

HEATING TOWNS BY STEAM.

For some time the proposal to heat whole towns by a public steam supply, analogous to the water supply of a town, has been talked of, and to a considerable extent carried into effect in New York. Last month a paper, by the late Mr. Robert Briggs, was read before the Institution of Civil Engineers on American practice in warming buildings by steam, which gave some insight into American methods, and showed what questions are considered to represent the greatest difficulties. Heating by steam is certainly adopted to a very much greater extent than in this country, and a higher temperature is usually required in domestic and office premises by Americans than would be felt agreeable by English people. The problem of heating large areas by steam from a central source, and of supplying steam in the same way for motive purposes, has not, however, made much progress; neither has the ventilation of buildings heated by steam received very successful attention. In New York and in other towns a street steam supply has been carried out on a large scale, but from what the *Scientific American* recently said we may gather that it is not everything that is done better in New York than in England, and that the supply of steam to work small motors, to heat and ventilate buildings, to cook with, and to save all the trouble and time occupied in attending fires and fireplaces, may not be an unmixed blessing. That well-known journal said on the 9th inst.:—"The

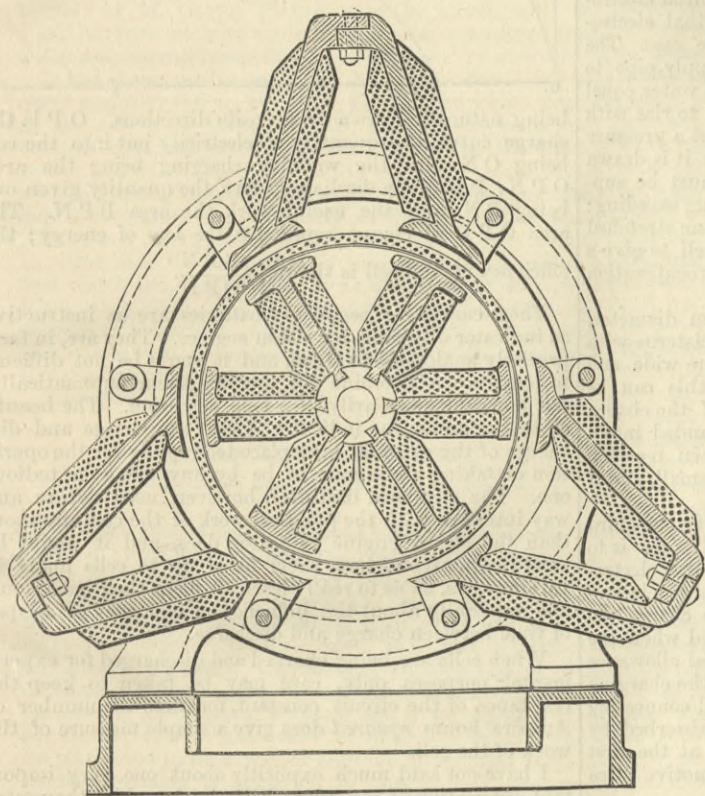
two ends cut into each other, and formed a metallic connection, which has always been successful. In the discussion which followed Mr. Briggs' paper very little was said on the comparative loss of steam by condensation when the steam is only used for heating purposes, and when it is passing with tolerable rapidity through the pipes to supply a motor. Experiments have not, perhaps, been made on steam pipe lines on this subject, but it would be a useful subject for investigation. From experiments we made some time since, as recorded in *THE ENGINEER* of the 12th February, 1880, we are inclined to think that the rate of condensation per unit of area of the pipes will be found to be much more when the steam is in motion than when it simply fills pipes as in heating; and if this is the case it would be a question for the consideration of the steam heating companies.

Another point which was brought out in the discussion was the increasing condensation with the higher temperature. Mr. Briggs had assumed in a table otherwise valuable, that the rate of condensation per unit area varied with the temperature simply, but extensive experiments made by Mr. W. Anderson have shown that the rate increases more rapidly than the increase of difference of temperature within and without the pipes. In offices and houses the high temperature steam has also the objection that it is always attended with disagreeable smells, probably from the dust collected on the pipes during summer when not in use as well as when in use. Sir W. G. Armstrong, in whose house is a combination of coke

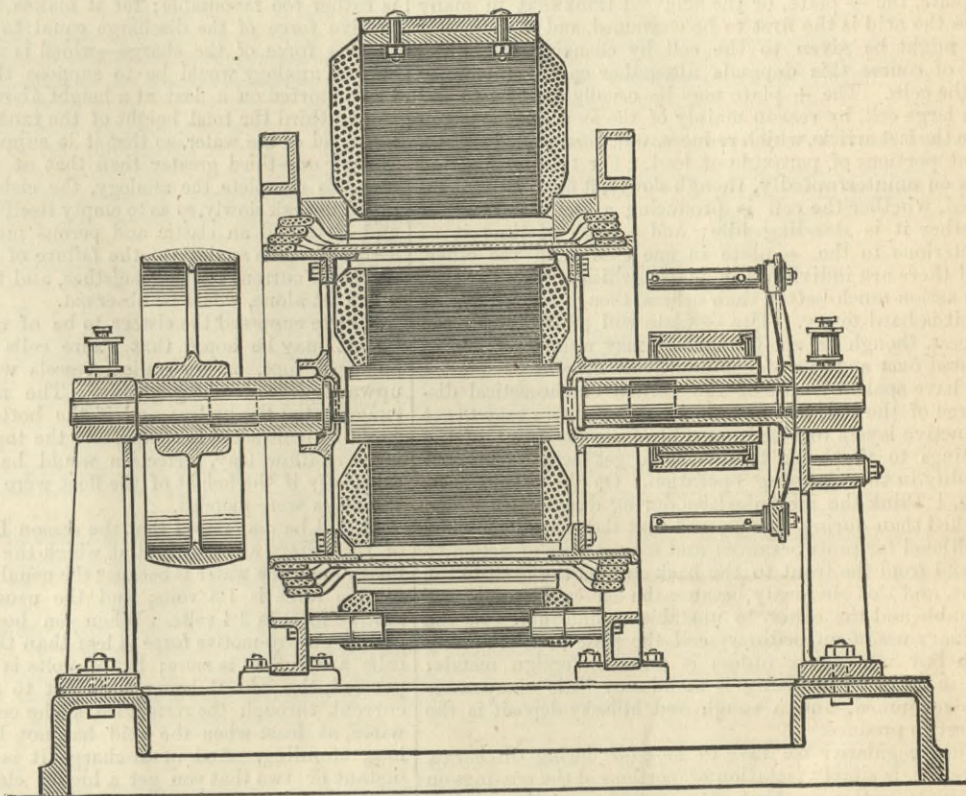
it is formed the faster it clears off. If it is formed very rapidly by a very powerful current, the cell need not stand long to recover itself; but if it only forms after a long continuance of a weak current, it is much more permanent, and a long period is necessary for recovery.

The scum always takes longer to clear off than to form, but the two times are not greatly different. The clearing away of the insulating film is due, I believe, to the local action between the hydrogenised lead in the deeper layers of the coating and the dehydrogenised lead of the surface; and if this is so, there must come a time when the film will refuse to clear off, and a permanent increase in the internal resistance will set in, increasing as the action penetrates deeper and deeper into the negative coat until the still metallic lead can only be reached by penetrating through a surface layer of non-conducting matter, consisting mainly of sulphate, but also partly, I think, of the lower oxides of lead.

Messrs. Gladstone and Tribe have made the remarkable observation that patches of *peroxide* form on the — plate during the discharge. The fact has not come under my own notice, as I was so totally unprepared for any such phenomenon that I never looked for it. However, as Messrs. Gladstone and Tribe have detected it by chemical analysis, we must accept the fact, unexpected as it is; and certainly a film of such a substance on the negative plate will account for any amount of falling off of the cell, down to complete stoppage, by reason of its high opposition electro-motive force. Moreover it is certain that local



CROSS SECTION



LONGITUDINAL SECTION

ELPHINSTONE AND VINCENT'S DYNAMO ELECTRIC MACHINE.—(For description see page 14.)

laying of steam pipes in the streets of the lower part of our city has made rapid progress the past summer and fall, almost too rapid, we think, to be substantial and free from the every-day mishaps now occurring. Defective pipes and fittings and misjudgment in the selection of material for packing the flanges, together with insufficient testing before the closing of the trenches, has resulted in the blowing out of joints, the breaking of flanges, and the digging up and blockading of the streets over and over until the patience of the mercantile community is well-nigh exhausted. The spirit of rivalry between the companies has been carried to the reckless extent of doubling the lines of pipes in many streets, to the detriment of all other franchises and interests, without giving satisfaction to the takers of steam. Although there may be competition wherever there are rival lines, as well as the cutting of rates, the gain is not equal to the nuisance of the continued disturbance of the streets and increased temperature of the water supply from the proximity of so many steam pipes. Is there not room enough for the expansion of two live steam companies in our great city without doubling up their lines of steam pipes under our streets to the detriment of all other interests? The blockade of the streets alone by one company is a nuisance, and what must it be when the rival company repeats it? but when packings blow out to such an extent as to fill the streets with steam and jeopardise life, it becomes time to suspend the extension of the lines, and endeavour to perfect the work already done." The same journal, of the 23rd ult., says:—"There still seems to be trouble in keeping the joints tight under our streets. The screw joints do not seem to hold their own, either from inadequate material to give strength to the fittings, unusual strain by expansion, or unskilled labour in screwing the threads home, as fresh outbreaks are of almost daily occurrence."

The joint making seems from this to be a job which is not always well accomplished by American fitters, and this perhaps explains the fact that Mr. Briggs' paper occupied the attention of the Institution of Civil Engineers for at least twenty minutes with a description of the difficulties attending making the screw joints of wrought iron piping, and of the form of joint most used in the States, some of the points gravely discussed being the commonplace knowledge of steam pipe fitters in general. The difficulties on this point were long since entirely overcome by Perkins, who surfaced the ends of his tubes or one of them, and bevelled the end of the adjoining tube, so that when they were screwed together in a collar the

fire and low temperature hot water heating apparatus, said that he had no difficulty with the apparatus either as to joints, regulation of temperature, or smells, but the house of one of his friends, where high temperature steam pipes are used "always smells like an engine house." On the relative advantages, economy and comfort of low temperature and high temperature water or steam pipes for heating, there is much to be said, though comfort alone would decide in favour of low temperature. There is also much room for discussion on the better position of the heating pipes when steam is used, namely, a low level or overhead; while for street service the best arrangement for allowing for expansion and contraction offers a field for invention.

ELECTRICAL ACCUMULATORS OR SECONDARY BATTERIES.

BY PROFESSOR OLIVER LODGE.

No. X.

HAVING charged the cell and allowed it to stand idle for a time, it only remains to discharge it.

The regular and normal operation of discharge would be as follows:—We start with the opposing surfaces—spongy, hydrogenised lead on the one side, and peroxide, more or less saturated with oxygen, on the other—as near together as they can ever be, and with a highly-conducting, strongly acid liquid in the narrow space between. An initial current of great vigour is therefore produced, and any spare oxygen is probably at once consumed. The current continues, with hardly diminished intensity, until the surface hydrogen has also disappeared, and a scum of sulphate forms on the negative plate. This is the first thing that causes any serious weakening of the current; only it must be remembered that it acts by increasing the internal resistance, not by diminishing the electro-motive force to any important extent, and hence, that it may considerably reduce the strength of a powerful current, although a test with an electrometer or high resistance volt-meter might not show any marked deterioration. The more powerful the current demanded, the more is the resistance offered by this scum of consequence, and, moreover, the sooner does the scum form; and this is mainly why a cell refuses to give a very strong current for many minutes together.

On allowing the cell to stand the scum clears off, and the original power is to a great extent restored. And there is this to be noticed about the scum, that the faster

action would speedily clear away such a deposit, and hence, given such a film as this, the loss of power and recuperation of the cell are accounted for in the fullest and most satisfactory manner.

Any difficulty which one feels in perceiving how the peroxide comes to form on the plate during discharge, of course only exists when the cells are discharged separately. When a number of cells are discharged in series, as is common, it is the simplest thing in the world for those which get empty first to begin to charge up in the reverse direction by the current from the others; and the current from a set of cells will therefore cease, not when all are discharged completely, but when the opposition electro-motive force of the worst cells becomes equal to the remaining electro-motive force of the best. Then allowing the cells to stand a bit, the worst cells will lose rapidly their opposition electro-motive force, and accordingly the set will have picked up again and give a residual charge, until the electromotive forces balance again; and so on alternately, the action being precisely analogous in every respect to the residual charge of a Leyden jar with a stratified dielectric, as worked out by Maxwell. But, as Kohlrausch pointed out, to get *Nachwirkung* it is not essential to have a stratified dielectric, so with secondary batteries. A single cell will give it, though not to the same extent as a series.

It is obvious that all these actions are very objectionable, and not at all what is wanted in practice; but as long as cells are not all identical, a series must give these effects in a very marked degree. If it is impossible to make cells really alike, therefore the best plan is to make them as best you can, and then test them and sort them out into qualities, putting all of the same sort together, where they will work much better and more steadily than if mixed with others either better or worse.

A certain percentage will naturally be found exceedingly good; and these, also quite naturally, may be selected for important occasions, such as crossing the Channel.

And now what about the positive plate during discharge. In the normal operation the front layer of peroxide will get reduced to a lower oxide, apparently the yellow oxide litharge, and much of this will be then turned into sulphate by the acid. After this action has gone on for some time the internal resistance of the cell must have increased by reason of the non-conducting layer of lower oxides and of sulphate which intervenes between the active layer of the peroxide and the main body of the liquid.

I apprehend that all reduction of this kind is perma-

ment, and that no recuperative chemical changes go on at this plate when the current is interrupted. Nevertheless it is a certain fact that the power of the + plate too does fall off temporarily while producing a current and pick up again when standing idle, though not, I think, to the same extent nor so soon as the power of the — plate does; in fact, for a long time the fall and rise is not much noticed, but it is most apparent when the active layer is buried at some depth beneath the clogging and non-conducting products of reduction. The cause of the loss of power in this case, I therefore think, is solely due to the exhaustion of the acid inside the porous mass as it combines with the protoxide formed; and the rise of power is due to the renewing of the strength of the acid by diffusion from the main body of the liquid.

If only a weak current is demanded from the cell, the diffusion may be rapid enough to keep the acid fairly strong and no alteration of power need be noticed, but with a powerful current at intervals the alternations are more marked.

Mr. Bosanquet says that with some secondary cells made by him the alternations of power were so marked and so extremely rapid as to cause the carbons of his lamp to chatter. I venture to doubt whether anything like this rate of recuperation is possible, and I have known lamp carbons to chatter when supplied simply from a dynamo.

After the cell has been discharged slowly for a long time, with intervals for refreshment, if necessary, it ultimately is quite exhausted. What has given out, the + plate, the — plate, or the acid? I think that in many cases the acid is the first to be consumed, and that further life might be given to the cell by changing the liquid, but of course this depends altogether on the roominess of the cells. The + plate may be usually the first to fail in a large cell, by reason mainly of the local action spoken of in the last article, which reduces, and, worse still, detaches, great portions of peroxide of lead. For this local action goes on uninterruptedly, though slowly, it must be remembered, whether the cell is producing a useful current, or whether it is standing idle; and a lapse of time is as deleterious to the + plate in one case as in the other. Still there are individual + plates which appear to resist this action much better than others, though for what reason it is hard to say. The — plate will probably last the longest, though its active surface may ultimately get so crusted over as to be of comparatively little use.

I have spoken so far of the normal or theoretical discharge of the cell, but in practice it is no more easy to get the active layers to recede steadily from the front of the coatings to the back than it is to get them to advance steadily in the charging operation. On the whole, however, I think the irregularities during discharge are less marked than during charge, and that there is not the same likelihood for protuberances and excrescences of action to extend from the front to the back as from the back to the front, and this obviously because the one case is analogous to stable and the other to unstable equilibrium. In the ordinary use of an ordinary cell the plate is eaten away with fair uniformity unless it contains foreign metals; but in electro-depositing a metal any little excrescence gets magnified, and a rough and hillocky deposit is the easiest to produce.

The irregularity we have to look for during discharge, therefore, is simply isolation of portions of the coatings on a minute scale; so that, for instance, on the + plate particles of peroxide instead of being reduced may be reduced round, and being thus isolated from conducting communication with the + plate, must remain unchanged and useless. In this way grains or particles of peroxide remain mixed up with the reduced matter on the + plate to so great an extent that the reduction of the plate barely changes its colour. The litharge and sulphate formed do give the plate a lighter aspect, but so very large is the proportion of unaltered black peroxide mixed up with them that an unpractised eye could not tell by looking at it, whether a layer of peroxide were "reduced" or not.

The same may be said to a less extent of the — plate, where a large proportion of metallic lead remains in isolated specks uniformly and abundantly distributed through the mass of sulphate and oxide, or whatever the rest of the lead has become changed into.

It must be understood that these detached particles, whether of lead or of peroxide, are of no use whatever, and that they simply act as a clogging obstruction to the current as well as to diffusion, for though themselves conducting, they conduct to nowhere, and no current would think of making use of mere isolated specks of conducting matter lying in its path, but would go round and between them just as carefully as if they consisted of glass dust.

It is for this reason that nothing at all comparable to the quantity of electricity required to form a cell originally can ever subsequently be got out of it. This of itself is not of such pressing importance—except, indeed, where weight is a fatal objection; it would be sufficient in practice if all that was put into a cell when re-charging could be got out during the discharge. Unfortunately this also is not possible.

Still the difference between a charge quantity and a discharge quantity is not anything like so great as that between the original form quantity and a subsequent either charge or discharge; and if one were to discharge cells singly, and give them plenty of time, I see no reason why a very large percentage of the charge current should not come out of them. There would necessarily be some difference, by reason of the evolution of oxygen during charge, all this being irreversible action; but the amount of this may be kept pretty low. From a series of cells discharged together, however, there will often be a striking difference between the charge and the discharge, as already explained, simply because the cells may not be precisely alike.

Again, if the cells are discharged too rapidly, they can hardly be expected to give the same quantity as if discharged more nearly at the same rate at which they were charged. At the same time I have not many numbers bearing on this point, and the inquiry is complicated by the periods that must be allowed for refreshment when strong currents are wanted.

