

THE INSTITUTION OF NAVAL ARCHITECTS.

The annual meetings of the Institution of Naval Architects began on Wednesday; the Earl of Ravensworth, president, in the chair. The meetings are held, as usual, in the Hall of the Society of Arts, John-street, Adelphi. The attendance was smaller than usual. The report of the Council was read, from which it appears that the finances of the Institution are in a satisfactory state. The balance in hand on general account at the end of the year 1882, viz., £338 16s., was smaller than at the corresponding period of the previous year. The diminution was due to an exceptional cause, namely, the large expenditure of £253 18s. 2d. on the printing of the general index of the first twenty-one volumes of the Transactions. This item is of an altogether exceptional nature, and the Council is able to state that the estimates of expenditure for the current year show that in all probability the balance will be more than restored to its previous figure by the end of the year. On the other hand, the balance in hand to the credit of the library fund, £279 19s. 3d., shows a satisfactory increase. Attention was drawn to the two exhibitions—one at Fishmongers' Hall and the other to the Tynemouth Exhibition—but nothing was said of the at least as important exhibition held at Islington, and which directly suggested the Tynemouth undertaking. The Council regretted the absence of Mr. Merrifield, who is ill. His name is added to the list of vice-presidents. In order better to meet the convenience of those members who reside at a distance, it has been determined for the future to post to all members and associates immediately after the meetings, copies of all the papers read, in lieu of the newspaper abstract which has now for some years been published. By this arrangement members will be enabled to obtain copies of the papers while interest in the proceedings is still fresh. It will also enable the volume of Transactions to appear at a much earlier date than usual. This last innovation, we may add, is just half a step in the right direction. If the reputation of the Institution for its discussions is to be maintained, the papers should be sent out long before the meetings, that they may be mastered and discussed instead of being talked about, as is now the case.

After the formal business had been transacted, Lord Ravensworth delivered what may be called his annual address, which was unusually able and interesting; indeed, at times, Lord Ravensworth rose to eloquence. He began by a reference to our "naval operations" in Egypt. This, he understood, was the right term, as our attack on the forts at Alexandria was not, he was told, naval warfare. He held that up to the present the gun had the best of it against the ship; and that a continued and very rapid fire from a number of moderately heavy guns would prove better than the slower and fewer discharges of the tremendous ordnance recently made. It must not be forgotten that smoke would, in all cases, play a most important part; and that the greater the number of blows that could be delivered before smoke interfered, the better. He held that a fair proportion of ships of moderate size—say 10,000 tons—ought to be built, but very few, if any, monsters like the *Inflexible*. He then spoke of the great prosperity of the shipping trade throughout the past year, and he pointed out that no less than 554,000 tons net, after all deductions were made, had been added to our roll of British-built ships. The Clyde again came first, with, in 1882, 297 vessels of 395,149 tons—the largest total ever recorded, and nearly double that of 1879; the Wear next, with 123 vessels of 212,464 tons; the Hartlepool, 39 vessels of 68,067 tons; and the Tees, 40 vessels of 65,048 tons. The alarming loss of ships and lives from collisions claimed the deepest attention, and more care should be devoted to the construction of bulkheads. The electric light had been suggested for use for ships for signalling, but he was told that it had been tried, and failed, being mistaken by other ships for lighthouse lights. All ships ought, however, if possible, to be made to show their lights at such angles that the course they were steering would be clearly indicated. He concluded by an eloquent exhortation to his hearers to bear well in mind that the very prosperity of our shipping trade and its vast importance was a source of weakness, because even a moderately successful blow struck at it by a foe would produce effects, the magnitude of which no man dare estimate, on the prosperity and well-being of this country; and he deeply regretted that the present year's Navy estimates only included a sum of £8,500,000, for the Navy proper, after what he termed "dead weight" charges had been deducted. Admiralty programmes, he added, are always unsatisfactory, because they only set forth what may be had in five or six years; and, besides, they never were adhered to or carried out in full. Concerning the vexed question of load line, he found that the Board of Trade would lay down no rules, and it was, indeed, next to impossible to lay down any, as the conditions varied with the season of the year and the cargo.

The first paper read was by Captain G. H. Noel, R.N., ON CERTAIN POINTS OF IMPORTANCE IN THE CONSTRUCTION OF SHIPS OF WAR.

The author confined himself to certain points:—(I.) On the strength and height of the bow necessary for ramming. (II.) On water-tight compartments. (III.) On armoured conning towers. (IV.) On torpedo defence. The nature of the strains brought on a bow when ramming is patent. The dangers which would arise from imperfect construction or design may be classed as follows:—(1) Of the ram bow being actually forced in; (2) of the bow being twisted and the stem broken; (3) of the vessel being herself sunk, which might result from two causes—either the want of height in her bow and freeboard, causing her to lurch over and so capsize, or to go down head first; or else, owing to weakness in the bow upper works, which, breaking away, might lock with those of the enemy's ship, and so cause both vessels to sink together. With reference to the first danger, there was no difficulty to be apprehended in obtaining the desired strength in the bows of comparatively small

vessels, so long as wrought iron or steel stems can be used; but with increase of size and weight we get an increase in the momentum, and in some cases a reduction in the cushioning effect, which so much lessens the enormous strains consequent on ramming. For these reasons great additional strength is required in heavy vessels. It is questionable whether this is fully appreciated in the construction of citadel ships, where the stem—though to a small extent backed up by an armoured deck—is unsupported by side armour, and the principal weights are concentrated in the centre of the vessel some distance from the bow, upon which the whole effort of bringing this mass to rest devolves when the ramming is direct. Secondly, as regards the twisting of the bow and breaking of the stem. The constructors of English ships of war have wisely curtailed the length of the ram bows of our ships, a measure calculated to give them greater power to resist oblique or twisting strains; but is it not desirable in our heavier ironclads that a more secure root be constructed to the ram? This might be accomplished by building its point on to a cigar-end-shaped structure worked smoothly into the bow, and giving the sharpness requisite for the speed of the ship by its horizontal as well as its vertical entrance; in fact, like the lower part of the stem of the *Polyphemus*, without its torpedo discharge pipe. Thirdly, as to the height of the bow required for efficiency as a ram, and the strength of the bow upper works. No vessel of this type can give her captain the confidence he would possess were he commanding a ship with a high well-constructed bow, which would ensure the enemy he had rammed being thrown off clear, and at the same time would cause him no misgivings as to the result of entanglement with his foe, or of a heavy and severe lurch after drawing clear of her. Water-tight compartments in a ship of war are required to prevent her from sinking after being severely wounded in battle, as well as, in common with other ships, when harmed by collision or grounding. Were it possible to abolish all such dangerous appliances as water-tight doors, the safety of ships would be vastly increased. This is, of course, impossible in central citadel ships constructed with armoured decks before and abaft the citadel a few feet below water, and may be considered to detract in some degree from the value of this type of ship. In belted ironclads there is no reason why the only communication with the principal compartments should not be from above, for where there is a convenient deck fore and aft above the water line, the communications with and stowage of these compartments must be a simple matter enough. In armoured vessels of the central citadel type, where it is imperative that the armoured deck be intact, the only plan which seems to carry with it any degree of security is that of constructing before and abaft the citadel "passages" or "shafts" in the centre line of the ship immediately under the armoured deck, having one end opening upwards into the inside of the citadel above the water-line; these passages extending as far as the last compartment at each extremity of the vessel, and being the only means of communication with the lower compartments aft and forward. The entrance to each separate compartment would have its water-tight door, and the pumping out and ventilating pipes of each compartment would also be led directly into the passage. A shaft so placed would be in as secure a position as possible from the disruptive effects of a successful ram or torpedo attack. Another source of danger which may appear in action and which requires attention is a panic in the stokehole. This may be said to apply principally, if not only, to ships fitted for forced draught, where the stokehole is closed in air-tight, and the pressure in it raised above atmospheric pressure by means of fans. It should be considered essential in all ships that a means of escape be provided for the stokers up the funnel casing, or some convenient passage; if this is not done, the knowledge that they are hopelessly shut in may lead to a panic, and cause great confusion, if not actual disaster. One of the chief anxieties to a commanding officer in battle will be to keep the necessary command of speed on his ship, as the failure of the engines at a critical moment might be fatal. This failure could result from several causes, not the least serious of which would be a panic in the stokehole. The conning tower, or captain's turret, is the place from which the ship herself is managed, and from which the various weapons are directed. A ship without an efficient conning tower may be compared to a man without an efficient head-piece; and yet, until quite recently, few matters affecting the fighting efficiency of the ship have had less attention paid to them. The essentials for efficient conning and directing arrangements may be thus summarised. A strong armoured tower with armoured wings at its corners, as complete as possible in all its internal communications and appliances, with a clear serviceable bridge or platform round it, from the position of which the captain has full control of the armoured tower, and is best placed for manoeuvring and fighting his ship. As a matter of actual construction the conning tower with its bridge may be considered of comparatively minor importance; but in the design of a ship of war its position should be early decided upon, and to it all other external arrangements, whether with reference to guns, funnels, boats, or masts, should be subservient. He had said a good deal on this subject because it so greatly affects the fighting efficiency of the ship from the captain's point of view. The protection against torpedoes, which comes most directly under the heading of the paper, the author stated to be that obtained by giving greater strength to the bottom of the ship with a view to its resisting the destructive effects of submarine explosions. So long ago as 1869, Sir Edward Reed propounded and established the principle of constructing the hulls of armoured ships as lightly as possible, so that a greater proportion of the weight of displacement might be devoted to armour, armament, equipment, &c. Torpedoes were then in their infancy, and the idea was to submit to having the outer skin of the ship blown in by a torpedo, and to trust to double-bottom and other compartments to prevent her being seriously damaged. This principle appeared to be still in vogue; but since locomotive torpedo attack has now so greatly developed, would it not be

prudent to reconsider the question, and put more strength into the construction of the ship's bottom, even at the expense of reducing the weight of armour to be carried? We cannot hope to obtain sufficient strength to resist the effect of a charge of dynamite or gun-cotton ignited when actually in contact, but with stronger bottoms, and perhaps the introduction of some plan by which the blow on the outer skin might be cushioned, a fair amount of safety would be secured against such explosions when the mine is not in contact.

The discussion which followed was opened by Sir E. J. Reed, who spoke in high terms of the paper, the rather, as it appeared, because there was nothing in it which he had not himself suggested long before. He hardly agreed, however, with Captain Noel as to the advantage of carrying armour plates forward to strengthen the ram. They might, on the contrary, be a source of weakness, as in the case of the sinking of the *Grösser Kürfurst* by the *König Wilhelm*. The bow of the latter ship was caught in the side of the former and wrenched to one side. The armour plates acted as a fulcrum, and the ram was literally rooted out of the ship with a fearful destruction of the bows. Brass stems were quite as strong as iron stems. The galvanic action was, however, to be looked on with doubt; and while on the point he might say that he did not like coppering iron ships. He added a hint, that as regarded water-tight doors, ships of war were becoming so complex, and there was so much to be thought of about them, that they were really getting beyond the control of men; and it was too much to expect that nothing would be forgotten in times of danger and excitement. Concerning conning towers, he liked Captain Noel's ideas; for twenty years he had been trying to get the notions of naval men on the subject, but no two of them agreed as to what they wanted. There were plenty of suggestions, but no definite expressions of opinion. A very able Prussian officer held that external shelters were essential. As to torpedo attack, he would be disposed to make the inner skins of double-bottomed ships thicker than usual, the outer thinner, so as to explode torpedoes as far from the ship's true side as possible.

