive. Would it not be possible in these machines to imitate more closely the quiet work of the sledge hammer and jumper, as it may be seen any day in any of our quarries; where, feeble as the energy expended may be in comparison, yet every foot-pound of it goes to its proper end of crushing or abrading the rock below the face of the tool.

Time was lacking for any close examination of the details of these workshops. I had a glance at the turbines, two of which, with their corresponding Colladon compressors, were still at work for some blasting needed within the tunnel. These turbines are of the Girard type, and are mounted on horizontal shafts, so that they present rather the appearance of water-wheels, in which the water has somehow been conveyed to the inside of the wheel instead of the outside. The connection is thus rendered very simple, a crank upon the turbine shaft giving at once the reciprocating motion needed for the air compressors. Of the latter of course no interior details could be seen, and it was now time to get back to the station and resume my place on the locomotive.

At 10 a.m. we steamed out of the station at Göschenen; at 10 hrs. 2 min. we passed under the arch of the tunnel, and at 10 hrs. 23 min. we emerged from the corresponding arch into the daylight at Airolo. We were thus 26 min. in traversing the tunnel, and as the length is about nine and a-quarter miles, this gives an average speed of about twenty-one miles an hour. As a matter of fact, however, the first part of our journey was performed at a considerably higher and the latter at a considerably lower speed, and that for a somewhat curious reason. It was due to the particular state of ventilation of the tunnel at that particular time. My readers will probably remember the immense difficulties which were encountered in maintaining proper ventilation in the tunnel during its construction, and the many prophecies of equal difficulty to be experienced whenever it became the channel of any considerable traffic. So much did these fears weigh even on the managers of the undertaking, that schemes were mooted for carrying bags of oxygen to supply the drivers with the means of respiration, and designs for working by electric locomotives were seriously entertained. When, however, the matter was put to the test, the difficulty vanished. It was found that at all times there is a difference in the height of the barometer at one side and the other of the great chain of the Alps; the corresponding difference in pressure forms a head of air always acting on one end or other of the great tunnel, and there is therefore a continual current of air through it in one direction or the other, exactly as there would always be a current of water through a pipe connecting two reservoirs with unequal head. This natural ventilation is found more than sufficient for the present traffic of between twenty and thirty trains per day, and there seems no fear that it will ever need to be supplemented. On the particular occasion of my visit the barometer apparently stood higher at the north, or Swiss, portal by which we entered. Consequently we were bringing, as it were, the fresh air with us; and certainly for the first half of our journey it was to us on the engine not perceptibly fouler, though somewhat warmer, than the damp and chilly atmosphere of a wet morning at Göschenen. Those in the train had of course the benefit of the smoke and gases from our engine, but this was not so bad but that windows could be kept open without special annoyance. The tunnel is guarded by means of brilliant lamps placed at each kilometre, and signalling white for safety and green for danger; and during this first half of the journey I was

able, after passing each of them, not only to see the next, but also the next but one, shining like a star of the sixth magnitude just above one of the first. It is obvious that if a light can be seen at 2200 yards distance the atmosphere must be more than moderately clear. But after we had reached the summit level, and began to descend towards Airolo, things became different. The atmosphere got thicker and thicker, and soon assumed the character of a white mist, which was vaguely lighted up by the head lamp, and through which the signal lights only became visible when some 200 yards away. At the same time it must be observed that the air, though warm and heavy, was in no appreciable degree sulphurous or choking. In fact, to a Londoner, accustomed to face without shrinking the passage of the "Underground" from Westminster to the City, or from King's Cross to Paddington, the idea of any unpleasantness in the St. Gothard tunnel would have rather the appearance of a joke. The thickness of the mist is, however, somewhat more serious, and it seems open to question whether some species of audible signal might not be substituted with advantage for the lamp. As it was, our driver shut off steam, screwed the brakes on slightly, and went cautiously down the gentle incline at about ten miles an hour. It was as well that he did so, for one of the lamps, when at last we did see it, proved to show green; the brakes were applied and the train nearly pulled up, and we crept at a foot's pace past a gang of labourers engaged apparently in plate-laying. It is in this way that the mean speed of twenty-one miles an hour, at which we traversed the tunnel, is accounted for. If a different system of signalling could be devised, there seems no reason why the speed should not be at least thirty miles an hour, and the transit would then occupy from fifteen to twenty minutes only.

From the question of ventilation we pass naturally to that of temperature. Here again the conditions before and since the completion of the tunnel are widely different. Just before the two headings were united the heat at the far end was intense, rising to at least 90 deg., and the effect was to lower by at least one-half the working capacity of the men employed, besides causing serious illness in many cases, and death in not a few. To compare this with the present state of things, I arranged with a friend in the train to read the temperature at intervals during our passage, from a small pocket thermometer. The results of course cannot, under such circumstances, be looked upon as accurate, but they will sufficiently indicate the general state of things in the various parts of the tunnel. The temperatures observed are as follows:—At Göschenen station, 54 deg. Fah.; just within tunnel, 54 deg. Fah.; after five minutes, 54 deg. Fah.; after ten minutes, 59 deg. Fah.; after fifteen minutes, 64 deg. Fah.; after twenty minutes, 64 deg. Fah.; after twenty-two minutes, 64 deg. Fah.; after twenty-four minutes, 62 deg. Fah.; after twenty-six, 59 deg. Fah.; just within portal, 57 deg. Fah.; at Airolo station, 55 deg. Fah. It thus appears that the greatest rise of temperature is barely 10 deg., and that this maximum lasts for only one-fourth, probably, of the total time of passage. This period of greatest heat occurs, it will be seen, very close to the further end of the tunnel, confirming the fact already proved by the mist, viz., that the warm and foul air was being pushed out at the southern end. This is already shown by the uniformity of temperature for the first ten minutes, during which we must have traversed fully half the total length; but as to this it must also be remembered that for a considerable part of the northern half the line is passing beneath the plain of Andermatt, and the depth below the surface is much less than further on. It will be noticed that the temperature at Airolo was 1 deg. higher than at Göschenen, but whether this is to be ascribed to the greater warmth of the Italian slope of the Alps, or simply to our being half an hour nearer mid-day, I am unable to say.

As to the journey itself, there is not, of course, much to be said. A tunnel, once completed and cased with brickwork, is about as uninteresting a piece of engineering as it is possible to visit. In this case, indeed, the casing is not complete; for only one line having been laid, the rock on the opposite side of the tunnel has only been got away sufficiently to allow of the turning of the arch holding up the roof. There was therefore on one hand a mass of irregular rock, which looked picturesque enough whenever the fire-door was opened, and the ruddy glare of the furnace lighted up the surrounding gloom. So, indeed, did the courses of brickwork in the roof, with the volumes of dark smoke sweeping along them, till both together disappeared in the darkness behind. I had hoped to have seen something of interest in watching the appearance of the far end of the tunnel, which should become visible as soon as our heads were above the summit level. The white mist already mentioned of course prevented this, but I certainly was not prepared for its great effect in stopping external light. I had not been counting the kilometres, and was unaware that we were nearing the end, when suddenly there seemed a lightening in the mist ahead of us; it broadened into a confused whitish cloud, and almost in an instant we passed quietly under the portal of the tunnel, and found ourselves in the wild upland dale of the Ticino, with the little village and station of Airolo on our left, and on our right the white line of the post road, climbing up with many zigzags beside the headlong waters of the Tremola, on its way northward to the Hospice of St. Gothard.

(To be continued.)

EXHIBITION OF GAS APPLIANCES AT STOCKPORT.

An important exhibition of gas appliances for cooking, lighting, heating, and motive power, gas meters and regulators, testing and other apparatus, was opened in a large weaving shed at Spring Bank Mill, Stockport, on Wednesday fortnight, by favour of the London and North-Western Railway Company. The exhibition, which is to continue until to-day, was opened by the Mayor of Stockport—Mr. James Leigh—who was supported by the Mayors of Salford, Bolton, Macclesfield, Stalybridge, and other northern towns. A very large number of the *élite* of the town and neighbourhood attended the opening ceremony, a distinguished company sitting down to the banquet provided by the mayor. Special trains are run in connection with the Exhibition from all the surrounding towns. The object of the Exhibition is to popularise and introduce the use of gas for domestic as well as for trade purposes and for motive power, and facilities are offered to the public for the purchase or hire of suitable gas cooking apparatus. While willing to admit the comfortable and cheering prospect of the good old-fashioned English fireside, the committee insist that there are a variety of cases in which the more commonly used fuel is most efficiently superseded by gas. The committee further point out that the principal recommendation of gas is the economy it offers in both space and expenditure. The undertaking has called forth a large amount of interest, and it bids fair to be a great success. Alderman Hardon is the hon. sec. of the committee, and, so far as we have seen, the arrangements have been admirably carried out. The floor of the spacious building is laid out in six bays, and although the area at the disposal of the committee was consider-

ably larger than that at the recent Bristol Exhibition, the space was all allotted some weeks ago, with the result of an annex being formed, where are exhibited lights of greater illuminating power than it would be convenient to burn in other parts of the building. A considerable portion of the space is allotted to Messrs. S. Leoni and Co., of London, whose cookers and grillers have already secured a foremost reputation. The exhibits of this firm are very numerous, and the food for the banquet was cooked on one of their "kitcheners." Messrs. Leoni show disinfecting apparatus on a large scale, and also one of their instantaneous bath boilers, which underwent a severe test at the Smoke Abatement trials. The firm now express their willingness to test it against any other make.

Arden, Hill, and Co., of Birmingham, have a place in the catalogue, and they place on view platinum and asbestos gas fires, for which are claimed all the advantages of a coal fire without the trouble of lighting and the nuisance of dust and ashes. One of the chief features of the appliances of this firm is to be found in the cast iron gratings for the fronts and the terra-cotta interior and asbestos fibre. Messrs. E. Siddaway and Sons, West Bromwich, make a feature of their "Challenge" gas-cooker. The claimed advantages of the roaster are that the non-conducting material is such as to prevent loss of heat by radiation, and also that the burners employed can be each turned off without interfering with the supply of the others. One of these cookers is to be used for the preparation of the dinners of the operatives employed about the Exhibition. It is maintained that a leg of mutton weighing 8 lb. was recently roasted in the "Challenge" in 1 hour and 30 minutes, and with a consumption of only 12 cubic feet of gas, the cost of which, of course, would be less than a halfpenny. Mr. Charles Wilson, of the Carlton Works, Leeds, has a stand which is sure to attract a good deal of attention. In gas kitcheners, special prominence is given to "The Birmingham," an invention now extensively used in the Bradford, Leeds, Sheffield, Birmingham, and Blackburn Board Schools for teaching cookery. The inventor claims for his product special adaptation to the requirements of hotels and public institutions. Mr. Wilson has also many other interesting and important exhibits. Some of the gas stoves which not long ago attracted the attention of the Sanitary Institute of Great Britain are to be found on the stand occupied by Messrs. John Wright and Co., of Broad-street, Birmingham, and Upper Thames-street, London.

The "cosey" pattern has cast iron gratings interlaced with platinum and with asbestos backs, and, like other stoves already noticed, is fitted with a hood to convey the burned gas to the flue. At the same end there is an array of gas stoves of various shapes and sizes. Scotland is represented in the Exhibition by Messrs. Waddell and Main, of Glasgow, but the display they make is not a large one, although there are some choice specimens of the apparatus for which this firm is justly renowned. Mr. Liddell, of Glasgow, shows his patent revolving doughing machine, which, for the thorough mixing of flour and salt, is said to be unrivalled. Messrs. Sugg and Co., London, exhibit a large number of specimens of patent gas burners; Messrs. H. Andrew, of Stockport, show their "Bisschop" gas engines at work driving a coffee roaster and mill, laid down by Messrs. Faulder and Co., preserve manufacturers. Besides these there are a number of local exhibitors, among whom may be mentioned Mr. A. Parkes, Mr. B. Hardy, Messrs. Kay Brothers, Messrs. Hargrove and Bardsley, Oldham, Messrs. Orme and Co., and other firms. Several of the dishes at the banquet consisted of fresh meat preserved for about two months by means of the process patented by Professor Barff, of London.

MAGNETISM AND MAGNETIC FIELDS.

PROFESSOR VIRIAMU JONES, principal of Firth College, Sheffield, delivered a very interesting lecture to a large audience in the lecture room of the College on Saturday night. The lecture was the first of a series of four which the learned professor has consented to deliver on electricity. The subject of Saturday night's discourse was "Magnetism and Magnetic Fields," and was illustrated by experiments. The lecturer commenced by remarking that there were two chief forms of light, the light of the electric arc and that due to the incandescence of the carbon fibre. These he was able to show through the kindness of the Yorkshire Brush Electric Light Company which had lent him lamps, and of the Hammond Company, which had kindly lent him a dynamo machine which supplied the current of electricity. Light, he said, was a form of energy, and energy, like matter, could not be destroyed or created. The greatest scientific achievement of the last century was the demonstration towards its close that matter was indestructible, and the most general summing up of the physical work of the nineteenth century was the principle of the conservation of energy. It followed then that light, being a form of energy, could not be obtained, except by a transformation, or a series of transformations from some other form of energy. The ultimate source of almost all the energy of our planet was the sun. Light was a form of energy we could not make; we could only transform it, and the great source of energy was coal. The problem of lighting was this—to convert as much as possible of the energy stored up in a given quantity of coal into light. Lighting by gas might be said to be of considerable efficiency and great economy. We might use coal in a steam engine to produce visible energy of motion, and then convert this energy of motion into energy of moving electricity in a dynamo machine, and the energy of moving electricity into light in the electric lamp. As a lighting process this was much more efficient than the manufacture of gas—that was, out of a given quantity of coal more light was produced. But then this did not decide the question of economy, for there were more valuable by-products produced by this series of transformations. The distinction he had drawn between efficiency and economy would explain to some extent the somewhat contradictory statements made by the advocates of the electric light with reference to the cost of its production. He proceeded to show the successive steps by which the energy of the coal became light in the electric lamp, showing that the first step was the burning of coal in an engine which heated the water in the boiler producing steam, and that the second was the conversion of this energy into energy of moving electricity by the dynamo machine; the third step was the conversion of the energy of the current of electricity into light in the electric lamp. He stated that in the electric machine electric currents were produced by the motion of copper wires with magnets. In order to understand the production of currents by electro magnetism, it was necessary, he said, to have clear ideas as to what magnets were and how they acted. He accordingly devoted the remainder of the lecture to the properties of magnets and the space surrounding them, namely, magnetic fields. A hearty vote of thanks was accorded to the lecturer.

SOUTH KENSINGTON MUSEUM.—Visitors during the week ending Nov. 4th, 1882:—On Monday, Tuesday, and Saturday, free, from 10 a.m. to 10 p.m.; Museum, 9151; mercantile marine, Indian section, and other collections, 3379. On Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, admission 6d., from 10 a.m. till 4 p.m.; Museum, 1408; mercantile marine, Indian section, and other collections, 610. Total, 14,548. Average of corresponding week in former years, 14,083. Total from the opening of the Museum, 21,449,855.

STEAM FIRE FLOAT FOR THE BRAZILIAN GOVERNMENT.

MESSRS. SHAND, MASON, AND CO., BLACKFRIARS, ENGINEERS.

(For description see page 347.)

FIG. 1.

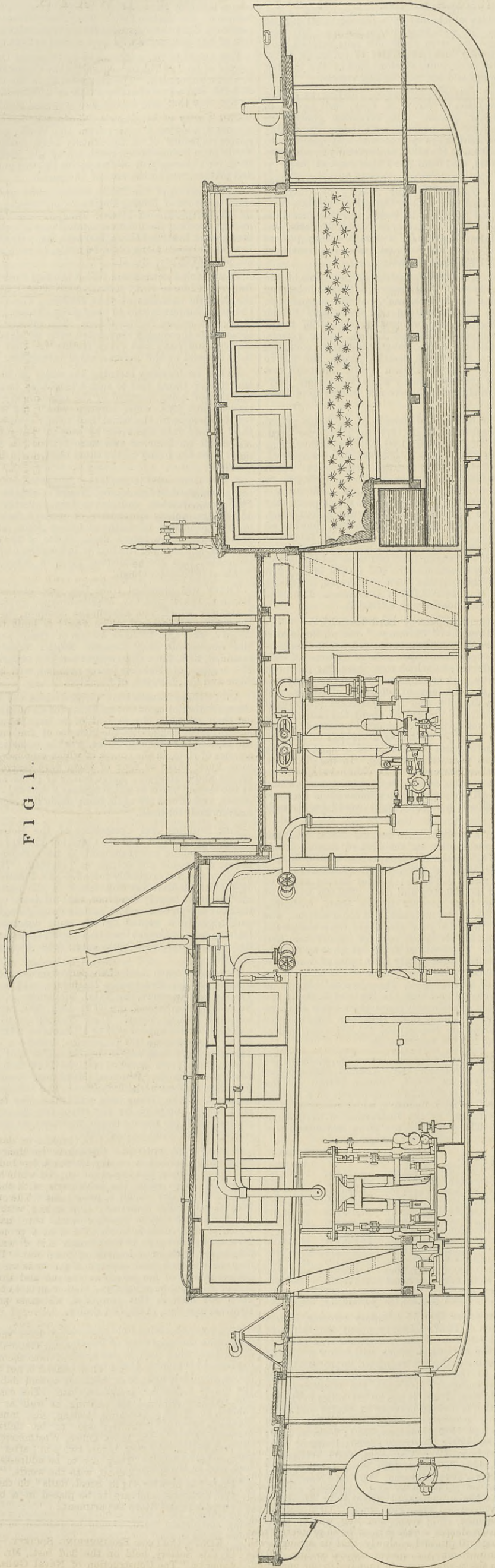
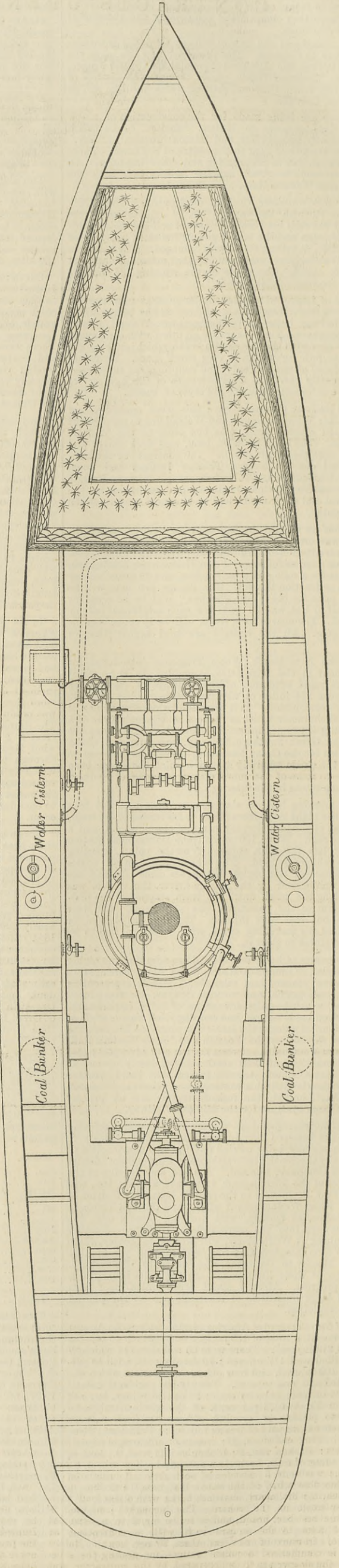
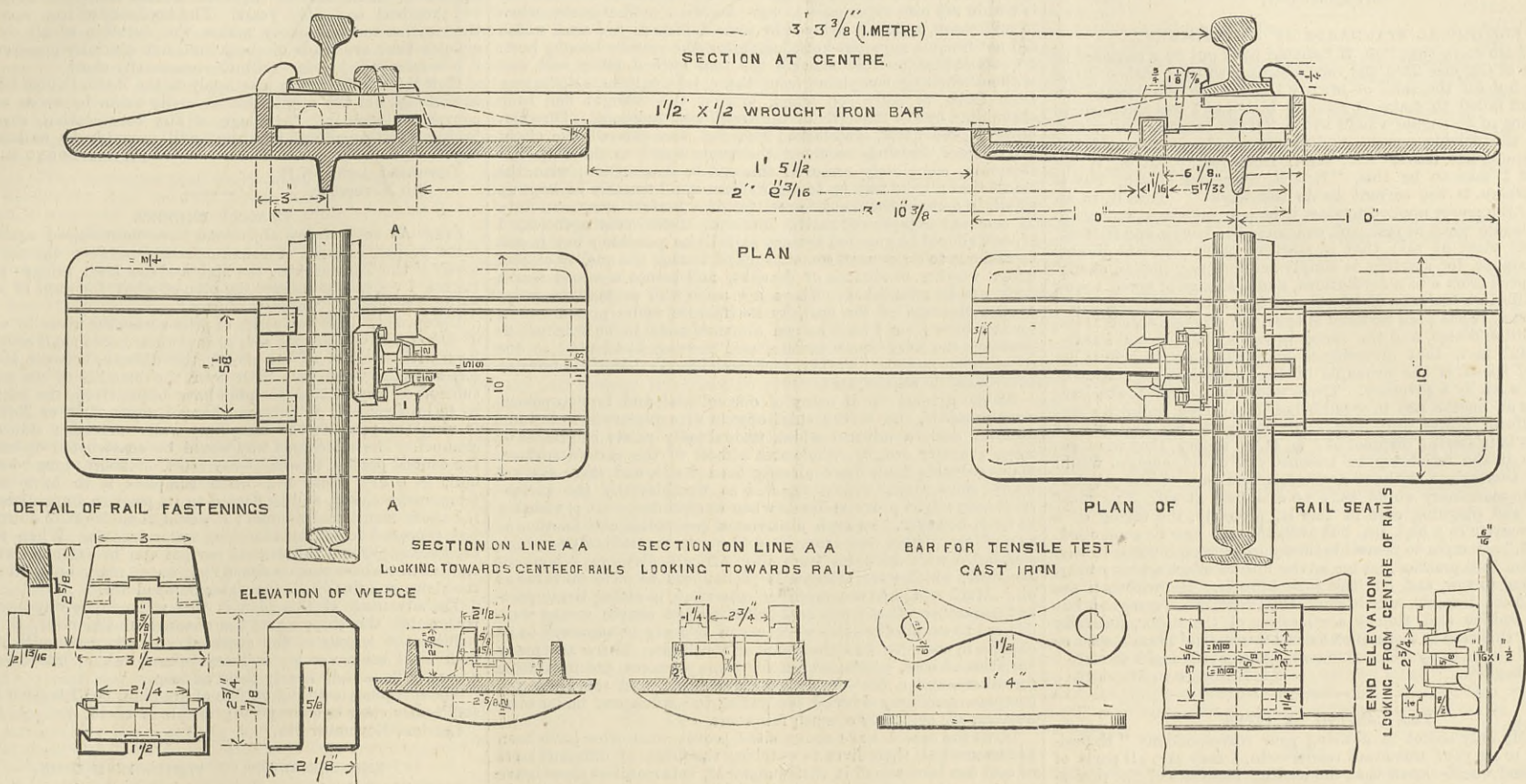