The number of Ampère-hours a cell can give out, however, is not the really important matter. We must ask also at what electro-motive force does it give them out? The cell should be discharged through an integrating ergometer to give a real measure of what it can do, not through a voltmeter or galvanometer; and we should thus find a sad discrepancy between the work put into any cell with which I am acquainted and the work taken out. For the cell during charge is always at its best, and its electro-motive force is high; but during discharge the electro-motive force gradually falls, until the last portions of current are leaked out of the cell with a miserable remnant of force which accomplishes nothing. It is as if we stored energy in a tall cistern, pumping the water in at the top and drawing it off at the bottom. If the cistern leaks there is an obvious loss of power; but even supposing it perfectly water-tight, so that the discharge quantity is equal to the charge quantity, nevertheless there will be a deplorable difference between the work required to pump it in, all at the top, and the work obtained at the bottom from the gradually failing head of water.

It is fortunately not quite as bad as this with a Faure cell. It is more as if the supply pipe entered the tank somewhere near the middle, while the exit pipe left at the bottom. Thus we should be pumping in the first half of the charge against about half the maximum electro-motive force, and the second half against a gradually increasing force. The discharge electro-motive force would be a continually decreasing one as before. This analogy, however, is rather too favourable; for it makes the initial electro-motive force of the discharge equal to the final electro-motive force of the charge—which is not the case. The closest analogy would be to suppose the supply pipe to be supported on a float at a height above the water equal to one-third the total height of the tank, and to rise with the level of the water, so that it is supplied at a pressure always one-third greater than that at which it is drawn off. To complete the analogy, the cistern must be supposed to leak slowly, so as to empty itself by long standing; and if it had an elastic and porous membrane stretched across it, some analogy to the failure of the cell to give a powerful current for long together, and to its recuperation when let alone, would be observed.

I have supposed the cistern to be of uniform diameter, but it may be hoped that Faure cells are cisterns with enlarged tops, or are conical vessels with the wide end upwards like drinking glasses. The more this can be exaggerated the better; and if the bottom of the cistern could be contracted to a pipe, and the top expanded into a large shallow tray, perfection would have been reached, especially if the height of the float were but small, and if the leaks were mended.

It will be understood that the reason I specify one-third of the cistern as the height at which the supply pipe is to float above the water is because the usual discharge electro-motive force is 1·8 volts, and the usual charge electro-motive force is 2·4 volts. When you begin to charge the cell its electro-motive force is less than this, and when the cells are full it is more; but 2½ volts is a good allowance per cell, the odd .1 being sufficient to send the charging current through the resistance of the cell and connecting wires, at least when the acid has not been absorbed by long standing. And in discharge it is only at the first instant or two that you get a higher electro-motive force than 1·8 volts.

By observations with an electrometer galvanometer and watch, the shape of the cistern corresponding to any given cell can be constructed; and the shape during charge can also be constructed, and its difference to that of the discharge appreciated without making use of the rough approximation of the float.

The outline of the cistern will be a curve having electro-motive force— $e$ —as ordinates and  $\frac{dq}{de}$  as abscissæ,  $q$  being quantity of electricity given out by the cell as recorded by a voltmeter, or as observed by means of a galvanometer and a watch. To understand how to draw the curve, first consider observations made with an electrometer and a voltmeter, and let their indications be plotted,  $e$  for ordinates,  $q$  for abscissæ; then draw a curve with the same ordinates having as abscissæ the trig. tangent of the inclination of the tangents of the first curve to the vertical; this will be the outline required.

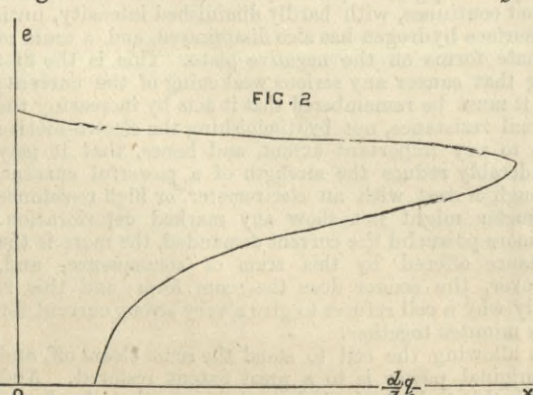
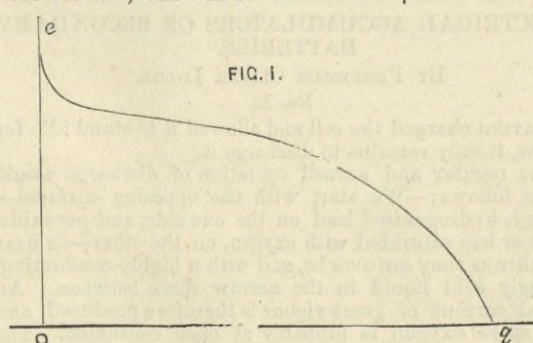
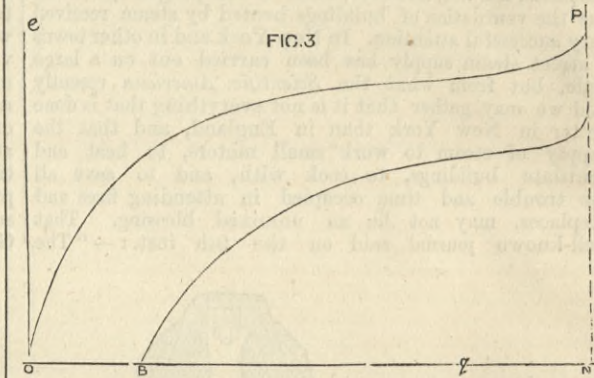


Fig. 1 shows the kind of appearance of the  $e, q$  curve;

and Fig. 2 shows the curve  $e, \frac{dq}{de}$ . In the first the total quantity of electricity given out by the cell is represented by the length of the base line  $Oq$ , while the area enclosed represents the energy of the discharge. In the second the area enclosed by the curve represents the quantity of electricity, and the work done by the discharge is represented by the moment of this area about  $OX$ . We may consider the curve of Fig. 2 as the outline of a cistern, or we may picture it to ourselves as a heavy horizontal plane pivoted on  $OX$  as an axis, and consider the rotating moment which it has about  $OX$ . But after all Fig. 1 is the simpler curve, and it will show most instructively the relation between the work done in charging and the work obtained in discharging the cell. Fig. 3 shows the charge and discharge curves superposed, the charge and discharge quantities



being naturally drawn in opposite directions.  $OP$  is the charge curve, the quantity of electricity put into the cell being  $ON$ , and the work of charging being the area  $OPN$ ;  $PB$  is the discharge curve, the quantity given out being  $BN$ , and the useful work the area  $BPN$ . The area  $OPB$  of course represents the loss of energy; the efficiency of the cell is the ratio  $\frac{BPN}{OPN}$ .

These curves for secondary batteries are as instructive as indicator diagrams for steam engines. They are, in fact, precisely analogous to them, and it would be not difficult to construct a machine for drawing them automatically, but it would necessarily be a long operation. The beauty of the steam engine indicator is that the charge and discharge of the cylinder take place too rapidly for the operation of taking a diagram to be by any means a tedious one. The electrical indicator, however, need not in any way interfere with the practical work of the cell any more than the steam engine indicator does, and it would be most instructive to have them fitted up to cells made in various ways, so as to really learn all about their behaviour, and especially about the influence on efficiency of a lapse of time between charge and discharge.

When cells are being charged and discharged for experimental purposes only, care may be taken to keep the resistance of the circuit constant, for then the number of Ampère hours squared does give a simple measure of the work of the cell.

I have not said much explicitly about one very important application of secondary batteries for which they seem better fitted in their present state than for actual storage by retention, viz., their use as regulators, in a branch circuit between the dynamos and lamps. The charge and discharge will then go on almost simultaneously, and the cells will, therefore, be in a high state of efficiency. The only danger is that the + plate may get peroxidised completely and crumble to pieces, a thing which may happen to any Faure cell if much overcharged.

For this regulating work a return to some form of the old Planté cell, with its low internal resistance, might be advisable, as great storage capacity would not be an essential, unless, indeed, the cells had to insure one against an accidental breakdown of the engine or dynamo.

Again, some applications, such as locomotion, require light cells, and also sometimes a powerful current for a comparatively short time, such as a tramcar run. For such cases also something more like the old Planté might be useful; and in general, cells for different purposes will have to be made on different plans, and an electro-store for a town will be a different thing from an electro-tank for a house, and this again from a little electro-box for a tricycle.

A question which naturally occurs to one on reading what I have said about the acid being sometimes the first substance to fail in the cell is why it is not the practice to supply the cells with more acid and more space for it. The answer I think is that the quantity of sulphate of lead in the coatings, and especially in the — coating, would thereby be increased, and that this sulphate of lead is very objectionable, because it is so difficult to reduce. For although Messrs. Gladstone and Tribe have shown that I was wrong in saying that sulphate of lead by itself, and as a paste, was quite incapable of reduction, yet the strength of current used by them, the time allowed, and the consequent waste of power in simply generating hydrogen gas, renders it quite out of the question in practice to attempt to charge a cell whose negative plate is coated with nearly all sulphate of lead; and if an unlimited supply of fresh acid were accessible, this is what the — coating would be likely sooner or later to become.

Another thing I want to say is that in Article No. 3, when speaking of the gas evolved from the cells while charging, I laid more stress on the hydrogen than on the oxygen. This was wrong. The gas evolved from charging cells is little else than oxygen and ozone; and if any hydrogen more than an occasional bubble or two is given off, it means either that the charging current is unnecessarily strong, or else that the cells are nearly full.

I have now concluded the present series of articles, and if it is noticed that I make no mention of the modification of Faure cells in which the coatings are supported in the interstices of cast lead gratings instead of being spread

over the outer surface of plates, it is because I am dealing more with the scientific aspect of the subject, than with the microscopic modifications which appear to constitute patentable improvements. What I have said about the active layer of operation during the formation of the cell remains, however, fairly true for these cast gratings, if for "back" we read portions next the lead, and for "front" portions near the centre of each hole; but that the layer of operations recedes in quite the same way during discharge I do not think likely, and it is not quite easy to see how the portion in the very middle of the holes gets acted upon during discharge. But if it does not it matters very little, as it would only remain inert ready for the next charging.

The doing away with the cloth material between the plates would seem to be an improvement, but I cannot think it safe. The risk of short circuiting, whether by dropping of substance out of the holes or by warping of the plates, is so great, and the damage done to a cell by short circuiting is so final, that some continuous insulation between the plates appears necessary, however troublesome and otherwise objectionable it may be.

Although the practical importance of secondary batteries is felt and recognised in a remarkable way at the present time—mainly, no doubt, by reason of the immense weight and enthusiasm of Sir William Thomson's opinion—and though a great deal of experience bearing on the subject from the practical point of view has now accordingly been attained, yet anyone reading the "Recherches sur l'Electricité" of M. Gaston Planté, must be struck with the small advance we have made on his work, considered from the purely scientific aspect.

I had been unable to obtain a copy of this book till quite recently, and am struck on finding the whole details of the action of secondary cells worked out with such completeness and precision. He knows that the loss of power of a cell is caused by a scum on the — plate, a fact which I thought I had observed; he speaks about local action on the + plate as clearly as Messrs. Gladstone and Tribe; and he suggests that the scum on the — plate may in some cases be an extremely thin coat of peroxide—a fact which the researches of these chemists seems now to have established. Whatever future may lie before lead secondary batteries as stores of power on the large scale, the name most imperishably associated with their early development will be that of Gaston Planté.

Liverpool.

O. J. L.

OSCILLATION v. ROTATION.

BY PROFESSOR OSBORNE REYNOLDS, F.R.S.

No. I.

(1) THE two principal motions which are given to the parts of machines are uniform rotation and oscillation. These motions are both possible, and are both capable of performing mechanical operations; and the question as to why one or other should be used gives rise to some interesting points. In some cases, as in that of the lathe, the general purpose of the machine renders one or other of these kinds of motion essential; but this is not so often the case as at first sight appears, for, if we consider, there are few operations performed by machines which cannot be performed in some way or another by animals, and continuous rotation is unknown in the animal mechanics. Nature has worked entirely by oscillation, so that the use of continuous rotation in machinery must be because, for some reason, it is preferred to oscillation. As to the reason for this preference, animal mechanics does not help us, for the constitutions of animals require a certain amount of continuity in the material throughout the entire animal, and this is inconsistent with continuous rotation. In machinery, however, this reason for the choice of reciprocation is altogether absent, and it has to compete with rotation on its merits in other respects.

(2) The respects in which the motions of reciprocation and rotation may be compared are numerous, and sometimes complex; amongst the principal are adaptability to the operation, simplicity of construction, and friction.

(3) The first two of these respects are those in which the relative merits of the two classes of motion are most obvious, and accordingly we may expect to find that the choice of one or other class of motion generally turns on their relative adaptability to a particular operation, and the simplicity of construction of the mechanism involved. It may happen that in both these respects the same motion is to be preferred; but in many very important cases it seems that as regards choice of motion, adaptability to the operation is at variance with simplicity of construction; then the choice is not easy, and there is rivalry between the two classes of motion.

Thus we find that, although one or other class of motion has firmly established itself for certain purposes, there are a vast number of cases in which there has been and still is a contest more or less close. Illustrations are not far to seek. We find reciprocating and rotary pumps and blowing machines, reciprocating pressure engines and revolving wheels or turbines for obtaining power from water, reciprocating and rotary saws. We might say oscillating and rotary propellers, but the rotary motion seems to have established itself for steamboats, although the oscillating oar holds the advantage for manual labour. Numerous other instances might be given, but it will be sufficient to give two, and to these attention will be chiefly directed. The first is the steam engine, and the second the dynamo-electric machine and electric motor.

In the steam engine, although reciprocation has the best of it, the battle has never been given up. This is a case in which simplicity of construction is apparently, at all events, at variance with adaptability to its operation. In some cases, as in pumping engines, the operation involves or admits of reciprocation, and, as is well known, it was to such operations only that the steam engine was confined for about a hundred years after its invention. For these purposes it would naturally seem that the reciprocating motion was most applicable. But so little applicable to move revolving machinery did it appear, that when, after a lapse of a century, Watt improved the engine and saw

the importance of applying it to revolving machinery, he kept his improvements waiting for something like ten years while he was attempting to find a revolving substitute for the reciprocating piston. At last he gave up the quest, and found in the crank, or his bastard form of it, a means of applying the reciprocating engine to purposes requiring revolution. But although abandoned by Watt, the quest has been and is still being followed by others. The apparently obvious advantage of a revolving engine, and the apparent simplicity of the problem, offer so tempting a field for invention, that probably nine out of ten of those who commence practical mechanics engage in it until they find how thoroughly others have been over the ground before them. So the reciprocating engine holds its own in the long practical test. This may be said to be on account of its simplicity of construction and the adaptability of the reciprocating piston to the operation of taking the work out of the steam; still nothing approaching to a satisfactory theoretical or scientific explanation of its advantage has been given. Thus the advantage of the reciprocating over the rotary steam engine stands almost entirely as an empirical fact, without explanation, and somewhat in opposition to what has been thought probable from scientific consideration.

On the other hand, if we turn to the dynamo-electric machine, we see that the case is reversed. If there is an operation for which reciprocating motion appears to be adapted, it is to the conversion of mechanical energy into electric currents, particularly into alternating currents, such as are best adapted for the electric light. In this operation there is something approaching to a necessity for continuity in the material, such as that which determines the motions in animal mechanics to be that of oscillation. Reciprocating motion would allow of continuity of material, whereas, in the case of continuous revolution, continuity in the conductors is only imperfectly secured by causing the stationary portion of the conductor to press against the moving portion. Again, the *modus operandi* is to cause soft iron alternately to approach and recede from magnets, or to cause coils of the conducting wire to move so that the lines of magnetic force alternately pass inside and outside the coil. The telephone acts by a reciprocating dynamo and motor, and its efficiency is such as to show how perfectly the motion of reciprocation is adapted for these purposes. Experience in the construction of the dynamo may as yet be called small; but while the records of the "Patent Journal" show that some of the most successful electricians have started with a belief in the adaptability of vibration, all the numerous successful machines have been rotary. It is probable that some reason for this has occurred to those most deeply engaged in the subject, but I am not aware that any has been publicly expressed; so that we may say that the advantage of rotary motion in the dynamo is an empirical fact, and is somewhat opposite to what might be expected. It would seem, however, that this paradox is not so obscure as that of the advantages of the reciprocating engine; and it is not improbable that the explanation of the less difficult paradox may throw some light on that which has so long remained unsolved. In the case of the dynamo the considerations are much narrowed down, and hence the ground for advantage must be more distinct.

(4) A careful study of the kinetics of the problem shows that there is one important respect not specifically dealt with in the treatise on the theory of machines, in which, as it would occur in the dynamo, reciprocation must be at a great disadvantage as compared with rotation. This respect is the third mentioned in (2). Careful consideration shows that in the dynamo reciprocation must be at a great disadvantage as regards friction. This may not appear to be unnatural. Although the data and methods for investigating the friction of reciprocation, as compared with rotation, have not been formulated, there is a general impression that the balance would be against oscillation. Indeed, it is probable that this impression is one of the reasons which has led to the persistent attempts to produce a rotary steam engine. But such an indefinite impression entirely fails to explain why rotary motion should have an advantage under the circumstances of the dynamo which it has not under those of the steam engine, or why reciprocation should be at a disadvantage in the dynamo electric machine when it is not in the dynamo of the telephone. Under these circumstances it appeared desirable to attempt a more definite study of the friction of reciprocation as applied to circumstances such as exist in the dynamo. This brings out facts which must be of great importance in the theory of machines, and which are altogether in the direction of explaining the foregoing riddles.