Mr. Samuda spoke in favour of gun-metal. He was testing a ram just then, and its tensile strength was 18 tons to the inch, and it was much more elastic than iron. He held that the ram would be very little used in modern warfare, because few officers would take the responsibility of sending a great ship and hundreds of men at one stroke to the bottom of the sea. The moral influence would be too great to admit this. The attacks of torpedoes must be prevented by auxiliary craft such as those suggested by Captain Noel.

Mr. Barnaby said there were three or four cases in which ships had been rammed, and had not sunk. As to the strength of skins, a keen discussion had been raised concerning the *Iron Duke* and the *Vanguard*. But the former had been ashore twice, and yet she was tight and strong, though her outer skin had been much injured. H.M.S. *Iris* had been ashore recently and damaged her outer skin, but she was quite tight, and would be easily repaired at Malta. As for the small ships wanted for torpedo defence, he advocated their construction, but Parliament would not vote the money.

Mr. White praised the paper, and commenting on water-tight doors, he said that the great difficulty was to keep them out of a ship, openings were so much wanted; and in the time of danger they were sources of weakness. The loss of the *Vanguard* had done much good, by stimulating improved drill constantly practised. He liked Capt. Noel's conning tower, but he feared its weight would be more than could be allowed in an ironclad. After a few words from Admiral de Horsey—who held that ramming would be the great feature in future warfare—and Captain Noel had briefly replied, and a vote of thanks had been passed, a paper was read by Mr. James Dunn

ON BULKHEADS.

The author dealt with vessels of the mercantile marine, and submitted three propositions for consideration:—(1) Is the subdivision of a merchant ship by watertight bulkheads practicable, and consistent with commercial requirements? (2) Can these bulkheads be made sufficiently strong to withstand the pressure of water under all circumstances? (3) Are bulkheads of any value in securing floating powers for the ship in the event of damage from collision or other causes? He began by sketching the history of bulkheads, and went on to consider the forces acting on bulkheads. He assumed one compartment laid open to the sea by the tearing of the side plating, and we shall have—(1) The statical pressure due to the given depth of water in the hold when the ship is at rest and no cargo on board. (2) That due to the pressure when the holds are wholly or partially filled with cargo, and the ship still at rest. (3) That due to the extra pressure when the ship is under way, or alternately rising on the crest or falling to the hollow of a wave. (4) That due to the rolling, pitching, and 'scending of the ship herself. He then considered the effect of these strains, and said that in constructing bulkheads the very general practice is to adopt the rules laid down by Lloyd's Registry, which provide for plating $\frac{1}{16}$ in. in thickness for a 1000 ton ship, to $\frac{7}{16}$ in. in thickness for the largest class. In the smaller ship the plating is stiffened with vertical angle bars, with flanges of 3 in. and $2\frac{1}{2}$ in. in width, and $\frac{3}{16}$ in. in thickness, placed 30 in. apart; and for the largest type of ship, with the thicker plating, these vertical stiffening bars are still placed 30 in. apart, but the flanges are each $4\frac{1}{2}$ in. wide, and their thickness is increased to $\frac{7}{16}$ in. Where a deck exists, it of course acts as a longitudinal stiffener or prop; and where the internal arrangements dispense with a deck, but where the distance between the horizontal angle bar at the head of the bulkhead and the floor exceeds 8 ft., an angle bar equal to the main frame of the ship is rivetted to the bulkhead on the opposite side to that on which the vertical stiffeners are placed and arranged horizontally; and where this distance exceeds 12 ft., two such stiffeners are provided, and so on, the number of them being added to as the depth increases.

These arrangements, he submitted, if efficiently carried out, should be sufficient to enable the bulkheads to hold their own in ships of the narrower type; and, as a fact, we know they have actually withstood the test under severe trials. Three years ago 50ft. was a great beam, but we have now an Atlantic liner, with a beam of 57ft.; and the time had come for us to consider what additional means must be adopted to secure the safety of bulkheads. He urged now for ships of great breadth, and for bulkheads of great area, that a vertical web-plate should be fitted at the middle line, say, from 12in. to 24in. in depth, with angle bar flanges, and secured to the bulkhead and to the several decks and the floors; and some of the angle-bars between it and the sides of the ship replaced by good stiff bars of a Z section. He next contended that bulkheads are useless if not wisely placed, nor carried high enough, nor efficiently cared for; they are useless when found, as he had found them, with stiffeners cut, with rivets omitted, with caulking neglected, with plates removed, with large holes cut for small pipes to pass through, with sluice holes and no covers, with doors and worthless securities, or with open doors rusted and unmanageable, or with doors in the holes fastened open in such a way that they cannot be closed without "handling," and are out of reach at the moment of danger. He would go further, and say that they are not only useless, but that under some circumstances they are positively dangerous. This might, perhaps, be thought a serious and startling assertion; but he would take the case of a ship illustrated by Fig. 1—and there are many such ships now afloat—in which a good number, a really large number of bulkheads, are provided and distributed as shown, but three of which, it will be seen, are stopped at the deck, which is awash. The bottom gets damaged and springs a leak, say in No. 1 hold, or in No. 2 hold, or in both; and how many such cases had they known where the water enters and gains on the pumps, and slowly, but surely, rises to the top of the dwarf bulkhead, causing the ship to trim as indicated in Fig. 2. The water is then free to flow over the top of the bulkhead and pour into the next hold, the effect of which is inevitably to send her head first to the bottom. The author held that such a ship would keep afloat with the water in No. 1 hold and in No. 2 hold, provided it is confined by the bounding bulkheads being carried a few feet higher than the natural level. What this natural level is, and to what height the bulkhead should be carried, are points readily determined by the naval architect. But if they are not carried up, but are left as shown—and in too many cases they are so left—then the author held they had better not be in the ship at all, as they would contribute to her loss by keeping the water at one end of the ship and carrying her bows under; whereas, if they are not fitted, the same volume of water entering as is indicated in the preceding diagram, and not being confined to one end, will distribute itself through the ship all fore and aft, in which case the trim is preserved, and she will still float in the position indicated in Fig. 3. Here, although the freeboard is reduced, she will still be seaworthy; the fires may be kept burning and the machinery going sufficiently long to bridge over the space dividing life from untimely death. Taking two other cases, in one of which the bulkheads were well placed and cared for, and proved that under such conditions they may be of the greatest value; the other case is in all respects a contrast. In the first case they were placed in the positions and carried to the height indicated in Fig. 4. A steamer of nearly 5000 tons ran into this ship in a fog, struck her abreast No. 3 bulkhead, opening up two compartments to the sea; but, fortunately, the bulkheads had been carried to a reasonable height, and the water could not get beyond them; they stood the test, she did not sink, but she kept afloat at the trim shown in Fig. 5, and in this condition steamed 300 miles safely into port. Happily, they are now getting a number of such ships, and many similar facts giving actual beneficial results might be placed before them if time would permit, so he would consider the next case, where we have the same number and a similar disposition of bulkheads as in the previous case; but, unfortunately, some of them are rendered valueless by being stopped at or about the water-line, as indicated in Fig. 6. This sketch represents a large number of first-class steamers now afloat, and should such an accident happen to any of them as has just been described, they would certainly not have the good fortune to complete their journey, as in the last case; but the water, not being confined to the two holds numbered 2 and 3, as it was in the previous case—which is an actual one—will pour over the top of the dwarf bulkhead into the foremost hold, and the ship will soon get into the position indicated in Fig. 7. Water will then be reported to be making in the engine-room, if, indeed, she should not disappear before then. The author then referred to models exhibited at Spring-gardens. The models are loaded with weighted wood blocks, the blocks being of a bulk to represent the cargo in a passenger ship floating at an ordinary load draught with each compartment below the upper 'tween decks appropriated to cargo, having one half its space occupied—a condition ordinarily assumed at the Admiralty when determining whether a ship is qualified for the Admiralty List—and they fairly represent such a ship as regards their measure of stability. A hole is made through the bottom plating, to represent an actual hole about one square foot in area, and eight feet below the water surface in each compartment, and a plug is placed in it, so that by removing a plug any part of the model may be laid open to the water. The first, which we will call B, or the badly bulkheaded model, very soon disappears after the withdrawal of any one of the plugs, because the water rushing in soon rises to the level of the water outside, and is then, or before then, free to flow over the top bulkhead into the adjoining hold. Take, for example, the plug out of the bottom in way of No. 1 hold. But if the corresponding hole in the good, or G, model is opened up, the water soon gets in and finds its level, but it is then confined between the bulkheads, and the model remains afloat in the position indicated in G. Whatever experiment is made in this direction with the B model,

the result is the same, viz., she goes down; so we will dismiss her from further consideration, and go back to the G model. Her position with the forward compartment filled is shown in sketch G₁, and that sketch also represents the trim she would take if the damage were to occur in the second hold from forward instead of the first, because, although this No. 2 hold may be and often is the larger, it is nearer the centre of gravity of the water plane, the leverage is less, and the effect on the trim is modified. Take another case, and open up both the forward holds, Nos. 1 and 2. Of course, we expect that the ship will then go down, because the alteration of trim will be so great that the top of the boiler-room bulkhead, although carried to the upper deck, is dragged below water, and the engine-room becomes filled; and thus we have the forward three compartments full, which would undoubtedly sink her. But suppose we keep the water out of the engine-room, which we can do by making water-tight the casing round the funnel and engine-room hatch to, say, 8ft. above the deck. In smooth water the ship would have buoyancy and stability, even when in this damaged state, and would float, as indicated in sketch G₁₁. As an illustration of the great general importance of the subject of bulkheads in merchant steamers, the following statistical details and deductions should be of interest. The advantages of good subdivision are broadly indicated in the annexed table:—

	Average number in existence during six years ended December, 1882.	Average annual loss from all causes during six years ended December, 1882.	Average loss per annum.
Ships qualified for the Admiralty List	157	1½	1 in 86
Ships not qualified for the Admiralty List	8483	186	1 in 25

These figures are very significant. It appears from them that the chances of loss from any cause are nearly four times as great for a ship not constructed to qualify for the Admiralty List as for a ship entered on that List. This proportion is greatly due to the almost absolute immunity from loss by collision of ships on the List, for during the first four and a-half years of its existence not one ship was lost from it by collision, although a considerable number of the qualified ships had been in collision, and escaped foundering on account of the safety afforded by their bulkheads. Within the last year, however, they had had six casualties to ships on the List, and among them was our only loss by collision. In that case the whole of the ship—a small one—was flooded abaft the engine-room, the two after holds being opened to the sea. This was a case such as they have no merchant steamers afloat capable of surviving. During this time the whole of the losses from the Admiralty List—eleven in number—have been from drifting on rocks, or otherwise drifting on shore, with the solitary exception above quoted. In the same period seventy-six ships have been lost which had been offered for admission to the Admiralty list, but had not been found qualified; of these, seventeen, or 22½ per cent., were lost by collision, and ten, or 13¼ per cent., were lost by foundering; most of the rest stranded or broke up on rocks. That the general superior character of the ships on the List is of no value in reducing the risk of collision is shown by the following comparison. It can be proved that of the entire British mercantile fleet of steamers, about 1 per cent., without distinction, receive damage of a fatal character by collision during the year. Of the number thus damaged, those on the List remain afloat, while those not on the List are lost. This is deduced from the following figures:—Referring to the table given above, he would take only those cases of collision to ships on the List which would have proved fatal but for their compliance with Admiralty requirements. These are 9, or an average of 1½ per year, giving 1½ in 157, or 1 per cent. of prevented fatal cases. Again, the average number of ships sunk by collision per year from the unqualified part of the fleet is 35, and the average annual record of the fleet for the six years is about 3500, also giving 1 per cent. of—in this case—fatal cases. Thus the risk of fatal collision is about 1 to 100, irrespective of the class of ship, and thus ships on the Admiralty List enjoy almost absolute immunity from loss by this cause. It is therefore proper to consider that the vessels on the List have no natural advantage with regard to their safety beyond that due to their bulkheads.