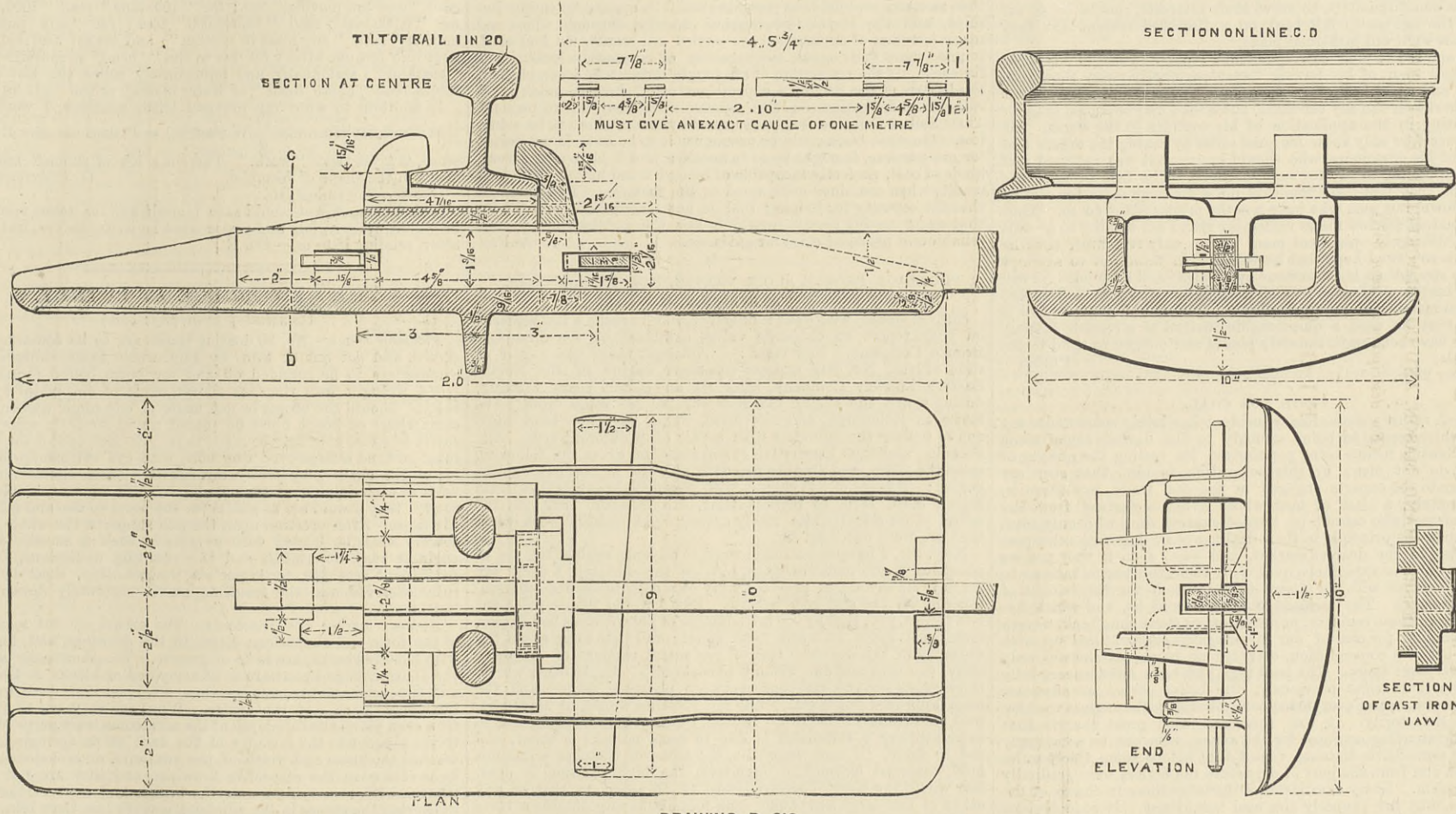
FIG. 2.



CONTRACTS OPEN—PERMANENT WAY, I. S. RAILWAYS.



DRAWING D 204



DRAWING D 213

CONTRACTS OPEN.

INDIAN STATE RAILWAYS.

The following is an abstract of the contract specification for permanent way materials, consisting of cast iron plate sleepers for 41½ lb. steel rails, for the Northern Bengal and Rewari-Ferozepore Railways—metre gauge:—

The work required consists of 218,875 pairs of cast iron plate sleepers with wrought iron tie-bars, and all fastenings complete as under, viz.:—8875 pairs of sleepers, &c., to drawing, Figs. 213, for Northern Bengal Railway; 10,000 pairs of sleepers, &c., to drawing, Figs. 204, for Northern Bengal Railway; 200,000 pairs of sleepers, &c., to drawing, Figs. 213, for Rewari-Ferozepore Railway. Each pair of sleepers to Figs. 213 is to consist of two cast iron plate sleepers and one wrought iron tie-bar, four cottars, and two cast iron inside rail jaws. Each pair of sleepers to drawing No. D 204 is to consist of two cast iron plates sleepers, two cast iron inside rail jaws, two cast iron wedges, and one wrought iron tie-bar. The various parts of the sleepers are estimated to weigh as follows:—Two plate castings, to drawing No. D 213, 89½ lb.; two cast iron jaws, ditto, 5½ lb.; one wrought iron tie-bar, ditto, 11½ lb.; four wrought iron cottars, ditto, 2½ lb.; two plate castings, to drawing No. D 204, 93 lb.; two cast iron jaws, ditto, 4 lb.; two cast iron wedges, ditto, 2½ lb.; one wrought iron tie-bar, 10 lb. No work weighing less than the above weights by more than 2 per cent. will be accepted. Payment will not be made for any weight above that which is estimated, and the actual weight only will be paid for if the work is under the above estimated weights. The cast iron used for the sleepers is to be a mixture of soft grey, all mine iron, of such a quality that a bar of the same 1 in. broad and 2 in. deep, placed on bearings 3 ft. apart, shall not break with a less load than 30 cwt. suspended in the centre. The wrought iron used is to be of some best brand, and is to be equal to a tensile strain of 24 tons to the square inch, with a contraction at the point of fracture of not less than 20 per cent. Before the work is commenced accurate gauges for testing the several parts of the sleeper are to be prepared by the contractor, and after being approved by the inspector-general they must be care-

fully worked to. The tilt of the rail is to be 1 in 20, from a perpendicular drawn at right angles to the line of the cross tie, and if on applying a set gauge of that angle it shall be found that the rail is tilted more or less than 1 in 20 by more than ½ in. in its depth, the sleeper will be rejected. The name of the maker, the date of casting, and the letters "I. S. R., 41½ lb.," are to be cast on each sleeper. Every piece of cast and wrought ironwork must be permanently marked with the letters "I. S. R." The contractor must cast twice in each day from the same metal as that used in the sleepers two duplicate bars 2 in. by 1 in. and 3 ft. 6 in. long for test by transverse strain, and two duplicate castings of the form shown on the drawings and exactly 1 in. square for a length of 1½ in. in the middle for test by tensile strain. One of the two bars for test by transverse strain must be tested on edge on bearings 3 ft. apart, and it must bear 30 cwt. in the centre without breaking, and must show a deflection of at least 0.29 in., and one of the other two castings must be tested in a suitable machine to ascertain the tensile strength of the iron, which must be equal to 11 tons per square inch. The second test casting of each kind is to be marked with the date of casting and put away for subsequent inspection. All sleepers cast on any day when either of the two bars tested fail to stand the specified tests will be rejected. One sleeper in every lot of 200 will be tested daily by blows. The sleepers so tested are to be placed on a bed of sand ballast. A piece of rail 18 in. long is then to be keyed into the sleeper as if for the road. The rail is then to be struck by a monkey weighing 3 cwt., falling from heights commencing at 2 ft. and rising by increments of 1 ft. up to 8 ft., and whenever any sleeper so tested does not bear these blows without cracking or showing other signs of failure the day's work will be rejected. The sleepers tested will not be taken as part of the contract, but must be broken up immediately after testing. The sand foundations on which the sleepers are tested is to be 2 ft. thick and is to be laid on a cast iron bed plate 8 in. thick. All sleepers must be moulded by machine. No hand moulding will be allowed. Immediately after each sleeper is cast it must be so protected that the process of cooling will proceed so slowly that its strength will not in any way be diminished by too rapid or unequal cooling. All the holes and notches in the tie-bars must be punched in one operation. The contractor is to replace, at his own cost and charge, all

sleepers, &c., which may be broken or damaged in carriage or delivery, or otherwise previously to their coming into actual possession of the Secretary of State for India. All the wrought ironwork must be heated and dipped while hot into boiled linseed oil. When dry, all the small parts, with the exception of the tie-bars, must be packed in strong cases. The cases are to be made of 1½ in. thick well-seasoned deal boarding, with 1½ in. thick elm ends, the whole nailed together with wire nails; they are to be strengthened by battens pitched at a proper distance along the sides, tops, and bottoms, each set of which is to be entirely surrounded with one strap of hoop iron. The cases are to have outside end corner posts, and the ends are to be tied with hoop irons, each stretching across the end and along the sides to meet the first side battens. The hoop iron is to be 1½ in. wide, No. 18 B.W.G. thick. The joints of all cases are to be tongued and grooved. The tie-bars are to be delivered in bundles of sixteen, firmly bound together with strong rod iron. The sleepers may go out unpacked. All packages must have such shipping marks as may be directed by the Inspector-General; the marks on all wooden cases being cut or branded into them, not merely painted. The weight of each case when packed is not to exceed 5 cwt. The contractor is to furnish, with his second delivery, the usual seven complete sets of tracings on cloth. The cost of all cases or other materials required for packing, as well as of all such tracings, oiling, packing, marking, testing, &c., must be included in the contract sum. Tenders are to be delivered at the Store Department in the India Office, Westminster, S.W., on Tuesday, 14th November, 1882, before two p.m., after which hour no tender will be received. They are to be addressed to the Secretary of State for India in Council, with the words, "Tender for Cast Iron Plate Sleepers for 41½ lb. Steel Rails" on the left-hand corner of the envelope, and are to be placed in a box provided for that purpose in the Store Department.

KING'S COLLEGE ENGINEERING SOCIETY.—At a general meeting of this Society, held on the 2nd inst., Mr. E. H. Horne read a paper on "The Construction of Naval Guns." The meeting was very well attended. There will be no meeting next week.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR.

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

ELECTRICAL STANDARDS OF MEASUREMENT.

SIR,—I am sorry that "Φ. II." should have put on a sentence in my letter of October 23rd the very meaning which I wished it not to bear; but for the sake of brevity I shortened the passage too much, and failed to make it clear to him that I was referring to the starting of an engine when I wrote, "if the resistance to motion equalled the driving power, equilibrium would result, and the engine would not move," i.e., start, from rest. "J. B. W.'s" argument I take to be this, "E = R, therefore C = 0, but if C = 0, where is the current to do the work?" That is, in an engine, if the power applied to start it be not sufficient to disturb its equilibrium when at rest, and overcome the inertia and friction, it will not start at all; that is, starting power must be greater than resistance, for starting is simply accelerating, that is, changing the speed from 0 to n revolutions, and a change of speed shows that equilibrium has been disturbed, and is in process of restoration; the sign that it has been restored is that the change, acceleration, or diminution ceases, and the speed becomes uniform and steady. This useful fact, that disturbance of equilibrium is shown by change of speed, is the principle of the automatic regulation of power to work by a governor. There would be no limit to acceleration were an engine not in equilibrium at a given uniform speed with uniform power and load. The necessity for and use of governors is in itself a disproof of "Φ. II.'s" theory, that the force decreases if the resistance be lessened; if it did, engines would regulate themselves without assistance, and one of the greatest dangers to machinery would have no existence at all. The most familiar and plaguing case of this is, probably, the racing of a steamer's screw in a high sea, but even this can now be controlled. If "Φ. II." attempts to prove his theory by putting his boat-towing illustration into practice, let me advise him to select a heavy boat, get a friend to tow, and cut the rope himself. He will then see that the force does not vanish when the resistance is removed, but causes a sudden and violent acceleration of the motor, generally ending in this case in a sharp collision between the tower's nose or knees and the path by which this moving body is brought to rest. November 6th. AN ELECTRICAL STUDENT.

THE CASTING OF PIPES.

SIR,—My only object in noticing your correspondent "Experience" is to let your numerous readers—in, I may say, all parts of the civilised world—know that the leading members of the profession of engineers are men of progress; that as they saw frequently the upcast socket fail and gave them trouble, they insisted on a change in the system of casting to obtain better results. It is a pity that small founders, to serve their interests, should be so far behind the age as to fall back on a discarded system that they might use their old-fashioned plant.

I am amused at your correspondent's repeated boast of his being a practical man, of his having "cast personally many thousands of tons and varnished other thousands." No doubt many of his fellow-workmen can say the same, but a man may be a good founder yet wanting in the application of his castings to the works. He would therefore only show his good sense by taking the orders and advice of his customers, who should know what was required and who were willing to pay for superior work. The fact in reference to cost is that first-class founders do not charge extra for casting socket down, but men who have not the proper plant do so. Your correspondent advises me to remember that I am talking to a—this time a thoroughly—practical man. I can only remember that he says he is so; but I hope that he will bear in mind not to attempt again to strengthen his assertions by a vulgar and silly joke. I will not ask him to name even one civil engineer who specified socket up, as no member of the profession doing so would like to have it known that he used a questionable instead of a reliable casting. He may have been unfortunately placed and obliged to bend to the inevitable. PRIOR. October 28th.

TESTS FOR COAL.

SIR,—A rather extraordinary incident has lately come under my notice which seems to point strongly to the desirability of some ready scientific means being popularised for testing the quality of coal. I do not mean by this suggestion to hint that such are necessary to the experts engaged in the coal trade, but there is, unfortunately, a class of men whose living is derived from the supply of coal who cannot be termed experts, and who only seem to recognise the principle in their dealings of buying in the cheapest and selling in the dearest market, and who, even if they possess the knowledge or experience qualifying them to discriminate as to quality, neither will nor desire to exercise it for the benefit of their customers. The incident above referred to, and which has given rise to these remarks, occurred only a short time back, when a steamer bound for one of our eastern ports started filled up with coal for her own consumption, carrying no cargo, as she was only for delivery out there. The trial trip had been most successfully run some little time previously, the boiler giving an adequate supply of steam, and everything connected with the engines working most satisfactorily. It was therefore with great chagrin that the superintending engineer for the owner, who was to accompany the ship some little distance, found that before some thirty miles had been run from the port of departure the boilers were gradually losing steam. Every exertion was made by those in charge of the furnaces, but fire properly the coal would not. It soon became evident that the coal, although not bad looking stuff, and purchased by the agents as the best Welsh steam coal, flew into dust, and the tubes were rapidly becoming choked, and this to such an extent that before proceeding much further the vessel came to a dead stand for want of steam to move her engines. There was no alternative but to wait until a little could be raised, turn the vessel's head round, and, with occasional stoppages to get a few pounds of steam, creep slowly back to port. Arriving there late in the evening, the next morning a few tons of West Hartley and Northern steam coal were obtained from a coal hulk, and a run of 45 miles taken to test the question as to whether the fault was wholly attributable to the quality of the coal, when the result was fully equal to that obtained on the trial trip. There was nothing for it, therefore, but to discharge the whole of the coal on board, and fill up with more reliable fuel.