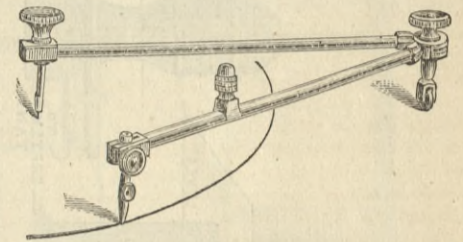
It appears that the amount of friction which has to be overcome in maintaining the motion of reciprocation of a particular piece of a machine controlled as by a crank, is not, as in the case of rotation, a quantity depending merely on the weight, manner of support, and motion of the reciprocating piece, but depends essentially on the forces which the reciprocating part is transmitting during its motion; and in general diminishes as these forces increase up to a certain point, when it vanishes. To take an illustration—in an ordinary steam engine doing full work it can be shown that the friction resulting purely from the motion being reciprocating is zero; but if the load be taken off the engine and the governors act so as to control the speed, the friction due to reciprocation will rise, and will reach a maximum when the engine is doing no work except driving itself. The same would be to a certain extent the case in a crank-driven reciprocating dynamo. When moving unexcited, *i.e.*, with the circuit open or doing no work, the resistance from the friction entailed by the reciprocating motion would be a maximum. When, by closing the circuit, resistance was thrown on to the machine, the work spent in friction from reciprocation would diminish, but it could not altogether vanish. In order that it might vanish altogether, the resistances encountered towards the end of the stroke must bear a certain relation to the weight and velocity, or more correctly, to the energy of motion, of the reciprocating part, and this relation cannot be reached under the circum-

stances of the practical dynamo, in which the energy of motion of the reciprocating piece bears a much greater proportion to the work done than in the steam engine, and in which the resistances fall off at the end of the stroke. Thus, while in the steam engine the lightness of the piston compared to the pressure which the steam exerts upon it at the commencement of the stroke, allows of its being driven at convenient speeds without entailing—when doing work—any extra friction from the reciprocation; in the dynamo, owing to the smallness of the resistance at the ends of the stroke compared with the weight of the reciprocating piece and the high speed required to develop the power, the friction entailed by reciprocation would be large.

In this comparison both machines are supposed to be controlled by the crank. The friction under such circumstances is not at all the same as when the reciprocating piece is controlled in other ways, as by a spring. In the telephone the motion is controlled by a spring, so that the same argument does not apply here. There are, however, certain limits to such a method of control, which it is not unimportant to consider. In order to render intelligible the reasoning relating to these points, it will be necessary to enter somewhat upon the kinetics of reciprocation, and this will form the subject of my next article.

BROOKES' HORIZONTAL COMPASS.

By the accompanying engraving we illustrate a very useful modification of the trammel or beam compass, made by Mr. W. Harling, mathematical instrument maker, 40, Hatton-garden, W.C. It will be seen to possess several advantages, either as a beam compass or as an ordinary large compass. As a beam compass it is so much more rapidly adjusted to any span than the



ordinary form, while the method of support by the small runner wheel takes the weight off the points, so that the pressure on the centre point be only what is found really necessary to keep it in position. The methods of holding the pencil, pen, or pin point, the latter being Mr. Harling's patent point, are simple and most efficient. To take the place of large compasses the new one is most useful, as it avoids all that digging of a large centre which is avoidable when an outstretched compass is used for a number of concentric circles of large size. There are other advantages which are too obvious to need description.

THE BASIC SLAGS OF CREUSOT AS A SOURCE OF VANADIUM.

In recent times vanadic acid, and several salts of this metal have come to be so largely used in the arts that any plentiful source of them is a thing which is on many grounds much desired. Vanadium occurs in many argillaceous iron ores. By reason of its great resemblance to phosphorus it follows it through all the phases of the manufacture of iron, both are found in a concentrated form in different slags, and especially in the basic slags of the Thomas-Gilchrist process. Among the steel factories of France which employ the new process, the works at Creusot furnish slags which are exceedingly rich in vanadium. The analyses of the slags found there gives the following numbers:—

Silicic acid	16.50	
Alumina (and little chromium oxide)	3.80	
Lime	46.30	
Magnesia	4.00	
Iron protoxide	7.07	Iron
Manganese protoxide	5.30	Manganese
Sulphuric acid	0.63	Sulphur
Phosphoric acid	13.74	Phosphorus
Vanadic acid	1.92	Vanadium
	99.26	

From this it is computed, by G. Witz and F. Osmond, that the annual yield of the slags of the Bessemer works of Creusot alone is 60,000 kilogs. of vanadium. To prepare it in the form of an ammonium vanadate, or as another new compound of vanadium, they propose the following process:—

1. *Solution of the crude slag.*—It is broken up into coarse fragments and treated with hydric chloride at ordinary temperature until the acid is pretty nearly saturated, and has a density of 36 deg. to 37 deg. Beaumé. The liquid is decanted, diluted with water at 15 deg., and the silicic acid is allowed to settle. The liquid, which now contains the vanadium in the form of hypovanadic acid, can at once, without regard to the other salts present in it, be used without any further refining for aniline-black printing.

2. *Preparation of hypovanadic phosphate.*—The acid solution of the crude slag is neutralised and treated with an alkaline acetate, which throws down a large bluish-green precipitate; this contains the greater part of the vanadium in the form of hypovanadic phosphate, together with other little soluble phosphates. On repeating this treatment a fresh precipitate is obtained, which may contain as much as 20 per cent. of metallic vanadium, while the slag only contained 1.5 per cent. Ordinary slags, in which there is less vanadium, are usually at the outset treated in the following very simple way:—To the acid solution, formed by treating them with acid, an excess of powdered slag is added, whereby the free acid is withdrawn and the metals, the phosphates of which are least soluble, especially that of vanadium, are thrown down. This light granular bluish-grey precipitate is then dissolved in hydric chloride and digested as above with the acetate.

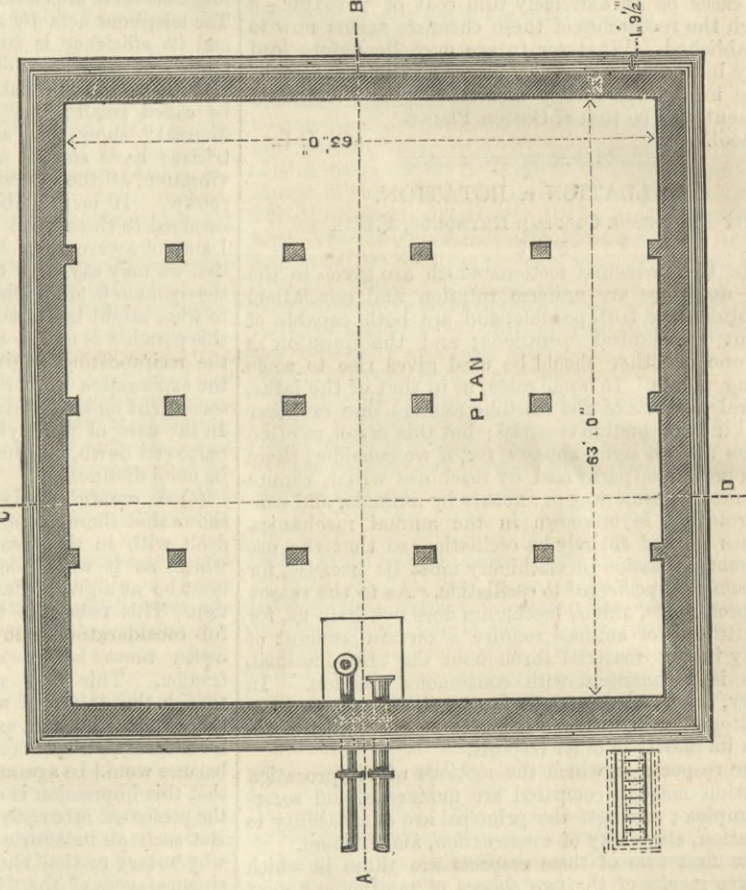
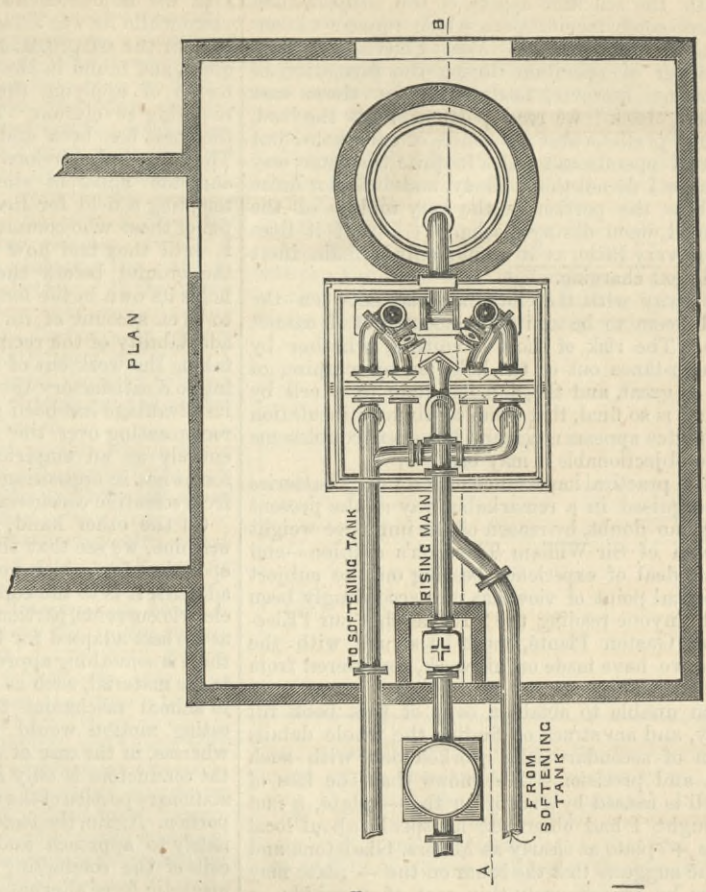
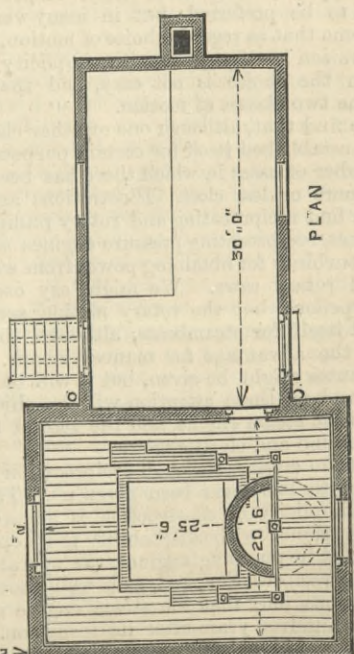
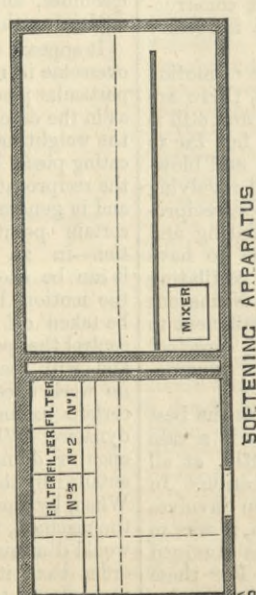
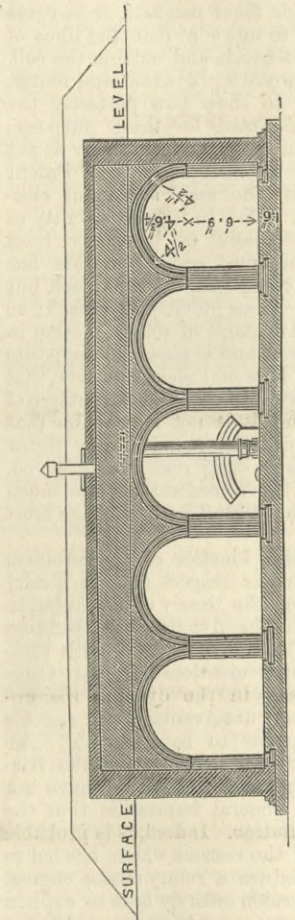
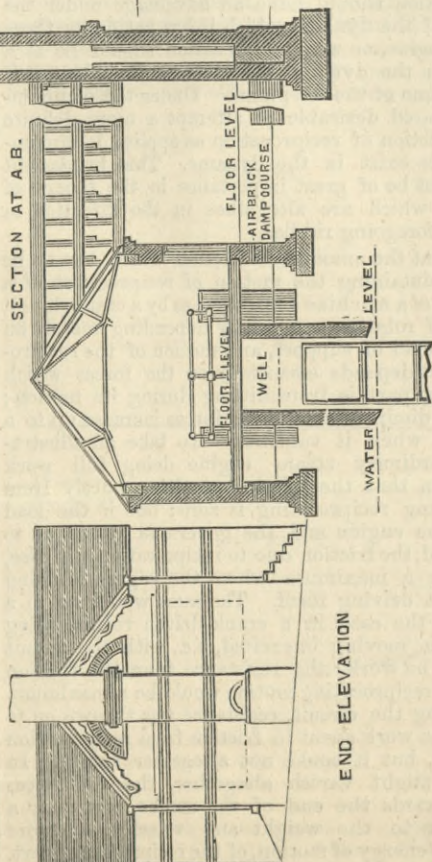
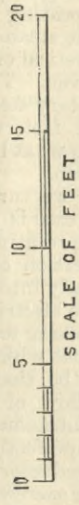
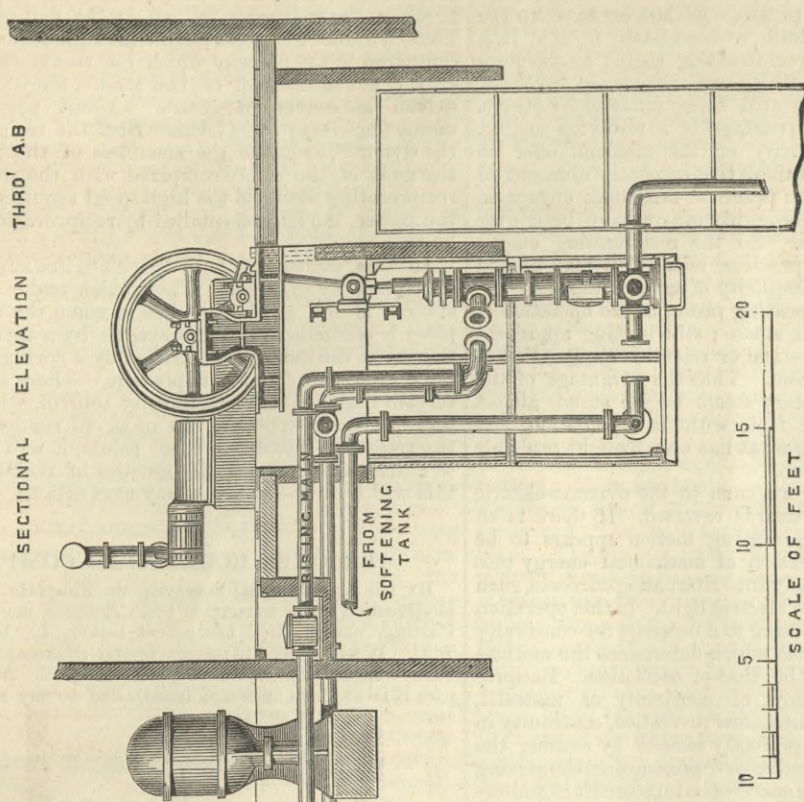
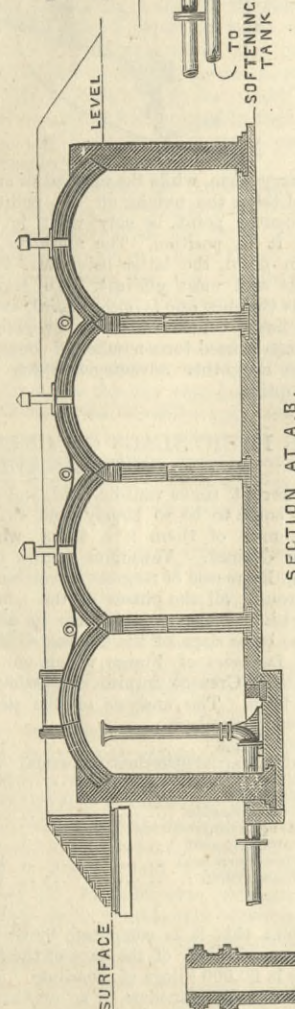
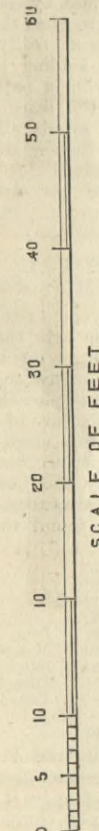
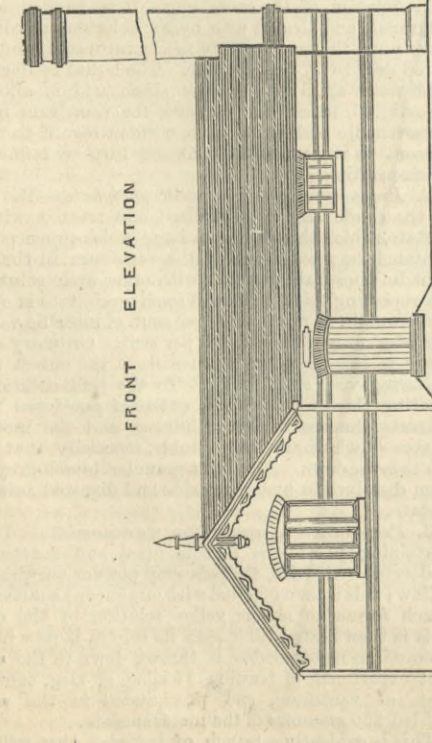
3. *Preparation of ammonium metavanadate.*—The precipitate containing phosphoric acid is dried and roasted, whereby it undergoes oxidation, the pale grey powder turning to an ochrey-yellow; this is then digested with an aqueous solution of ammonia, which forms an orange yellow solution of the orthovanadate. This is then heated till it loses its colour, is now filtered, and the ammonium metavanadate is thrown down in the usual way. A first experiment of treating 14 kilog. of slag, containing 1.5 per cent. of vanadium, and precipitated in the way described, yielded 250 grammes of the metavanadate.

This is evidently a branch of industry that will develop and assume great importance.

HENLEY-ON-THAMES WATERWORKS.