This was one of the most important and suggestive papers ever read before the Institution of Naval Architects, and it is much to be regretted that it was followed by a discussion quite unworthy of it. Mr. Samuda began by advocating bulkheads, and attacking Lloyds' action in the matter; it was, he said, a noteworthy fact that out of the ships which the Government were led to class as suitable for giving the country aid in case of war, not more than thirty would be found, out of some thousands, which complied with the very reasonable conditions laid down. It was a tremendous fact that no fewer than 550 ships had been lost in 1882 from preventable causes; and even if bulkheads do cost money and are inconvenient, the Government ought to insist on their presence in all ships carrying passengers. Statistics proved that ships properly provided with them were four times as safe as those without. If Lloyds did their duty they would take care that ships had enough bulkheads.

This statement brought Mr. Martell to his feet in defence of Lloyds, and he attacked Mr. Samuda so fiercely that the meeting good-humouredly called him to order. Mr. Martell held that the figures given by Mr. Dunn were misleading, and he used the old argument that the bulkheads would interfere with cargo, affect the shipowner, and so on; and he attempted to defend the want of bulkheads—on the principle, we suppose, that two wrongs make a right—by pointing out that sailing ships, although they carry emigrants, have but one, or at most two, bulkheads in them. Mr. Martell's defence was lame, and he appeared to think so himself. Mr. Barnaby followed, and

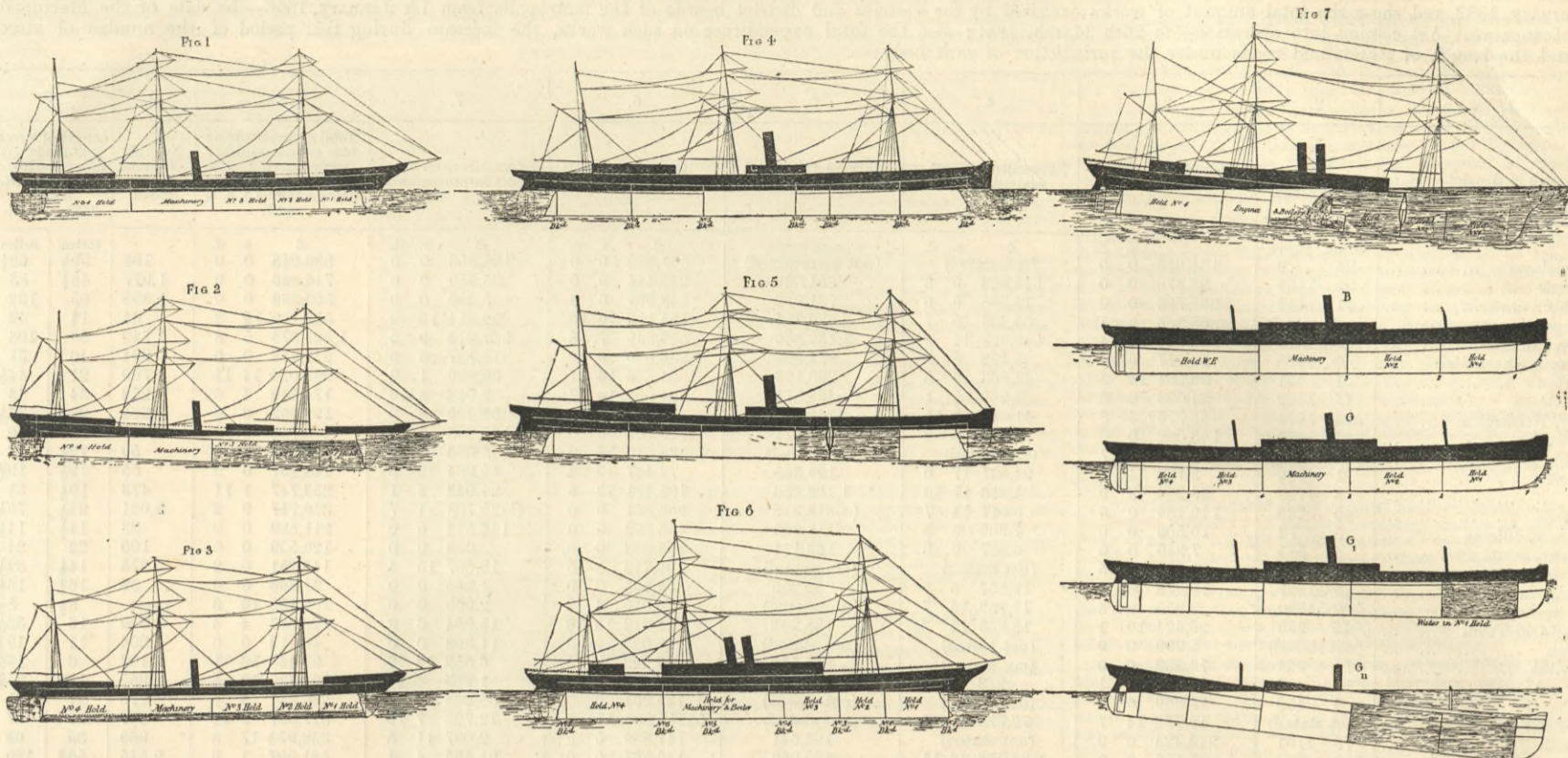
pointed out that it was quite possible to put in enough bulkheads, and that Messrs. Harland and Woolf, of Belfast, were building ocean steamers with as many as twelve compartments. So far from Mr. Martell's argument being sound, that because there was a great tonnage of sailing ships afloat without bulkheads, therefore we need not be particular with steamers, he regarded the statement as revealing a most alarming state of affairs, the case being, on Mr. Martell's own showing, much worse than Mr. Dunn had made out. As to statistics, there was no getting over the fact that of thirty-six ships built in 1876 with an 11-knot speed which had been offered for Admiralty classification, only six could be accepted; of the remainder ten had been sunk by collision, six by springing leaks. Of the six selected four had been lost, but that was because they went ashore. After some remarks, more or less desultory, by Mr. Raylton Dixon, Mr. Withy, and others, Mr. Biles explained that there was no difficulty in building ships with plenty of compartments, in which, nevertheless, it would be possible to stow steel rails 40ft. long. This was effected by making the bulkhead divide a hatch, and the top part of the bulkhead in the wake of the hatch removable. The firm he served were then building ships thus arranged. He did not think pumping power would do much good, as the "ceiling" of ships had to be made watertight to keep the cargo from bilge water, and there was no means by which the water in a compartment could get into the bilge to flow to the pumps. Mr. John held that this was a shipowners', not a shipbuilders' question, and that the value of Mr. Dunn's paper would be great, as it would educate shipowners. But he did not think the Government could interfere with emigrant sailing ships. Mr. Macginess gave an interesting account of the effects of a leak on a ship with which he had something to do; she was laden with grain, and coming out of an Indian harbour, bumped on a rock, owing to a heavy ground swell, in a shallow place. The grain swelled when it got wet and started one bulkhead and crushed in the screw shaft tunnel. The water got into two compartments, but the engine-room bulkhead, sprang so much as to relieve the pressure, and the ship steamed ninety miles to another port and was saved.

Mr. Dunn having replied briefly, a vote of thanks was passed, and Mr. Thornycroft read his paper.

ON EFFICIENCY OF GUIDE-BLADE PROPELLERS.

During the years 1879 and 1880 the author said he had made experiments with guide-blade and other propellers, using models of small dimensions. These models indicated some advantages to be derived from the use of guide-blade propellers, and his firm has since fitted H.M. torpedo vessel Lightning with a propeller of that kind, and built a shallow steamer for the Congo, with a hull specially formed to suit the requirements of the propeller when used for very shallow draught. He now proposed to give a short account of the results obtained with the models, and afterwards with the propellers as fitted to the vessels before named. The models used were from 5in. to 11in. diameter, and were adapted to use from ¼ to 1-horse power, at a speed of 4½ knots. In order to experiment with these models, a launch was fitted with a small shaft projecting directly forward from the bow into water which might be considered as almost undisturbed by the motion of the launch through the water, and the small shaft was driven by an engine with suitable gearing, to allow the turning moment exerted on the shaft to be continuously recorded, the shaft at the same time being free to move lengthwise a short distance, without hindrance, and allow the thrust of the propeller to be measured simultaneously. The launch was propelled principally by another engine, driving a screw at the stern, and the speed of this latter was found to measure the speed of the launch very nearly. A distance of 300ft. was measured on the bank of the river; the time running this distance, the revolutions of the main and experimental propellers, the turning moment and thrust of the model were all recorded on a sheet of paper held on the drum, which was independently driven, while short intervals of time were marked on the paper by a clock. A great many experiments were made with this apparatus, which was found to work well, and in order to compare the efficiency of the guide-blade models with simple screws under as near as possible similar conditions, models of screws were made of larger diameter than their rivals, in a proportion that would use about the same power when working at their best speed. The results obtained will be found in the Table No. 1. In this table the particulars of some of the propellers tried are arranged for each propeller in vertical columns, and headed by a number by which each propeller will be known. Nos. 2 and 11 are described as common propellers, and are of uniform pitch throughout their propelling surface, having an oval-shaped blade as in common use, and these were made for comparison with the other propellers tried, as a sort of standard by which the merits of the other propellers could be measured. Nos. 3 and 10 are screw propellers with the blades thrown back, and the radial centre line of the blade is convex on the driving face. These are described on the table as Thornycroft No. 1. Nos. 6, 7, and 9 are guide-blade propellers, having blades and guides much like those proposed by the Hon. Richard Parsons, but having also another feature which is important to ensure success. This consists in a large boss, which gradually contracts the area of the stream flowing through the propeller, and is followed by a body which gradually allows the accelerated stream to unite. This table only contains the results of a portion of the models tried, but they have been selected as being those of the greatest interest, and giving the highest efficiency. The first column in the table will, the author hoped, explain itself for the most part, but in it there are some terms used which require explanation. He believed Mr. Froude was the first to show that there was a particular speed of running for any screw propeller which gave the best results, and that this speed corresponded to that which gave about 20 per cent. slip. This speed of turning is recorded on the table in the line marked "revolutions at maximum efficiency," and is calculated for a speed of four and a-half knots, at which speed the launch