Now, there are several questions connected with this rather ignominious proceeding that deserve consideration. In the first place, the highly respectable firm who supplied the coal must have, presumably, been ignorant of its quality, or must have culpably neglected in supplying such material as the *quid pro quo* of the price paid, a price for which the very best Welsh coal should have been supplied as contracted for. The question was attempted to be raised as to whether the furnaces were of adequate size; but this was set at rest very speedily, for they had been constructed of extra dimensions to admit of wood being occasionally used as fuel. Then, further, it certainly appears strange that the engineers of the ship, well experienced men as they are, should have allowed such coals to have been placed on board without protest. In fact, the only man who seems to have protested before the fact of inferior quality became manifest, after the ship was a good many miles on her journey, was the ship's cook, who complained that it took him an hour to light the galley fire with it. Now here we have men of long use in the coal trade, and with a high character for honourable dealing—the captain of the vessel, an officer of long experience with steamers; the first and second engineers of the ship, with equally long experience; and lastly, the superintending engineer himself—all unable to pronounce upon the quality of the coal by any test of sight or handling. I believe that such incapability of forming a judgment in this respect is by no means uncommon, and it is therefore that I desire to suggest that some ready means

of practically testing the quality of coal should be devised for the use of those who are outside the actual working of the trade. For it must be borne in mind that too late discovery is but too often made, and serious results are not unlikely to attend the fact. It is within my own experience to have known a mail steamer, when in mid-ocean, seriously delayed by some defects in her coal, which did not become apparent until long after the vessel's leaving port. I recollect that on this occasion the coal burned fairly well, and without eliciting complaint from the chief engineer, all the way from India to Aden, on which journey the draught had been stimulated by the strength of the south-west monsoon. Directly, however, the quiet, land-locked Red Sea was entered, the slight after-breeze, blowing at about the same speed as the ship was steaming, completely removed this aid to combustion, with the result that all the way up to Suez steam could scarcely be kept up at all, in spite of the frantic exertions of a perfect army—on duty in constant relays—of native firemen. Such contingencies, I repeat, should be guarded against as fully as possible; but it will be difficult to do so until some means of testing the quality of coal under varying conditions of draught, and before a vessel leaves dock, can be established. There are some who pretend to judge by the cleavage of the coal, by its fracture under pressure or a forcible blow; but I have known all such tests to be falsified in practice, the very finest looking coal proving ill-adapted to the required purpose, while other, condemned as worthless, has fulfilled every possible requirement.

As the opening up of many of our colonial and foreign possessions proceeds, one of the chief objects of explorers is to try and discover coal—a mineral which undoubtedly exists in greater or lesser quantity over the whole area almost of the earth's surface. Many valuable finds have already been made, and there are yet many more finds, which, rejected as worthless by the surface specimen, might prove valuable when worked deep. It is amusing to hear, however, how such discoverers contradict one another as to quality. Thus, very recently, coal specimens, said to be of high standard, were brought from the African districts inland of Zanzibar, which were afterwards pronounced to have no value at all. Much would be accomplished, therefore, in aiding the important researches after fresh coal-fields if some simple means were devised to enable discoverers—who can scarcely be supposed to be experts in coal—to test the value of the finds. There are many varieties of coal, which, useless for some purposes, are invaluable for others, and a few simple rules laid down, and some not too complex machinery devised for testing the specimens under combustion, are evidently a much felt want.

If, as the case I have above cited proves, men who have been accustomed all their lives to watching the firing of different sorts of coal can be deceived in their judgment, it is manifest those brave explorers who push their way into unknown lands are still less likely to be able to form a correct opinion. It is of the utmost importance to England, with her world-distributed interests and commerce, that as many coal-fields as possible should be opened to supply her ships, and the Royal Geographical Society, through whose aid many journeys of exploration are carried on, would, we feel sure, impress upon their agents the necessity of constantly looking out for such. If the realisation of my suggestions can be accomplished, the leaders of the Society's expeditions could furnish much more valuable information on this subject than they do at present. Their find at Zanzibar was pronounced by one of them to be valueless. On what basis could he pronounce it to be so? If not suited for one purpose, it might be so to another, and I have seen several kinds of coal, perfectly incapable of being burned alone, yield good results when combined with wood in the furnaces. It is evident that the capacity for judging coal is not widespread, and I hold that many useful results would follow the publication of some reliable and practical rules for guidance. A. F.

PHOSPHOR BRONZE SLIDE VALVES, NORTH-EAST COAST EXHIBITION.

SIR,—I would, with your indulgence, like to make a few remarks on your report on old slide valves exhibited by the Phosphor Bronze Company. You state:—"Amongst them was a pair of slide valves, No. 845 express passenger engine of the North-Eastern Railway Company, after six and a-half years' working, during which the engine has now run 261,282 miles from Newcastle to Edinburgh, and vice versa. They have now been taken out to replace the cylinders with a pair of a different type. Mr. Fletcher, assistant locomotive superintendent, gives the following upon the slides, and another pair still at work in No. 844 express engine:—"Mileage of 845 engine, with phosphor bronze slides, from March 30th, 1876, to present time, 4th October, 1882, 261,282 miles. Gun-metal slides rarely exceed eight months' work when they are worn out," &c. &c.

Now, Sir, I have not a single word to advance against the use of phosphor in gun-metal castings, but, on the contrary, I could say much in its favour, as proved by my own experience and observations of its use and good results. But, I would like to point out two things, viz., that by the introduction of phosphorous bad or poor metal can never be made good metal; and that there is not the disparity in the wear and tear of gun-metal castings of the same alloy, one with and one without phosphorous. Or, in other words, there exists not the difference between phosphor bronze and the most approved gun-metal, while Mr. Fletcher would, by his report, lead your readers to believe. Indeed, I cannot help thinking that so extraordinary a statement is due to some mistake or other, and not to facts. If such were true, the name of Fletcher would not hold, amongst locomotive engineers, the high position it does. Nor would the North-Eastern Board of Directors, or that of any other of our large companies, long tolerate so unprofitable a state of affairs in its locomotive department.

Perhaps it may not be uninteresting to Mr. Fletcher, jun., and others of your readers, for me here to say that during an experience now verging upon twenty years, I have made slide valves for a good number of passenger engines, four wheel-coupled class, diam. of wheels 6ft., diam. of cylinders 16in., and 20in. stroke. With constant care and attention to the noting of results during the whole of the above-mentioned period, I have found the average wear of slide valves to be $\frac{3}{16}$ in. per annum, and the average life to be five and a-half years. If there be no mistake in the report supplied to you, or in your report itself, I am, with all due respect to officials and artisans in the service of the North-Eastern Railway Company, forced to the conclusion that to something radically wrong in the brassfoundry—which I can scarcely believe—or to the injudicious interference of some official placed in authority over it, is due these unfortunate results in the wear and tear of slide valves belonging to their express passenger engines, as per Mr. Fletcher's report. FOUNDRYMAN. Oswestry, November 4th.

THE DECAY OF IRON STRUCTURES.

SIR,—The circumstance of the controversy regarding the plans of the high level bridge over the Firth of Forth, now going on, and a letter from a friend telling me that he was at present engaged renewing railway bridges in the North of Scotland, meeting together as two streams of thought in my mind, have produced a reflection on the importance of giving a very minute study to the matter of the duration and last of iron structures exposed to the weather, and I fancy that I am doing no more than right in inviting attention to this matter.

I suppose that it is a historical fact that no iron bridge or iron part of a bridge has yet attained to the age of one hundred years, but that, on the contrary, the greater part of them are aged at twenty-five, and at thirty-five or forty years standing are worn out, useless, or at best, unsafe.

The point of the question as to the last and durability of such structures rests, I imagine, on an inquiry into the deep dimension of the iron, that is to say its comparative thickness. Those structures whose pieces are built or partially built even of iron web from $\frac{1}{4}$ in. to $\frac{3}{8}$ in. in thickness, will probably not last much

longer than a quarter of a century, or at best will not be safe at that age; while structures that are made of bar iron, or iron of not less than 1in. thick, and with thicknesses proportionate to other dimensions, may be expected to last from one hundred to one hundred and fifty years. The tendency of iron exposed to the weather to rapid decay makes the duration of all classes of articles that are made of sheet iron, not specially preserved—for it is wonderful what care will do—necessarily short.

How this consideration may apply to the Forth Bridge scheme I cannot say, but the application is easily made by those who are conversant with it. Although of airy construction, suspension bridges—being made of bar iron—will probably be as lasting as any. WILL. YOUNG BLACK. Townhead, Leith, N.B., 6th November.

THAMES BRIDGES.

SIR,—As such strong objections have been raised against the three proposed forms of communication between the north and south of the Thames, viz., the high and low level bridges and the tunnel, I venture to suggest the plan of what, for want of a better name, I will call a "submerged way."

I propose to drive two series of piles across the river to a depth of 40ft. or 50ft. below its bed, so that their heads shall come about level with the bed of the river; the distance between these two series of piles would be a little over the breadth of the intended submerged way. After the piles have been driven, the earth, &c., is to be removed, to form a channel about 20ft. or 25ft. deep, leaving the piles as the temporary walls on either side of such channel. The submerged way would be constructed of cast iron, the central portion of which—say 200ft. or 250ft. long—would be built in a dry dock, and when complete is to have its ends temporarily closed, and be floated to its position immediately over the above-mentioned channel; it would then be sunk down to the bed prepared for it by admitting water into it. When this has been accomplished, this central portion can be extended at either end, until its base reaches above high-water mark on both sides of the river, and finally all the water pumped out.

The advantage of this plan is that while in no way interfering with either the shipping or the channel of the river, it greatly reduces the length of the approaches as compared with either a high level bridge or an ordinary tunnel, which latter would of necessity have to be nearly twice as deep.

The foregoing is a brief outline of my plan, but I trust it will be sufficiently clear to convey the principle involved. A. L. G. London, November 8th.

THE PRESSURES OF FLUIDS IN MOTION.

SIR,—The following corrections are necessary in my letter on above subject, published in your last. For "Huysens" read "Huygens"; for "they were to be moving with a velocity," &c., read "one ton moving," &c.; for "100 tons" read "1000," and for "1,000,000" read "10,000,000" tons; for "any pump in motion" read "any mass in motion"; and erase "and help" in next line but one after; for due to the "head" it contains" read "sustains"; and finally and immediately below the last of the tables read " $\frac{1}{327}$ th head" of water instead of the " $\frac{1}{32}$ lb."

In addition to what my previous letter contains, I would say that Hawksley's formula, $\frac{W}{g} = P$, does not give P in any sense, it gives twice "work." There is a lot of rubbish knocking about in the shape of formulae. G. PINNINGTON. Chester, November 7th.

[Our correspondent would save himself and us some trouble if he would write legibly and revise what he writes before, instead of after, sending it to us.—ED. E.]

THE NEW BRIDGE AT PUTNEY.

(Concluded from page 315.)

Floating booms.—No. 20 floating booms are to be constructed as shown, and cut out of 14in. by 14in. whole baulk timbers; the arrisses are to be rounded off and the boom bound round with No. 4 wrought iron rings, as shown, made of 4in. metal by 1in. thick. Should the booms be not made of one single timber, sufficient rings or hoops must be placed round to fully secure any scarf or splice that may be made in it. At each end of the booms must be fixed a large-eyed ring bolt, with eye sufficiently large to let a $\frac{3}{4}$ in. chain play freely through it. These chains must be fixed to each dolphin as shown, and screwed up taut, as it is intended they should act as guides for the boom to rise and fall with the tides. After erection upon the pile supports, the whole of the centres shall be loaded with weights in such a manner as the engineer may determine, and the resulting deflections, or any permanent sets due to imperfect workmanship, shall be carefully observed and the resulting curves accurately drawn to a large scale.

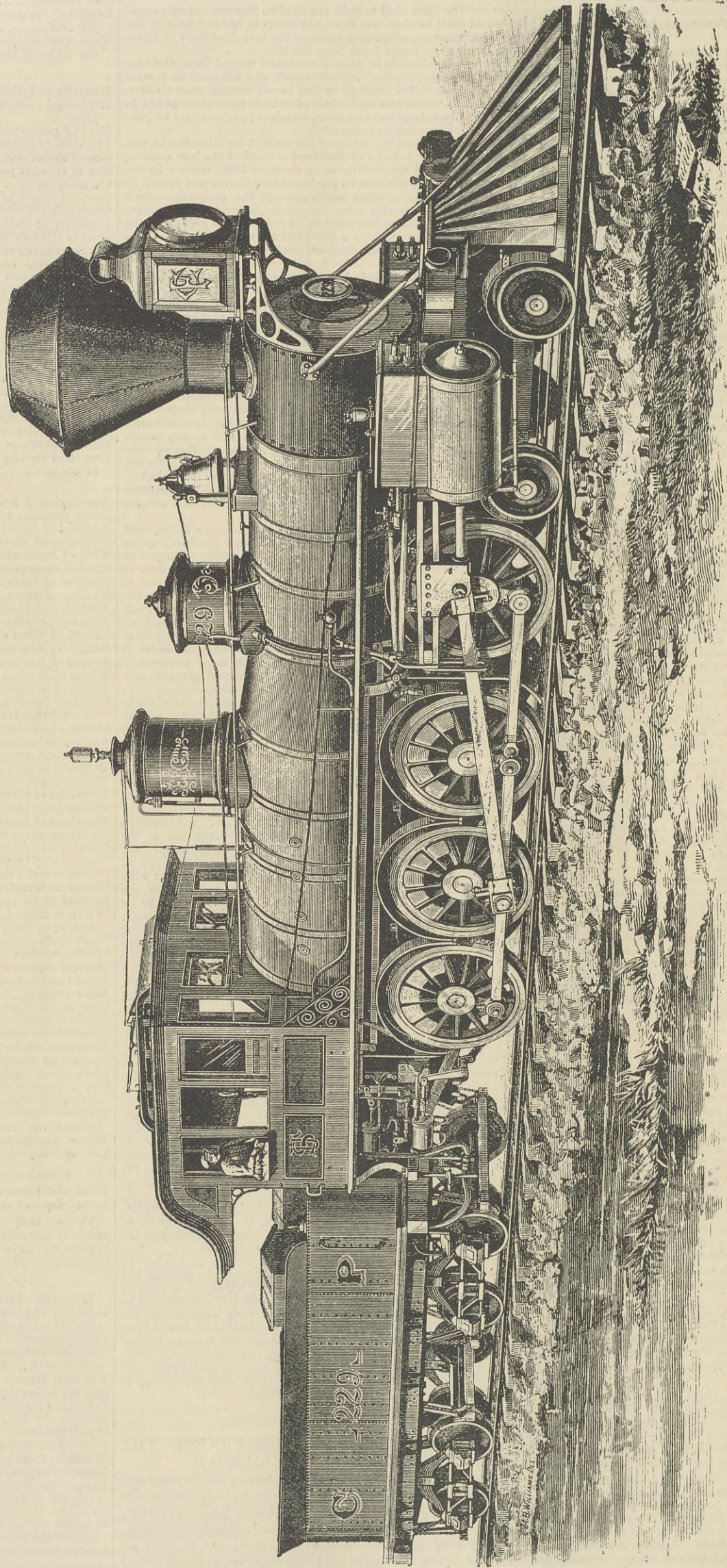
Arches: Arches and skewbacks.—The arches are flat segments, of the form and dimensions shown in the drawings, and together with the skewbacks, are to be of granite. The skewbacks both of the abutments and piers are to be composed of blocks of the form and dimensions shown, not less than 4ft. upon their beds measuring across the axis of the bridge. When set they are to form a true even plane the full depth of the archstones truly perpendicular to the tangent to the intrados of the arch at its springing. The vertical thickness and width of the voussoirs, or archstones, is to be as shown in the respective drawings, and they are not to be less than 4ft. measuring across the bridge, and none of them are to overlap the stones in the adjoining courses less than 18in. The archstones are all to be fine axed on the face, perfectly smooth and true according to their respective positions, the soffit being truly formed to the curvature of the intrados, and the sides fine picked worked, so that a parallel joint shall be left between each course of archstones $\frac{1}{8}$ ths of an inch in thickness, and truly perpendicular to the tangent to the intrados of the arch at that point. In setting the stones, vertical strips of lead $\frac{1}{8}$ ths of an inch in thickness, 2in. in width, and the whole depth of the stones in length, are to be introduced at a distance of 6in. from each end of each stone, and as soon as each course has been completed the joints shall be grouted with Portland cement and sharp Thames sand—1 and 1—being put in of such a consistency as perfectly to fill solid the whole depth of the joints. The extrados of the arches are to be hammer dressed. The whole of the joints of the arch stones are to be fine picked over their whole surface without any deficiency whatever. The extrados of the arch stones shall be fine picked for a sufficient depth to receive the face stones of the outer spandril walls. The whole of the five arches are to be carried over together in such a manner that no arch shall at any time be more than one course in advance of another.

Spandril Walls and Platform for Roadway.—Upon the completion of the bridge arches the whole surface of the extrados and skewbacks shall be covered with a coat of Claridge's asphalt of the best quality, to be laid in one perfect and continuous sheet $\frac{1}{2}$ in. in thickness over the entire surface of the bridge, and turned up 6in. in height against the internal surfaces of the outer spandril walls. Upon the completion of the asphalt covering, the seven inner spandril walls shall be built of the dimensions and in the positions shown on the drawings, with sound, hard and well burnt square stock bricks set in mortar composed of 2 of sharp Thames sand to 1 of Portland cement. The bricks are to be thoroughly soaked and to be properly bonded, so as to form the most perfect and strong work. Each spandril wall is to be capped with a course of Bradford landings 9in. thick, and bedded in mortar as last described, and so as to project equally over each side of the spandril walls. The whole width under the carriage and footways is then to be covered with a floor of Bradford landings, 9in. in thickness, bedded in mortar as above, and so laid that the longitudinal joints shall coincide with the centres of the spandril walls. The outer margins of this floor are to overlap the inner sides of the

TWELVE-WHEELED LOCOMOTIVE—CENTRAL PACIFIC RAILWAY.

CONSTRUCTED AT THE WORKS OF THE CENTRAL PACIFIC RAILWAY, SACRAMENTO, FROM THE DESIGNS OF MR. A. J. STEVENS.

(For description see page 353.)



FOREIGN AGENTS FOR THE SALE OF THE ENGINEER.

PARIS.—Madame BOYVEAU, Rue de la Banque.
 BERLIN.—ASHER and CO., 5, Unter den Linden.
 VIENNA.—Messrs. GEROLD and CO., Booksellers.
 LEIPSIK.—A. TWITTMAYER, Bookseller.
 NEW YORK.—THE WILLMER and ROGERS NEWS COMPANY,
 81, Beekman-street.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

- * * * In order to avoid trouble and confusion, we find it necessary to inform correspondents that letters of inquiry addressed to the public, and intended for insertion in this column, must, in all cases, be accompanied by a large envelope legibly directed by the writer to himself, and bearing a 1d. postage stamp, in order that answers received by us may be forwarded to their destination. No notice will be taken of communications which do not comply with these instructions.
- * * * We cannot undertake to return drawings or manuscripts; we must therefore request correspondents to keep copies.
- * * * All letters intended for insertion in THE ENGINEER, or containing questions, must be accompanied by the name and address of the writer, not necessarily for publication, but as a proof of good faith. No notice whatever will be taken of anonymous communications.