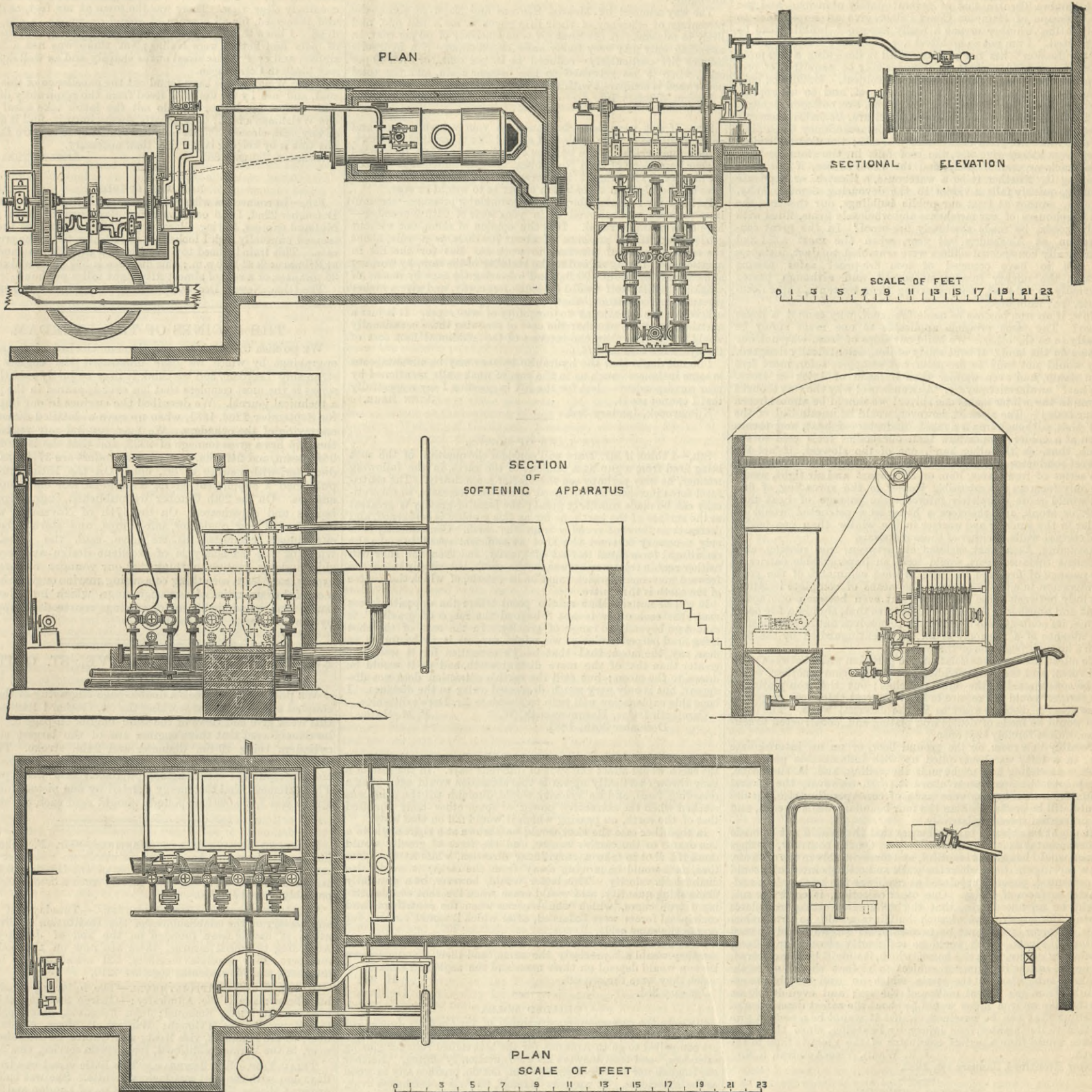
MR. JABEZ CHURCH, M.I.C.E., WESTMINSTER, ENGINEER.

(For description see page 5.)



HENLEY-ON-THAMES WATERWORKS.

MR. JABEZ CHURCH, M.I.C.E., WESTMINSTER, ENGINEER.



THE WATER SUPPLY OF SMALL TOWNS.

No. V.

THE prettily situated town of Henley-on-Thames, although built upon the river banks, was until recently very badly off for good water, owing to the general practice of going to wells for the water from a porous soil, and to the fact that wells and cesspools were, as is the case now in many towns, so indiscriminately mixed up together that a large quantity of the water used by the inhabitants was of a very impure quality. The local authority having refused to take up the question of a pure water supply, a company was formed in 1880 by a few influential residents, and Mr. Archibald Brakespeare, who was foremost in the project, was elected chairman, and Mr. Jabez Church, M.I.C.E., of Westminster, was called in to advise the board as to the best means to obtain the water supply and carry out the works.

A site of about three-quarters of an acre was chosen, and is situated on the south-west side of the town at a low level, and the reservoir is constructed on the top of Gravel-hill, 170ft. above the pumping station. The shaft of the well is 35ft. deep, formed of cast iron cylinders, 6ft. internal diameter, to shut out the surface water, with brickwork in cement above the surface water line to the engine floor as shown. There is an 8in. boring tube sunk through the bottom of the well into the chalk to a further depth of 210ft., and which is lined with cast iron bore pipes, making a total depth of 250ft. The spring from which the water is taken was struck at a depth of 237ft., when the water rose to within 5ft. of the surface.

After trial pumping the supply was found to be practically unlimited, and upon analysis proved to be of first-rate quality, although extremely hard. Upon the advice of the engineer the board determined to adopt a system of softening which is hereafter described. The engine and boiler houses, with chimney shaft, are, as may be seen, well designed structures, and are built in stock bricks with red string courses, and with the softening, filtering house, and the manager's residence, in which is contained the board-room and office, form a compact and very conveniently arranged premises. The engine-room, with engine machinery, which has a most substan-

tial and business-like appearance, is tastefully decorated. The whole of the machinery, with the engine and boiler houses, are designed so as to be easily duplicated when thought desirable. The boiler is a 14-horse power Cornish boiler, with two safety valves. The engine is of the horizontal type, and jacketed with cylinder, 10in. diameter by 20in. stroke, indicating 26-horse power, with 60 lb. boiler pressure. It is fitted with automatic expansion cut-off valve, working on the back of the main slide, which thoroughly controls the consumption of steam as required for the working load, thereby realising economy in fuel and regularity of rotation. The pumps are two in number, of the lift and plunger type. The diameter of the plunger is 7in., the stroke 21in. These pumps are placed beside the well in a pump chamber, and the connections are so arranged therein that one pump can pump water from the well into the softening house while the other draws softened water through the filters, and *vice versa*, or both pumps can pump direct from the well into the reservoir, which will be useful in the event of a sudden demand for water, as in the case of fire.

The softening house comprises two portions, one being the softening cistern, over which is placed the automatic mixer, and the other portion is the filter room, also containing the lime cylinder. The hard water from the well is delivered from one pump direct into the "mixer," see plan, a small quantity being intercepted and conducted to the lime cylinder, from which it overflows as a saturated solution of lime water, and joins the main supply of hard water in the "mixer." The exact quantity of lime water allowed to pass to the "mixer" is determined by a regulating valve. The lime water and the hard water become thoroughly blended in passing through the "mixer," and fall into the softening cistern. By this time the water is thoroughly softened, but contains a large quantity of carbonate of lime in suspension. It is then conducted to a series of filters which form the important feature of the process. Each filter consists of a series of hollow discs covered with cotton filter cloth, the discs being mounted on a centre tube. Along the surface of these discs brushes are arranged, the whole being fitted in a cast iron cistern and connected to a pulley outside the cistern, as shown above. The softened water is admitted to either cistern, and can only escape by filtration

at either one of the discs, leaving the carbonate of lime on the outside of the filter cloth, the water passing through the hollow disc to the centre tube, where it is carried outside the filter into a pipe, forming the suction of the second pump in the engine-room, whence it is forced up to the reservoir in a softened and brilliantly clear and pure state. At the completion of the day's work the pulley on the filter cistern is thrown into gear, which causes the brushes to revolve in one direction against the surface of the discs revolving in the opposite one, and thus in four or five minutes all the carbonate of lime and impurities accumulated during the day are swept off the surfaces of the discs, allowed to flow down the waste pipe, and the filter is again ready for work. This is a patent apparatus of the Atkins Water Softening and Purifying Company, and was adopted by the engineer as the simplest, most effectual, and economical method of applying Clarke's process to the softening of chalk water. The reservoir to hold three days' supply for the whole of the population is covered in, as shown, and is constructed with stock bricks in cement, with an internal rendering of ½in. of neat cement throughout, and forms a thoroughly sound and water-tight work. As this reservoir is some 200ft. above the principal parts of the town, and the service is constant, there is always a high pressure in the mains day and night, which is most invaluable, not only to water consumers, but in case of fire. There are from five to six miles of main of various sizes, from 8in. diameter, which are laid all over the town. The works were ceremonially opened on the 17th of June last, as described in our impression of the 23rd of that month. The cost of the works, including land, will be under £12,000. The works are most successful, and are much appreciated by the inhabitants of the district.

STRENGTH OF MATERIALS.—On the 9th inst. Professor B. W. Kennedy, M.I.C.E., will commence a course of ten Tuesday evening lectures at the London University College, on the strength of materials. A novel feature in this course will be the demonstration of points dealt with in the lecture by means of the testing machine in the large engineering laboratory of the University College. The lectures commence at six o'clock, and the first is open to the public.

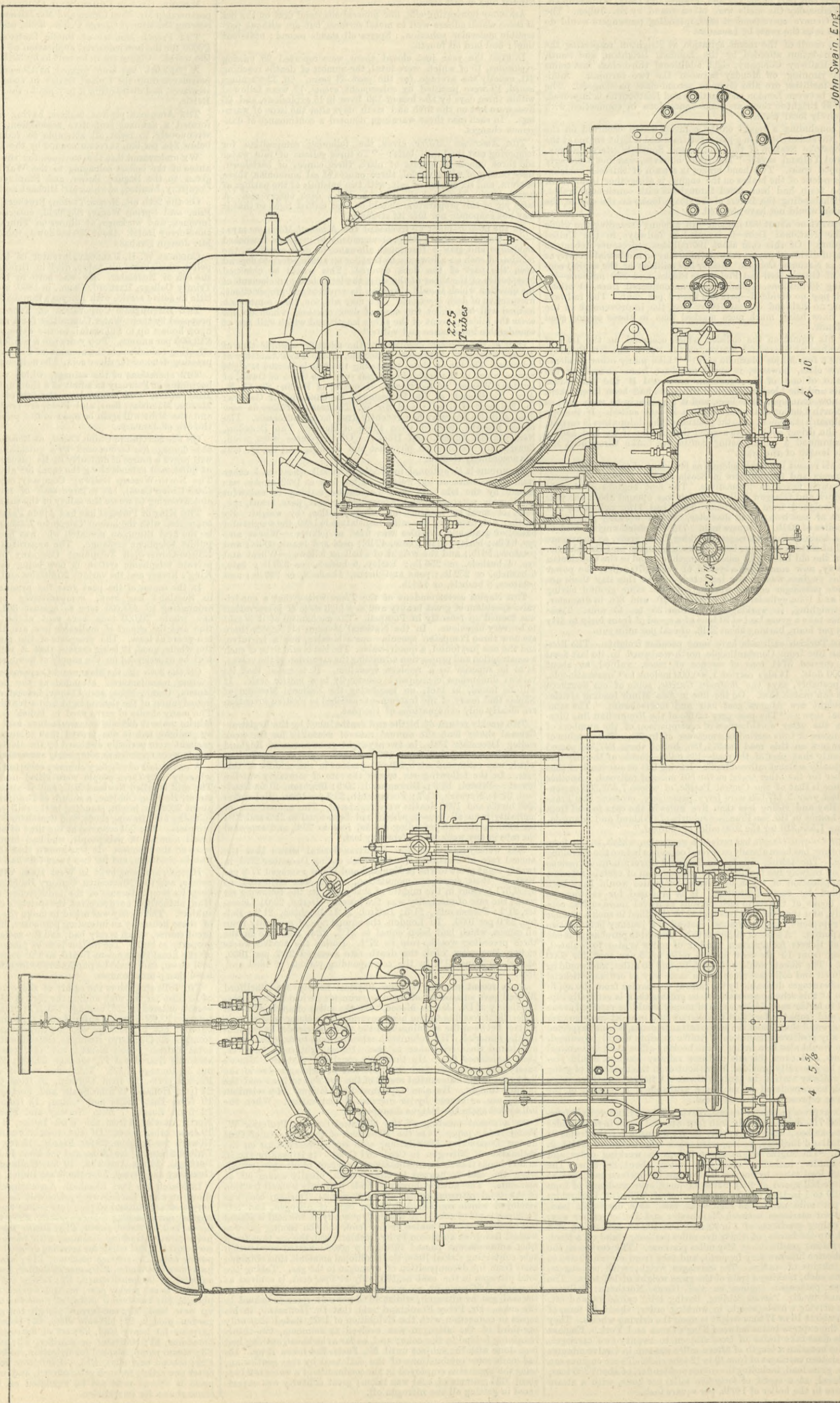




EIGHT-COUPLED LOCOMOTIVE, ST. GOTHARD RAILWAY.

CONSTRUCTED BY MESSRS. MAFFEI, MUNICH, FROM THE DESIGNS OF HERR J. STOCKER.

(For description see page 6.)



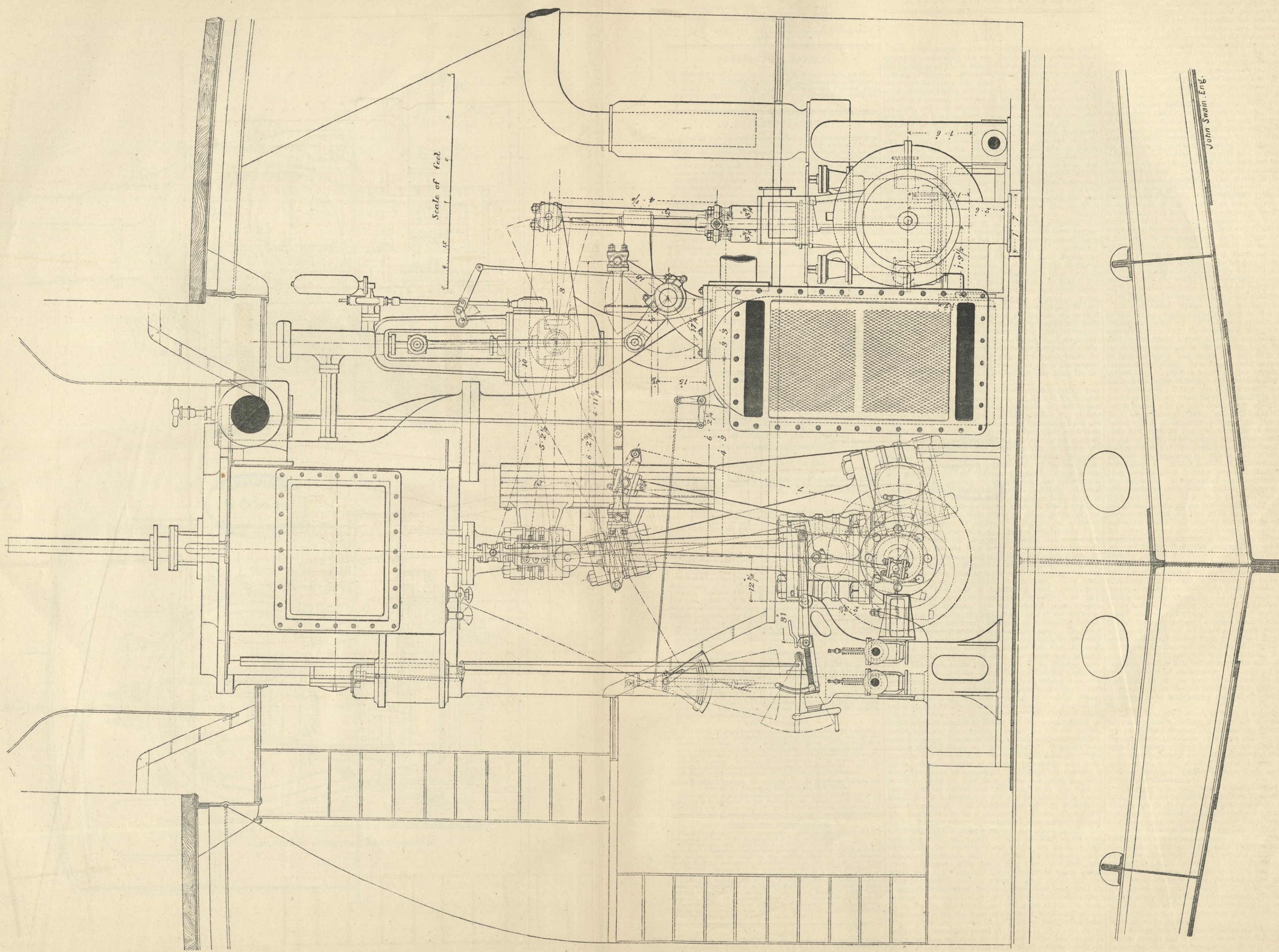




# COMPOUND ENGINES OF THE STEAMSHIP LEERDAM-SECTIONAL ELEVATION.

THE NETHERLANDS STEAMBOAT COMPANY, FLYNOORD, ROTTERDAM, ENGINEERS.

(For description see page 6.)







with what may even yet be looked upon as a new material—namely, modern steel. We so recently gave a full account of this bridge that it is unnecessary that we should do so here. The principle of the design is the employment, on two river piers, of enormous balanced cantilevers, which leave a space in the middle span. This space is filled in with a long lattice girder carried on the ends of the cantilevers. The proportions far exceed anything hitherto attempted; but it is not necessary because of this to condemn the design as involving strains which cannot be met, as has recently been done by Sir G. B. Airy, who seems to have been unacquainted with the modern development of the theory of strains in large structures. The contract for the Forth Bridge was let a short time ago to Sir Thos. Tancred, Bart., Mr. T. H. Falkner, Mr. J. Phillips, and Messrs. Arrol and Co. for £1,600,000, the amount of the engineer's estimate. The contract for the Siemens steel which is to be employed has been sublet to the Landore Steel Company and to the Steel Company of Scotland, the tests imposed being higher than have been adopted before for bridge work—namely, for steel in tension, a tensile strength of from 30 to 33 tons per square inch, with 20 per cent. elongation; and for steel in compression, a resistance of from 34 to 37 tons, and 17 per cent. elongation. The steel will be delivered at Queensbury, and the bridge will be manufactured entirely on the spot in workshops now under construction. Timber staging for sinking the piers is also being commenced, no less than 7000 tons of timber having been purchased.