DIAGRAMS OF BULKHEADS.



was run in the experiments given. The line "thrust at maximum efficiency" is the thrust of the propeller available for propulsion at the before-named rate of turning and speed through the water. But the figures in this line refer to propellers of various diameters, and cannot therefore directly give any relative idea of the thrust of the several propellers. Another line has therefore been prepared, marked "thrust due to 12in. diameter," and gives the relative performance when the diameters are equal. The line marked "velocity due to pitch of leading edge" is of interest, as it shows how far the idea has been realised of making the leading edge of the propeller cut the water without striking it. In comparing the three types

at 910 revolutions instead of 600, and the efficiency will be only '36, or about half its proper value for the propeller. In examining the velocity due to the leading edge of the various propellers, No. 10 has a slight excess over the undisturbed stream, which stream is equal to 4½ knots, and in No. 10, in which the form is changed so as to give a greater increase of pitch in the width of the blade, the speed of the forward edge is less than 4½ knots, but the efficiency is reduced. In the guide blade propeller the speed of forward edges is greatly less than the initial speed of the stream in which they work, except in one of large diameter—No. 7—designed for a lower thrust, the contraction of the stream being less as the same size of

boss was placed in a larger tube. It would appear that the amount of contraction obtained in the models 6 and 9 is that best suited to propellers where a high efficiency is required, which cannot be sacrificed to give increased thrust. Table No. 2 gives some particulars of the Lightning. The first column relates to the vessel when fitted with No. 3 propeller, and the other columns to the same vessel as afterwards fitted with No. 6, propeller, No. 6, in the second column having three blades instead of two. It will be observed that co-efficient obtained with the new propeller is good, except in the last experiment; and the Admiralty intend repeating this experiment, as there appeared to be some considerable falling-off in speed

TABLE I. Dimensions of Model Propellers, and Results obtained.

Name of propeller.	No. 2.	No. 11.	No. 3.	No. 3.	No. 10.	No. 10.	No. 10.	No. 10.	No. 10.	No. 10.	No. 6.	No. 6.	No. 7.	No. 9.	No. 9.	No. 6.
Date of experiment	July, '79	July, '80	July, '79	—	June, '80	July, '80	July, '80	Aug., '80	Aug., '80	Aug., '80	Sept., '79	Sept., '79	Nov., '79	April, '80	April, '80	June, '80
Type of propeller	Common.															
Diameter of propeller	7½	11.32	9	9	11.32	11.32	11.32	11.32	11.32	11.32	8	8	8½	8	8	8
Pitch on forward edge	10½	14	9.42	9.42	11	12	11	11	11	11	10	10	17.75	12.23	12.23	10
Pitch on after edge	10½	14	11.14	11.14	13.64	15	14½	13.64	13.64	13.64	19½	19½	21.25	71.6	71.6	19½
Number of blades	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	2	2	2
Length of blades	1½	—	1	1	2½	2½	2½	2½	2½	2½	3	3	3	2	2	2
Obliquity of guides	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3½	3½	2½	5	5	3½
Number of guides	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	6	6	6	6	6
Length of guides	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	6	6	6	6	6
Length of casing	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	1½	1½	1½	1½
Diameter of boss	2½	2½	2½	2½	2½	2½	2½	4½	3	2½	4½	4½	4½	4½	4½	4½
Length of body from maximum diameter	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Velocity due to pitch of leading edge	6.04	5.17	4.65	—	4.62	4.7	4.43	5.2	4.75	4.6	4.1	3.62	5.83	3.52	3.77	3.7
Thrust in pounds due to 12in. diameter	12.6	12.1	12	—	16.3	23.4	16.8	22.5	19.1	16.3	31.5	26.4	21	32.6	50.6	22.5
Revolutions at maximum efficiency	700	450	600	1100	510	475	490	575	525	510	500	440	400	350	375	450
Thrust at ditto	5½	10½	6½	17½	14½	20½	15	20	17	14½	14	11½	11½	14½	22.5	10
Maximum efficiency	.659	.616	.705	.49	.635	.63	.614	.56	.63	.64	.665	.663	.645	.577	.53	.644

of propellers experimented on, it will be seen that the efficiency does not vary much between them, the lowest being the simple screw with uniform pitch. The experiments, however, do not show clearly which propeller should take the highest place in efficiency, for although No. 3 propeller gives .705, No. 10 of the same type gives only .635 on one hand, and .64 when tried again; while No. 6, 6., and 6., give respectively .665, .663, and .644. The propeller No. 3 had long narrow blades, which were inconvenient, and did not allow the engines to be run as fast as has since been found necessary to fully utilise the capacity of the engines in the first-class torpedo boats, which are now fitted with propellers having wider and shorter blades, giving greater speed for the same boat and engines. No. 10 is a model of the propeller now used in the second-class torpedo boats built by his firm, and was tried against a model of the common screw of the same size, No. 11 in the table; the result being considerably in favour of No. 10, which gave an efficiency of over .635. In the comparison of efficiency if we may exclude No. 3 and take only those propellers that may be run at a high turning velocity, the guide blade propellers are the best, and Nos. 6, 6., give above .66. These propellers require to run too fast for the engines if fitted to the first-class torpedo boats, and the Lightning was fitted with one of the form of which 69 is a model, the efficiency in this case being about .64. The experiments on No. 3 in table indicate the same propeller as No. 3, but the trim of the experimental launch was altered so as to allow the ends of the blades to just break the surface of the water, as described by Professor Reynolds in one of his papers read at this Institution. If this propeller is used to do the amount of work it can do best, when properly immersed (namely, exert a thrust of 6½ lb. at 4½ knots), when breaking the surface of the water and giving the same thrust, it will require to run

TABLE II. H.M. Steam Torpedo Vessel Lightning.

	Stokes Bay.	Thames.	Stokes Bay.
	May 22, 1877, No. 3 Propeller.	No. 6, Propeller. April 26, 1881.	No. 6, Propeller. June 2, 1881.
			Jan. 1880, No. 6, Propeller.
Displacement	28 tons	34 } tons about	34 tons
Indicated H.P.	400.8	384	428
V ³ D ²	147	151	118
I.H.P.	—	151	118
Revolutions of engines per minute	354	390	423
Speed in knots	18.54	17.7	19.02
Time required to make complete circle	{ S 3-50 } Full Power { S 3-13 } Half Power { P 3-48 } Power	—	{ S 1-53 } { P 1-34 } { S 1-3 } { P 1-3 }
Diameter of circle in yards	155 } Half Power 155 } Power	—	{ 104 } Full Power { 92 } Half Power { 94 } Power
Diameter of propeller	5ft. 10in.	3ft.	3ft.
Number of blades	3	3	2
Immersed surface per ton displacement at 34 tons displacement	—	24.1	24.1

TABLE III. Shallow Draught River Steamer.

	October, 1882	18 October, 1882
Date	October, 1882	18 October, 1882
Displacement	9.23 tons	9.2
Slip	44.1 p.c.	—
V ³ D ²	85.2	112
I.H.P.	—	112
Revolutions per minute	480	—
Speed in knots	10.49	8.8
Diameter of propeller No. 9	16in.	16in.
Number of blades	2	2
Immersed surface per ton displacement at 9.8 tons displacement	61.3 sq. ft.	61.3 sq. ft.

during this trial. With regard to steering, the improvement is very marked, and the power of turning the boat against any extra resistance, which the trials do not show, is even more marked. The author called attention also to the great reduction in the diameter of the propeller used, 5ft. 10in. reduced to 3ft. In the Lightning the propeller is enclosed in a tube which carries the guide blades within its after-end, and the part which has been described as the body is carried by the rudder, of which it forms a part. In order to ensure ample steering power, the tube was fitted with two curved pieces fitting against the outside on either side, and these were so actuated as to come out and form an additional rudder when the helm was put over to any considerable angle, remaining in their places, however, for small angles of the tiller. The author then described a shallow river steamer, propelled by two guide blade propellers, the hull being specially formed to adapt the propellers to a very shallow draught. A hull of such dimensions has a very large immersed surface for the displacement, being in this case 61.3 square feet per ton, and very unfavourable to the displacement co-efficient. When this fact is allowed for, he thought we must consider that this boat gives a good result, but the most curious thing connected with this shallow steamer is that when one engine and propeller only are used, and the other propeller is still on the boat, and not turning, the performance of the vessel with one propeller appears to be better than when both are used; at the same time, their very small diameter must be remarked, and also the moderate speed of engines required. But in order to attain this last result, it was necessary to use a form of blades with exceedingly long pitch—see col. 6, in table; this entailed reduced efficiency only .577, and rendered the action of the propeller very imperfect when going astern, but the way of the boat could be stopped in about two lengths.

LONDON STREETS AND SEWERS.

We give the following figures because they supply information often wanted and not easily obtained. They illustrate very fully the enormous growth of the metropolis. It will be understood that they do not include "the City."

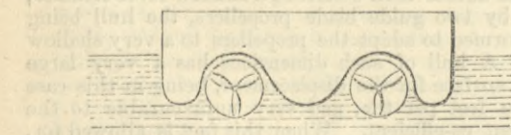
Table with 10 columns: 1. Parish or district, 2. New sewers constructed, 3. Cost of new sewers constructed, 4. Expenditure on other sanitary works, 5. Superficial area of paving laid down, 6. Cost of paving works, 7. Expenditure on other street improvements, 8. Total expenditure on new sewers, sanitary works, paving, and other improvements, 9. Number of street lamps added, 10. Length of streets and roadways under control of vestry or district board. Rows include various parishes like St. Marylebone, St. Pancras, Lambeth, etc., ending with a Totals row.

(a) Exclusive of macadam and gravel roadways. (b) Further improvements now in progress, authorised by the Kensington Improvement Act, 1880, not included. (c) Total for wood paving only laid since 1874. (d) Superficial area not given; length of streets, &c., repaved, 34 miles 1729 yards. (e) Includes cost of road repairing. (f) Up to 25th March, 1882.

No discussion followed; the paper was read too late in the day and to a thin audience. Several persons thanked Mr. Thornycroft, and Mr. F. C. Marshall expressed the sense of the meeting when he said that such papers could not be discussed offhand, and hoped that in future the papers would be in the members' hands a few days before they were read, so that they might be mastered and checked. This concluded Wednesday's business. Our account of yesterday's proceedings we must reserve for our next impression.

It may be well to explain that Mr. Thornycroft's deflector consists of a tube with a projection behind, in which tube the screw is placed, as shown in the annexed sketch. Here A is the tube fixed in the dead wood, or in the rear of the stern front; B is the screw; E screw shaft; D D deflectable blades fixed in the tube; C a fixed solid block, same diameter as the screw boss. It will be noticed that the increase

of thrust obtained was very great, but the advantage was to a large extent neutralised by the friction of the water passing through the ring A. The velocity of the water driven astern is augmented, and this is flatly opposed to the principle which Rankine has laid down, and on which it is worth while to insist here that, other things being equal, that is the best propeller which drives the largest quantity of water astern at the lowest velocity. The second sketch shows the cross section of the Congo river steamer.