ESQUIRER.—At the works of Messrs. Bolckow, Vaughan, and Co., Middlesbrough, amongst others.
 J. A. J.—The velocity of the current is to be added to the steam speed of the ship. Therefore the answer to your question is "Yes."
 G. W. W. (Nottingham).—There is no special treatise on syphons. You will find all that can be said about them in every elementary treatise on hydraulics.
 H.—To calculate the tensile strength of steel from its transverse strength is a difficult operation, giving anything but trustworthy results. Practically, such calculations are useless.
 TRUDGER.—A coating 1/4 in. thick, of Portland cement and clean, sharp, fine sand, one-half of each by measure, will render your house perfectly water-proof. The cement should not be put on at this time of year, as a hard frost before it is quite dry will peel it off. May is the best month in the year to put it on. It is best applied in wet weather. Care should be taken to rake out the joints in the brickwork before applying the cement, and the wall should be kept thoroughly wet while the cement is being put on. In England the price of such work, including the use of scaffolding, ranges between 2s. 6d. and 3s. per square yard, according to the amount of ornament put round windows. Oil or paint is entirely unnecessary, unless the coating of cement is less than 1/4 in. thick, which it should not be. Cement surfaces will absorb oil or paint.

SUBSCRIPTIONS.

THE ENGINEER can be had, by order, from any newsagent in town or country at the various railway stations; or it can, if preferred, be supplied direct from the office on the following terms (paid in advance):—
 Half-yearly (including double numbers) £0 14s. 6d.
 Yearly (including two double numbers) £1 9s. 0d.
 If credit occur, an extra charge of two shillings and sixpence per annum will be made. THE ENGINEER is registered for transmission abroad.
 Other cases for binding THE ENGINEER Volume, price 2s. 6d. each.
 A complete set of THE ENGINEER can be had on application.
 Foreign Subscriptions for Thin Paper Copies will, until further notice, be received at the rates given below.—Foreign Subscribers paying in advance at the published rates will receive THE ENGINEER weekly and post-free. Subscriptions sent by Post-office order must be accompanied by letter of advice to the Publisher. Thick Paper Copies may be had, if preferred, at increased rates.
 Remittance by Post-office Order.—Australia, Belgium, Brazil, British Columbia, British Guiana, Canada, Cape of Good Hope, Denmark, Egypt, France, Germany, Gibraltar, Italy, Malta, Natal, Netherlands, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, New South Wales, New Zealand, Portugal, Roumania, Switzerland, Tasmania, Turkey, United States, West Coast of Africa, West Indies, Cyprus, £1 16s. China, Japan, India, £2 0s. 6d.
 Remittance by Bill in London.—Austria, Buenos Ayres and Algeria, Greece, Ionian Islands, Norway, Panama, Peru, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Chili, £1 16s. Borneo, Ceylon, Java, and Singapore, £2 0s. 6d. Manilla, Mauritius, Sandwich Isles, £2 5s.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

* * * The charge for Advertisements of four lines and under is three shillings; for every two lines afterwards one shilling and sixpence; odd lines are charged one shilling. The line averages seven words. When an advertisement measures an inch or more the charge is ten shillings per inch. All single advertisements from the country must be accompanied by a post-office order in payment. Alternate advertisements will be inserted with all practical regularity, but regularity cannot be guaranteed in any such case. All except weekly advertisements are taken subject to this condition.
 Advertisements cannot be inserted unless Delivered before 8 1/2 o'clock on Thursday Evening in each Week.
 * * * Letters relating to Advertisements and the Publishing Department of the paper are to be addressed to the Publisher, Mr. George Leopold Riche; all other letters to be addressed to the Editor of THE ENGINEER, 163, Strand.

MEETING NEXT WEEK.

CHEMICAL SOCIETY.—Thursday, Nov. 16th, at 8 p.m.: Ballot for the election of Fellows. Papers to be read: (1) "Contributions to the Chemistry of Tartaric and Citric Acids," by the late Mr. B. J. Grosjean. (2) Contributions from the Jodrell Laboratory, Kew; "Constitution of Lignin and Bastose," by Messrs. C. F. Cross and E. J. Bevan. "Contributions to the Chemistry of Plant Fibre," by Messrs. C. F. Cross, E. J. Bevan, and S. S. Webster. "Action of Nitric Acid on Cellulose," by Messrs. C. F. Cross and E. J. Bevan. (3) "On the Constitution of some Bromine Derivatives of Naphthalene," by Mr. R. Meldola.

THE ENGINEER.

NOVEMBER 10, 1882.

TRACTION ENGINES.

ON Friday last the President of the Local Government Board, the Right Hon. J. G. Dodson, received a very large and influential deputation on the use of steam on common roads. The deputation was introduced by the Duke of Buckingham, who, with Mr. C. Stuart Wortley, M.P., were the chief speakers. A great deal that was not favourable to the employment of traction engines was said; but it must be admitted that few deputations on such a subject have been so temperate both in objection and demand as was that of Friday, judging by the speeches of those who were its chief leaders. The deputation represented large manufacturing towns, small towns, and country districts, and whatever there may be in the memorial presented, there was certainly very little in the speeches of the narrow-spirited wholesale denunciation of traction engines which in previous years has marked the discussion of this subject. The facts chiefly urged were these—namely, that common roads cost a great deal more to maintain where steam traction is employed than where horse traction is used; that traction engine traffic is a source of very considerable danger to the public, and that traction engines are not placed in the hands of competent certified drivers. With one exception the speakers expressed themselves in favour of the use of traction or agricultural traction engines under certain regulations, and remarked that they would not wish for a measure that would place undue restrictions on their use, while the Duke of Buckingham said he believed the use of

steam might be beneficially extended both on roads and for agricultural purposes.

The complaints of those who object to traction engines having now become temperate, it behoves those who are distinctly partial to the use of this mode of haulage to consider their objections. It need hardly be said that we have always supported the use of steam on common roads, and shall continue to do so while its possible advantages are as great as they are now. At the same time we must not shut our eyes to the fact that steam is not at present employed on common roads under the best circumstances or on the best possible conditions. Let us then examine the objections of the memorialists to the Local Government Board. Firstly, is the allegation of the increased cost of maintenance of ordinary roads. It is without doubt a fact that many roads which have been satisfactory, and have not cost a great deal for repairs, have become very costly after the appearance of the traction engine. In some cases this may be chiefly because the engine has come on to the scene with the introduction of a trade new to the locality; but increased cost in the maintenance of roads has been observed in many cases where the steam engine has been simply substituted for horses. This being the case, it is certainly not sufficient to say that the roads must be better made; the traction engine must rather be made to suit the roads, for in these cases it is not the general public that gains by the employment of steam, but only perhaps a single firm of brewers or manure manufacturers. It may reasonably be demanded that the road bridges in any district should be made of sufficient strength to carry a heavy traction or steam ploughing engine, for a pair of these engines may serve a number of farms in a district, and not necessarily affect roads by continually traversing the same one. In this case the damage to roads is not noticeable, as, though the load is heavy, it moves very slowly, and the wheels are of great width. On behalf of the traction engine, it is urged that though the weight is great, the width of wheel decreases the load per unit of width of wheel, and thereby the damage done to the roads. Experience does not, however, wholly support this conclusion, for it does seem that a given quantity of material may be moved between two places with less damage to a common road—not the best that can be made—by a number of vans, such as those used by Pickford and Co., than by traction engines; and even on roads that would for ordinary traffic be considered well made it seems that the much greater weight of the traction engine is often sufficient, especially after bad weather, to break, not only the surface of the road, but to shatter the whole road structure. The increase in the width of the wheels is thus not sufficient to overcome the difficulty, and the question comes, What is the reason that narrow-wheeled vans will do a given amount of goods transport with less damage even to the road surface than the wide-wheeled traction engine? and we believe that the answer is that the van is usually fitted with springs, while the heavy traction engine is springless. Engines have been made with springs, and they have been found to do much less damage to the roads than those without, and the only reason why springed traction engines are not built is that they cost considerably more than the ordinary engines, and buyers look at this cost. If, however, it can be shown that traction engines are necessary to the economical conduct of trades, then the cost of fitting engines with springs is one that must be incurred, for it certainly can be shown that if all these engines were fitted with effectively elastic wheels, or good long springs, the damage done by them to common roads would be enormously reduced, and might not be more than that done by ordinary traffic. The permanent way of our great railways is generally strong, well laid, and well maintained, but there is not a mile of line in this country that would stand a week's traffic with springless locomotives. While referring to this part of the question, it is noticeable that the Duke of Buckingham urged that the use of diagonal cross bars on the engine wheels did great damage to the roads and caused heavy and needless expense. The Highways and Locomotives Amendment Act, 1878, Part II., paragraph 28, has the following:—"The driving wheels of a locomotive shall be cylindrical and smooth-soled, or shod with diagonal cross bars of not less than three inches in width nor more than three-quarters of an inch in thickness, extending the full breadth of the tire, and the space intervening between each such cross bar shall not exceed three inches." Traction engine makers are thus acting under compulsion in fitting these diagonal cross bars, and if they really do the harm alleged, then this part of the law should be modified, for builders would as readily affix bars transversely as diagonally.

One of the points urged against traction engines with respect to the danger to ordinary traffic was the width of the engines, which under the Act of 1865 is limited to 9ft. instead of 7ft., as required by the Act of 1861. The law only requires that roads leading to market towns shall have a width of 20ft.; and even on these it is alleged that the 9ft. width of engine is the cause of much danger that would not exist if the 7ft. width had been retained. The extra 2ft., no doubt, makes a good deal of difference, and except for steam ploughing engines 9ft. width is not necessary. With the system of steam ploughing as originally devised and successfully worked, with a portable engine and disc anchor and windlass, by Fowler and Worby, and as still employed in a modified form by two or three makers, these heavy, wide engines were not necessary; but as steam ploughing is chiefly done by those who make it a special business, and not by farmers themselves, the double special engine set offers some advantages over the light general-purpose engine system. The ordinary and more numerous agricultural locomotive and traction engine is not however, made of this width, and so the objection chiefly refers to the less numerous class of engines. But these engines have frequently to pass along roads much less than 20ft. in width, and it becomes a question whether the roads in these places shall be widened to meet the requirements of steam ploughing engine, or the passage of the engines restricted even more than now as to the hours during which they shall pass along the roads. Working

these engines at night only is dangerous work for all employed with them, while at daytime it is often equally dangerous for ordinary traffic; and to avoid making it necessary for the driver of a horse to retrace a considerable distance, it would in these districts with very narrow roads often be necessary to make the man bearing the red flag precede the engine by perhaps a mile instead of a hundred yards or so; but if steam ploughing engines are necessary this matter could be settled by regulations suiting the immediate district. With respect to the third allegation of the memorialists, it is almost unnecessary to add our previously expressed views on the culpable heedlessness with which traction engine owners employ men not in the least competent to assume the charge of an engine which requires almost as much care in its working—and in some cases more—than a railway locomotive. The Maidstone accident, among others, showed what incompetency and recklessness is exhibited by the ignorant men often placed in charge of these engines for the sake of a shilling or two saving per day; and nothing short of compulsory qualification, and the grant of certificates to competent men, can overcome this great objection to steam on common roads.

SECONDARY BATTERIES AND THE PUBLIC.

A CONSIDERABLE period has elapsed since Sir William Thomson startled the scientific world with the announcement that he had carried a small box with him from Paris to Scotland, in which were stored up more than a million foot-pounds of energy. What Sir William said was quickly snatched up by a section of the public, and it was stated, on the large scale of statement, that it was possible to store up great quantities of electricity in deal boxes. We believe that this was the first journal in which it was explained that no electricity at all is stored up in a secondary battery; and that the lesson was taken to heart in certain quarters there seems to be no doubt. The whole theory of the secondary, or storage battery, is being so fully set forth in our pages, by one of the greatest authorities on the subject, Professor Oliver Lodge, that we need say nothing about it here; but it is, we think, highly desirable, for reasons which will no doubt be understood by our readers if they follow us a little further, that we should set forth here what the Faure battery is. It was discovered long ago that if two plates of any metal, say copper, are immersed in acidulated water, and if a current of electricity be passed through the cell, a change takes place in the relations of the parts to each other, and a galvanometer placed in a circuit connecting the two plates will be powerfully deflected, the plates acting for a short period much as though they were of different metals, such as copper and zinc, instead of both being copper or both being zinc. This action seems to be due to the formation of a coat of bubbles of hydrogen on one plate and of oxygen on the other. These gases act toward each other like two metals, a current of electricity passing from the hydrogen to the oxygen. We have here in a small way a storage battery. In 1859 M. Pianté, of Paris, made a storage battery with lead plates on this principle. The oxygen formed attacks the lead and converts it into peroxide. When the battery comes to be "let down," that is to say to give out work, the peroxide becomes effectually deoxidised, and a powerful current of electricity is set up. But the only storage which takes place, if any storage at all occurs, is one of chemical energy, for there is no more electricity in the peroxide than there was in the metal. M. Faure improved upon Pianté by coating his plates with red lead to begin with; but FitzGerald had suggested the use of red lead for secondary batteries, and published the suggestion in the *Electrician* as far back as the 20th of March, 1863, as shown by the following extract from its pages:—"The great power of the secondary combinations we have referred to is due to the presence of peroxide of lead in contact with the negative element in these combinations. This substance, as was pointed out by M. De la Rive, surpasses even nitric acid in its affinity for hydrogen, and for this reason a couple constructed with a negative element of platinum surrounded by a mixture of dilute sulphuric acid and the peroxide of lead, and with a positive element of amalgamated zinc in dilute sulphuric acid, is more powerful even than the couple of Grove; and when lead instead of platinum is used for the negative element, the power of the couple is but little diminished." A further elucidation of this statement will be found in THE ENGINEER for March 10th, 1882, page 171. Thus, so far as the principle is concerned, M. Faure did not give the world a new thing, nor had he made any discovery. It so happens that it is by no means easy to ascertain precisely what process of manufacture is now adopted by the company holding the Faure patents, but it appears that two sheets of very thin lead, one 16in. and the other 20in. long, both being 6in. wide, are employed in the formation of a cell. These plates are first thickly painted with red lead mixed up to a thin paste with water; a sheet of parchmentised paper is then laid on the red lead. The next step is to cover each prepared plate with felt. The short sheet is now put on the long one, and the two are rolled up together, small slips of india-rubber being used to keep the surfaces fairly apart. The roll is then put into a leaden vessel or cell, and wires are attached to the cell and the roll. The former is then filled with water containing 10 per cent. of sulphuric acid, and the whole is ready for charging. Such, then, is the Faure battery; nothing can apparently be more simple or easy to make.

We need hardly remind our readers that companies were floated to construct and sell accumulator batteries within a short time after the publication of Sir W. Thomson's letter. Furthermore several accumulators have been made. In the early part of the present year the Sellon-Volkmar battery was employed to light the Alhambra Court at the Crystal Palace. They have been used also in the City, and the public at large believe that they are articles of commerce which can be readily bought. The truth is, however, that the Faure battery has, in the strictest sense of the word, no commercial existence. It is true that uncharged Faure batteries can be bought, the buyer taking the risk of charging on himself, but this is not quite what is wanted. It is as though a gas company sold coals and retorts, and let the consumer

make his own gas. A great many experiments have, however, been made with it, because it is very easy for anyone who is at all used to laboratory work to make a cell, or half a dozen cells, in the way we have just described; and these cells can then be charged either with a dynamo or by the aid of an ordinary galvanic battery of reasonable electro-motive force. All these experiments have taught so far the same lesson, namely, that the battery is not trustworthy, save in the most experienced hands, and that even when used with great care it is liable to go to pieces and to prove worthless just when most wanted. If the company has really got a trustworthy battery which it can sell, and which may be depended upon to last a long time, its experience must be entirely different from that of all the scientific men who have tried to reduce the scheme to a commercial basis, and we have no hesitation in expressing our belief that there are not half a dozen Faure batteries in existence which could be sent out to do a couple of nights lighting with certainty. A battery might do the work or it might not. It is proper to add that many demands have been made on the company for charged batteries. To all such applications a deaf ear is turned. But in the money article of the *Times* of Tuesday appears a paragraph to the following effect:—"Elsewhere will be found the report of a meeting of the Faure Electric Accumulator Company, at which a resolution was adopted forcing on the directors the policy of forming sub-companies with rights to use the parent company's patents. The advocates of this mode of working are M. Philippart and his friends, and its wisdom entirely depends on the extent to which the Faure apparatus is not merely the best of its kind, but the best that is likely to be invented for some time to come. Considering the extraordinary rapid progress that has lately been made in the practical application of electricity, it appears to us to be unsafe to assume that no improvements on the Faure battery are possible. That battery has undoubtedly proved itself capable of doing a good deal that its inventors alleged it could do, but he would be a bold man who would affirm that science has said its last word on the subject of secondary batteries."

Our contemporary's warning is well timed, and those who propose to invest money in shares of the sub-companies will do well to ascertain very clearly what it is they are purchasing. Ostensibly the thing sold is the sole right to manufacture, for a given district, a very valuable apparatus, which may be used with success to furnish light and power to the public. There can be no question that Faure batteries have been made which could be employed to light buildings and drive small machinery; but those who undertake to make a profit out of the sale or hire of such batteries will very soon learn that laboratory experiments are very different things indeed from manufacturing for the public. A battery which will satisfy the necessary conditions must be moderate in price, and must be tolerably durable. Any company proposing to deal in Faure batteries must be prepared to sell them for use at a distance, and also to supply them charged, on hire, to consumers of electricity. If the purchaser buys £100 worth of batteries, and finds that in less than one month they have become entirely useless, he will be likely to express his opinion of the sellers in a very decided fashion. If a company invest five or six thousand pounds in the construction of batteries which go to pieces in use, the company will have lost a good deal of money; and, finally, if charged batteries are supplied to customers who find themselves left in darkness when they most want light, the result will again be extremely unsatisfactory to the company. Now, our contention is that there is not at this moment any secondary battery in existence the success of which is so assured that the inventor would be justified in asking the public at large to invest in it. There are, however, several batteries which are so far full of promise that men who understand perfectly the nature of the risks they run are justified in finding funds to be expended in further research. The time has not yet come for the general public to touch secondary batteries. That such batteries have successfully accomplished comparatively great things is admitted on all hands; but it is simply impossible to form the least idea at what cost. For example, the expense incurred in lighting up the Alhambra Court at the Crystal Palace last year was no doubt enormously out of proportion to the result obtained. As a scientific experiment, the thing was of world-wide importance; but to fancy that it went to prove that the manufacture of secondary batteries must be a successful speculation is utterly absurd. There are weak points in all secondary batteries yet made, and in this country, France, Germany, and America dozens of able men are struggling to overcome what now appear to be fatal objections to their extended use. That their efforts will be successful it is, perhaps, safe to predict; but just now cells crack, and sometimes from causes entirely obscure, after a battery has been a short time in use; excessive leakage takes place, and in certain cases has proved uncontrollable; the anode plates disintegrate and fall to pieces; the insulation cannot be preserved, and so on. Indeed, it will be readily understood that inasmuch as lead oxide is alternately being converted into a species of metallic sponge, and reconverted into an oxide, which is the reverse of coherent, while violent chemical and electrical action is constantly going on, as well while the battery is being charged as while it is being let down, little can be more difficult to ensure than the permanence of the structure. Of these matters, however, the public is, of course, in total ignorance; and we only discharge our duty when we warn would-be speculators in any form of secondary battery to think twice before they invest. It is beyond our province to deal with the motives of promoters of companies; but it is not beyond our province to explain to our readers what is the nature of an invention which one company proposes to sell to others; and we repeat here that neither the Faure battery nor any other storage battery has as yet passed out of the earliest experimental stage—nothing at all like complete success has yet been achieved. The anticipations of Sir William Thomson have not been as yet fulfilled. As we have explained, the red lead and metallic

lead storage battery is at least nineteen years old, and it is doubtful if, at this moment, more has really been accomplished, save in degree, than was effected years ago. Bigger batteries and more of them have been made than Mr. FitzGerald experimented with; but the modern secondary battery is not the more fit to be put into the market. When we have said that the idea of the storage battery is full of promise, and that numerous able and enthusiastic men are hard at work to reduce the idea to a practical form, we have said all that can be said in favour of it. That success will ultimately attend their labours we have little doubt, but repeating, in other words, the judicious warning of the *Times*, we ask what possible chance can a comparatively crude invention like that of M. Faure have of holding its own in such a competition of storage batteries as that which is likely enough to take place? M. Philippart and his friends are in any case bound to demonstrate the success of the Faure battery before they take another step. They must not be surprised if they find their own sanguine estimates of the value of the invention largely discounted by competent scientific authorities, and the wisest policy they could pursue is to adduce proof, if they can, that they have really got something to sell which is worth a good deal now, and will continue to retain its value even in the face of keen competition.