The great Attock Bridge, which forms an important link in the completion of the railway communication from Calcutta to Peshawur, a distance of 1600 miles, is progressing towards completion. Trains will probably run over it in May next. Three out of the five spans are completed, and the two remaining spans are in course of erection. The tunnel under the hill of Rajah Hodi has been bored through, but there is a considerable amount of work to be done yet on this section of the work, which is on the Khairabad side of the river. The line of railway on the Attock side of the Indus is completed up to the river bank, and is ready for use. The piers, which ranged from 86ft. to 132ft. high, are four in number—two 132ft. long, one 109ft., one 86ft.—and weighing 985 tons, were made by A. Handyside and Co., of Derby. The superstructure was made by Messrs. Westwood Bailie and Co., of London.

The London Bridge question has as usual cropped up with spasmodic vigour, but the inertia of the opposing interests has, also as usual, effectually prevented any effective onward movement. Sir Joseph Bazalgette has reported to the Board of Works on the general question, and while admitting the superiority of a low level bridge, he considers that the cost of buying out the vested interests in the wharves between the proposed new bridge and the existing bridge is so enormous, that while the bridge itself might be made for £240,000, the compensation would bring up the cost to £3,000,000, the bridge being placed between the Tower and the St. Catherine Docks. He is of opinion that a low level opening bridge would fail to meet the requirements of either road or river traffic, and would entail such compensation to wharfingers that it would cost £2,000,000. We have several times urged that the only satisfactory structure would be a low level bridge. Only one thing stops the construction of such a bridge, namely, the compensation to the owners of the wharves. Now, instead of paying about two millions sterling as compensation for real and imaginary obstruction to navigation to a few wharves, the best mode of procedure would be to buy these wharves right out, improve the frontage, and build really good warehouses. This would represent a big capital outlay, but the rent obtainable from warehouses built so as to make the most of the frontage would afford a most profitable return on the expenditure. On the other hand, if over two millions are handed over to wharfingers for compensation, yet leaving the wharves in their hands, it would very soon be found that the two millions was clear profit to them, for almost all the shipping would still reach them under altered conditions, to which the small shipping would soon conform. The wharfingers would have this enormous compensation and their wharves also, with no detriment whatever after a very short time. This should be guarded against by the absolute purchase of the property. The report of Sir Joseph Bazalgette shows this shipping to be utterly insignificant compared with the value of a river crossing. The purchase of the whole property would probably turn out to cost not a great deal more than the estimated compensation; but even if it cost three millions, this appears to be the only effectual way of getting a low level bridge below the Tower.

During the year several bridge failures have occurred that remind us that bridges built over twenty years ago were not intended for the heavy traffic of to-day, as well as that they are not as strong now as when they were built. There are hundreds of bridges in this country which ought to have the most searching inspection and recalculation of their strength, while there are many others of the lattice type the bracing of which should be protected from damage by derailed engines or wagons, by means of one or two horizontal fenders, like string courses, which might be made of old rails. Many engineers supported the idea that it was possible that a derailed engine on the Tay Bridge led to its destruction by breaking one or more struts or ties. Engineers thus admit the possibility of destruction in this way, and they should guard against it. It should be done, amongst others, on the Blackfriars Bridge of the London, Chatham, and Dover Railway, for although trains never run at a very high speed over the bridge, the bridge is entered from either end by short curves, and the speed is quite high enough to do great damage should derailment occur. A railway viaduct has recently been completed across the Kinzua Valley to carry the New York, Lake Erie, and Western Railway. Its loftiest pier is 297ft. in height, and the average is 176ft.; but although they are close together, the girders having each a span of 61ft., they are so light that the whole viaduct, except the superstructure, has the appearance of a monster wire fence. Without going carefully

into the calculations of strength, we should not like to say that the thing would not carry its load a few years; but we should rather not cross it during a heavy wind, and would rather walk across the valley at any other time. Too much dependence is placed on each individual member, to commend the design to English engineers, and not enough sectional area has been given to the diagonal ties to confine their elongation within limits safe for the structure.

Amongst the railways in progress in England, perhaps the most interesting is the Inner Circle Extension and completion of the Metropolitan Underground Railways. As we announced in our impression of the 2nd September, the piece from Liverpool-street has been completed as far as Tower-hill. Since then the remaining portion to the Mansion House has been in progress under a joint committee of the Metropolitan and Metropolitan District Companies, and rapid progress is being made at several parts of the line. Starting a little east of the Mansion House station, the line runs into Cannon-street, where a station will be formed; thence it runs under the centre of Cannon-street to what will be known as the London Bridge station at the bottom of King William-street. Along this portion of the line the most progress has been made, and few of the hundreds of thousands of those who have passed recently along Cannon-street have had the least idea that all the houses, offices, and warehouses on each side were being underpinned, the pavements mere shells, and that the street itself was little other than a plank floor under which the railway tunnel side walls were being built, the sewers diverted, and even the tunnel arch being completed by nearly four hundred men working by gaslight. The tunnel arch is already turned under a part of Great Tower-street. The underpinning is of cement concrete, widths of about 4ft. being worked at a time. The concrete walls are built and allowed to stand a short time, the pinning being completed from the top of the concrete, which is below the house footings about 3ft., with brickwork in cement. The large sewer is being removed, and the sewage diverted into two cast iron sewers laid under the pavement. So rapid is the progress of the work, that Londoners, to the date when they may go from, say, Westminster to Liverpool-street, may be counted in months. The work is being carried out under Mr. John Woolfe Barry, M.I.C.E.

The railway next in interest and importance is the Hull, Barnsley, and West Riding Junction Railway, by which the Barnsley coalfield will be placed in direct communication with Hull. During the past few years the trade of Hull has grown so rapidly that the existing dock and railway facilities are quite unable to meet the demand for space and transportation, and the merchants complain that they cannot deliver goods sent to Hull in contract time, and shippers, that their vessels are unduly delayed at this port. On the 16th ult. a special meeting of the Hull Chamber of Commerce and Shipping was held "for the purpose of an interchange of opinion and views between the shipowners, merchants, the Dock Company, and the representative of the North-Eastern Railway Company, as to the best means of avoiding the present detention of steamers discharging at this port, and the removal of the block of traffic which now exists in the Hull docks and on the railways running into Hull." This is a promising state of things for the Hull and Barnsley Railway, in connection with which a new dock is being made under Mr. Abernethy, and the substructure forming the bottom has proved to be of a most satisfactory character.

The whole of the land for the railway has been purchased, and the line fenced. The quantity of earthwork executed on the railway has reached 3,200,000 cubic yards, out of a probable total of 6,000,000 cubic yards, and this, which is measured work, has been accomplished in the first two years. Tunnels, five in number, are either completed or in a very forward state. All the ordinary bridges are in progress as the earthwork advances. The more important bridges over the Ouse, Aire, and at Hull, are progressing at the works, and the cylinders are being sunk for the foundations. About twelve miles of permanent way, single line, have been laid, and the normal number of men employed is 4500, beside steam navvies and skilled labour in the manufacture of ironwork. The total quantity of ironwork in the bridges will be nearly 6000 tons, of which about five-sixths has been designed and is in the hands of the contractors. The engineers are Mr. Shelford, Great George-street, Westminster, and Mr. Bohn, at Hull.

The Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire Company has given notice of intention to seek powers to make experiments in the Humber with a view to the construction of a tunnel so as to unite the railways north and south of the estuary, and thus avoid the ferry worked by the Sheffield company, and the detour at present necessary, *via* Selby or Doncaster on the route southwards, to escape the Humber. The estuary is about three miles wide across the line between Hull and New Holland, and it is questionable whether such a costly link as the tunnel would be justified by the probable traffic.

Amongst the railways which have received sanction in our colonies the most important is that which is to connect Brisbane in Queensland with Port Darwin in the Gulf of Carpentaria, involving altogether the construction of about 1000 miles of railways. The contractors are, it is said, under obligations to get the line completed in seven years and a-half. Queensland has taken up this railway with great vigour, as she has railway matters generally, as shown by the fact that Queensland has 800 miles of working lines, not a fraction of which was made until 1864. The trial survey for the line now sanctioned was made less than four years ago. The road is to be constructed on the land grant system, and there can be little doubt that though the construction of such a railway is a bold scheme, it is judicious. To this and to other proposals for trans-continental Australasian railways we referred at length in our impression for the 2nd of September, 1881, when we pointed out the necessity for uniformity of railway gauge, and it must ever be felt that it is a pity that Queensland, with its 3ft. 6in. gauge and little over half the railway mileage of Victoria, should have been left to make

this important line, which will, of course, be on the 3ft. 6in. gauge, and not the 5ft. 3in. gauge of Victoria.

With the Channel tunnel nothing, as is well known, is now in progress on this side, and Sir E. Watkin's influentially accompanied visits to the boring along the shore west of Dover have ceased. The Channel Tunnel Railway Company and the South-Eastern and Channel Tunnel Railway Company have, however, lodged Bills in Parliament—the former company's Bill relating to necessary works at St. Margaret's Bay, and the latter to alterations of route so as to bring the entrance within easy range of Dover Forts, and to construct a branch line connecting the tunnel and Chatham and Dover line by junction north of Dover. That permission will some day be obtained to make a Channel tunnel is quite possible, but so long as the Government withhold it, it seems useless to lodge private Bills in Parliament, or, at any rate, questionable as to how they will be dealt with after they have passed the standing order examinations. On the French side about sixty men are employed, and it is said that the heading is making rapid progress. From the bottom of the main shaft the lead into the submarine works is through a tunnel of considerable dimensions, worked out of the grey chalk by pick and powder. 167 yards, about 12ft. square, have thus been got out. Beyond this the tunnel has been pierced for more than a quarter of a mile, 7ft. in diameter, by the Beaumont drill. The submarine tunnel takes a curve in an easterly direction to avoid uncertain ground at the Quenoes. On the Channel tunnel question generally we cannot enter here, and as we published the excellent paper on the subject, read by Mr. John Clarke Hawkshaw at the British Association meeting at Southampton in August, we cannot do better than to refer to it for precise information, and to Mr. Crampton's paper on boring the tunnel, also printed in our pages.

Of canal works completed during the year the most important is the Sirhind Canal in the Punjab, of which we gave some account in our impression of the 1st ult. The canal is over 500 miles in length, and has subsidiary channels of about 2000 miles in length, distributing the waters of the Sutlej over 750,000 acres of thirsty land.

Of canals in progress, that across the Isthmus of Panama has attracted most attention. Almost all the final surveys for this have been completed, and the work is progressing at several points, including Colon, Gorgona, Bas-Obispo, Emperador, Culebra, and Paraiso. At Colon 14,258 cubic metres of earthwork were removed in October, and in September rather more, harder material having been met with in October. The more definite surveys, and the excavations so far, have indicated that less rock will have to be cut through than was expected. A large quantity of machinery has been ordered, including large dredgers from Philadelphia.

The Isthmus of Corinth Canal is making rapid progress, and the earthwork being in alluvial material, about 300,000 cubic yards will be moved per month, chiefly by the aid of Priestman's excavators and by dredgers. Italian workmen are chiefly employed by the contractors, the Société des Ponts et Travaux en Fer, late Joret and Co., associated with the Association des Constructeurs. The total estimated quantity of earthwork is about thirteen million cubic yards, about one million of which is dredging, and 1,700,000 earth and rock semi-hard, and one million of rock below water. In France a large quantity of canal work is in progress, the value of inland navigation being there fully appreciated. For the Manchester Ship Canal, of which we have recently given full particulars, a Bill has been lodged in Parliament.

A very important canal project is a rival for the Suez Canal between the Mediterranean and the Red seas. This project is very warmly and influentially supported, and besides affording a ship passage, it would be of inestimable value for irrigation purposes. We gave some particulars of the project in our impression of the 29th of September last. It is to be a sweet-water canal fed by the Nile, and will require the removal of about 160 million cubic yards of material, or about double that involved in the construction of the Suez Canal. This quantity, however, is no more than was removed by the late Khedive during the first ten years of his rule in the enlargement of existing and construction of new canals, and, with modern appliances, is certainly not a quantity which would prevent the necessary outlay from being a profitable one. A well-known English engineer of large experience in Egypt, recently writing on the subject, said:—"Apart from questions of land reclamation, a sweet-water ship canal from Alexandria to Cairo and Suez would be of inestimable benefit to the country. At present the irrigation system of Egypt is most defective, and very commonly one-half of the crops are handed over to the labourers as a payment for watering the same by shadoof or otherwise. All this would be saved if the proposed canal and associated works were carried out. Water would be delivered to the cultivators at a sufficiently high level to inundate their lands without pumping. It may be stated that the present irrigation canals are of two classes, known as 'Sefi' and 'Nili,' the former being perennial, and the latter simply inundation canals receiving water only after the rising of the Nile. Headworks with sluices are provided where the canals leave the Nile, and at intervals down the canals similar dams are constructed, in order that by closing the sluices the water may be ponded back, and so brought more nearly to the level of the surface of the adjoining lands. Such a system is not only inefficient as regards supply of water, but also involves an incredible amount of labour in cleansing annually the canals of the sediment deposited by the still water. To afford sufficient irrigation to the lands of Lower Egypt, at least 80 per cent. of the total low Nile discharge should be withdrawn from the river and thrown into the canals. It has been found that an average of 7 tons of water per acre per day is required in Egypt for efficient irrigation. Since the area to be dealt with is about 3,000,000 acres, this is equivalent to a supply of 250 tons of water per second, while the minimum Nile discharge is 300 tons. To show how far the present system is from realising this desideratum, it is only necessary to state that the Menoufieh

Canal, which has its intake at the apex of the Delta, and the Behera Canal, on the left bank of the Nile, together convey only 17 tons of water per second during the months of May and June, though they are of ample size to convey, and do, when the Nile has risen, convey more than the desired 250 tons per second. The proposed Alexandria and Suez Canal would have sufficient capacity to supply the above quantity of irrigation water at lowest Nile, without in any way interfering with its functions as a ship canal. An area of about 500,000 acres in the province of Behera, and of 1,000,000 acres in the province of Charkieh and Dakalieh would thus be irrigated direct from the canal, while the lands between the Rosetta and Damietta branches would be supplied with irrigation water, either by large syphons laid from the ship canal near the barrage and under the Nile to the Delta, or by the reconstruction of the barrage projected by Mehemet Ali, and engineered by M. Mougel, which is a part of the programme of the projectors of the sweet-water ship canal. By raising the level of low Nile, the barrage will facilitate the passage of ships across the river, and also reduce the quantity of excavation in the main canals. No land beyond that required for the construction of the canal and contingent works would be sought to be acquired by the canal company, whose revenue would be made up of tolls upon shipping and water rates upon lands irrigated by their works."

In tramway engineering nothing of any unusual importance or interest was accomplished during the past year, and of the work to be done this year the Highgate wire rope traction tramway is, perhaps, the most interesting, for though the system has been well tried in America it is new here, and may be looked upon as a satisfactory solution of the mechanical haulage problem. It is most profitably at work in several American towns, and while it offers the advantage of low cost of haulage, as proved in America, and by less complete forms of application in our coal mines, it removes the difficulties ordinarily attaching to steep gradients. Ground has been or will be broken this week on the Highgate tramway, and the system is expected to be at work in May. The line will be about three-fourths of a mile in length, starting with a junction with the North Metropolitan Tramway at the foot of Highgate-hill, and rising to the Old Tavern Toll-bar; but power is being sought this session to make a line along North-hill and return *via* Archway-road, passing through the archway and joining the line again at the Old Tavern, thus circuiting Highgate-hill. Two 50-horse power fixed engines will be employed to work the cable, 50-horse power engines being fixed with a view to future extension, one of the two engines only working at any time. This line is being carried out under Mr. James Cleminson, and similar lines, under the same engineer, have received the consent of the local authorities of the Spen Valley and Dewsbury District Tramways, for the Edinburgh Northern Tramways, and powers are already obtained for the Birkdale and Southport, and Brighton and District Tramways, which are partly constructed, and will be converted to this wire cable system, which is the invention of Mr. Hallidie. Other lines at home and on the Continent will also be worked in the same way.

The great and devastating floods of the Rhine district and those of the Upper Thames Valley remind us that at last, after years of negotiation, the scheme prepared by Sir John Hawkshaw in 1878 for prevention of floods in the Oxford district is about to be carried out. An agreement has been concluded between the Thames Valley Drainage Commissioners and the Thames Conservancy, by which three-fourths of the cost of the works will be defrayed out of rates levied by the Drainage Commissioners, and one-fourth by the Conservators out of the Upper Navigation Fund, the works being carried out by the Conservators. The flood of last October, which rose to within a few inches of that of 1875, has no doubt hastened this result.

No very remarkable projects for the supply of water are coming before Parliament in the ensuing session. The Southwark and Vauxhall Water Company proposes to extend its boundary, so as to include Richmond, Wimbledon, Mortlake, and several other places. It likewise seeks powers of amalgamation. The revolution which was to overtake the London Water Companies at the hands of the Legislature, as proposed by the Government, is now postponed, pending the re-arrangement of the local authorities. When the new municipal power is created it will then be time to look after the metropolitan water companies. In the interval these well-abused bodies are increasing in their prosperity, and—as some people think—in their rapacity. They are unquestionably adding to their income, and they are learning how to combine the constant supply with a more economical use of the water. By this means they will get more work out of their present plant, thereby saving their capital and enhancing their dividends. The phenomenon of a decreasing consumption of water in the metropolis, in the face of an increasing population, is remarkable, especially as it is found to proceed hand-in-hand with the extension of the constant service. Beyond doubt there has been a great waste of water in London and its suburbs, and if the supply is to be constant, the companies must apply a check. Concerning the water supply of towns in general, Dr. Angus Smith, in his recent report as Inspector under the Rivers Pollution Act, details some novel experiments, which apparently show that the vitality of disease germs in water is capable of being more easily overcome than Dr. Frankland and some others have been disposed to admit. The views of Dr. Smith may be described as favourable to the use of river water, under certain conditions, as a source of supply for drinking purposes. The Local Government Board may accordingly choose between Dr. Smith and Dr. Frankland. In rural districts we find that wells are often very dangerous sources of supply. But there is peculiar difficulty in getting a good supply of water for small communities, owing to the disproportionate expense of the requisite works.