This remarkable craft draws but 12in. of water, and yet steams at 12 miles an hour, propelled by two tiny screws. The remarkable fact is that she gets on as well with one screw as with them both—at least, so Mr. Thornycroft gave his hearers to understand. Possibly he meant not that her speed was so high, but that her coefficient was as good.

THE "LAWRENCE" ENGINE.

In our issue of February 23rd we mentioned that the Edison Electric Light Company, which is about to light the corridors of the House of Commons, would use for that purpose an American engine, and we learn on inquiry that this will be one of the

Lawrence engines, made by Messrs. Armington and Sims, and by the Builders' Ironfoundry Company, both of Providence, Rhode Island. These companies are now making nearly all the engines required by the Edison Company in America, and they are kept at their utmost capacity in doing so.

The Lawrence engine has found particular favour with Mr. Edison, who has in conjunction with the patentees, Messrs. Armington and Sims, introduced modifications which, we are informed, render it perfectly steady in speed under the greatest variations of load and steam pressure. Fig. 1, page 208, is a perspective view of the "Lawrence" engine, which is made in all sizes up to 225-horse power single, and double up to 450-horse power. The cylinder diameters vary by half-inches, the smallest being 6 1/2 in., several of the strokes being what may be called "square" stroke and diameter being equal, and thus the piston speed in sizes below 9 1/2 in. by 12 in. is kept below 550 ft. Above that size a speed of 600 ft. is arranged for all. The bed-plate is of the bent girder type, but in certain of the small sizes is of the double bearing shape, with double fly-wheels, and is only remarkable for its stiffness, the ribs being 2 1/2 in. thick, following the best practice in high-speed engine building in which the best results are obtained from what might appear disproportionately heavy castings.

The cylinder is illustrated in section in Figs. 2 and 3, and a clear view of the piston valve and short ports is given, while the valve itself is shown in perspective in Fig. 4 and the steam chest in Fig. 5. The valve has no packing rings, but is a tube enlarged at each end, and after being turned and having the steam edges finished, it is ground to size with a lead lap. Steam is taken around the outer middle part of the valve, which is thus in equilibrium, the exhaust taking place over the ends and into a Y branch pipe that is led vertically downwards. The small bonnets at each end of valve chest enable the valve to be got at without removing the main cover. The valve in the 125-horse power engine is 5 1/2 in. diameter, and having double admission opening, gives a port opening equivalent to 30 in. long by 2 1/2 in. in width. The working travel of this size would be 3 in., with an extreme of 5 1/2 in. The valve motion is so arranged that the steam admission can be varied by the governor from the lead of 1/2 in. to the 9/16th of the stroke. The piston is made very light and has two rings. The crosshead, Fig. 6, is of cast iron with gibs at bottom, which are to be set out with liners as wear takes place. The crosshead pin is of steel, running through a steel bush flattened top and bottom. The crank disc is shown in section in Fig. 7. It is shrunk on to the shaft with 1/1000ths of an inch per inch of diameter allowed in making it. The shaft is of "gun iron" or air furnace cast iron, and the disc is shrunk upon it before finally being trued up. The Builders' Ironfoundry Co. use this gun iron for all the castings of these engines, having made considerable use of the material for many years past.

The governing arrangements consist of two eccentrics on the main shaft, each of which is movable and controlled by the action of two suspended weights contained in a drum—see Figs. 8 and 9. These parts are all carried on the main shaft, C and B being movable on the shaft itself, and the weight E carried on a pin going through a hole at A by the regulator drum. When the weight E is by the rotation thrown outwards it carries by means of the link the outer eccentric B in the direction indicated by the arrow. But the inner eccentric is by the outward motion of the opposite weight carried in the opposite direction. Thus the one eccentric changes the throw and the other the real

centre of the combined or double eccentric. Another weight on the opposite side is used merely for balance, and is fastened to the inner eccentric C. The returning or balancing springs are not shown, but are arranged to be always in compression, always being seated upon a small bracket through which a rod passes and takes hold of a cap on the opposite end.

The lubricating arrangements are worked out with considerable care, as is necessary in high-speed engines of any kind, their success in continuous running depending largely upon this detail. The oiler used is one shown in Figs. 10 and 11, the former for the guides, the latter for the crank pin. The supply of oil may be regulated by merely screwing up or down the cover, and fresh oil inserted through the small hole in the cover. The crank pin oiling arrangement is shown in Fig. 12. The cup is mounted on a stirrup of steel carried by an arm in a bracket, and around the outside of this stirrup are stretched two thicknesses of fine lamp wick. Each time the connecting-rod head comes up, the blade in the oil cup on it wipes along the unsupported lamp-wick and takes a small portion off it. The crosshead pin is similarly lubricated. The lubricator shown on the steam pipe in the perspective view is one that we believe has not been previously illustrated, and is the Siebert "sight-feed" lubricator—see Figs. 14 and 15—made by the Siebert Cylinder Oil Cup Company, Water-street, Boston.

A horizontal pipe A is brought from the main steam pipe outwards, then fitted with cock L and turned down as at F. In this unprotected pipe the steam condenses, and the water column thus formed is admitted by valve J to the under side of a cup D filled with oil, the only escape being at the top through a central vertical pipe leading to gauge glass E, which communicates by pipe B and valve K with a lower part of the main steam pipe. The gauge glass being also filled with "condense water," the oil passes from the small interior pipe with a velocity due to the head of water in pipe F up through the water in the gauge glass, being readily seen in doing so, and being capable of all ranges of regulation from a steady stream to one drop in three minutes.

There is now running at the Waterloo Terminus of the South-Western Railway a Lawrence engine driving two Edison 60-light dynamos and lighting some 120 Edison incandescent lamps. This machine, which is 15-horse power nominal, is running 300 revolutions per minute, and at that rather trying speed is perfectly satisfactory and steady. It has a double disc crank and a bearing on either side of remarkable length, as are all the bearing parts, and the governor is fitted to the arms of one of the two fly-wheels, actuating a single eccentric with apparently excellent results. A 20-horse power Field vertical boiler supplies the motive-power, and the whole installation is in one-half of an arch under the Windsor side of the station, the other half of the arch being occupied by the Brush dynamo and Wallis and Steeven's semi-portable employed in lighting the main line and new station.

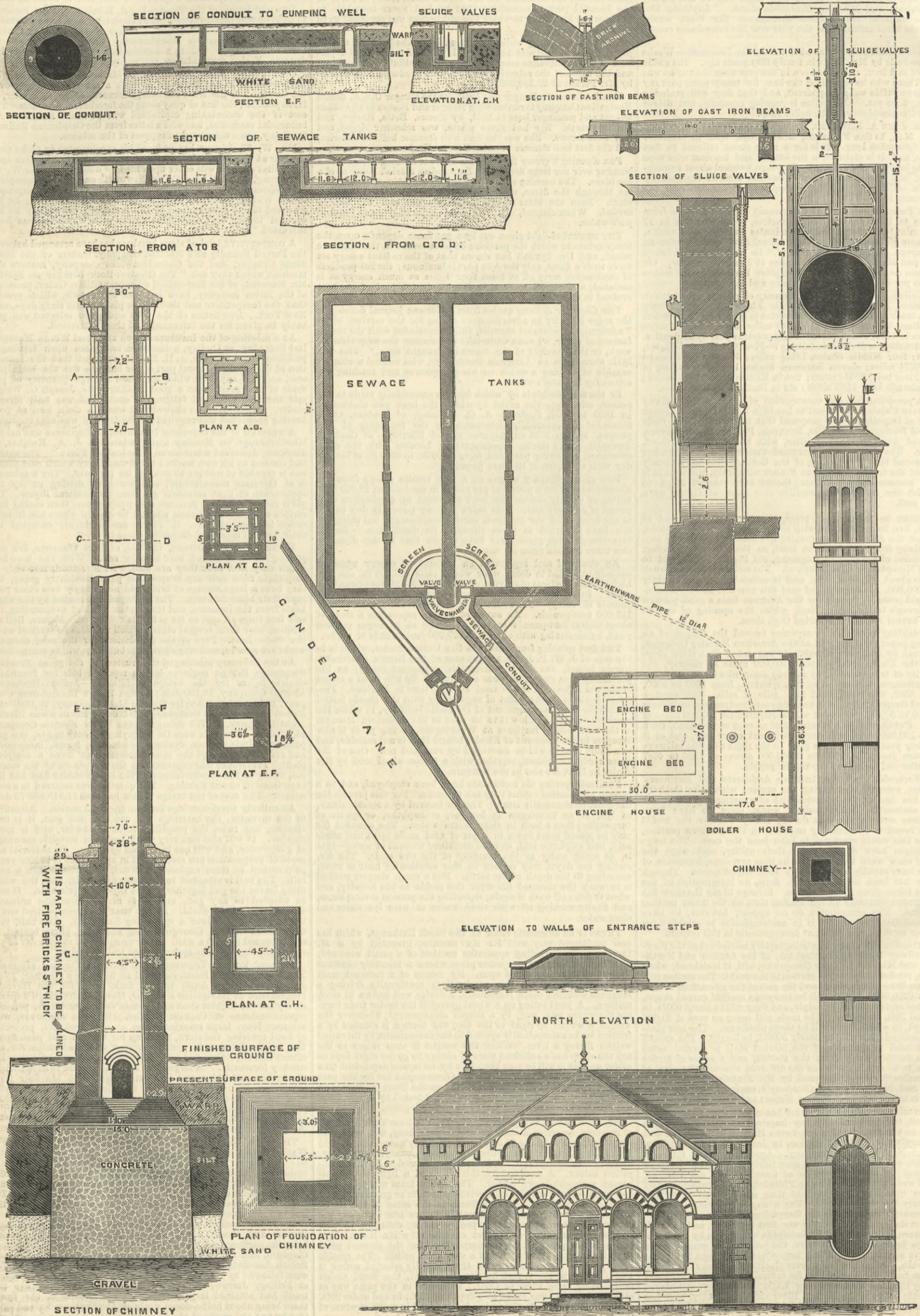
It seems a pity that American, instead of English engines, should be used for these purposes.

LAUNCH.—The s.s. Kowshing was launched from the Barrow Shipbuilding Company's yard on Saturday last. The boat is the property of the Hindoo and China Steam Packet Company, is 250 ft. long, 39 ft. beam, and 28 ft. depth of hold, with a gross tonnage of 2150. She will accommodate sixteen first-class, 154 intermediate, and 142 steerage passengers. Her cylinders are 38 in. by 76 in., and the stroke 45 in. Her nominal horse-power is 2000.

WHITWOOD SEWAGE WORKS.—ENGINE-HOUSE AND TANKS.