AMERICAN LOCOMOTIVES.

AMERICAN locomotive practice differs very widely from that of Great Britain. It has been contended that because the railway system of the United States is immensely larger in extent than that of Great Britain, that American engineers must know best what a locomotive ought to be. The argument is specious, and not entirely unjustifiable; and it is worth while to say a little concerning it. The subject admits of being discussed at great length, because it can be divided into several distinct or comparatively distinct branches. Thus, for example, the American boiler is different from ours, so are the frames, the wheels—indeed, almost every part of a locomotive; but it is not to matters of detail that we would direct attention so much as to the larger question of system. As regards passenger traffic, we find that all the first-class lines are by degrees assimilating their practice more or less to that of Great Britain. In other words, long distances are now travelled without a stop and at high velocities; but this has only become possible because the roads have been improved, so that very little difference exists between most of the lines near New York, at all events, and the best type of English permanent way. It used to be boasted that the flexible American locomotive could travel at high velocities on roads which an English engine dare not attempt. It does not appear that any facts exist to prove the proposition; whether they do or do not, it is at least certain that until permanent way was made as good as that usually found now on main lines in England, no such average velocity as forty-five miles an hour was attained on any American railway.

If, leaving passenger traffic, we turn to that in minerals and goods, we find that the difference which has always existed between English and American locomotive practice is widening and extending rather than contracting. In this country the standard goods engine is carried entirely on six-coupled driving wheels, usually about 4ft. 6in. diameter, seldom, if ever, less than 4ft. or more than 5ft. The cylinders are 17in. or 18in. diameter, inside, inclined, and the piston stroke is 24in. The weight of such engines in working order varies between 30 and 35 tons; the heating surface between 900 and 1100 square feet, according to design. Locomotives of this type have no existence in the United States, and the recent tendency shown is to make machines much larger and more powerful than the English engine. As an example, we may cite the twelve-wheeled locomotive for the Central Pacific Railroad which we illustrate this week. It is, according to our contemporary the *Railroad Gazette*, the largest and heaviest engine in the United States. It weighs in working order very nearly 55 tons, of which over 47 tons are carried on eight driving wheels, all coupled, and 4ft. 6in. diameter. The cylinders are outside, 19in. diameter and 30in. stroke. By Pambour's formula, the tractive power of this locomotive is 200 lb. nearly for each 1 lb. average cylinder pressure, and taking this last at 90 lb., which it may well be at slow speed, we have a tractive effort of 18,000 lb., or over 8 tons. The engine works on an incline of about 1 in 45, twenty-five miles long, and on this it hauls a load of 210 tons. The tender weighs 38 tons, so that the total load moved is, when the tender is not quite full, 300 tons in round numbers. The resistance due to gravity is $\frac{1}{45}$ th of this, or in round numbers 15,000 lb., leaving 3000 lb. of tractive effort to overcome the resistance of friction, &c., or 30 lb. per ton, which is probably nearly twice as much as is needed. Such an engine would be entirely out of place in this country, because we have no incline twenty-five miles long rising 1 in 45 over which to work coal trains; but it is open to question whether, if we had, we should follow the American system. It is almost certain that the English locomotive superintendent would work his traffic with a six-coupled engine of the normal type, but with cylinders 18in. by 24in. and 4ft. wheels. The tractive effort of such a machine would be 162 lb. per 1 lb. average cylinder pressure, and taking this as 90 lb., as before, we have 14,580 lb., which would be competent to move a gross load of about 230 tons up an incline of 1 in 45. Thus two English engines would do much more work than the American engine, their total being 460 tons moved against 300 tons for the American engine. As to the working expenses we can pronounce no opinion, as we know nothing concerning those of the twelve-wheel engine, save that it is stated to be more satisfactory in its performance than two American ten-wheeled engines, each weighing 40 tons and fitted with cylinders 18in. by 24in. The dead weight of the two English engines and tenders would be about 120 tons, against 93 tons for the American engine, but the proportion borne by his engines and tenders to the loads hauled is in favour of the English engines, being as 120 is to 340 for these last, and as 93 is to 207 for the American engine. The net loads are as 2·83 to 1, and 2·22 to 1,

and so far the advantage seems to lie with the English system, besides which the traffic could no doubt be worked more safely with two engines, one pushing and the other hauling, than with a single engine pulling. The big engine has, however, given so much satisfaction that twenty-five more of them have been ordered, with cylinders 1in. larger in diameter, from which we gather that the boiler of the existing engine supplies more steam than it can use up to advantage. The American engine is fitted with special cut-off slides on the backs of the main slides, and worked each by a separate eccentric, so that the engine has six eccentrics instead of four. We cannot regard this as a step in the right direction, although Mr. Stevens, the locomotive superintendent of the line, maintains that he is "satisfied that it is the gearing for a freight engine." He gives no reason for the faith that is in him, and considering how great is the wear and tear on the valve gear of locomotives, and how admirable a diagram can be got either with the Allan straight link or Joy's gear, we have no doubt that all English engineers will condemn this innovation.

There are two causes which operate powerfully in the United States to settle the type of goods engine which shall be employed. One is the fuel used; the other the practice of moving very large trains at slow speeds. The coal used in by far the larger number of goods engines in the United States is either anthracite or a bituminous coal of comparatively inferior quality; in either case large grades are necessary. The tubes employed are commonly larger and wider spaced than with us, and so they must be longer to avoid waste of fuel. These things modify considerably the form of the boiler and its dimensions, especially as regards length. The practice of hauling huge trains at slow speeds is found to be extremely economical. Indeed, if it were not it would be impossible to carry grain and other produce at the extremely low rates charged. In this country the slow speed could not be tolerated on our crowded lines. Thus it will be seen that both the English and the American locomotive superintendent have their designs to some extent dictated to them, and neither has a right to say, so far, that his fellow is wrong.

IRON CURTAINS IN THEATRES.

AN exhaustive article which has appeared in the *Kölnische Zeitung* gives expression to the views on the general question of theatrical mechanism and public safety held by Herr Fritz Brandt, mechanical director of Wagner's Bayreuth Theatre. He attacks the arrangements of the "Asphaleia" Theatre at Vienna as being the work of an engineer with a special knowledge of hydraulic machinery, but devoid of much acquaintance with theatrical requirements. He argues that the most simple mechanism is *per se* the most suited for use in a theatre, and considers the hydraulic apparatus quite as objectionable as steam appliances were found to be when an attempt was made to move stage machinery by that means. He states that it is quite feasible to construct both the fixed and movable machinery for the most part of iron, thus possibly lessening danger, but he maintains that the system now in favour of iron curtains and other costly appliances for affording protection from fire is radically inefficient. Taking into account the difficulty of arriving at an effective impregnation of scenery, property, and decorations with fire-resisting substances, and also considering the fact that buildings supposed by their mode of construction to be fireproof, have failed to stand the test, he takes up the position that the danger of fire is inherent to theatrical representations, and that the safety of the public is best consulted by the staff of the theatre being properly drilled in the necessary measures to be observed in the event of fire breaking out, adducing various facts in support of this theory. Herr Brandt condemns all self-acting fire-alarms and valve-openers—which often fail to work at the critical moment—and particularly attacks iron curtains, which he says involve an expenditure varying from £1500 to £2000, or more, in each case. He remarks that the object of these appliances is to prevent the draught in case of fire, and to hide a conflagration on the stage from the eyes of the public. He suggests that an asbestos curtain, or a linen one properly impregnated, would answer as well if guided from the side. He adds that if half the money which is being spent on iron curtains were devoted to securing an intelligent and specially-trained staff, there would be a distinct gain so far as the public safety is concerned. Although published some days after the fall of the iron curtain at the Berlin Opera-house, Herr Brandt's article was no doubt written before it occurred, and he is therefore entitled to claim it as to some extent confirming the general sense of his remarks, as well as illustrating the losses which such accidents cause theatrical managers to suffer from the enforced suspension of dramatic representations during the period of repair. According to an official report the curtain was not ready at the contract time, and the opening of the Opera-house for the current season had to be delayed a fortnight in consequence. Thus the curtain would only have been in actual use for about five weeks, and during that time it seems to have required constant putting to rights. On the 5th October, when the daily police inspection of the working of the curtain took place it could not be freely let down nor drawn up, and when the workmen of the firm who erected it proceeded to examine into the cause of the circumstance, the curtain glided down and could not be raised at all. According to a statement in the *Post* the damage done was not confined to the fracture of the lines which supported the curtain, but lumps of plaster and pieces of broken iron were scattered around. The fall of the heavy driving wheel seems to have caused the damage and to have torn the wire ropes. It is remarked that had the accident happened when the curtain was being drawn up for the performance to begin, the actors on the stage would have been in serious danger, and on account of the grouping which takes place in the opening scene of the opera which was to have taken place on the evening in question, some of them must have received fatal injuries. There are some discrepancies between the various reports published as to the details of the accident, but they do not affect the main facts as illustrative of Herr Brandt's remarks.

THE PULLMAN CAR FIRE.

ON Wednesday, at Leeds, the coroner's jury returned a verdict concerning the burning to death in a Pullman railway sleeping car on the 29th of October of Dr. J. Findlay Arthur, who was returning home from Ceylon to Aberdeen. The verdict was:—(1) That Dr. Arthur died from suffocation and burning, and we are of opinion he would have been able to effect his escape as other inmates of the car did had he not been affected by narcotic stupor. (2) The fire, we believe, originated over No. 8 berth, and was accidentally caused by Mr. Cranston's reading lamp.

(3) We think Dr. Arthur might have been saved before the train was taken to the water crane had his position in the car been definitely known, and we think, under the trying circumstances, the officials did their duty. (4) We strongly condemn as dangerous to the safety of the travelling public the clause in the railway company's rules which prevents the engine-driver from stopping his train at the earliest possible moment after the communication cord whistle has sounded. Also we think the use of reading lamps in Pullman cars should be strictly prohibited." With all the details of the event the public have been made familiar by the daily papers, and it is quite unnecessary to recapitulate them here. To us the verdict is unsatisfactory, and it is to be regretted that the solicitors employed did not direct their inquiries more fully to ascertaining whether the fire did not arise outside, the car roof being ignited by a spark from the engine, or to discovering whether the heating apparatus was implicated. The apparatus consists of a hot-water boiler, from which flow and return pipes are led throughout the car in the usual way. The boiler is of the vertical type, and stands in a little closet lined with sheet iron. The chimney passes through the roof, and the fuel used is coke. No inquiries of any importance seem to have been made in the directions we have indicated. Concerning the impropriety of the Midland Company's rule that drivers shall not stop their train when the signal cord is pulled until they have put themselves under the protection of signals, there cannot be two opinions. It is evident that the company has no faith in the security provided by its own block system. In theory, trains are always under the protection of signals, no matter on what part of the line they may be; and if practice complies with theory, a signal 500 yards behind a train really gives less security from a rear collision than one five miles further back. It appears strange, too, that the conductor did not himself stop the train, which he could have done at once by simply lifting up the hose pipe of the air brake between the two cars, when the coupling would fall asunder and the brakes would have put themselves on. As a measure of precaution it would be well to provide air brake valves in accessible places on all Pullman cars. Fortunately, the accident is unique, and it is very improbable that it will ever be repeated—on an English railway at all events.

THE SYNTHESIS OF TYROSINE AND URIC ACID.

WHEN directing attention last week, in an obituary notice of the illustrious Prof. Wöhler, to the very important synthesis which he effected long years ago, that of urea, we little thought we were about to hear of that of two other complicated compounds at which chemists had worked in vain for a long time. In the interval several highly important syntheses have been effected, for instance, those of alizarine, conine and indigo. The synthesis of uric acid had been for years attempted in vain by Wöhler and Liebig. Uric acid, $C_5H_4N_4O_3$, is a product of the incomplete oxidation of animal tissue, and in combination with ammonia is the chief constituent voided by insects, land reptiles, and birds. Normally it occurs in the urine of man, but in small proportions, as well as in the liver, lung, and brain. In certain cases of gout all the fluids of the human body are more or less saturated with it, and what are called "chalk stones" are urate of soda. According to a telegram from Vienna in the *Standard* of the 6th instant, Dr. Horbatschewsky, the second assistant in the Vienna Chemical Institute, has succeeded in forming uric acid synthetically. Their correspondent adds that the scientific world of Austria is just now immensely interested in the discovery; and that it is hoped that albumen itself, the chief organic compound in the animal organism, may ultimately be produced by artificial processes from inorganic elements. No details are given, nor is one word about the successful method to be found as yet. The other compound which has just been prepared synthetically is tyrosine, also a quaternary compound, $C_2H_{11}NO_3$. It was first obtained by Liebig, in 1846, and is a crystalline nitrogenous body produced by the decomposition of albuminoid bodies under the influence of acids, alkalies, and putrefaction. Liebig formed it by decomposing cheese with melting potash. It has also been obtained by acting on feathers, hairs, prickles and horn with sulphuric acid. It occurs ready formed, accompanied by leucine, in the animal organism in the pancreas, spleen, blood, &c. Erlenmeyer, who has part honour in the discovery of the method of preparing it synthetically, appears to have worked on it since 1858. According to the preliminary announcement in the *Naturforscher* of the 4th instant, this synthesis, of the greatest chemical and physiological interest, which for years past has baffled the endeavours of many chemists, has now been accomplished by Messrs. Erlenmeyer and Lipp. They have prepared tyrosine, the very important product of the decomposition of albuminoid substances, which up to the present has only been found in animal organism, and has been obtained only by the putrefaction of protein substances, or by heating them with acids or alkalies—they have prepared it artificially by synthesis. The way by which they arrived at it is somewhat complicated. They started from phenyl-ethyl-aldehyde, which they converted into phenylalanine; this is changed into para-nitro-phenyl-alanine, which is reduced with nascent hydrogen. The product is then treated with nitrous acid, and this yields tyrosine. The artificial tyrosine agrees in all its characters with the natural body, and its chemical position seems established: it is a parahydroxy-phenyl α alanine. Again, then, by this discovery of Messrs. Erlenmeyer and Lipp, a complex body, belonging to the region of animal chemistry, has been assigned its proper chemical place, and numbered among those which can be built up synthetically. A few months ago an announcement appeared in the *Comptes Rendus* to the effect that quinine had been formed synthetically, and a sealed packet giving details was deposited with the secretary. M. Maumené appears, however, to have so far failed, as the time is now passed, much to the comfort of a Ceylon planter, whose peace of mind suffered much when we communicated this statement to him.

AGRICULTURAL MACHINERY FOR TASMANIA.

AGRICULTURAL machinery is in increased demand in Tasmania. The Government statistics of the colony, which have just come to hand, show that at last year's harvest the acreage of wheat reaped by machine was 29,081, and by hand 22,671, the machine-reaped being greater by 6410 than the hand-reaped. Ten years ago only 2389 acres were reaped by machinery, as against 60,001 reaped by hand. Lift and force pumps have increased to a very great extent, viz., from 15 in 1874 to 175 in 1881; and on all other agricultural machines and appliances, with the single exception of clod-crushers. Thus chaff-cutters, which in 1872 were 77, last year were 494, the number worked by steam being 4 and 28 respectively; cultivators were 48 in 1872 and 168 in 1881. Of corn-crushers only one was reported as being in the colony in 1872, but there were 127 last year. The use of hay elevators has fluctuated very considerably, but on the whole it has been in favour of the later years; while hay-rakes—horse—increased from 104 to 229. Horse-hoes, grubbers, and scarifiers were 631 in 1881, compared with 358 in

1872; subsoil ploughs 236 last year, against 28 in 1872—an increase of 743 per cent. Double-furrow ploughs, of which there were none in 1872, and only 4 in 1873, increased to 450 in 1881, and in the latter year 11 treble-furrow ploughs were also returned. Reaping machines increased in the ten years from 66 to 140; reapers and mowers combined, from 35 to 257; strippers, from 3 to 9. The combined reaper and binder was introduced into the colony in 1879-80. The number then returned was 47, whereas in 1881-2 as many as 130 were found to be in use. Dividing the greater number of these machines into three groups, as under, the progress is clearly and remarkably shown, thus:—For preparation for and putting in crop, there were in 1872-3, 556; and in 1881-2, 1717, being an increase of 209 per cent.; for gathering crops in the same years, the numbers are 455 and 1180, being an increase of 159 per cent.; while for converting crops, the figures are 79 and 621, or 686 per cent.; or in all we have 1090 and 3518, or a gross increase of 223 per cent. It appears that the difficulty of obtaining labour is also increasing, so that agricultural machinery is likely to be in greater demand in the future. Turning to the figures relating to imports, we find that in 1881 the colony received from the United Kingdom 1701½ tons of iron and tin, valued at £11,257, in addition to 6668 packages ditto, of the value of £5945. Of ironmongery, hardware, hollow-ware, &c., during the same year the imports from the United Kingdom were valued at £39,154. The machinery is put down at £3835. There is some difficulty in ascertaining how the trade with the United Kingdom and Victoria really stands, seeing that a large, if not a larger portion of the goods from the United Kingdom and other countries is introduced by way of Victoria; the result being that that colony is credited with more imports or exports than really belong to it.

COAL, IRON, AND WAGES.

THE agitation as to the wages of the coal miners is now for a time at an end, advances varying from five to eleven per cent. having been received in some of the counties where sliding scales were not in existence, whilst in the largest of the latter it is interesting to notice that the price up to the end of September has risen sufficiently to allow of an increase in the wages of the miners; and as it is believed that since that time there has been a greater increase, it is evident that the counties where sliding scales prevail will reap the effects also of the increase in the price of coal that has been concurrent in the agitation for higher wages. This may be said to be the first general increase in the rate of wages in the coal trade that has taken place for three years, and it is interesting to turn to wages in an allied industry where sliding scales have ruled for the whole of the time. The resolution of the Manchester Conference included miners of all classes in the kingdom, and we notice that the Cleveland miners at once remarked that as their wages were regulated by such an arrangement as that hinted at they could take no part in the agitation. There was another reason—and that was that they were enjoying the bulk of the advance of 15 per cent. that was to be claimed. In these three years, during the course of the two sliding scales that have prevailed in the Cleveland iron mining trade, the miners have received advances of over 14 per cent. in the total, and there has also been a slight improvement of the position of part of the miners through their sectional advances being made as large as those of the other classes. It is clear, then, that tested by the results to the miner, the sliding scale system has been by far the most beneficial. The broad result of these advances must be to cause the prices of iron and coal to move upwards. Already this has been seen in advances in price that have been made in several of the chief markets, and though there is only a part of the coal on which these advances take place, yet in that that is contracted for it is certain that the advance, if deferred, is only deferred till new contracts are entered upon. The increase in wages will be over the whole of the coal produced, and the increase of price will be slowly and steadily spread over the whole of the output also, so that it may be looked upon as tolerably certain that the "era of cheap coal," that Dr. Siemens a few years ago spoke of, is likely to be at an end for a time at least.