Several cases have occurred during the past year in which the Local Government Board have met with con-

siderable opposition from local authorities in getting wells superseded by pipes. In other instances, where the water supply already takes the form of regular works, but where the source is a highly polluted river, there is frequently great unwillingness to incur the necessary expense for bringing in a supply which shall be wholesome. River water cannot always be made drinkable at every point, and there are towns which clearly require an improvement in the water which the people have to consume. In some cases—as at Plymouth—the water may be good, but there is a necessity for enlarging the volume. But anything which taxes the ratepayers, or which threatens to do so, is apt to be unpopular. This fact influences the local authorities, and a long contest of this kind has been going forward at Ely, where there appears to be great risk that the Local Government Board will have to interfere with all the weight of Imperial authority. Respecting litigation on the subject of the water supply, considerable interest has been excited in London by the dispute between Mr. Archibald Dobbs and the Grand Junction Company. Unless an appeal to the House of Lords should reverse the present decision, the company will remain secure in charging on the basis of the gross rental as the "annual value," instead of being limited to the mere rateable value of the premises. The Thirlmere scheme of the Manchester Corporation has been the occasion of a troublesome arbitration case with the Countess Ossalinski, concerning the value of her land, followed by legal proceedings on the part of the Corporation to set aside part of the award, on a point of law reserved by the arbitrator. It is not altogether improbable that the Corporation will even go a step further, and will seek to set aside the award in its entirety, the amount decreed by the arbitrator being characterised by the counsel for the Corporation as "preposterously exorbitant."

The most important event relative to the sewage question which has happened during the past year has been the appointment of a Royal Commission to inquire into the alleged pollution of the Thames by the metropolitan drainage outfalls. The Metropolitan Board having obtained Parliamentary power to expend £160,000 on the enlargement of their sewage reservoirs at Barking and Crossness, it was represented to the Home Secretary that before such a scheme was carried out there ought to be an investigation into the working of the main drainage system, great complaints having been made as to the extent to which the river was rendered foul in the vicinity of Woolwich and elsewhere by the sewage of the metropolis. In consequence of these representations, Sir William Harcourt obtained the appointment of a Royal Commission, having Lord Bramwell at its head, to take evidence and present a report as to the effect of the outfalls on the purity of the stream, and the best mode of remedying any proved mischief. The Home Secretary inadvertently included two gentlemen on the Commission who were already committed to an adverse opinion with respect to the outfalls. Apparently with a view to balance this error, two other names were subsequently added, thus raising the total number to eight. The inquiry is conducted with closed doors, and apparently has not made very rapid progress. In the meantime the enlargement of the sewage reservoirs is deferred. If the report of the Royal Commission should propose the discharge of the London sewage at points farther down the river than the present outfalls, a very serious expenditure will have to be contemplated by the metropolitan ratepayers. Another incident in respect to the drainage of the metropolis is worthy of note. A new sewer of considerable size and cost has been constructed by the Metropolitan Board, extending from Lee Bridge, Lewisham, to a junction with the southern high level sewer at Deptford Broadway. But the Greenwich District Board have obtained an injunction which, if strictly enforced, would prevent the use of this sewer. It would be lamentable that an outlay exceeding £27,000 should thus be neutralised, either wholly or partially. As a matter of fact, we believe the difficulty has been overcome by an amicable settlement, and the sewer will soon be in use. But it is certain that the Greenwich Board have been in litigation against the Metropolitan Board on this question of sewerage. So, also, we see the Corporation, as connected with the Port Sanitary Authority, fighting against the Metropolitan Board on the subject of the outfalls. Incidents like these will lend a point to the Parliamentary debates on the forthcoming scheme for the municipal government of London.

Plans for the treatment of sewage excite less notice now than they did a few years ago, when they served as the occasion of a speculative mania. But something is being done towards the purification of the rivers throughout the country, though the public excitement on the subject has very much abated. Birmingham has supplemented its lime and tank system by filtration through land, one acre being thus rendered as effective in the final process as eight or ten acres without the preliminary treatment by precipitation. Aylesbury adheres to the A B C method. Bradford makes use of lime in subsiding tanks, supplemented by filtration through coke breeze. The sludge is given away, and the working expenses are £4000 per annum. Rochdale is carrying on its pail system. But there is sewage still to be dealt with, and the Corporation have expended £30,000 in procuring land on which to discharge the liquid refuse as soon as the main trunk sewer, which is now being laid down, comes into full operation. The ventilation of sewers is a matter which attracts increasing attention, and has been made notable during the past year by the controversy raised in the *Lancet* respecting the healthfulness of Brighton. An important report on the "Treatment of Sewage" was presented to the Local Government Board early in the year by Dr. Angus Smith, containing some results and reasonings of a more encouraging nature than those which are generally promulgated on this subject in official quarters.

We have little to record concerning novelties in mechanical engineering brought into effective operation during the past year. The development of new inventions appears to have been almost wholly confined to electrical work. To the various new, or quasi-new, dynamo machines which

were produced in 1882 we have already referred at length. The absence of novelty in other departments of mechanical science is in some respects striking. There is no diminution apparent in the number of patents taken out during the past year, and this supplies all the requisite evidence that the inventor worked just as hard in 1882 as during any previous year. But the distance between an invention which has been only patented and one in successful operation is enormous. A great gulf lies between the patent and the successful and general use of the thing patented, and into this gulf are thrown year after year great sums of money and myriads of hopes and aspirations. Shall we say that lives, too, are lost now and then in this abyss? The volumes of THE ENGINEER contain a weekly record not only of the work of patentees, but of the progress of inventions into favour. In them will be found not only lists of all the patents taken out in this country, but descriptions and illustrations of the best machinery that Great Britain, Europe, and America can produce. It is only necessary to turn over the leaves of our last two volumes to learn that little very new and important was produced by mechanical engineers in 1882. Numerous small improvements have been effected in matters of detail, but no considerable advance has been made in any single department of mechanical engineering that can be named. The reason appears to be that the year was, on the whole, unusually prosperous; and that for this reason invention was not stimulated, nor was the inventor encouraged by the manufacturer. The latter was, indeed, too busy to launch into new schemes. He had his hands full in endeavouring to keep up with the orders which poured in upon him. It may also be added that no great demand for novelties appears to exist. In other words, the great mass of engines, machines, and tools made in Great Britain are so satisfactory in their operation, so economical in their working, and so substantial in their construction, that the world of users and purchasers seems to be for the moment content, and to demand nothing new. That the world is right in this in certain respects is incontrovertible. That it is right in all respects is not true; and we propose here to call attention to one or two departments of mechanical science in which progress is imperatively demanded.

First upon our list comes the prevention of smoke. For the moment we shall not refer to household fires; concerning them we have written frequently. We are dealing now with boiler furnaces, and those to be found in manufactories, ironworks, glass works, potteries, and so on. Leaving boiler furnaces out of consideration for the instant, it may be said of other furnaces that while it is certainly possible to prevent smoke, it is not possible to do so without incurring trouble and expense. There is only one true method of accomplishing the given end, and that consists in burning gas where the heating work has to be done, and solid fuel where the gas has to be made. The Siemens furnace is the embodiment of the principle in the fullest degree; but the cost of a complete set of Siemens furnaces is very great, and the room taken up by them is considerable. There is besides this a certain inflexibility in the working of a Siemens furnace which tells against it in practice, and for these reasons the use of the gas furnace is limited. Indeed it is only wealthy firms who resort to this perfect but expensive means of attaining a very desirable end. We have next what may be termed the compromise system, as carried out in the Casson furnace and its modifications, as used by Messrs. Morewood at their Soho works, a description of which appeared in our pages last February. Yet even here the expense of the requisite plant is very considerable, and the space occupied so great as to entirely preclude its adoption in many establishments. We find, indeed, that in not a few instances where gas furnaces of various types have been put up at heavy expense, their use has been abandoned. It is difficult to find out precisely why, but the explanation we have usually received is that on the whole they did not pay; or they proved too troublesome in operation. To work gas furnaces to advantage everything must be very complete, and work must be carried on on a fairly large scale. Thus twenty gas producers can be made to give admirable results, when two may secure nothing but disappointment. Setting Siemens' furnaces on one side, and dealing only with those furnaces which produce gas close to a hearth, and then burn it—self-contained furnaces we may call them, such, for example, as Price's—it will be found that in all instances they require special arrangements for charging them with fuel. Thus a tramway has to be put up over the tops of the furnaces, and the coal has to be run along this in trucks and dropped into suitable hoppers. In other cases endless chains of buckets have to be employed; or cranes must be used to lift the coal out of canal boats or railway trucks; sometimes all three devices are employed. These things cost money; but they do more than this, they occupy space. In rolling mills, for example, we find furnaces dropped down, as it were, in all kinds of impossible places, so shut in and surrounded by machinery that it is as much as men can do to find their way to them with coal in barrows. If new works are to be started on a large scale, in localities where there is plenty of room, then the gas furnace system can be applied; but, as a matter of fact, we have to deal with old works and old plant representing millions sterling, and it is almost impossible to supersede in such cases the ancient system of hand firing, which gives excellent results in every respect save two—it is heavy on coal and it produces a great deal of smoke. Is it possible to produce self-contained heating furnaces, let us say, which shall be hand-fired and yet shall produce little or no smoke and prove, at least, fairly economical? It is not improbable that something may be effected in this way, and that by very simple means. We call to mind a case which came under our own notice some years ago. A heating furnace, used for wash heating shingled blooms, produced dense clouds of smoke. It was an unusually large furnace and was very hard driven. The mill manager thought he would try an experiment to get rid of the smoke, so he had about 10ft. of brickwork built on to the top of the chimney stack, which was already some

35ft. high, and just at the base of the chimney he had several holes made in the brickwork. The result was very satisfactory; the air admitted supplied the oxygen wanted by the intensely hot gases going up the stack and ignited them. Instead of smoke bright flame came from the top, and the draught, instead of being injured by the air-holes at the bottom, was improved, for, in the first place, the stack was raised 10ft. or so, as we have said, and in the second, the temperature within it was considerably augmented by the firing of the gas. Of course all the heat thus produced was wasted, but the end had in view was achieved; the smoke was prevented; and here we wish to point out that success was attained because the mill manager did not attempt too much. If he had tried to utilise the heat wasted in any way, he would, of course, have cooled down the gas and produced smoke. The important lesson which we wish to impress on the minds of our readers is that the prevention of smoke is one thing, and economising fuel is another thing, and there is no direct connection between the two; and we believe that in many instances if furnace owners would content themselves with the first, without attempting to obtain the last in connection with the first, they would succeed, and succeeding would do much to clear the air of our great manufacturing towns.

When we turn to the questions involved in preventing smoke in steam boiler furnaces, we find ourselves beset with difficulties. All our experience, extending over many years, goes to show that when the production of smoke is prevented by special devices for admitting air, either there is an increase in the consumption of fuel or a diminution in the production of steam. A noteworthy instance of this came under our notice recently. An extremely simple and elegant device for preventing smoke was submitted to an engineer. He was so much pleased that he had it fitted to the furnaces of a large Lancashire boiler, one of a pair, either of which could be used at will. An experiment was made by firing the boilers alternately week about, the same coal being used, and the same work being done by the engine, the same fireman being employed. The result was that smoke was practically entirely prevented; that there was no reduction in the steaming powers of the boiler; that the invention gave the fireman no trouble, and required no attention, and that the consumption of coal was increased by about 2 cwt. per day. The best smoke-preventer yet devised is a good fireman; and providing the boiler is large enough for its work, the coal fairly good, and that the air is admitted—not too much—in a thin sheet, as by a Martin's fire-door, such a man will prevent the production of smoke, and get admirable results. There is one type of boiler, however, which seems up to the present to have baffled every attempt to make it smokeless, namely, the modern marine boiler. A good deal of this is due to the work which such boilers have to do. They are, as a rule, hard fired; their grates are comparatively small, and there is no room for the hot gas to burn in. At sea smoke is of little or no consequence, as far as nuisance is concerned, but it means a serious waste of coal—not, indeed, as is commonly supposed, because a great deal of fuel goes unburned up the chimney, but because the tube surfaces become coated with soot, which is an admirable non-conductor. Thus, for example, it will be found that after tubes are swept, a lump of zinc will hardly melt if hung in the smoke-box in front of the tube ends; but before twelve hours are over the zinc will not stand five minutes in the same place, and in a little time the smoke-box doors will become red-hot. We have heard it argued that the engineers ought to sweep oftener, and the answer is that half an hour after sweeping the tubes will be thickly coated with soot again. As an example of the evil effects of soot, we may cite the case of economisers, such as Green's. These are always fitted with scrapers, and it is well known that if from any cause the scrapers get out of order the economiser soon becomes useless because of the deposit of soot on it; indeed, the relative efficiency of economisers can almost be expressed in terms of the efficiency of the scrapers in removing soot. It is far more easy to point out the difficulty that exists in the case of marine boilers than it is to suggest a remedy. There is, however, a plan which it might be worth while to try, derived from practice with blockade runners during the American war. The system which we are about to describe bears strongly on the scheme for working marine boiler furnaces with a forced draught, not only advocated by Mr. Marshall in his celebrated paper read before the Institution of Mechanical Engineers at Newcastle in 1881, but now being actually adopted in several of her Majesty's ships.

It may be taken for granted that with rather more draught than is now to be had in marine boilers, the coal would be burned to greater advantage. In the first place, the air would have a better chance of forcing its way through a thick fire; and secondly, thinner fires would be carried, as steam would be got with less forcing. The system of forced draught advocated hitherto consists in shutting up the stokehole, and driving air into it with a fan. To this very grave objections exist, not the least being that stokers regard it with terror and aversion. During the American war not a few blockade runners were fitted up on a different system. They were provided with fans, and these fans delivered into a main running under the stokehole plates. From this main a branch extended to each ashpit. When the fires were to be forced the ashpit doors were closed and fastened, and the fan then raised the pressure in the ashpit. No difficulty was experienced in firing, the smoke, ashes, or flame not coming into the stokehole; but in any case a simple register was provided, so that the fireman could shut off the draught with a motion of his foot. The difficulty of the system was that the stokeholes became intolerably hot from the absence of ventilation. This might have been avoided, no doubt, by improved arrangements for supplying the fans with air from the stokehole. Now, we suggest a modification of this scheme. Let every furnace, say, 6ft. long, be fitted with an ashpit door half way down its length; this will divide the ashpit transversely into two lengths just about the

place where the centre grate bearer comes. Let a fan deliver air into the further end of the ashpit. Thus one-half the length of the fire would burn with a much stronger draught than the other, or front half, which could be worked in the ordinary way. The raw coal should be fed on the front of the grate as much as possible, and from it pushed back. It would be partially coked before it reached the back grate, and the fire there would always be comparatively clear; the smoke coming from the raw coal would be ignited, because, in the first place, it would be intensely heated, and in the second place, because it would get a supply of oxygen from the forced draught, which would readily make its way through the comparatively thin fire at the back. Of course, we have not gone into details. Practical engineers will see that there are no insuperable obstacles in the way of adopting this system. The fan, with its mains, has already been tried and given satisfaction. The ventilation of the stokehole would remain practically unchecked; the second or inner ashpit door could be so made that it could be hauled out in less than half-a-minute when fires were being cleaned and replaced as easily; the steaming powers of the boilers would be greatly improved, and none of the defects of a closed stokehole would be incurred. The arrangement would probably effect a considerable saving of fuel in the great Atlantic steamers, which in racing as they do between this country and the United States—not, it is true, with each other, but against time—use fuel in a very reckless fashion, everything being sacrificed to get as much steam as possible out of the boilers. It may perhaps be said that we have devoted too much space to the consideration of such a secondary matter as the prevention of smoke; but in our opinion it is not a secondary matter. It is, on the contrary, a very important question, and it is remarkable in that the problems presented have hitherto practically baffled engineers, most probably, as we have endeavoured to show, because they have tried to do two things at once, namely, save fuel and prevent smoke. It is a mischievous delusion, and one the propagation of which has done much harm and caused much disappointment, that if only smoke is prevented economy of fuel must follow. The truth is very nearly the reverse. The mere coal contained in smoke, that is to say, the black dust and soot, is so small in quantity that it does not require a moment's consideration whether it is or is not to be burned. The waste is really carbonic oxide, and this may be freely given off from a nearly smokeless fire. As a rule the prevention of smoke is secured by the admission of a great deal of air, and this air all subsequently escapes at a high temperature, representing so much loss of heat. Thus, under proper arrangements about 18 lb. of air will suffice to burn a pound of coal. Some of the smoke consumers admit as much as 30 lb.; say that they admit 10 lb. too much. Taking the specific heat of air at 0.23, it follows that the 10 lb. of air, if it escapes at 600 deg., carries off as much heat as would have raised 2.3 lb. of water through 600 deg., or in round numbers, it represents the conversion of considerably over 1 lb. of water into steam. Thus a boiler which was evaporating  $7\frac{1}{2}$  lb. of water per pound of coal may have its furnace so far improved that heat enough will be developed in it to evaporate 8 lb. of water; but inasmuch as extra heat equivalent to the evaporation of 1 lb. of water is absorbed and carried off by the extra air admitted the boiler will, after the improvements (?) have been effected, and after smoke has been prevented, evaporate but 7 lb. of water per pound of coal. These truths ought to be generally known, but we regret to say that they are persistently overlooked.

Two subjects stand out prominently and claim attention. These are the progress of ocean shipbuilding and the manufacture and use of steel. To neither can we give here the consideration which both deserve; but an article such as this would be incomplete were it silent on these subjects. They are, as it happens, closely interwoven with each other just now, and if we speak of one we shall speak of both.