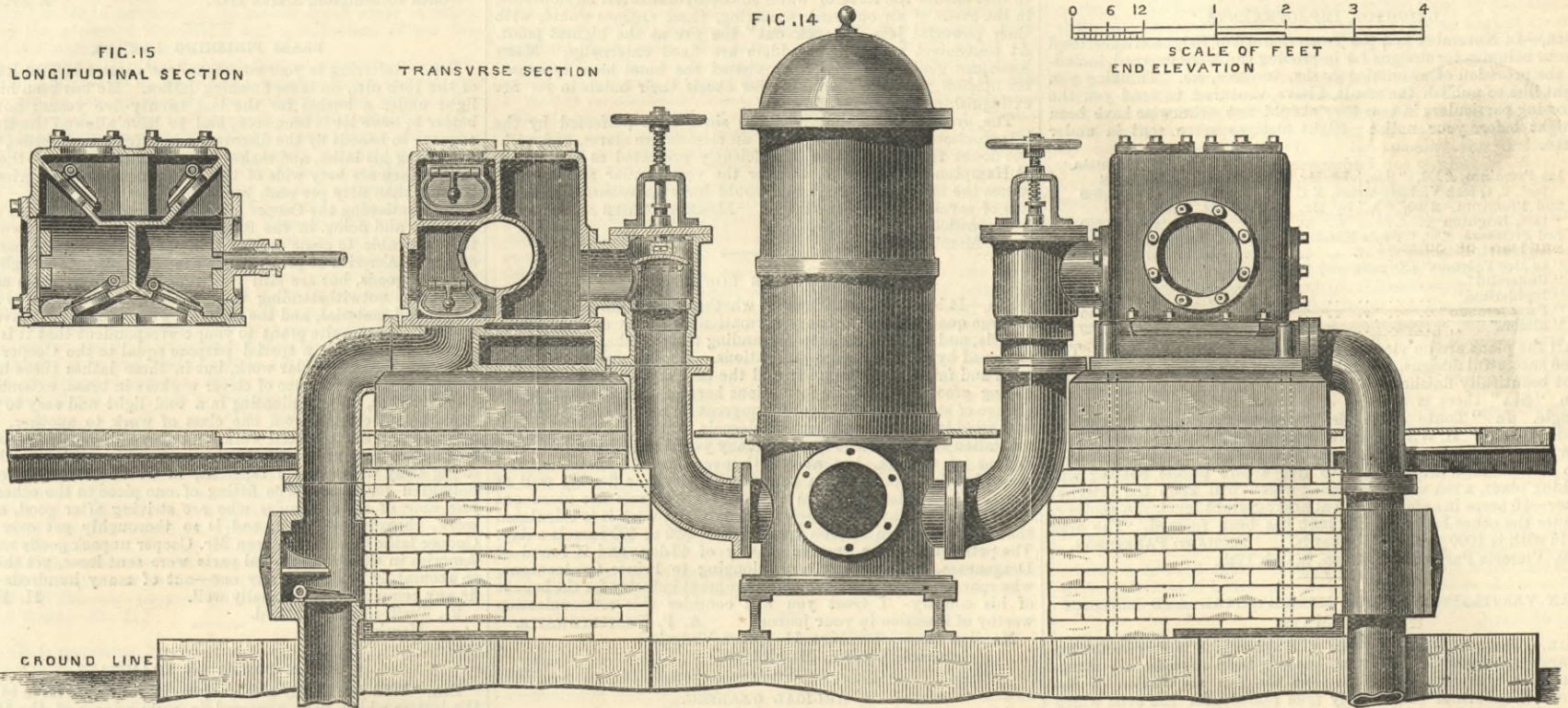
MR. J. RICHARDSON, M.I.C.E., ENGINEER.

(For description see page 205.)



WHITWOOD SEWAGE WORKS.—DETAILS OF PUMPS.

MR. J. HORNE, CASTLEFORD, ENGINEER.



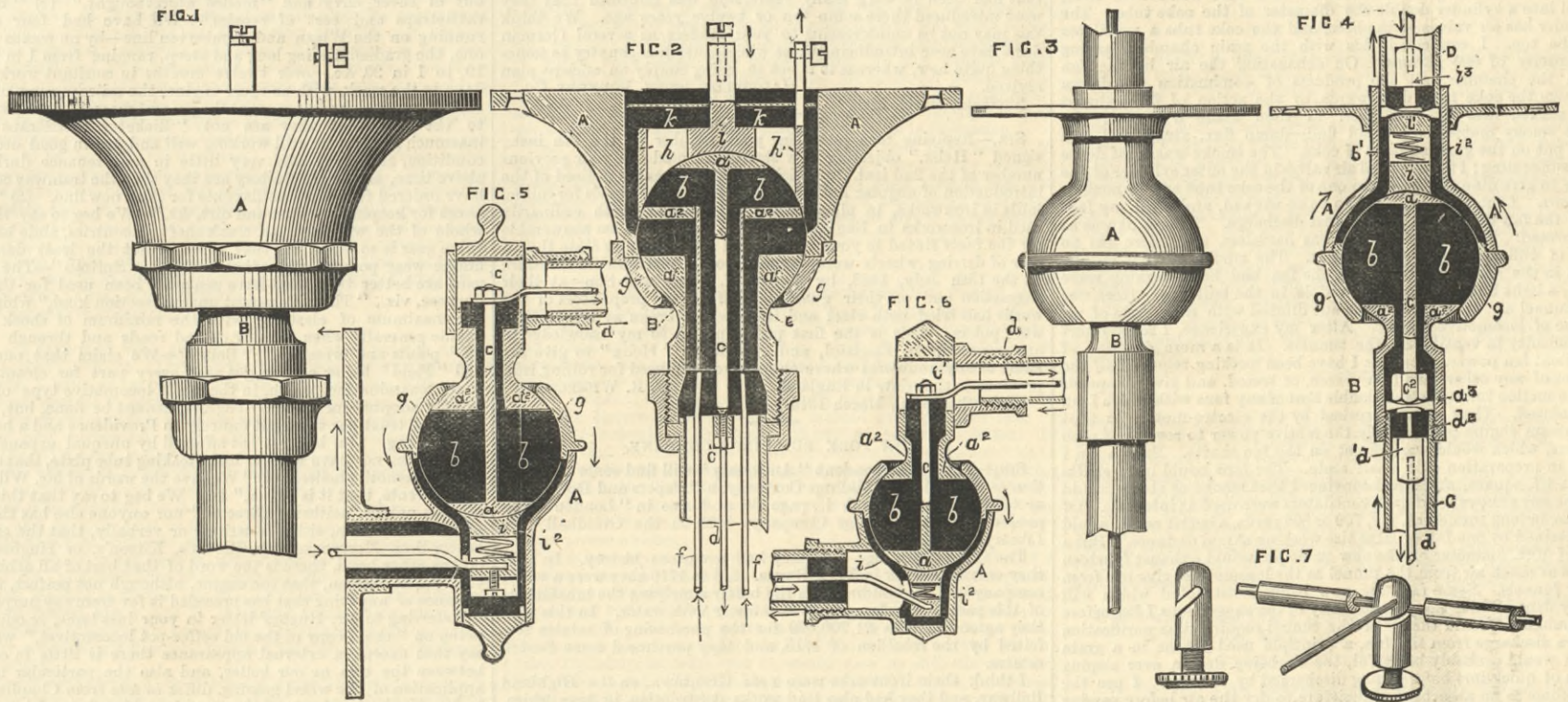
In our last impression we described the Sewage Works at Whitwood, Yorkshire, and gave illustrations of the pumping engines. We now give above engravings of the sewage pumps, and on page 204 an elevation of the engine-house and plans of

the sewage tanks, &c., showing the general arrangement of the works. These explain themselves with what we have already written on the subject.

The sewage pumps are 14in. diameter by 12in. stroke. They

deliver 30,000 gallons per hour on the sewage farm through 2300 yards of 12in. main, through an elevation of 68ft. The works form an excellent example of what small sewage works ought to be.

BREWTONNALL'S SUSPENSION FOR ELECTROLIERS.



The object of this invention, by Mr. A. Brewtonnall, of Streatham, is to enable the principle of the ball-and-socket joint to be applied to the suspension of electroliers and to the mounting of other swinging or movable fittings for the electric light by providing through the medium of this joint for the maintenance, unbroken, of the electrical circuit, when the electrolier or other fitting is swung or rotated. This is attained by constructing the ball, and its socket, in segments, of metal, separated from one another by segments, zones, or parts of insulating material, the metallic segments or portions of the socket corresponding to similar segments or portions of the ball, and in contact therewith over a sufficient extent of surface to permit of the free motion of the ball in its socket without breaking the electrical connection between the corresponding segments or parts.

The joint is illustrated in the accompanying engraving, in which Fig. 1 is an elevation, and Fig. 2 a central vertical section, of one arrangement of ball-and-socket for the suspension of an electrolier. In this arrangement the ball-and-socket are constructed of a sufficient number of zones or segments to afford a return circuit without using for this purpose the external metal of any part. Figs. 3 and 4 are similar views of a ball-and-socket in which the external metal is used for the return circuit. Figs. 5 and 6 respectively show the application of the ball-and-socket joint to the first and intermediate joints of wall brackets. In these figures the arrangement is similar to Fig. 4, but the arrangement shown in Fig. 2 might equally well be employed if it is not desired to use the external metal for the return circuit. In all these figures the same letters of reference indicate corresponding parts.

A is the socket and B is the ball. In Fig. 2 the ball is composed of three horizontal metallic segments, a , a^1 , a^2 , separated from one another by two insulating segments b . The segment a is attached to a central stem c , which leads through the neck of the ball, and is connected by a nut e to the wire d leading to the lamp. To the intermediate metallic zone or segment a^1 is soldered a metal tube e , which also leads through the neck of the

ball and terminates in tangs, to which are connected the return wires f from the lamp. The segments b of insulating material are also carried through the neck of the ball and surround the rod c and tube e , and insulate them from one another, and from the third segment a^2 . This third or lowest segment takes the wear, and rests in the corresponding gland g of the socket A. This third segment a^2 serves for the attachment of the main stem of the electrolier in the ordinary way. This socket contains an annular metallic lining h , which exactly coincides with the zone or segment a^1 of the ball, and is insulated from the outer portion of the socket, as shown. To this lining h the return wire is connected at h^1 ; i is a central stud, having its lower surface concave to the radius of the ball, so as to make good contact with the uppermost segment a of the ball. To this stud the positive wire from the generator is attached, and the stud is insulated by a disc of vulcanite, and is pressed into contact with the segment a of the ball by a disc of soft india-rubber k beneath the vulcanite, and bearing upon a shoulder of the stud. This india-rubber disc k also bears at its edges upon the annular lining h , and presses it likewise into contact with the segment a^2 . Thus it will be seen that there is perfect freedom for complete rotation, and also for oscillation to any desired extent, of the ball in the socket, without liability of breaking the electrical connection.