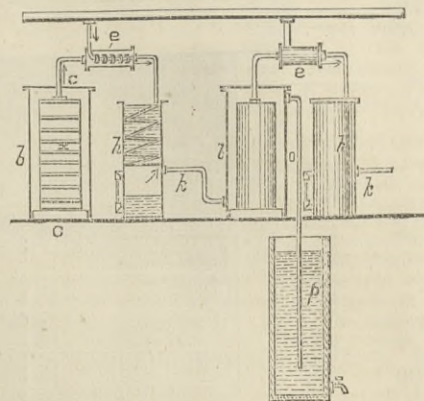
THE DRAINAGE OF MINES.

THE extent to which the recent very heavy rainfall has prejudiced mining operations has been considerable. It seems timely, therefore, that the Mines' Drainage Commissioners in Staffordshire should have adopted a system of management which is a radical and somewhat startling change upon that hitherto practised in the management of its affairs. It has been customary to conduct the surface drainage business, the business connected with the drainage of the mines in the great and chief Tipton district, and the finance business by three several committees. At a special meeting of the Commissioners at their offices in Wolverhampton, on Wednesday, it was determined to entrust all this to a committee of three Commissioners. Government by one is often advocated by men who have no great belief in the virtues of popular representation, and there is famous historical precedent for government by a Triumvirate. The Staffordshire coal and ironmasters seem by their eight years' experience in the working of their Commission to have determined to fall back upon ancient Rome for a pattern of speedy, efficient, and economical dispatch of business. While this triumvirate cannot, by reason of the terms of the Act of Parliament, legally discharge all the functions of the Commissioners, any two of them are, nevertheless, empowered to sign on behalf of the Commissioners any contracts which may have been approved by the general body. Such a committee will henceforth remove any complaint that local interests may be considered at the cost of the district; it will enable the surface works to be completed with the much-needed rapidity, and it is the testimony of the chairman that he will now be able to negotiate the loan which some few months since was authorised. The three Commissioners selected are Mr. Walter Williams—chairman of the Commission—Mr. Walter Bassano, and Mr. Edmund Howl. Grave trade issues depend upon their joint prudence and wisdom.

APPARATUS FOR THE PRODUCTION OF OXYGEN BY DIALYSIS OF ATMOSPHERIC AIR.

THE following is a description of a method of producing oxygen invented by M. P. Margis, of Paris, as given in the *Journal of the Society of Chemical Industry*:—The air is drawn through membranes, through which the oxygen passes in larger quantity than the nitrogen. They consist of bags of taffeta which have been soaked in a solution of 50 parts by weight of caoutchouc, dissolved in 400 parts of carbon disulphide, 20 parts alcohol, and 10 parts ether. The bag *a*, which is stiffened by iron rods, is placed in an iron cylinder *b*, the air entering through its perforated bottom. The exhausting action is produced by the injector *c* working with steam. The gas passes from *a* to *e* mixed with steam, then through the cooling apparatus *h*, where the steam is condensed whilst the gas rich in oxygen goes through

the pipe *k* into the second dialyser, which is arranged like the first one, excepting that the outer cylinder *l* is closed. The non-dialysed nitrogenous air leaves the apparatus through the pipe *o*, which dips in the water tank *p*. The height of the column of water in *p* regulates the pressure in the cylinder *l*. After dialysing four times, the gas collected in a gasholder contains



95 per cent. oxygen. The gas from the first dialyser shows 40 per cent. oxygen, and is suitable for some illuminating and metallurgical purposes. The second dialyser yields gas with 60, the third gives gas with 80 per cent. oxygen.

RAILWAY SAFETY APPLIANCES IN SWITZERLAND.

THE *Eisenbahn* of the 21st ult. published the following important circular, addressed to all the Swiss railway directions, by the Railway Department of the Federal Government:—

The dangers to the public safety which have frequently resulted of late from points being wrongly set, or other errors committed, have led the undersigned Railway Department, whilst drawing attention to the necessity of a strict observance of all existing regulations as to traffic, and especially with regard to the working hours of the railway servants, to call upon the Swiss railway directions to defer no longer the introduction of such technical appliances for increasing the safety of the traffic as are well known at the present time as being extensively adopted upon the most important railways in other countries, and as having produced good results. Amongst these improvements we especially point out—

1. *Bell signals*.—These give notice to the watchmen, pointmen, and gatekeepers along the line of the approach of a train, whilst admitting at the same time of their making in return certain danger signals, as, for instance, in the case of the line being blocked, such bell signals afford a greater safeguard for the line being clear and duly maintained so, and the primitive horn signals, which often cannot be heard, are replaced with advantage by them.

2. *An absolute block system*.—Block stations for regulating the distance between following trains are to be erected on all lines upon which at certain hours trains running in the same direction succeed each other, on the time-tables, at intervals of less than ten minutes. Ordinary stations are to be considered as block stations in all such cases where it is provided for that not more than one train is to be upon the same line of rails between any two such stations at the same time.

3. *Complete interlocking of the points with the home signals*.—This is to be introduced at all stations and branches where passenger trains run through without stopping or cross each other. The object to be thus attained is to render it impossible for trains to be allowed to enter such stations until the points have been properly set. The interlocking is to be extended to all points which could in any way affect the safe passage of the train.

4. *Continuous and automatic brakes* which are thoroughly trustworthy, and which can, in case of necessity, be applied by every train servant, are to be fitted in sufficient numbers to every train carrying passengers, in order to facilitate the prompt and certain stoppage of the train at any required moment.

The various above-mentioned appliances are to be at once introduced on all main lines on which express trains are run. Their adoption is to be completed by the end of the year 1884 on all Swiss railways, with the exception of such lines as shall, in consideration of the secondary character of their traffic or other special circumstances, have received by special request a dispensing order from this department. Reports are called for from the several railway directions as to the measures adopted for carrying out the above instructions.

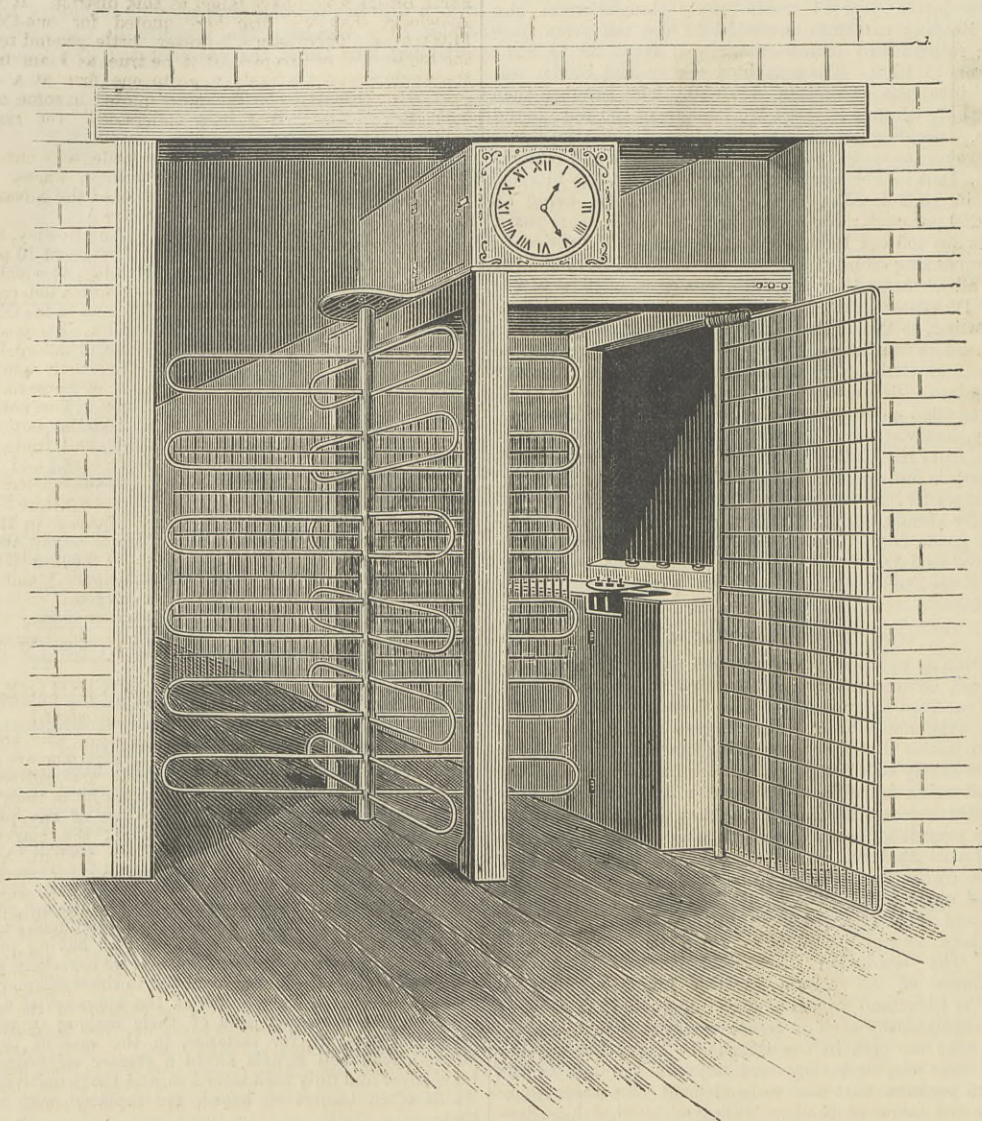
For the Swiss Postal and Railway Department—Railway Division.
(Signed) WELTI.

Berne, October 14th, 1882.

COLLIERY EXPLOSION.—The most serious explosion which has ever occurred in the Derbyshire coal-field took place on Tuesday morning at the Parkhouse Pit, near Clay-cross, and belonging to the Clay-cross Coal and Iron Co. 250 men and boys are ordinarily employed in the pit; but it being an off-day only ninety men went down. Of these forty came up at ten o'clock, and fifteen minutes later the pit "exploded" with a tremendous report. Several men were rescued during the day, but at the time I write there is every fear that thirty-nine lives will be lost. The cause of the explosion will be difficult to discover; but as the workings are exceptionally free from gas, and the calamity occurred without almost any warning, experts incline to the opinion that there had been a fall of roof, liberating gas which had come in contact with light. Naked lights, with Green's patent safety lamps, are used in the pit. The last explosion at Clay-cross was in 1865, when eight lives were lost. The Derbyshire coal-field is ranked as the safest in the country, and presenting a marked contrast to the fiery Barnsley seam.

DANGER FROM EXPOSED ELECTRIC LIGHT WIRE.—*Apropos* of the recent death of a workman through the current from the wire of a Brush arc lamp, the *Times* says that Mr. Edison is said to have confided to the reporter of a New York paper his opinion that such accidents would continue to increase with the multiplication of wires carrying powerful currents, till some dreadful accident occurred to arouse public indignation and compel the placing of all such wires underground. In case of fire particularly, the breaking of a great number of wires which would be thrown down in inextricable confusion by the fall of a roof, might have serious results. This is a dreadful picture. Forked lightning flashing about among wires seemingly alive under the influence of attraction and repulsion would be calculated to weaken the nerves of the stoutest-hearted fireman. We wish the reporter had kept Mr. Edison's confidences to himself. Mr. Park Benjamin, a well-known scientific man, has called attention in New York to the fact that a stream of water from a hose-nozzle, striking a broken arc-light wire, might easily serve to conduct the current through the body of the fireman who held the hose, with fatal consequences; while the cutting of such a wire with an axe, particularly if the handle of the axe were wet, might have a like effect. We may add that if one fireman were to hit another hard over the head with an axe, whether the handle was wet or dry, the man hit would receive a violent shock. Mr. Park Benjamin has curiously enough omitted to call attention to this fact. It would, perhaps, be better under the circumstances either to give up the use of electricity, or else to have no more confagurations. By either expedient comparative safety would be secured for fire brigades.

WORKMAN'S TIME RECORDER.



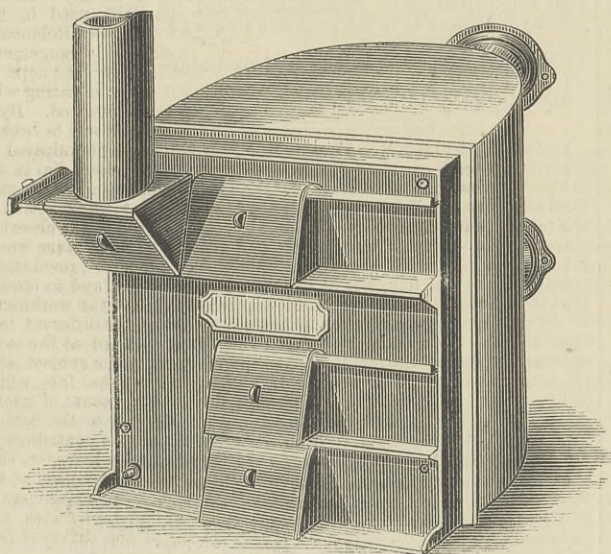
The object of this invention—Levy and Lane's patent—is to register the time at which each workman or person enters and leaves a factory or other place, thus dispensing with the services of a timekeeper. The apparatus consists of an entrance gate, revolving gates or turnstile, fixed at the entrance of the factory or other building, to which is applied a tell-tale instrument, an eight-day clock, and a continuous roll of ruled paper. As each employé passes through the outer gate, which closes behind him, he drops his domino or metal disc, with his number thereon, in a recess or aperture in a table and pushes a lever which, having a multiple action, opens a cylinder which receives the domino, and at the same time locks the gate to prevent him passing out, and unlocks the turnstile, leaving him no alternative but to pass on, when, by a mechanical contrivance, the gate becomes again unlocked and the turnstile locked, only to be re-opened by the above process being repeated by each workman passing through, and which is done with great rapidity.

The self-registering apparatus consists of a powerful eight-day

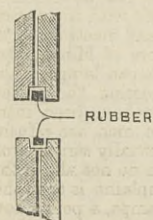
clock, to which are connected two cams with horizontal motions, one traversing its course in twelve hours, the other every hour. These cams are in connection with puncturing pins, facing which is the time-sheet, held in position by a suitable framework contrivance, and which is automatically and simultaneously moved onwards through rollers and forward to the puncturing pins by the action of the turnstile as every operative passes through. When all hands have arrived, the dominoes will be found in the cylinder in rotation, agreeing with the indications recorded on the paper, and which can be figured in by an office-boy in a few minutes. Thus, by a most simple process, an infallible and automatic record is made of the exact time each workman has arrived or left his factory, and which is absolutely proof against any deception or collusion between the operative and the timekeeper.

We understand that Messrs. John Davis and Son, All Saints' Works, Derby, and Newgate-street, London, E.C., have been appointed sole manufacturers, and no doubt will be glad to supply further particulars.

THE LOUGHBOROUGH BOILER.



The accompanying engraving illustrates a new hot-water boiler for greenhouses, &c., brought out by Messrs. Messenger and Co., Loughborough. It will be understood that the front containing water is connected to the boiler by bolts and nuts, provision being made for the circulation of the water by a hole in each corner, a rubber ring being used to make a water-tight joint. The ring fits into a recess in each part, as in sketch. The flue is made either in the front or through the top of the boiler, or at the back, as may be most convenient. In the smaller sizes the fronts are made solid. The great advantage claimed for these boilers is that the whole of the heat given off



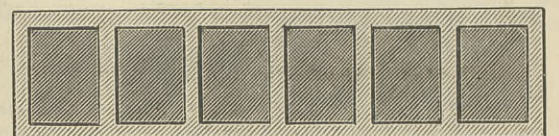
by the boiler is utilised in the house, which is a very great consideration for amateurs. The boiler illustrated—No. 3—will heat 200ft. of 4in. pipe, and will contain enough fuel to keep up the heat for twelve hours without attention.

A FUEL THAT PRODUCES ELECTRICITY.

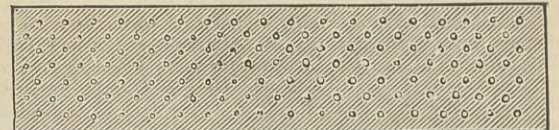
The object which M. Brard, of La Rochelle, has in view in his researches is to produce an apparatus capable of transforming heat into electricity without having recourse to the complications presented by dynamo-electric machines which have been hitherto inapplicable for domestic illumination. M. Brard wishes to produce a veritable electro-generative stove, furnishing at the same time heat, light, and electricity. After having demonstrated by his experiments that thermo-electric batteries have on the one hand only a feeble production, and on the other hand are soon rendered useless under the action of heat, M. Brard thinks he has found, according to the *Electrical Review*, the solution of the difficulty in a thermo-chemical battery, in which the current is produced by chemical action, the combustion of carbon, under the influence of an elevated temperature produced by a special method, by the oxidising action of nitrate of potash or soda. It forms thus a veritable thermo-chemical battery, analogous to the ordinary batteries, in which the oxidising of the carbon takes the place of the oxidising of the zinc, and the nitrate of potash of the oxidising body. The carbon is, therefore, the negative pole, and the nitrate

the positive pole of the element. M. Brard alluded, in reference to his labours, to the experiments of Antoine-César Becquerel in 1855, and those more recently made by M. Paul Jablockhoff in 1877; he has, however, gone further than his antecedents in this way, for he has presented to the association the principal features of an apparatus actually in construction, and showed some electro-generative slabs which we are about to describe, reserving the description of the complete generator until it has been tried, and until it has undergone certain modifications which the experiments will suggest.