The past year has been one of unusual prosperity for the ocean steam trade, and especially for the trade between England and America. We shall not, we have reason to believe, be far wrong if we assert that such vessels as the Alaska, Servia, Gallia, &c., earn each voyage from £18,000 to £20,000, quite one-fourth of which is profit. The "voyage" consists of a run from Liverpool to the United States and back again, and will occupy from four to five weeks. The enormous first cost of the huge steamers which now constitute the ocean Liverpool fleet is so great that their purchase is quite beyond the means of private firms; and it is no secret that the ships sailing under various well-known house flags and nominally owned by private firms really belong to large syndicates, backed up by important banking establishments. In this way, and in this way alone, can be obtained that almost unlimited command of capital which has produced the finest steamers in the world. We cannot possibly now attempt to deal in detail with the prospects of fast ocean shipbuilding in 1883. We may cite one ship, however, as an example of the utmost limit that has yet been reached. This is the Oregon, a new steamer for the Guion Line. It is anticipated that she will be ready for her trial trip about midsummer, and she is intended to excel in speed the fastest ship now afloat. She will not be much larger than the Alaska; but her engines are to indicate no less than 13,000-horse power. She will have but one screw, as we understand about 24ft. in diameter, with a pitch of nearly 40ft. Steam will be supplied by twelve boilers, each with six furnaces 3ft. 6in. diameter, the grates being a little over 6ft. long. We may compare her with the Alaska, which ship has nine boilers with six furnaces in each, of about the same size. Comparing grate areas, we find that the aggregate surface in the Oregon will be 1512 square feet, divided among seventy-two furnaces, while that of the Alaska is 1134, divided among fifty-four furnaces. As the Oregon will burn about 20 lb. of coal per square foot of grate per hour, her consumption in twenty-four hours will not be much under 300 tons; and allowing that each ton of coal evaporates 9 tons of water, we find that no less than 2700 tons of steam will pass through her engines

every twenty-four hours. A tank 100ft. square, to hold 2700 tons of water, must be nearly 10ft. deep to prevent the water from running over the edge. If the tank were 50ft. square, the water would stand 38ft. 10in. deep in it. If the water were supplied to a town, allowing 4 cubic feet or 25 gallons per head per day, it would suffice for a population of 24,000 souls; 6000 tons of air will pass through her furnaces, representing a volume of 174,720,000 cubic feet through a pipe 11ft. 4in. diameter. This volume of air would flow at the rate of 13.8 miles per hour, a strong breeze to walk against. The total weight of water evaporated on the run across the Atlantic will not be far short of three times that of the whole ship's cargo, engines and all. We give these figures to enable our readers to form some idea of what 13,000-horse power means; and we may supplement them by adding that it is equivalent to 191,517 tons lifted a foot high every minute, or the same weight lifted 1440ft. in twenty-four hours. Assuming that she makes 20 knots an hour, or, omitting fractions, 2028ft. per minute, the thrust of her screw—that is to say the force pushing her ahead through the water—will amount to over 94 tons, or about as much as twenty of the most powerful locomotive engines in England would exert if all were pulling at her together. Among the other difficulties which crop up when we have to deal with such enormous powers as these figures represent, we mention that of getting the coal to the fires. We see that in the case of the Oregon no less than 300 tons a day, the full load for a coal train of thirty trucks, will have to be handled every twenty-four hours. If the ship were at rest, the problem would not be easy of solution, but it becomes very hard indeed to deal with in a rolling and pitching vessel. All is done, of course, that can be done in arranging boilers and bunkers to accommodate each other, but it is evident at a glance that out of a total quantity of, say, 2500 tons of coal a great deal must be stowed at a considerable distance from the furnaces. It does not appear that any mechanical device has yet been hit on in the way of a railway which answers better than the existing arrangements, by which the whole of the work is effected by sheer manual labour.

Before leaving the subject of large passenger ships it may be worth while to call attention to the fact that foreigners are now buying large ships extensively. Thus Messrs. Napier, of Glasgow, have in hand three Italian mail steamers, each of 4000 tons and 5000 indicated horse-power. They are also building for a Mexican firm three vessels of 4000 tons and 4000-horse power, to run between Liverpool and South America. These ships represent at least three-quarters of a million sterling in one shipyard alone; nor do Messrs. Napier stand alone. Messrs. John Elder and Co. are building for the New Zealand Steamship Company three vessels of 4000 tons each. We could extend the list were it necessary. As to the smaller class of cargo steamers, their number is legion, and it is practically impossible at the present moment to place an order anywhere for a new steamer for delivery within six months.

Coming now to marine engines, we find that the only changes which have been made during the past year, or which are likely to be made in the present year, are in the direction of using higher pressures. There are many steamers now afloat carrying 120 lb.; few new steamers carry less than 90 lb. The Mexican steamers to which we have just alluded will carry 140 lb. steam worked in triple expansion engines. It does not appear that there is any economy effected, as far as coal is concerned, by the use of these extreme pressures, but it is found that smaller boilers may be used, which is of considerable importance. With moderate pressures it is very difficult to get dry steam without a very large steam space, and for this reason boilers are made bigger in diameter than they need otherwise be. But with steam of 100 lb., twice as much of it by weight as of 50 lb. can be got into a given space. The bubbles rising through the water from the heating surface are also smaller by one half, and the ebullition is less violent; therefore priming is reduced and dry steam is supplied to the engines. The boilers being kept down in diameter no augmentation in the thickness of plates is required. In some cases the two top rows of tubes are suppressed, apparently without detriment to the steaming powers of the boiler; but the tendency is to rather augment than diminish grate surface. So long as the pressure is kept below 120 lb. or so, there is no more expansion employed than when steam of 80 lb. was used, and the terminal pressures are accordingly higher, the aggregate result being that out of a given weight of engines and boilers more power is got in very nearly the ratio of the augmentation of pressure. These appear to be the sole gains, and they are well worth having. The supply of dry instead of wet steam, the suppression of priming, and a reduction in weight, are almost invaluable at sea.

The three-cylinder type of engine appears to be gaining in favour. The City of Aberdeen, whose engines were illustrated in our pages not long since, has given great satisfaction. A comparison may be made between her performance and that of a nearly sister ship, the Hankow. The displacement of both vessels is about the same, and their lines are, we believe, not very dissimilar. The Hankow in a voyage of forty-six and a-half days, made without a stop at any port, burned just 36 tons of coal a day, including all coal used for the galley, donkey pumps, &c. The City of Aberdeen made precisely the same voyage in forty-one and a-half days, burning in the same way  $34\frac{1}{2}$  tons per day. Of course, the data are to some extent vague, but they go to show that the City of Aberdeen is a very successful ship, and we may add her boilers and machinery have given no trouble whatever. After one voyage of over six weeks' duration she was ready to proceed to sea again in twenty-four hours, nothing being needed but the letting together of brasses, the packing of glands, and a general clean-down and overhaul. A new method of creating and maintaining a vacuum in surface condensing engines was, by permission of Mr. Alfred Holt, tried on board the steamship Cyclops on Saturday week. It is the invention of Mr. Robertson, and is patented by him. By it the ordinary air pump is dispensed

with entirely, an air extractor being fitted by which the circulating pump is able to maintain the vacuum without in any way interfering with its ordinary work, thus saving the cost of fitting and maintaining an expensive air pump, and materially reducing the drag and friction of the engines. There was a strong north-westerly gale blowing during the trial, and a heavy sea running, but a steady vacuum of 26 $\frac{1}{2}$  in. was maintained throughout, and the engines ran more freely than with the air pump connected, showing an increase of nearly a revolution per minute. The Cyclops proceeded on her voyage to China with the air pump disconnected, and a further account of the working of the extractor during the voyage will be given on her return. The air and water are taken away from the condenser by separate pumps; the water by a fixed pump placed below the condenser bottom is forced either direct to the boiler or through a feed heater as may be desired. The air is taken from the surface of the water before entering the feed pump, and after passing through a separator is finally extracted.

Inseparably bound up now with steam shipping, and, indeed, with mechanical and civil engineering generally, is the progress of the steel manufacture. Of the 291 vessels launched during 1882 on the Clyde alone, sixty were of steel, with an aggregate tonnage of 108,254; and to give an idea of the growth of steel shipping, it may be stated that in 1881 the steel tonnage put in the water was 66,609 tons; in 1880 it was 42,000 tons; and in 1879 it was only 18,000 tons—so that in the short space of four years the amount of the Clyde steel shipbuilding has increased six-fold; but it is not of steel shipbuilding we would speak now, but of a later development of the use of the metal. One of the greatest difficulties met with in marine engineering work is the production of trustworthy crank shafts. Mr. W. Parker, chief engineer surveyor to Lloyd's, has, perhaps, done more than any other man living to put the cause of the breaking of shafts in its true light, and he has been ably aided by his assistants, and backed up by Lloyd's, who have spared no pains and no money to arrive at the truth. It has now been established beyond fear of refutation, that crank and screw shafts break because they are not kept in line; and it is very difficult to keep them in line, because a ship's hull is more or less flexible. When a shaft is not in line it is bent at every revolution. The bending may be quite imperceptible to the senses, but it is none the less effective in destroying the shaft. As Mr. Parker and Mr. Milton have pointed out, the rapidly altering strains of great intensity, first tending to bend the shaft in one direction and then in another, coupled with the sudden changes in the form of the metal, unavoidable in a crank shaft, are extremely fatiguing to the metal, and even the best material is at last strained beyond the limit of endurance by a much less force than it would have previously borne. "It is, therefore," says Mr. Parker, "necessary, in making crank shafts, to use only a material which will have a great amount of endurance when subjected to oft-repeated and varied strains." The soundness of this statement is indisputable, but it implies more than is seen at first sight. We have to ascertain what is the material which complies with the stated conditions, and on this point a wide diversity of opinion exists. Messrs. Parker and Milton's investigations go to show, however, that it is not necessarily either the strongest or the reputedly toughest metal which meets the case, and steel makers will do well now to turn their attention to the production of a class of metal which will endure the greatest number of often repeated reversed strains without deterioration. We believe we may say the Terre Noir steel made by M. Pourcel has given results equal to those obtained by any other maker. The necessity for getting something better than forged iron for shafts has led to the trial of cast steel crank and propeller shafts, the last either when of small size being cast in one or two pieces, with the cranks and pins complete, or when of large size made either on Turton's or Dickinson's system, both of which have been illustrated in THE ENGINEER. Built-up cranks of Whitworth steel have been in use for some time, noticeably, for example, in the City of Rome; but there is now a tendency at least manifesting itself to produce steel crank shafts whole, so to speak, in the foundry, and it is not improbable that before the present year is out important advances will be made in this direction. It is noteworthy, however, that not only is there no uniformity of opinion among steel makers as to the best way in which to produce large masses of sound steel, but that their practice is as diverse as their theory; and that each man insists that he alone is right and everyone else wrong; and all the while the processes most condemned seem to be capable of giving results hardly distinguishable from those obtained by the best. It will be instructive to consider here what is the present attitude of steel makers on this subject; and first let us see what Sir Joseph Whitworth, a veteran smith, holds concerning steel. He asserts that to get steel sound it must be compressed while fluid under a pressure of 20 tons on the square inch, and as this cannot be done with large castings, because no moulds could be made strong enough, then he puts on all the pressure he can while the steel is fluid, and he afterwards chews the steel, if we may use the term, in great steel squeezers, and by this means, as he says, alone gets to the centre of a big ingot or casting. The result of this squeezing is that blocks of steel as they leave the squeezers are convex at the ends instead of concave, because the insides have been squeezed out of them. Mr. Haswell, of Vienna, dealt with steel in much the same way with his hydraulic stamping machine, which could also be worked as a squeezer, more than a dozen years ago, and with admirable results. But his plant would not deal with such masses of steel as Sir Joseph handles; nor indeed did they exist at the time. It has been asserted that the fluid compression process is simply useless. Be this as it may, it is quite certain that Sir Joseph Whitworth has succeeded in producing a very admirable material—albeit its cost is very high indeed.

Messrs. Jessop and Sons hold views not only opposed to those of Sir Joseph Whitworth, but of nearly all other

eminent steel makers. They maintain that castings can only be properly made from crucible steel, because in this way only can uniformity of texture be secured. When the contents of two or three hundred crucibles are all mixed together in one ladle, diversity of texture becomes impossible, because an average must be struck between the characteristics of the steels in the various crucibles. The firm produces all its castings in this way, the steel being made by the old cementation process from selected Swedish iron. Messrs. Jessop also hold that steel castings cannot be improved by forging, because no hammer can reach the inside of a big mass, and hammering the outside only introduces variations in texture. In this respect they hold much the same view as Sir Joseph Whitworth. He, however, as we have explained, kneads or chews his steel in tremendous squeezers; but Messrs. Jessop content themselves with letting the casting cool very slowly, and there is every reason to believe that they turn out splendid castings of very large size, without a trace of blow-holes or imperfections. We may point out that their system of working is in many respects identical with that exclusively pursued by Krupp for many years, and still largely employed at Essen.

Turning now to Messrs. Vickers, we find that they make all their heavy steel castings on a principle introduced by themselves, and known as the "Vickers-Siemens system." The lower ends only of very heavy ingots are used, and these are forged into shape, and they rely on the continual use of test pieces to get good results. Nearly the same method is pursued by the Bolton Steel Company. Messrs. Spencer, of Newburn, use the Siemens process, and they hold that, while forging is practically useless, slow annealing is essential to success; and annealing is accordingly practised by the firm in the most complete way. The Steel Company of Scotland relies on the addition of silicon to steel made by the Siemens process in order to get rid of blow-holes. Virtually the process used is that of M. Pourcel, as practised at Terre-Noir.

This rapid summary indicates the practice of the principal, if not the only, firms who produce large masses of steel in the shape of crank shafts, stern frames, parts of machinery, &c. Now it is a noteworthy fact that, while there is such a diversity of practice, all the firms have succeeded in obtaining excellent results. It will be seen that the only firms producing steel castings in the strict sense of the word are Messrs. Jessop, Spencer, and the Steel Company of Scotland; all the others manipulate the steel in some way after it has been cast. It may be urged that the practice of cementing Swedish bars, breaking up the blister steel, melting it in crucibles and casting it, cannot fail to be very costly. This is true; but then the whole cost of forging is saved. The real stride made we may say during the last twelve months consists in casting steel directly into the shape that is required, instead of first casting an ingot and forging that into shape. Not only is there now a prospect that screw shafts of large size will be cast whole, but that a multitude of the smaller details of marine engines will be so produced. In short, everything that a smith finds it troublesome to forge will be cast in steel. It has long been the practice of many firms to cast small parts of machinery in iron, and subsequently to render them "malleable" by burying them in hematite ore, and keeping them at a bright red heat for some hours, or even days when the casting is large. In this way the iron is decarburised and rendered tough. Such castings have long been used in enormous quantities and with the greatest success, but the limit of size beyond which the process cannot be applied is soon reached. Steel promises to begin just where malleable cast iron leaves off; and so far as can be seen at present, there is no limit to the size of the castings which may be made. We should not be in the least surprised to hear that a 50-ton crank shaft had been cast whole in one piece, and with perfect success. Steel begins to unfold its secrets; and once the causes of the troubles met with hitherto in making big steel castings is known, steps can be taken to deprive them of malign influence with some prospect of success. As an example of what we mean, we may point out that at last it has been fairly proved that the unsound portions of every large casting are at or near the top, because the bubbles of occluded gas rise in the mould. Various attempts have been made to draw off the gas—on the whole without success. As the gas cannot be got out of steel, steel is provided for its reception in a place where it can do no harm. Thus Messrs. Jessop and Sons and Spencer and Sons always provide a "dead head" to every casting. This head is frequently heavier than the casting. Into it the gas bubbles rise, and are there retained, the casting proper being perfectly sound. Another point worth notice is that the harder the steel the more easily it fuses and the better it runs. The soft steels unfortunately require so high a temperature for fusion that the molten metal melts ordinary moulding sand or loam, and the surface of the sand has to be coated with some infusible protective material, such as ganister. In working in this direction considerable improvements are still needed, and it is to be hoped that means will be found ere long of coping with a very serious difficulty. The injury to the interior of a mould may render a casting useless; and even when the mischief done is not quite so serious, the surface of the casting will be spoiled.

In conclusion we may state that Messrs. Parker and Milton have, we understand, reported to Lloyd's that the use of cast steel crank shafts may be permitted tentatively, provided test pieces show that the metal will not stand a greater strain than 30 tons per square inch, and that 1 $\frac{1}{2}$  in. square bars may be bent cold 90 deg., with a radius of 1 $\frac{1}{2}$  in. This is a step in the right direction, and its success may, we think, be confidently anticipated.

One or two old schemes revived may be worth notice. In the United States it has been proposed once more to propel street cars by coiled springs. It may be taken as proved that a spring, in whatever form, cannot be trusted to take up more power than would suffice to lift it about 60ft. Thus a spring of 1 lb. weight might have 60 foot-pounds

of energy stored in it, and so on. A company has been formed in Philadelphia to work street cars in the following way:—Each car will be fitted with six springs coiled upon a cylinder. Each spring will be made of a flat bar of steel 300ft. long, 6 in. wide, and  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. thick. These springs are, it is claimed, tempered by a new process so uniformly and delicately that their power becomes tremendous. After first being coiled so that their diameter is 18ft., they are tempered, and then wound up until the diameter is 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ ft. In this condition they are placed upon the car and adjusted. The weight of each spring will be about 1500 lb., and it will store about 90,000 foot-pounds. If we stretch a point in its favour, we may say that it will represent 3 indicated horse-power exerted for one minute. Six such springs give 3-horse power for six minutes, or one horse-power for eighteen minutes. But as the weight of the springs and their appurtenances, to be moved cannot be less than 5 tons, it will be seen that the chances of the success of this invention are very minute. Another old project revived is the construction of a flying machine. M. Tissandier, the French aeronaut, is projecting the manufacture of an elliptical balloon, which is to be driven by a dynamo machine and storage batteries. The balloon will be 131ft. long, and will have a capacity of more than 100,000 cubic feet. It is calculated to give a lifting power of 3 $\frac{1}{2}$  tons, which will, when the machinery is in place, allow for a ton of passengers and ballast. The only novelty here is the storage battery, but on storage batteries the aeronaut cast the eyes of desire the moment M. Planté made his invention known.