In Fig. 4 there are only two metal segments a and a^2 , separated by a segment b of insulating material, as shown. The segment a is attached to a central stem c , as before, but the stem terminates in a nut c^2 screwed on it, this nut being a sufficient distance within the socket a^3 of the part a^2 to enable the joint to be made as next described; d is the leading wire, fixed at its upper end into a stud d^1 , embedded in a plug d^2 of insulating material, filled into a coned seat in the end of the main stem C of the electrolier, from which the stud d^1 projects slightly, so that when stem C is screwed into its socket a^3 , electrical connection will be made between c and d . The concave stud i , which presses on the segment a of the ball, is

divided into two parts, i^1 , i^2 , connected by a metal spring i^3 , which answers the purpose of the india-rubber disc k in Fig. 2. The joint of the leading wire from the positive pole of the generator is made by an insulated stud i^2 pressed against i^1 in the act of screwing the tube D —which incloses said wire—to the socket A. In this arrangement it will be seen by the arrows that tube C , segment a^2 of the ball, gland g , socket A, and tube D serve as the return conductor. The tube D may be replaced when desired by a terminal.

Figs. 5 and 6 show the application of the same joint to the joints of wall brackets. The essential parts of the joint being identical with those before described, need no further description, and the slight modification necessary in the bracket itself to adapt it to receive these joints will be apparent from the drawing without special explanation.

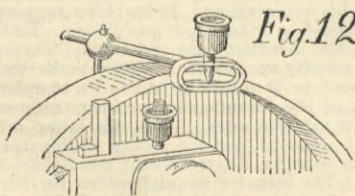
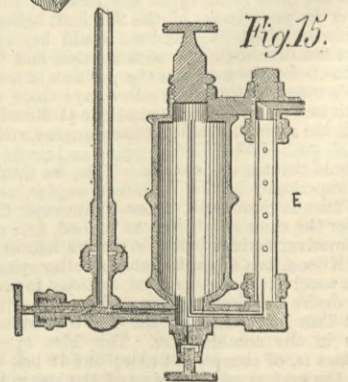
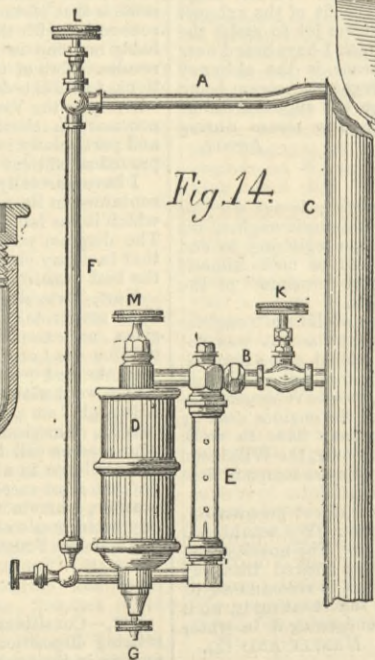
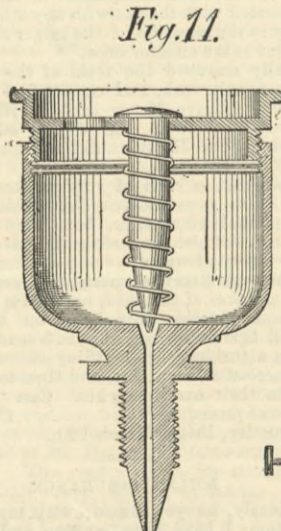
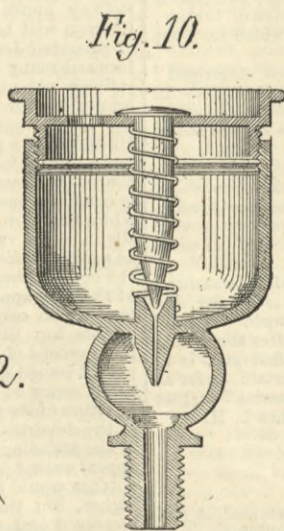
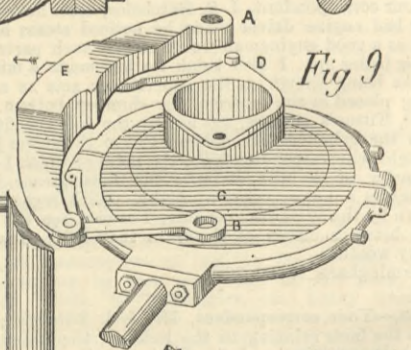
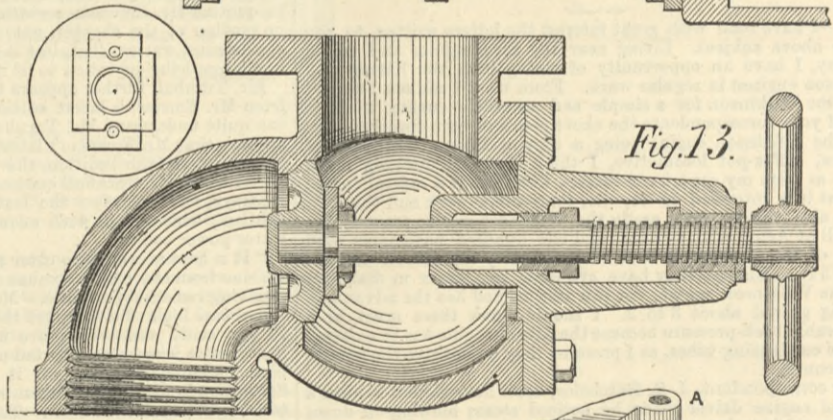
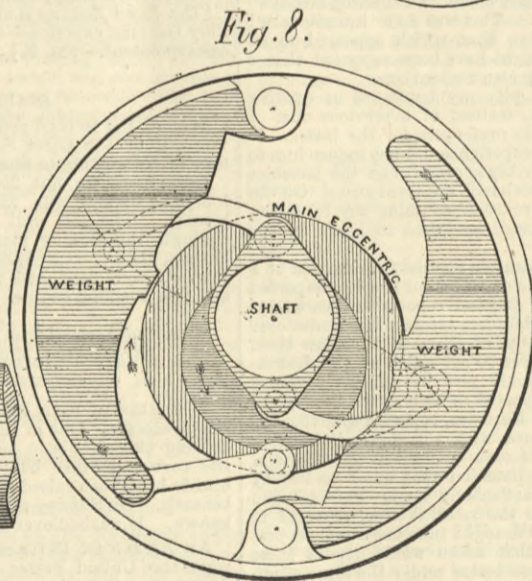
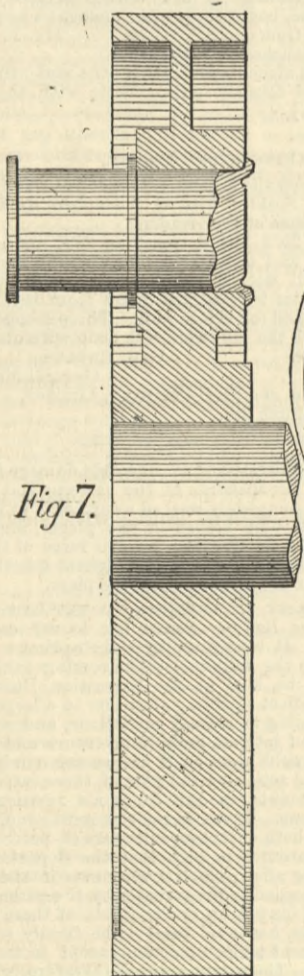
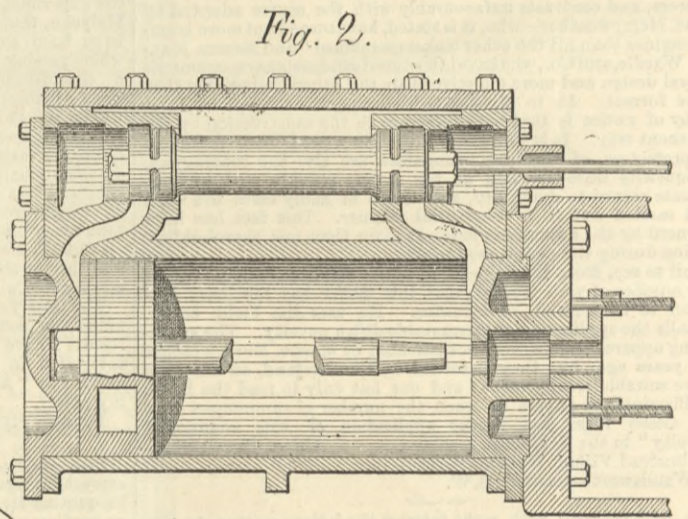
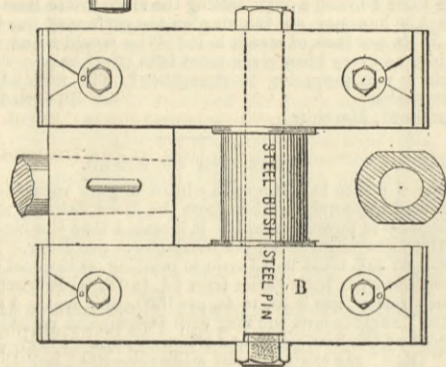
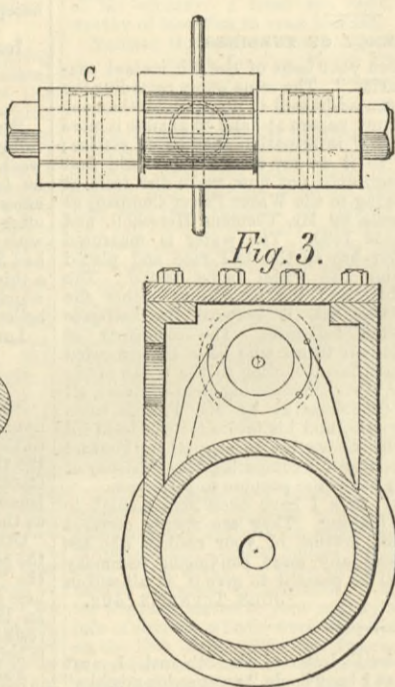
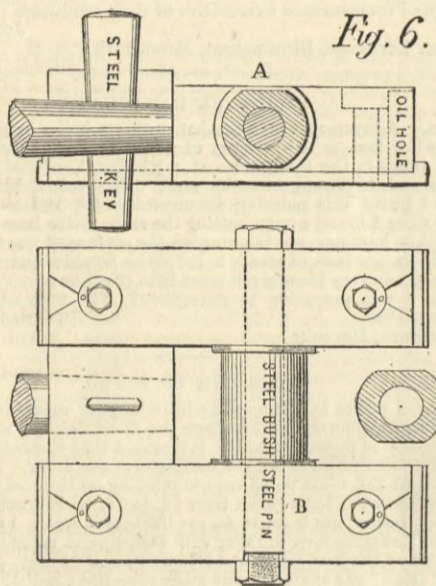
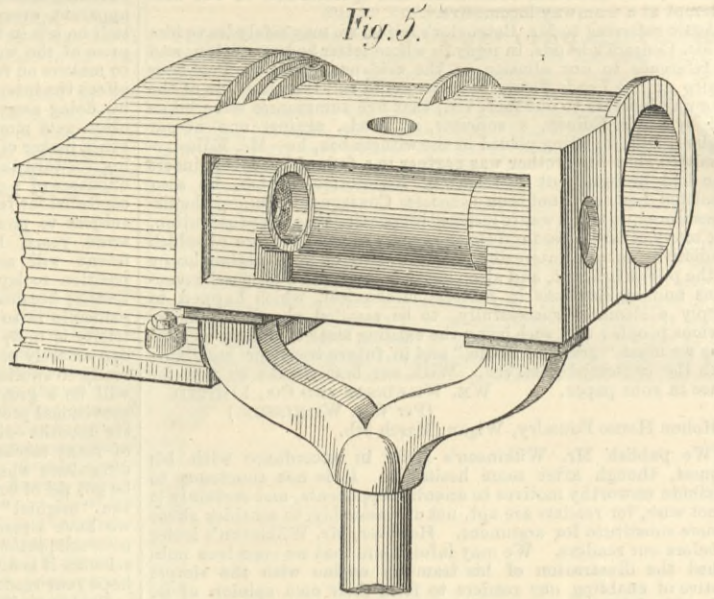
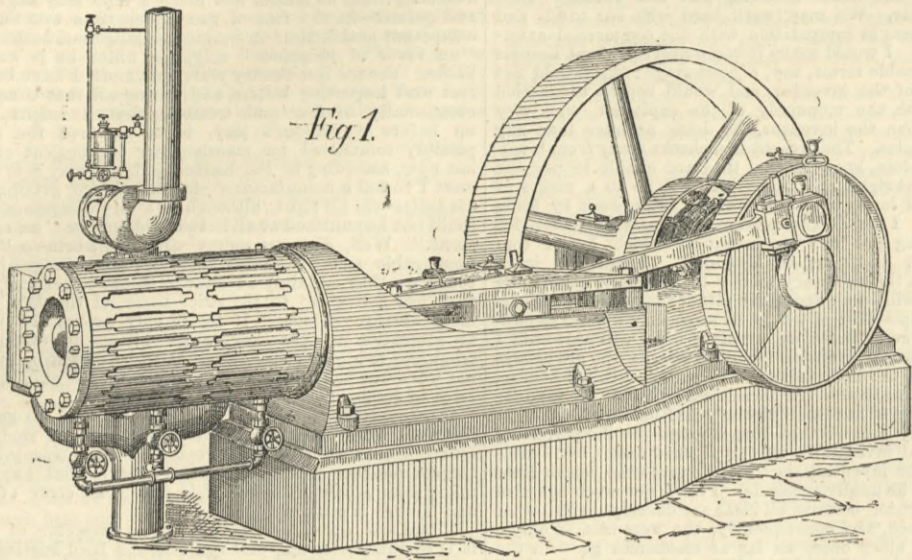
Fig. 7 shows one of Brewtonnall's patent connectors for joining branch to main wires, slightly modified to suit the requirements of telegraph offices for connecting up the various instruments both on submarine and land lines. The drawings will sufficiently explain its use.