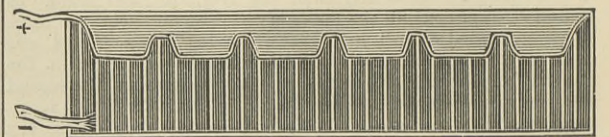
What is termed the electro-generative slab may be defined as a piece of prepared carbon, which, when thrown into the fire, produces electricity by its combustion. The subjoined figures, which represent the exterior view of it, the longitudinal section, and the transverse section, will demonstrate clearly the principle of it. The slab presents the external appearance of a parallelepiped, about 15 centimetres—6in.—long, 3½ centimetres,—2½in.—wide, and 25 millimetres—1in.—thick; the materials which compose it are enveloped in a sheet of asbestos paper, only two thin sheets of brass being exposed to view, which serve as conductors of the current. The interior consists theoretically of a prism of carbon and a prism of nitrate of potash, separated by a plate of asbestos, which plays very nearly the same part as the porous cell in ordinary batteries. In practice the sheet of carbon is formed of about 100 grammes of coal-dust, formed into a paste with molasses or tar. The paste thus obtained is strongly compressed, cold or preferably with heat, in a mould of suitable form, at the bottom of which has been placed previously a sheet of copper, of brass, or any other metal which is a good conductor, cut into several strips, which are found embedded in the agglomeration of the carbon and project from one of its extremities to constitute the negative pole. The mould is disposed in such a manner that the slab is perforated throughout its thickness with numerous holes intended to facilitate combustion and to multiply the points of contact of the carbon with the nitrate, as we shall presently see. It bears besides upon the upper surface rectangular depressions, 15 millimetres deep, divided by transversal partitions more or less numerous, obtained by the moulding. The angles thus formed are intended to prevent the flowing of the melted nitrate into the fire during the working of the apparatus. The whole surface of these compartments is covered by a thin sheet of asbestos paper. The



TOP VIEW



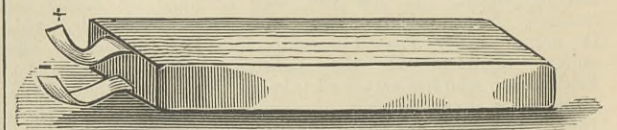
UNDERNEATH VIEW



LONGITUDINAL SECTION



TRANSVERSE SECTION



GENERAL VIEW OF SLAB

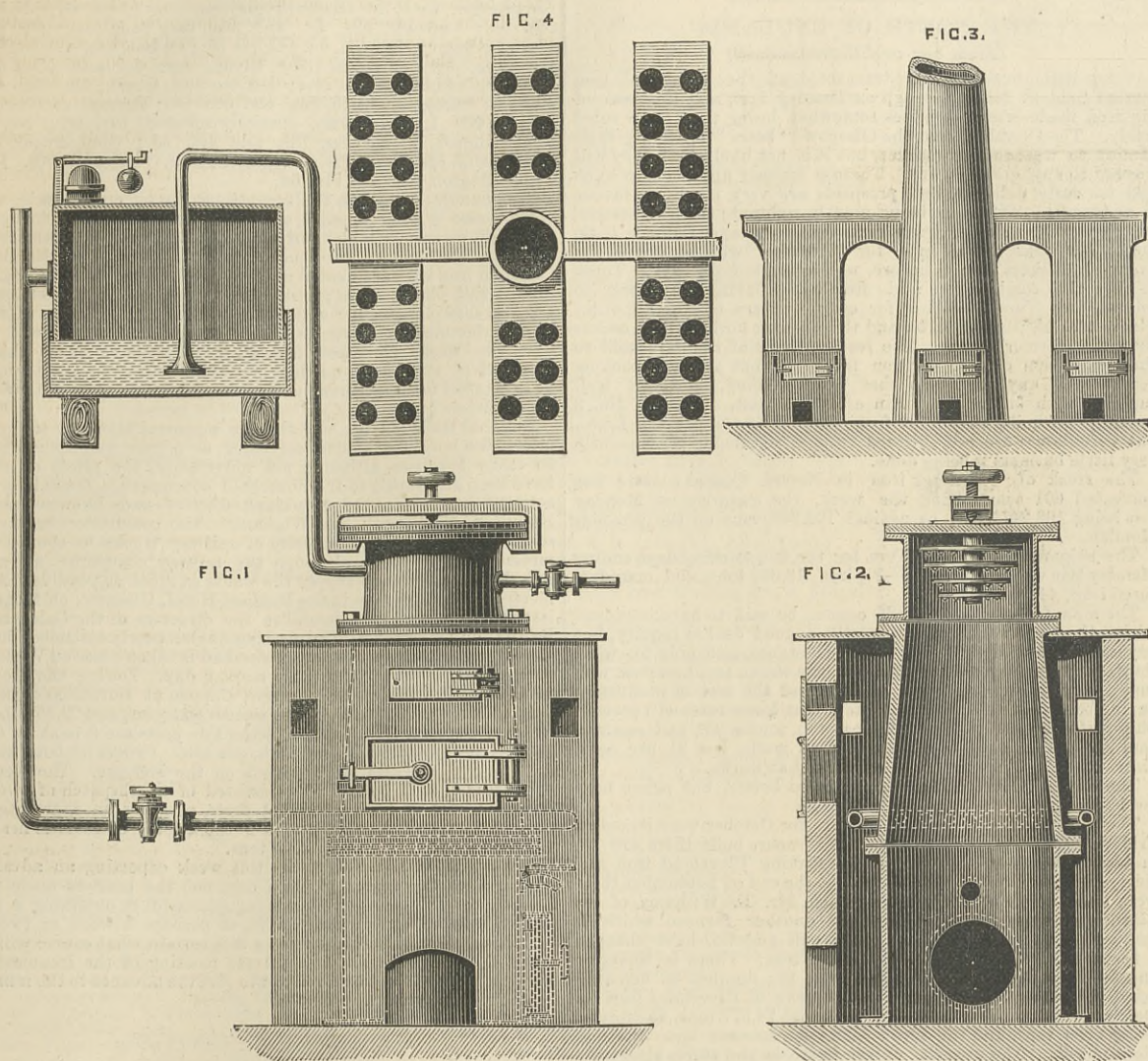
upper part of the brick is formed of a mixture of three parts of ashes and one part of nitrate of soda or potash. The ashes are intended to prevent a too rapid combustion, and to prevent the slab from melting. This mixture is melted and poured upon the brick very hot and in a syrupy state. About 100 grammes per slab are required, equal to about 25 grammes of nitrate and 75 grammes of ashes. A second sheet of copper or brass analogous to the first is embedded in the nitrate before cooling, and forms the second pole of the slab. The whole is enveloped in a sheet of asbestos paper.

It is sufficient to place in a fierce fire the extremity of the slab opposite to the conductors, in order to obtain in a few minutes a continuous current—and a constant one if the slab is homogeneous—during its combustion, lasting an hour and a-half to two hours. M. Brard has not yet taken the constants of this new thermo-chemical battery, but in an experiment which we owe to the chemical department of the laboratory of the Lycée of La Rochelle, a single slab was sufficient to actuate an electric bell of the ordinary commercial form. One can, moreover, burn several briquettes at once, and group them in tension or in quantity to increase the effect. Three or four slabs in tension produce the decomposition of water. Such are the results at present obtained by M. Brard. Without expressing an opinion as to the future and the results which will be obtained from this apparatus, which is at present confined to the laboratory, we may observe that these researches are very interesting, and that to M. Brard must be ascribed the honour of having been the first to construct a veritable electro-generative combustible.

SANITARY INSTITUTE OF GREAT BRITAIN.—At an examination held November 2nd and 3rd, eight candidates presented themselves. The Institute's certificate of competency to discharge the duties of local surveyor was awarded to C. H. Cooper, and the Institute's certificate of competency to discharge the duties of inspectors of nuisances was awarded to J. Brown, S. C. Legg, D. Richards, A. Taylor, and J. Watson.

NAVAL ENGINEER APPOINTMENTS.—The following appointments have been made at the Admiralty:—Walter Collman, engineer, to the Tenedos; William J. Hancock, chief engineer, to the Pembroke, additional; William R. MacAvoy, chief engineer, to the Tyne, vice Hancock; John T. Price, engineer, to the Superb, vice Coope; Alfred M. Trivers, engineer, to the Asia, additional, for the Devastation, vice Price; Andrew Lloyd, chief engineer, to the Sultan, vice Hunt; and William J. Pettit, chief engineer, to the Pembroke, additional, for the Opal.

BROMFIELD'S PROCESS OF IRON MAKING.



A PROCESS for making iron direct from the ore has been patented by Mr. J. C. Bromfield, Hove, Brighton, and described as follows:—The iron ore and fuel coal are reduced to a powder by a machine such as Blake's crusher, after having been calcined in ovens above a tank filled with water, into which the roasted ore passes direct from the ovens. The ore then becomes disintegrated and friable, and the cost of reduction afterwards very small. The crushed iron ore and coal dust are then mixed, and to them is added carbonate of lime, which is also powdered ready for mixing, as well as alumina or sand. The proportions of each depend on the quality of the material used, and vary according to the nature of the iron in the different districts. The lime, however, will probably vary from one-tenth to one-eighth. The materials are then passed through a mixing machine and brought into a plastic state by the admixture of mucilage, obtained from steaming seaweed in a close jacketed boiler, the seaweed being afterwards submitted to hydraulic pressure. The mucilage thus obtained has the effect of cementing the pulverised materials which are discharged at the end of the cylinder into the hopper of a brick or tile-making machine. The compressed materials issue from the machine, either as bricks or continuous solid cylinders, into trucks or barrows, and are removed at once to the retort, there to be consolidated into coke by a process of distillation in a furnace, which is illustrated in the annexed engravings. In these, Fig. 1 is a front elevation, and Fig. 2 a longitudinal vertical section of a furnace and retort. Figs. 3 and 4 show respectively an outline elevation and a ground plan of a series of furnaces and retorts, from which the gases are led and disposed of, either for lighting purposes or for being burnt as a fuel under the furnaces. The bye-products are in this manner to be saved. The retorts are made in two parts; the lower, which is used as a cold coke chamber, is made of wrought iron; and the upper, which is conical in shape, is of fireclay, in combination with either carbonate of lime or calcium oxide. The object is to absorb the sulphur given off from the material being coked during the process of gas distillation. The lime, which should be in a caustic state and thoroughly blended with the particles of the fuel, should arrest and combine with any sulphur which may exist in the incorporated materials, whilst acting still more efficiently and quickly than it ordinarily does in forming a flux with the intermixed silica. Each block or brick of the compound will thus be subjected to cementation in a carbonaceous matrix, which is firmly held together by those ingredients, which are intended to flux the whole mass when the melting zone of the furnace is reached. The saving in fuel and the increase in the output of each furnace are due to the same cause, the greater quickness with which the smelting re-actions take place, and the much lower temperature required.

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

(From our own Correspondent.)

UPON Birmingham Exchange to-day—Thursday—as also upon Wolverhampton Exchange yesterday, there was a fairly animated, though not a brisk tone. Inquirers were seeking to know upon what terms makers were disposed to take orders in nearly all the departments. Nor was this all froth.

Inquiries which meant business were conducted on behalf of United States consumers, and home users who are tendering for constructive and other engineering work in the market were seeking makers' terms for forward delivery; while smaller and present needs were expressed to a limited extent by local users. Makers displayed a reluctance to quote beyond the present year, and the terms which they were prepared to take, when immediate execution was stipulated, were generally without alteration upon the week. There was a conviction that though current business may not be unmarked by much of the quietude usual in November, yet that the early spring will bring a demand from all leading export and home markets which will prove conspicuous.

By mill and forge proprietors the wish to-day and yesterday was mostly to restrict operations to a tolerably hand-to-mouth character.

Quotations were nearly all based upon the crucial £8 per ton for marked bars. It cannot, however, be said that that price has induced consumers to infer that still higher rates are impending: for the firms who are quoting the figure are not this week reporting much new business, and it is a fact that one at least of the concerns at which the old price of £7 10s. has been maintained is busier than before.

Less difficult to buy than a week ago were perhaps good serviceable bars at £7 and upwards of the general merchant class. From this figure rates went down to £6 15s. Common bars were procurable at £6 12s. 6d.

Hoops were not much sought after, but as most makers were well off for work on earlier orders, quotations were not consequently weakened, and remained at £7 2s. 6d. and £7 5s.

The exception to the general quietude in hoops related to that form of them in which, as strips, they can be stamped out into buckles for baling purposes. In this form hoops were sought after to-day in satisfaction of the necessities of the firms who make these fastenings for the United States, and who are now receiving season instructions from Transatlantic customers.

Sheets likewise were demanded for America, but few makers could be found who in the present state of their order-books were sweet upon the business. For home work, as galvanising sheets, or for general brazery and for shaping sheets, the inquiries were steady. Prices were scarcely so strong upon the week for doubles and trebles, but there were no indications of weakness in singles. These were £8 10s. strong, but a little less respectively than £9 10s. for doubles and £10 15s. for trebles was being taken from old customers.

Plate mills where boiler no less than girder and bridge and tank qualities are rolled are doing more than the average of work. Excepting where terms unmodified by modern usages are still demanded, £9 10s. remains the quotation for good boiler plates. Bridge and girder or boat plates range from £8 10s. down to £7 15s., according to quality and size.

Nail rods are less actively sought for, and the demand on home account is not improved by the prospect of a strike by the operative nailers. Gas strip was quiet at £6 15s. easy.

Horseshoe and tip iron is in more than average request, the demand for the former on local account being especially good.

The tendency is still towards the opening of more sections of ironworks. Last week I reported the starting of a sheet mill of the Darlston Iron and Coal Company. I may this week add that the guide mill of the same establishment at Darlston-green is about to be again set going. It has been taken by Mr. Tolley, of Bradley, and the closing of their tinning department by the Osier Bed Company, of Wolverhampton, will afford them the desired additional sheet-making accommodation.

Pig iron of several brands may be had at less money than was demanded three weeks and a month ago. Some Lincolnshire and Derbyshire samples were to-day quoted 52s. 6d., and not as for three weeks past 55s.; but the lower quotations did not lead to business. Still there are not many smelters who are anxious to book large orders at the prices which consumers would just now alone give. There are, however, only few consumers of forge pigs now in the market; most of them have bought well forward. To-day's quotation for all-mine iron was mostly £3 10s.; a larger number of vendors probably than last week would have been induced to book at an offer of £3 7s. 6d. Transactions did not accompany the quotation either to-day or yesterday of £3 10s. for hematite pigs in other than small dealings when lots were needed to complete mixtures. Staffordshire part mines were 57s. 6d. to 55s., and cinder pigs 42s. to 45s.

The recent heavy rains have somewhat interfered with operations at a few of the collieries. While, therefore, the domestic collieries are not busier on the week, there is slightly more pressure for deliveries at some of the ironworks' pits.

Steel keeps in the enlarged output recently reported at Messrs. Tanyes, and at the works of the Patent Shaft and Axletree Company. At the latter place Bessemer, Siemens-Martin, and Thomas-Gilchrist steel are all being made. The last-named is not in large output, and the firm explain to me that their experience of it is not at present such as to induce them to materially slacken their efforts in respect of the two former systems.

There is no falling off in the inquiries on account of roofing and girder and bridge work for different export markets, and the considerable extent of business previously in hand of this class seems almost certain to be early augmented. Simultaneously the prospects on home account continue favourable. A fair proportion

of the new ironwork needed by the London and North-Western Railway Company for erections in Birmingham, Manchester, and Northampton, it is being hoped will come into South Staffordshire.

It had been hoped that some portion of the work for the Forth Bridge would have fallen to this district. It is within my knowledge that one firm here quoted for one-third of it, or 14,000 tons. There seems, however, little ground to expect that the tender will be excepted, if it be true, as I am informed, that the whole contract is likely to go to one firm at a distance, at a price astonishingly under the figure quoted in some other tenders. Still the contract, it is here understood, yet remains to be ratified.

The operatives in the dollied chain trade came out on strike on Monday for an advance of 10 per cent. in wages. Nine of the fifty-six employers affected have conceded the advance, and it is anticipated that the remainder will follow.

The rivet makers now on strike in the Rowley, Old Hill, and Black Heath districts for an advance in wages of 10 per cent., held a mass meeting at Black Heath on Monday, at which an offer of 5 per cent. from the masters was refused, and a determination came to continue the strike. Some of the men in the Old Hill district have obtained the full 10 per cent., and have resumed work.

The horse-nail manufacturers of South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire have received notices from their men asking for an advance of 3d. per 1000 on all classes of horse-nails, Brazils included—to take place on the 25th inst. The notices ask for a reply not later than the 11th inst. Similar notices have been received by the employers in the common nail trade. In this case the advance asked is equivalent to 10 per cent., and the men state that they will submit a revised list after the masters' answer.

The South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire Trades' Council have applied to about fifty of the chief masters in the forged nail trade asking whether they were favourable to the abolition of the "truck" system, and if they would assist the council in suppressing it. Only fourteen firms, however, have replied, and at a meeting of the council on Saturday last this fact was unfavourably commented upon, and a resolution was passed urging the Anti-truck League to prosecute their efforts with redoubled vigour.

NOTES FROM LANCASHIRE.

(From our own Correspondent.)

Manchester.—Iron makers in this district who are mostly well sold are not forcing sales, and consumers who are generally well covered for the remainder of the year, are still waiting for any development of the market which may be in their favour before giving out further orders. The absence of any pressure to sell keeps prices nominally firm, but where the market is actually tested a tendency towards weakness is evident, and there is a considerable amount of underselling amongst merchants, whilst makers, although they are not disposed to give way for anything like prompt delivery, are in some cases willing to sell over the first three or four months of next year at under current rates.

The Manchester iron market continues very quiet, and there was very little business stirring at Tuesday's meeting. Lancashire makers of pig iron report new orders to be coming in very slowly, but as they are well sold for the remainder of the year, they are firm at their quotations of 49s. to 50s., less 2½, delivered equal to Manchester. District brands are without material change, Lincolnshire being quoted at from 49s. to 51s., less 2½, for forge and foundry; and Derbyshire at about 51s. to 52s., less 2½, delivered here, but very few sales are at present being made.

In the finished iron market buyers continue to fight against the recent advance in prices, but the principal makers, who have plenty of orders in hand, are very firm. In some quarters orders are reported to have been coming in rather more freely during the week, but the weight of new business altogether is only small. Prices are very irregular; for good local bars the principal makers are not taking less than £6 15s. per ton delivered into the Manchester district, but some of the local brands can be bought at £6 10s., and I have even heard of sellers as low as £6 5s. per ton; hoops can be bought at from £6 15s. to £7, although the makers generally quote £7 5s.; local made sheets average £8 12s. 6d., and Staffordshire qualities £9 per ton.

The engineering trades continue well employed, and as a rule have plenty of work in hand to keep them going for the present, but there appears to be a falling off in the quantity of new business coming in.

There seems to be a growing demand for the small class of motors, such as hot air and gas engines. The manufacture of gas engines is rapidly developing in this district, and one or two new engines are at present being brought out. Hot-air engine makers are also busy with orders both for home use and export, and this class of motor engine is coming extensively into use both for pumping purposes and for power.

An ingenious arrangement for taking measurements on the surface, at any moment, of the quantity of air passing through a mine, was described by Mr. Joseph Thompson, at a meeting of the Manchester Geological Society, held in Lynn, on Friday. In the place of the ordinary anemometers now generally used in the mines, Mr. Thompson proposes to adopt the well-known Robinson's cups, and dispensing with the present clockwork arrangement, which records the speed of the wind travelling over the cups, to connect the apparatus with an electric circuit communicating with the surface at one or any number of points, as desired. By a simple mechanical arrangement the electric circuit will be broken at every revolution of the cups, and this will be communicated by a small "dead beat" hammer on a glass or porcelain dial in the observing station on the surface. This will be contained in a small wooden box, the lid of which is furnished with a crank action to break or connect the circuit a second time as the box is closed or opened. By this arrangement the manager on the surface would be able to ascertain, at any moment, the number of revolutions which were being made by the cups in the mine, and to readily calculate the amount of ventilation passing through the workings.

The disputed point as to the relative merits of the different fans now in use for ventilating mines also came forward at the same meeting. Mr. Cockson, who had read a paper on the subject at a previous meeting, expressed the opinion that the Guibal fan, which he said had been found in Germany to give 70 per cent. of useful effect, was to be preferred to either the Waddell or the Schiele fans. Mr. C. M. Percy, who is well known for his contributions on questions connected with mine engineering, held, however, that the Schiele was the best fan, and criticised the construction of the Guibal as being wrong in principle. It was, however, generally admitted that with the varying conditions of different mines, any fair comparative test of the relative efficiency of the different fans was scarcely possible.

An illustration of the difficulty which colliery proprietors have sometimes to encounter in carrying out measures which they consider to be for the safety of their mines was also afforded at the Wigan meeting of the Manchester Geological Society. For some time past the use of "Davey" lamps in mines has been almost generally condemned as not being sufficiently safe with the present powerful system of ventilation, and at a recent meeting of the Geological Society at Hull one of the Inspectors of Mines introduced to the meeting what are known as the tin-can lamps, which he considered would be found capable of meeting the present requirements of mines. Since then these lamps have been introduced at several collieries in the district, but the men are refusing to work with them, and at one colliery have actually struck work against the introduction of the lamp. The men do not allege that the lamps are not safe, but their ground of complaint is that they do not give quite as good a light as the other lamps, a point, however, which is open to very much question. As there is a probability of this type of lamp coming into use, which is regarded by those who have already introduced it into their mines as absolutely safe, it was decided at the meeting to postpone a discussion on safety lamps, which had been intended, pending the settlement of the present dispute with the men.

employment of a bleaching solution containing excess of alkali, alone or combined with either or both of the foregoing processes.