The year's work in electricity, and the outlook into the immediate future, claim our attention. When there is a decided unrest in political circles, the political writer is apt to describe the condition of things by the simile of the rumblings and mutterings of a volcano immediately preceding a gigantic outburst. We know of no more apposite analogy than this for the condition of things pertaining to electrical work. The year has been one of intense activity, but the activity has been more internal than external, more in preparatory work than otherwise. The fool alone attempts to prophecy without absolute knowledge, but there is such a thing as deducing a conclusion from given premises without trespassing upon prophetic grounds. The premises then which are open to the consideration of the world lead us to draw certain conclusions, which may or may not be correct, according as we translate rightly or wrongly the premises before us. It is well known that for many years the question of coal supply has been one of the greatest interest to economists, politicians, and manufacturers. We have reasons for placing these classes in the above order, inasmuch as we take the work of manufacturers to belong more to the absolute present than that of the politicians or economists. In fact, the latter look, as they ought to look, to the centuries ahead as well as the centuries gone by. England owes much—how much we leave others to determine—to the possession of fuel, ore, and water. Fuel in the shape of coal seems as yet to be an absolute necessity; and assuming for the moment that it may be unlimited in amount, it is certain that to obtain it becomes annually a more and more costly process, and will continue to do so as the works grow deeper. There must then be a gradual accumulation of industries that will languish and fail because of this increased cost, and it behoves us as wise men to look ahead, and at the earliest moment indicate the chances of obtaining the energy required in these industries from a new source. Then, again, we must look at the destructive distillation of coal as a means of obtaining a lighting gas as sheer waste if the necessary light can be obtained equally well in some other way. A most important question, then, relating to the development of the applications of electricity is, How can it affect the consumption of coal? The answer to this would require a monograph in the *Quarterly*, rather than one of our columns. We may, however, briefly refer to the future in one or two directions. If we by any means upset electrical equilibrium we obtain electrical phenomena, and in certain cases can take advantage at the point chosen by ourselves of the energy developed by nature's attempt to reinstate the electrical condition. We say nature's attempt, because it is a fundamental law that the tendency is to return to the normal state of things. It has been shown that we can disturb the electrical equilibrium at one point, and obtain energy developed by such disturbance at another point. The latter point must, however, be somewhere in what is known as the electrical circuit. Electrical action is in closed curves. The analogical case of water helps us very much to explain this action. Disturbing the electrical equilibrium is very similar to putting water at some height above the sea level. The energy due to head of water can be used at any point down to sea level. In the case of electricity we have given a difference of level—or potential as it is called—and as water flows from a high to a low level, so electricity passes from the state of high potential to the state of similar potential. Further, just as work has to be done in raising the water, a certain percentage of which can be got back during its fall, so work must be done to obtain electricity at a high potential, a certain percentage of which can be got back during the fall of potential. One direction in which electricians are looking is to the utilisation of electricity for the transmission of power. They are trying to obtain a good apparatus by means of which the natural forces—such as wind, tides, rivers, waterfalls, &c.—can be used to supply electricity at a high potential, and this apparatus is to be connected through the point where it is desired to utilise the power by means of a suitable conductor. Let anyone try to calculate the foot-pounds of work due to natural forces in any country idly dissipated to-day, and hence to arrive at an idea of the coal which could be saved by using this now wasted energy. We can only urge investigators and wealthy men to strive more earnestly in this direction. Why should coal, which will one day be almost invaluable, be wasted when other natural agencies are ready to assist in giving the energy required for our work? England is well favoured in some respects with regard to its natural forces. It is a small country, it is insular,



and hence tidal power could be transmitted to a considerable extent. The Manchester Ship Canal may be a gigantic scheme; but we can conceive of works on a far larger scale—works to store millions of tons of water at high tide, this water to be used in driving turbines, &c., and these again connected to dynamo machines. We have, at the cost of many millions, created a network of rails and telegraph wires. Is it improbable that even at a somewhat similar expense we shall one day have a network of lines to carry power? A different meaning may be given to an old axiom, and the words be transposed, still stating a grand truth, "Power is wealth." Here, to use an algebraic expression, power equals foot-tons.

As regards dynamo electric machines, those that have made most noise in the world in 1882 are those of Gordon and Ferranti. These are both alternate current machines. Gordon's machine is the largest ever constructed and used, and has, as has also the small one of Ferranti, been fully described in our columns. We are not yet convinced that an alternate current machine is the machine for the future. Thomson, Varley, and others have proved that an appreciable amount of time is required to charge and discharge a cable. The electric light conductors, we imagine, will mostly consist of insulated wires, that is, wires similar to cables, and therefore long lengths of such conductors will require an appreciable time to charge and discharge. How many miles of conductor will be required in a large installation of the electric light upon the lines suggested in the provisional orders now lodged with the Board of Trade? Whatever be the number, and though it may not reach one-tenth of the 3000 miles of an Atlantic cable, there will come in the function time as regards charge and discharge. It would not be difficult to state the conditions under which neither Ferranti's nor Gordon's machines would work, and the reply to our criticism will be that the machines will never be required to work under such conditions—that is, their value will be admitted to be limited. Alternate-current machines to supply from five hundred to five thousand lights will be useful, and probably highly so, in the immediate future. We are greatly surprised that, with the one exception of Edison, no one has constructed a continuous-current machine to supply over a thousand incandescent lamps. Although not so simple in construction, the latter seems the better machine, in that not only can it be directly used for lighting purposes, but may be employed to transmit power, to charge storage batteries, for electro-plating, &c. It must be remembered, however, that with electric machines, as with other machines, the best effect is obtained when the machine is designed specially for the object in view.

Any account of the year's work would be incomplete without a reference to storage and secondary batteries. It is well understood by this time that electricity is one result of chemical action. The secondary battery does not store up electricity, but an electric current sent through it simply causes a chemical action. When the current ceases, a reverse chemical action takes place, giving a current of electricity. The action of the secondary battery has been completely explained in our columns by Professor Lodge. It may be briefly said that all the secondary batteries of importance approach more or less in construction to the FitzGerald-Crompton type. The plates of this battery consist of minute particles of lead, obtained by chemical or mechanical action, which are slightly oxidised and then compressed. The compression rubs off the oxide, bringing pure metal points into contact, and so giving metallic continuity to the whole. The plate obtained is similar to a sponge. The Sellon-Volckmar battery consists, we believe, of a lead plate perforated with comparatively large holes, these holes being filled with spongy lead. Theory points out that the filling up of holes in such a manner is imperfect, inasmuch as under the action of the current the lead-holder gets "formed"—that is, rendered spongy. It then deteriorates as a holder, and also as giving metallic continuity from the plugs through the mass. Then, it seems, the plugs must, in the first place, be of compressed material, and how far such compression is permissible is a question of a legal character, into which it is not for us to enter. It is said that great strides have been made in perfecting the Faure battery, but it may be taken for granted that the new Faure battery is little better than the old Faure, nor is it probable the Faure battery as popularly known will be worked on a large scale. The plastering on a lead plate of minium and holding it there by any means will be put aside, and the Faure battery in its new dress will be found to approximate very closely to some other secondary batteries. Professor S. P. Thompson has expressed the conviction that the Planté plate, after all, is the best plate for secondary batteries. To a certain extent we agree with him; but it must be seen that an enormous amount of energy has to be wasted in "forming" a lead plate. It seems to us that the FitzGerald-Crompton plate avoids this loss, the highly compressed plate being similar to a "formed" Planté, and hence requiring little or no loss of energy in the formation. The secondary battery is wanted at once to regulate and to insure against a temporary breakdown of engine and dynamo machine, also to allow of a short period of rest to engine or dynamo machine.

We have to chronicle little as regards improvements in arc or incandescent lamps; still minor modifications are continually going on, bringing them nearer and nearer to the perfect state. The year has, in one way, been extraordinary, viz., in regard to the formation of companies, rash speculation, and failure. It is ascertained that forty-nine companies have been brought out having some connection with electricity, with a nominal capital of £16,378,000, the capital offered to the public amounting to £10,026,900. It is not too much to say that at least one half of the  $1\frac{1}{2}$  millions or so of capital subscribed to these companies has been absolutely wasted. In many instances there never was the slightest chance of the proposed company doing work, and there is no doubt that many of these companies were

floated by men who knew the worthlessness of the systems so loudly vaunted. From the middle of 1881 to the beginning of 1882, a rush was made to put up installations of electric light plant—for money if money could be obtained—but, to put them up for much, little, or nothing. A system of business was introduced that hardly commends itself to the laws of economies. The introduction of such a system has to answer for many of the failures of the year. Looking back through 1882, we find that the Pilsen system of arc lighting has increased in favour, as has perhaps the Crompton; but so far as we can gather the Brush and Brockie have declined, whilst the Jablochhoff may be deemed to have held its own. The André lamp has been exhibited satisfactorily, the Fyfe-Main and the Weston have been installed in one or two instances, and so on. No lighting, however, on a large scale. It is agreed upon all sides that the arc system has but a comparatively limited field of usefulness, and that to its rival, the incandescence system, we must look for great progress. Another twelve months must elapse before a satisfactory installation is complete that will enable us to judge fairly between it and gas. There are we know times and places when gas cannot compete with electricity; but taking London as the centre of enterprise, what can we judge at present? The gas companies supply thousands upon thousands of burners; when electric light companies do the same then will come the true period of comparison. It is needless to say, we think, that electricity can be as easily, safely, and cheaply supplied as is gas. The recent legislation will enable the electric light to be placed on somewhat the same footing as gas. After the sanctioning of the provisional orders, which may be soon after Parliament meets, definite plans will have to be made by the companies for carrying out the work undertaken. Two or three years are given for completing the work, and we are well within the mark when we say that twelve months must elapse before anything on any extended scale will be complete. The largest installation carried out during the year is that at the theatre at Brünn in Lower Austria. The Edison system is adopted, and has been fitted under the superintendence of Mr. F. Jehl. Fifteen hundred lamps are fixed, which can be used almost in any way desired—singly, in groups, giving a full or a partial light, shaded, or otherwise. In speaking of this work we had not forgotten the larger work at New York, which, however, is as yet incomplete. The Edison installation at Holborn is on a fairly large scale, and we believe the third dynamo machine is being placed in position. These machines are the largest in public use—that of Gordon being used at the constructor's—and are nominally 1000 or 1200-light machines. The standard light is here the Edison A lamp of 16 candles; so that these three machines are capable of supplying easily some 3500 such lamps. With one or two exceptions the lamps have been lighted with all the regularity that could be desired. The experience gained since the starting of the Holborn station has been of a valuable nature, and the Edison Company believes that, when a larger area has been covered by the requisite network of conductors, and various recent improvements have been introduced, central station lighting will be in a position to return a satisfactory dividend on the capital invested, even at the present price of London gas. The company has made several isolated installations in public buildings, factories, ships, &c. The Edison Company has during the year reduced the price of its incandescent lamps, first from 5s. to 4s., and now, we believe, to 3s. Given a lamp of 16-candle power, to last a minimum of 1000 hours, at three shillings, and we find that the cost of lamps alone amounts to one half that of gas to give the same light at 3s. per 1000 cubic feet. But recent improvements in the machines and lamps tend to greatly increase efficiency and economy.

Messrs. R. L. Crompton and Co. have during the year built a large number of dynamo machines of the Birgin type, and latterly several compound machines. The firm has greatly improved the arc lamp known as the "Crompton lamp," and have carried out a large number of installations upon the arc system; others where Swan incandescent lamps are used, besides having carried out contracts for the Swan United Company. The principal of these installations have from time to time been referred to in our columns, such, for example, as those at the new Law Courts and at the Birmingham Town Hall. There has been a great diversity in the work, showing how applicable the electric light is to illumination for all kinds. At the Nine Elms goods yard, for example, twenty-eight arc lights are used, the motor engines being by Messrs. Davey, Paxman and Co. At the new mansion of Mr. O. E. Cope, M.P.—Berechurch Hall—Swan incandescent lamps are used. The engine used here is also one of Davey, Paxman and Co.'s. At the Law Courts, 450 Swan lamps are already fixed, the engine used being one by Messrs. Marshall, Sons, and Co. An extension of the system at Risca colliery has been carried out during the year. The Swan Company has fitted the lamps into a number of steamers. Among others we may mention H.M.S. Himalaya—the first public vessel so lighted—the Mairapouri, and the Wairaraka, vessels of the New Zealand Steamship Company; the Goorkha, belonging to the British Indian Steam Navigation Company; the Lonsdale, Cephalonia, and Pavia, belonging to the Cunard line. The steam yacht Empress has been fitted with Swan lamps, by Messrs. Crompton, and through Messrs. Johnson and Phillips the new vessel belonging to the Eastern Telegraph Company—the Volta—is lighted by electricity, with Swan lamps and Birgin machines. We may here say that Messrs. Johnson and Phillips have carried out almost the whole of the fitting of the Volta. Various installations have been supplied by Messrs. Crompton in Scotland, through Messrs. H. Bennett and Co., of Glasgow; in Ireland, through Mr. J. H. Greenhill, of Belfast; in the North of England, through Messrs. Norman and Sons, of Barrow; in the Birmingham district, through the new firm of Crompton, Winfield, and Co.; in Italy and South Germany, through Mr. Bollinger, of Milan, as well as in Spain, Denmark, Egypt, &c. We ought, perhaps, to mention that the General Post-office building at Glasgow is now lighted throughout by twenty Crompton arc lamps and 300 Swan incandescent lamps. We have sufficiently

indicated the work carried out by the combined firms of Crompton and Co. and the Swan United Company, although we could add very extensively the the list of installation if such a list were desirable.

It is well known that the Brush parent company has not been carrying out work, but has restricted itself to the manufacture of apparatus. Next to this is perhaps the Hammond Company, which lighted the town of Chesterfield with Brush arc and Lane-Fox incandescent lamps. The arc lamps have gone very well, but for a long time the Lane-Fox lamps were severely criticised. We are told that within the last few weeks better lamps of this class have been fixed, and that the light is now considerably improved. The best installation, however, of the Brush arc lamp, so far as we know, is at Brighton. We are informed this installation was carried out by the Hammond Company. During the latter part of the year the company's efforts seem to have been concentrated in acquiring rights to the Ferranti machine. This machine we have already referred to.

We have now shown that a fair amount of activity has been going on during the year, but far below what is proposed when the provisional orders are sanctioned. Various small installations by minor companies have been carried out, but it suffices to mention the fact, and it is needless to refer specially to every tiny one.

Turning from electric lighting to the now rather out-of-the-cold subject of telegraphy, we must give a few details of that more important branch, submarine work. There is comparatively little in land work to interest engineers, but submarine cable work involves the use of carefully-designed, complicated, well-made machinery; and success in laying and preparing cables is due in a great measure to a just knowledge of engineering principles. The two great cable-manufacturing companies, viz., the Telegraph Construction and Maintenance Company, and the Silvertown Company, have between them manufactured and laid something like 7000 miles of cable during the year. The following is, we think, a fairly complete list of the cables:—Trieste-Corfu; Malta-Tripoli; Alexandria-Port Said—manufactured by the Telegraph Construction and Maintenance Company for the Eastern Telegraph Company; the Grutsiel-Valentia cable, manufactured by the same company for the German Union Company; the Ceara-Maranham, Madeira-Lisbon, and Lipari-Salina cables, also manufactured by the Telegraph Construction Company. The Silvertown Company has been very busy during the year over the West Coast of America and other cables. The sections of these cables are Chorillos-Payta, Payta-St. Helena, Galveston-Brownsville, St. Helena-Buenaventura, Buenaventura-Pearl Island, Salina Cruz-Libertad; Libertad-S. Juan del Sur; S. Juan del Sur-Pearl Island. These are all, as will be seen, from America, as were several others. The company manufactured the Saghalien-Tartary cable for the Great Northern Company, the Aberdour-Granton cable for the Post-office, and some others. Messrs. Siemens have, it seems, done little cable work during the year, the principal being the Land's End-Dover Bay, and the Jeddah-Suakin cables. The total lengths of these cables, as we have said, is about 7000 miles, and the manufacture has been pretty equally distributed between the two great companies. Roughly speaking, we may estimate the cost of making and laying a cable at some £200 per mile more or less, and this would give the capital for the year's work at something like a million and a-half. The largest cable company is the Eastern, which, with its connections, has a system comprising about 22,000 miles of cable, and if to this the system of the Eastern Extension is added—for the whole is really one system—the mileage reaches nearly 33,000 miles. During the year some notable repairs have been effected by the ships and staff of the Telegraph Construction and Maintenance Company. The Kangaroo repaired the 1874 Atlantic cable off Newfoundland in the spring; in August the Seine repaired the Lisbon-Portcurnow cable in 2700 fathoms of water off the coast of Spain. During the laying of the duplicate Madeira-Lisbon cable a new shoal was found and the course of the cable diverted. The shoal rises to within 100ft. of the surface, and the depth of water rapidly increases to over 2000ft. The shoal is now marked on the Admiralty charts as the Seine shoal. A similar shoal was found along the original line of cable, and is known as the Gettysbury shoal.

#### THE ELPHINSTONE-VINCENT DYNAMO MACHINE.

ON page 1 we illustrate a machine upon which the designers have been working for some years, endeavouring to make it as perfect as possible before commencing their manufacture on a large scale. The diagrams explain clearly the construction of the machine, and it is claimed that there is but little waste wire used in it, and that the various parts are removable and easily replaceable. The cross section shows twelve magnet poles, six on one side the cylindrical armature, six on the other; that is, the armature revolves between three horseshoe magnets opposite three similar horseshoe magnets, an inside N pole being opposed by an outside S pole. The armature consists of a cylinder of papier maché, upon which are laid saddles of wire, these saddles or flattish coils of wire, answering the same purpose as the coils of wire on a Gramme ring armature. The one end of one saddle coil goes to the commutator, and the other to the beginning of the next coil, and so on. The armature has 18 sections wound with double wire, thus making 36 coils. The resistance of the armature between brushes is '0374 ohms. The resistance of a single outside arm of the field magnet is 1.93 ohms. The electro-motive force of the machine at the brushes depends, of course, upon speed, external resistance, &c., but may be taken as varying between 68 and 90 volts. The weight of the machine is about 26 cwt. There is no iron in the armature. The speed at which it runs depends upon its strength, and hitherto a thousand revolutions per minute has been the maximum. It is said that with a speed of 855 revolutions, 288 Swan lamps can be used. It should be mentioned that the field magnets can be coupled in series, giving a total resistance of 17 or 18 ohms, or in multiple arc with one-fourth this resistance. With the field magnets in multiple arc the electric efficiency claimed is about '82 per cent.; when in series the electric efficiency claimed is about '9 per cent.