1587. SECONDARY BATTERIES, A. Tribe, Nottingham. — 1st April, 1882. 4d. Uses compressed peroxide of lead.

1588. GUIDES FOR SAW BLADES, H. J. Haddon, Kensington. — 1st April, 1882. — (A communication from G. Calloch, Reolon, France.) — (Not proceeded with.) 2d.

The guide consists essentially of a block of metal fixed at the place usually occupied by the wooden guide, and forming a casing where the blade passes.

1589. APPARATUS FOR PAINTING THE INTERIOR OF HOUSES, &c., M. Menge and H. Krause, Berlin. — 1st April, 1882. — (Not proceeded with.) 2d.

The apparatus consists chiefly of a colour receptacle, preferably of sheet iron, attached to the lower end of a handle and carrying a brush or distributor for spreading the colour equally over the floor.

1590. GAS MOTOR ENGINES, R. Skene, Lambeth. — 1st April, 1882. 6d.

The invention is designed to effect greater convenience and economy in working, and in the cost of construction, by dispensing with the water jacket or any cooling medium, in or about the working cylinder, so as to retain and utilise the heat generated by explosive combustion. Also by the use of explosion chambers of special form attached to, but apart from, the working cylinders, by a piston rendered non-conducting to heat, and by a simple and novel form of ignition valve, and apparatus connected therewith.

1592. PROJECTILES FOR BREECH-LOADING RIFLED ORDNANCE, J. Favasseur, Southwark. — 1st April, 1882. 6d.

The inventor claims the manufacture of a projectile with a projecting flange or abutment around its base, and a grooved or roughened surface in front of the abutment, and a band of copper or other suitable ductile metal drawn down over this roughened surface, so that its rear end shall bear against the abutment, whilst the forward end has no abutment to bear against.

1593. GLOVES, H. Urvick, Wandswoth. — 1st April, 1882. 4d.

The inventor inserts on the inner side of the hand a piece passing from the base of the first and second fingers (or rather the interval between these fingers) to the base of the thumb; and the same piece also forms the inner side of the thumb, and the forefinger "quirk" or the gusset piece at the root of this finger.

1594. REVERBERATORY FURNACES, Sir W. W. Hughes, Bayswater. — 1st April, 1882. 6d.

This consists in the combination of the melting or reducing furnace with its nearly flat and inclined bed; a downwardly inclining flue, conveying the materials as they melt, and also the products of combustion; and the collecting furnace receiving the same and retaining the metal in its deep bed.

1595. FIRE-ESCAPES, W. P. Thompson, Liverpool. — 1st April, 1882. — (A communication from J. Gabrielti, Spalato, Austria.) — (Not proceeded with.) 2d.

This relates to the employment of a safety bag to be lowered from the windows.

1596. LATCHES OR LOCKS, W. Johnson, Liverpool. — 1st April, 1882. — (Not proceeded with.) 2d.

This relates partly to forming the handles so that they will not work loose.

1598. MACHINERY FOR GRINDING SPINDLES, G. Ryder and M. Fielding, Bolton. — 1st April, 1882. 6d.

The grinding wheel is mounted upon a sliding carriage, and the spindle to be ground is mounted on the upper swivelling part of a table, to the lower part of which is imparted an automatic longitudinal motion by a worm and rack or a screw and nut or otherwise. An adjustable pivot is provided, on which the upper part of the table swivels, and attached to the frame of the machine is a template or pattern for guiding the swivelling table. An antifriction roller, which turns on a bracket fastened to the swivelling table, is caused by a spring to press against the template.

1631. COOLING MILLSTONES, &c., A. W. L. Reddie, London. — 4th April, 1882. — (A communication from H. Dorritt, New York.) — (Not proceeded with.) 2d.

The invention consists in the combination with the upper or stationary stone and the lower stone or runner, each provided with a cavity, which may be formed between two sections of the stone, or between the back of the stone and a back plate applied thereto, of inlet and outlet pipes for maintaining a circulation of water or cooling liquid through the cavity in the upper stone, a pipe extending downwards through the eye of the upper stone and communicating directly with the cavity in the runner for supplying the cooling liquid thereto, and connected with the runner so as to rotate therewith, and an outlet pipe or pipes through which the liquid may escape from the cavity in the runner.

1632. HYDRAULIC CRANES, &c., E. Priestman, Sheffield. — 4th April, 1882. 6d.

The invention consists in the use of a drum or barrel carried by the piston-rod of hydraulic cranes, hoists, and other like machinery, and which drum or barrel is revolved on the outward and inward stroke of the piston-rod by pinions gearing into a fixed rack guide.

1633. DRIVING GEAR FOR WRINGING AND MANGLING MACHINES, &c., H. Clegg, Accrington. — 4th April, 1882. 8d.

On the boss of the fly-wheel is a pinion, and on axis of lever roller shaft is a flanged disc, the flange having internal teeth to gear inside the disc and carries loose gear wheel on concentric stud. This wheel gears with the internal teeth of disc and with pinion. On back of disc are studs which gear with teeth of wheel on axle of upper roller. The face of the flanged internal gear wheel forms an inclosing guard or fence for the wheel.

1634. INDIA-RUBBER COATED FABRICS, W. R. Lake, London. — 4th April, 1882. — (A communication from H. W. Burr, Cambridgeport, U.S.) 6d.

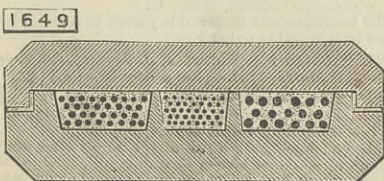
The improvement in the method of curing the india-rubber-coated fabrics consists in subjecting them to the action of the electric light, and preferably during the process of coating, and while the fabric is passing through the machine.

1635. MECHANICAL TOYS, W. R. Lake, London. — 4th April, 1882. — (A communication from W. A. Webber, G. B. Kelly, E. L. Rand, and J. L. Given, U.S.) 6d.

This relates to a mechanical toy made in imitation of a living creature, and internally provided with devices capable of being operated to produce musical sounds.

1649. UNDERGROUND CONDUITS FOR ELECTRIC WIRES, A. J. Boulton, London. — (A communication from J. D. Thomas, New York. — 5th April, 1882. 6d.

The figure shows a section of the conduit. The top



can be taken off. Both parts are preferably made of common pottery clay or equivalent material.

1637. UPRIGHT AND FOOTSTEP BEARINGS, &c., J. H. Johnson, London. — 4th April, 1882. — (A communication from A. Pesca, Berlin.) 6d.

The object of the invention is to partially or wholly remove the direct pressure of the heel or end of the

shaft upon the footstep or bearing-plate by hydraulic power, and to enable this to be performed by a suitable arrangement of apparatus, whereby in the construction of centrifugal machines, for example, it is rendered possible to provide for the rotation of very heavily loaded shafts at the desired speed.

1638. ARMOURED VESSELS, J. H. Johnson, London. — 4th April, 1882. — (A communication from N. B. Clark, Philadelphia.) 6d.

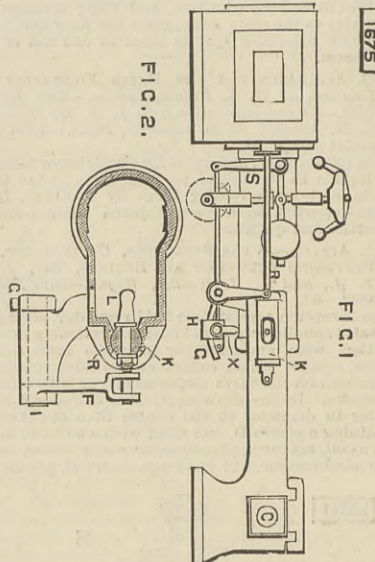
This consists, first, of a rotary turret for guns, having the side in the rear of the guns of a semi-cylindrical form, and the front portion through which the nozzles of the gun pass sloping or curving downwards; Secondly, a rotating shield for a gun, having its front portion, through which the gun passes, of a rounded wedge-shape, its rear open end being pivoted to swing about a fixed point.

1670. INCANDESCENT ELECTRIC LAMPS, J. Jameson, Newcastle-upon-Tyne. — 6th April, 1882. 4d.

The carbon from which the filament for incandescent electric lamps are to be formed is deposited within a tube of refractory material, from hydrocarbon gas or vapour, so as to produce a deposit of great density and uniformity of structure. When the deposit is formed of considerable thickness the envelope employed in its formation is broken, and then to give endurance to the cylinder so formed the inside is filled with a tenacious cement, such as rosin or shellac.

1675. SLIDE VALVES AND SLIDE GEAR FOR STEAM AND OTHER FLUID-PRESSURE ENGINES, D. Halpin, Westminster. — 6th April, 1882. 6d.

This relates to improvements on patent No. 3495, A.D. 1878, the object being to simplify the arrangement whereby the slide has a partial rotation imparted to it, in addition to its longitudinal motion, so as to enable the cut-off to be varied while the exhaust remains constant. On crank shaft C are two eccentrics, one connected by a rod to the slide rod R



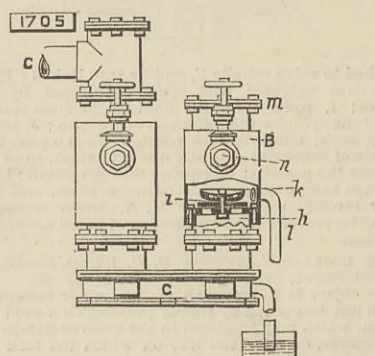
so as to move it to and fro, while the other for giving the partial rotation to the slide is linked to an arm F on a rocking shaft I, having on it a curved arm G, on which is fitted a slide H linked by arm X to an arm L projecting from an enlarged part of the slide rod R, such part having collars which engage grooves in a head working in the cylindrical guide K. The slide H is linked to lever S worked by a centrifugal governor, so as to vary the cut-off as the speed increases or diminishes.

1697. INCANDESCENT ELECTRIC LAMPS, Hon. R. Brougham and F. A. Ormiston, Regent-street. — 8th April, 1882. 6d.

Relates to the method of sealing the conducting wires, and a means for securing the carbon filament to the wires.

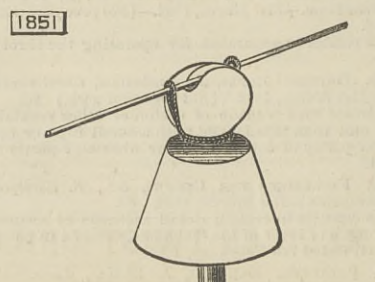
1705. CONDENSERS FOR STEAM ENGINES, A. M. Clark, London. — 8th April, 1882. — (A communication from R. E. M., and M. Williams, California, U.S.) 4d.

In the air chamber B is fixed a grid h, on which is secured a disc valve i of flexible material, and above the valve is a guard k that limits the movement of the valve in opening; l is a pipe for discharge of air from cylinder B, and m is a removable cover on the cylinder to allow access to the valve. When the exhaust steam



enters the condenser through the pipe c the shock will raise the valve i, and the air in the condenser, or that which may come in with the exhaust steam will be forced out, and the closure of valve i on its seat will prevent any return. Water rising with the air will run out by pipe l, which is preferably set a little above the valve so as to keep the valve covered with water to render it air-tight; n is a pipe and valve for supplying a jet of water to keep valve i covered and the chamber B cooled. Both the water cylinder and the air chamber B, which is also of cylindrical form, are secured in an upright position on the hollow base C.

1851. INSULATED SUPPORTS FOR TELEPHONE WIRES, C. Curtvoys, Lombard-street. — 18th April, 1882. 4d.



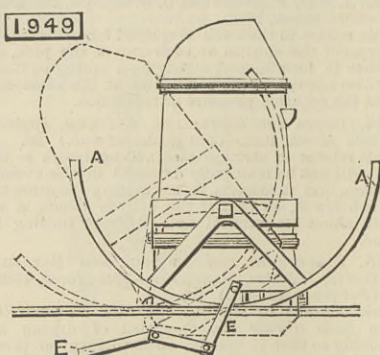
The insulator is grooved and capped as shown in the figure.

1726. ELECTRICAL APPARATUS FOR SIGNALLING ON RAILWAYS, E. Tyer, Dalston. — 12th April, 1882. 6d.

Details certain combinations of relays, and contact pieces to make contact when the train passes over the rail. Thus an arm bearing an adjustable screw may be actuated by the train, the screw making contact through an electro-magnet, whose action on its armatures actuates the signal.

1949. BESSEMER CONVERTERS, S. G. Thomas, Westminster. — 25th April, 1882. 6d.

This relates to improvements in Bessemer converters, whereby the advantages of both the tipping and fixed systems are united, and it consists in mounting the vessel on rockers A at each side, so that the vessel may be readily tipped to one side or the other by a very slight force. On the front side is a



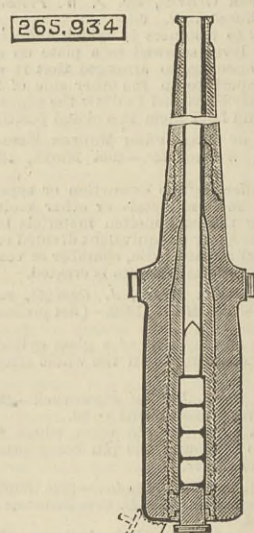
tapping hole and on the opposite side a row of side tuyeres of large diameter. The blast can be introduced through jointed pipe E. The tilting may be effected by hand lever, or by a hydraulic or steam ram, or a rack and pinion or other simple contrivance. A catch or wedge is arranged to hold the vessel at any required angle.

SELECTED AMERICAN PATENTS.

From the United States Patent Office Official Gazette.

265,934. ORDNANCE, James L. Norris, Washington, D.C. — Filed 19th July, 1882.

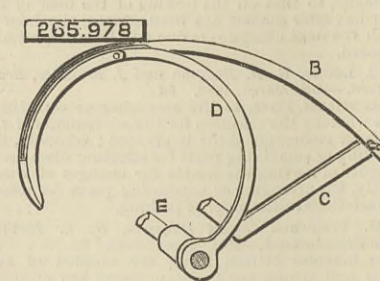
Claim. — A composite gun consisting of a cast steel outer casing C O, formed in two parts screwed



together, in combination with a front lining tube, A, of either coiled wrought iron or of steel, and a rear lining tube, B, of coiled wrought iron screwed into the casing from the breech, substantially as described.

265,978. COMBINED NEEDLE ARM AND COMPRESSOR FOR GRAIN BINDERS, John Lloyd Owens, Minneapolis, Minn. — Filed December 27th, 1881.

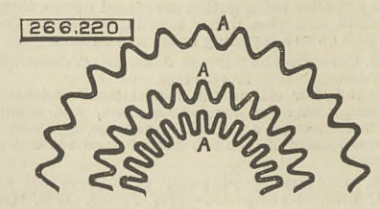
Claim. — The combination of the needle arm B and compressor arm D, the said compressor arm pivoted at one end in said needle arm and at the other end to



a shaft E, and said needle arm adapted to be oscillated about said shaft by a crank arm C, whereby the parts operate as and for the purpose described.

266,220. STEAM BOILER TUBE, George S. Strong, Philadelphia, Pa. — Filed March 6th, 1882.

Claim. — (1) The mode herein described of making tapering tubes for steam boilers, said mode consisting in forming on an ordinary cylindrical lap-welded tube corrugations prominent at the small end of the tube, but gradually decreasing in prominence until they merge into the cylindrical portion of the tube at or near the opposite end as set forth. (2) The within-described tapering tube for steam boilers, said tube

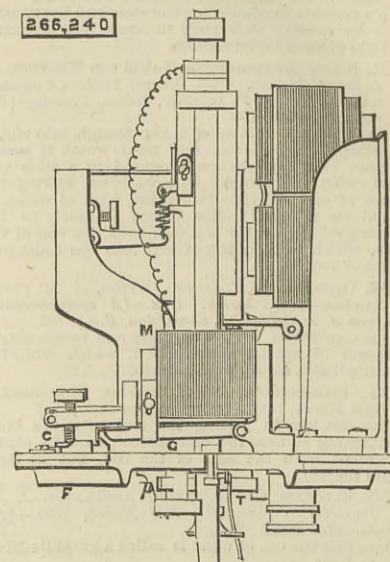


having at its small end prominent corrugations which gradually decrease in prominence until they merge into the cylindrical portion of the tube at or near the large end of the same as set forth. (3) A tapering tube having tapering corrugations concentrated and welded at and near the contracted end of the tube as set forth. (4) A tapering tube having tapering corrugations, and having at its large end a flange d, and at

its small end a concentrated and welded portion h, as set forth.

266,240. ELECTRIC ARC LAMP, Edward Weston, Newark, N.J. — Filed July 17th, 1882.

Claim. — (1) In an electric lamp containing two sets of carbons, the combination, with the electro-magnet, of independent feed mechanisms, one for each set of carbons, a pivotted bar adapted to maintain either of said feed mechanisms out of operation, a spring for shifting the same, an electro-magnet independent of the feed magnets, and an armature therefor, arranged to lock or release the pivotted bar, substantially as and for the purpose set forth. (2) In an electric lamp containing one set of feed controlling magnets and two sets of carbons, the combination, with the movable armature, of two independently connected clutch mechanisms, one for each set of carbons, a pivotted bar adapted to raise the free end of either of the said clutch mechanisms, a spring connected with



the said bar, and an electro-magnet and pivotted armature for locking and releasing the bar, as and for the purpose set forth. (3) In an electric lamp containing one set of feed-controlling magnets and two sets of carbons, the combination, with the movable armature, of two independently connected clutch mechanisms, one for each set of carbons, a pivotted bar adapted to maintain either of said clutch mechanisms out of operation, a catch hinged to said bar and arranged for sustaining the carrier of the inactive set of carbons, a spring for shifting the pivotted bar, and an electro-magnet and pivotted armature for locking and releasing the same, substantially as set forth. (4) The combination, with the spring shifting bar C, of a magnet M, and armature G, placed above the base F, and a pin p, extending through the said base and arranged for raising the armature, substantially as described. (5) In an electric lamp, the combination, with the carbon carrier, of a bearing spring T, or its equivalent, and a cam for controlling the position of the same, substantially as set forth.

CONTENTS.

Table listing contents of The Engineer, Nov. 10th, 1882, including sections like 'The Institution of Mechanical Engineers', 'Literature', and 'Paragaphs'.

EPPS'S COCOA.—GRATEFUL AND COMFORTING. — "By a thorough knowledge of the natural laws which govern the operations of digestion and nutrition, and by a careful application of the fine properties of well-selected Cocoa, Mr. Epps has provided our breakfast tables with a delicately flavoured beverage which may save us many heavy doctors' bills. It is by the judicious use of such articles of diet that a constitution may be gradually built up until strong enough to resist every tendency to disease. Hundreds of subtle maladies are floating around us ready to attack wherever there is a weak point. We may escape many a fatal shaft by keeping ourselves well fortified with pure blood and a properly nourished frame." — Civil Service Gazette. — Made simply with boiling water or milk. Sold only in packets labelled—"JAMES EPPS AND CO., Homoeopathic Chemists, London." — [ADVT.]