The idea of the Elbe and Baltic Canal is gradually ripening toward realization. Of the two projects for its construction, that of the Hamburg capitalists is regarded with most favour. The rival scheme is promoted by a company mainly composed of English shareholders.

LAUNCH OF THE TWIN-SCREW STEAMER NORWICH.—Last week Messrs. Earle's Shipbuilding Company launched at Hull a fine twin-screw steamer named the Norwich, for the Great Eastern Railway Company's service between Harwich and Antwerp. The principal dimensions of the vessel are:—Length between perpendiculars, 260ft.; beam, 31ft.; and depth of hold, 15ft. The first-class cabin, which is amidship and fitted with all the latest improvements, will accommodate eighty-four passengers, and the second-class cabin forty-two. The ship will be propelled at a speed of 14 knots by two pairs of inverted diagonal compound surface condensing engines. Steam will be supplied by two double-ended boilers at a pressure of 80 lb.

ELECTRIC LIGHT ENGINES AT THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT.

(For description see page 202.)



FOREIGN AGENTS FOR THE SALE OF THE ENGINEER.

PARIS.—Madame BOYVEAU, Rue de la Banque.
 BERLIN.—ASHER and Co., 5, Unter den Linden.
 VIENNA.—MESSRS. GEROLD and Co., Booksellers.
 LEIPZIG.—A. TWIETMEYER, Bookeller.
 NEW YORK.—THE WILLMER and ROGERS NEWS COMPANY,
 81, Beekman-street.

PUBLISHER'S NOTICE.

** The Publisher begs to announce that next week THE ENGINEER will be published on THURSDAY instead of GOOD FRIDAY. Advertisements intended for that number must be forwarded not later than Six o'clock on Wednesday evening.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

** We cannot undertake to return drawings or manuscripts; we must therefore request correspondents to keep copies.
 ** All letters intended for insertion in THE ENGINEER, or containing questions, must be accompanied by the name and address of the writer, not necessarily for publication, but as a proof of good faith. No notice whatever will be taken of anonymous communications.

LOEDIS.—We believe that it is not refunded.
 CHARCOAL.—A letter lies at our office for this correspondent.
 VORTEX (Birmingham).—A letter lies at our office for this correspondent.
 A. C. T.—You cannot get into workshops at all to learn your business without interest, as you do not propose to pay a fee.

STRENGTH OF SHACKLES AND HOOKS.

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)

SIR,—I shall be obliged to any reader who can tell me where I can find published information concerning the properties, strength, and weight of shackle pins and hooks for use with chains.
 C.
 Chesterfield, March 14th.

SUBSCRIPTIONS.

THE ENGINEER can be had, by order, from any newsagent in town or country at the various railway stations; or it can, if preferred, be supplied direct from the office on the following terms (paid in advance):—

Half-yearly (including double numbers) £0 14s. 6d.
 Yearly (including two double numbers) £1 9s. 0d.
 If credit occur, an extra charge of two shillings and sixpence per annum will be made. THE ENGINEER is registered for transmission abroad.

Cloth cases for binding THE ENGINEER Volume, price 2s. 6d. each.
 A complete set of THE ENGINEER can be had on application.

Foreign Subscriptions for Thin Paper Copies will, until further notice, be received at the rates given below:—Foreign Subscribers paying in advance at the published rates will receive THE ENGINEER weekly and post-free. Subscriptions sent by Post-office order must be accompanied by letter of advice to the Publisher. Thick Paper Copies may be had, if preferred, at increased rates.

Remittance by Post-office Order.—Australia, Belgium, Brazil, British Columbia, British Guiana, Canada, Cape of Good Hope, Denmark, Egypt, France, Germany, Gibraltar, Italy, Malta, Natal, Netherlands, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, New South Wales, New Zealand, Portugal, Roumania, Switzerland, Tasmania, Turkey, United States, West Coast of Africa, West Indies, Cyprus, £1 16s. China, Japan, India, £2 0s. 6d.

Remittance by Bill in London.—Austria, Buenos Ayres and Algeria, Greece, Ionian Islands, Norway, Panama, Peru, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Chili, £1 16s. Borneo, Ceylon, Java, and Singapore, £2 0s. 6d. Manilla, Mauritius, Sandwich Isles, £2 0s.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

** The charge for Advertisements of four lines and under is three shillings; for every two lines afterwards one shilling and sixpence; odd lines are charged one shilling. The line averages seven words. When an advertisement measures an inch or more the charge is ten shillings per inch. All single advertisements from the country must be accompanied by a post-office order in payment. Alternate advertisements will be inserted with all practical regularity, but regularity cannot be guaranteed in any such case. All except weekly advertisements are taken subject to this condition.

Advertisements cannot be inserted unless Delivered before Six o'clock on Thursday Evening in each Week.

Letters relating to Advertisements and the Publishing Department of the paper are to be addressed to the Publisher, Mr. George Leopold Riche; all other letters to be addressed to the Editor of THE ENGINEER, 163, Strand.

MEETINGS NEXT WEEK.

THE INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.—Tuesday, March 20th, at 8 p.m.: Ordinary meeting. Papers to be discussed, "The Productive Power and Efficiency of Machine Tools and of other Labour-saving Appliances Worked by Hydraulic Pressure," by Mr. Ralph Hart Tweddell, M. Inst. C.E. "Stamping and Welding under the Steam Hammer," by Mr. Alexander McDonnell, M. Inst. C.E. Paper to be read, "Summit-level Tunnel on the Bettws and Festiniog Railway," by Mr. William Smith, M. Inst. C.E.

SOCIETY OF ARTS.—Tuesday, March 20th, at 8 p.m.: Foreign and Colonial Section, "Social and Commercial Aspects of New Zealand," by Mr. William Delisle Hay. Sir Charles Clifford will preside. Thursday, March 22nd, at 8 p.m.: Applied Chemistry and Physics Section, "Self-Purification of River Waters," by Mr. W. N. Hartley, F.R.S.E. Professor F. A. Abel, C.B., F.R.S., will preside.

THE METEOROLOGICAL SOCIETY.—Wednesday, March 21st, at 7 p.m., the following paper will be read:—"Notes on a March to the Hills of Beloochistan in North-West India, with Remarks on the Simoon, and on Dust Storms," by Mr. Henry Cook, M.D., F.R.G.S., F.M.S. At 8 p.m. the meeting will be adjourned, in order to afford the Fellows and their friends an opportunity of inspecting the exhibition of meteorological instruments for travellers, and of such new instruments as have been invented and first constructed since the last exhibition. During the evening the President—Mr. J. K. Laughton, M.A., F.R.A.S.—will give a short discourse on the instruments exhibited.

DEATHS.

On the 10th inst., at 9, Melville-crescent, Edinburgh, JOHN GEDDES, Mining Engineer, in his 83rd year. Friends will please accept this intimation.

On the 10th inst., at Brighton, JOHN PLEWS, C.E., third son of the late John Plews, C.E., aged 58.

THE ENGINEER.

MARCH 16, 1883.

THE TRANSMISSION OF POWER BY ELECTRICITY.

THOSE who have read with due care the series of papers by Professor Oliver Lodge "On the Transmission of Power by Electricity," now in course of publication in our pages, are, no doubt, by this time competent to pronounce an opinion concerning the value of various schemes much talked of for utilising in one locality power generated elsewhere at a distance. It will not be out of place, however, to put what Professor Lodge has told the readers of THE ENGINEER in a somewhat different light. We have nothing to add to what he has said concerning the numerical values of certain results and the mode of calculating the power which may be realised under given conditions. But it may be as well that a few of the general principles involved should be put in a very clear light indeed before a public which, if we are not mistaken, will ere long be tempted to invest money in schemes of no small apparent promise and importance. The prominent idea is the utilisation of water power. Turbines or

wheels are to be erected in various parts of the country in all sorts of out-of-the-way and inaccessible places. These wheels are to drive dynamos, and the dynamos are to produce currents of electricity, which are to be employed in actuating motors which are to drive machinery. This, for example, is the foundation of the enterprises of M. Marcel Despretz, concerning which something has already been said in our columns. Nothing will be lost, and something may be gained, by explaining in a few words what all this means. The dynamo depends for its action on the fact that if a coil of insulated wire is carried close past the poles of the magnet, one current of electricity will be generated in the coil as the wire comes under the influence of the magnet, while another and opposite current may be said to flow as the coil goes out of the influence of the magnet. Considerable resistance is offered to the motion of the coil either into the field of influence of the magnet or out of it, and it is in overcoming this resistance that work is done by the engine driving the dynamo, and the resistance bears a certain relation to the current produced. Now, if instead of driving a dynamo with a steam engine we send a current of electricity through its wires, if—that is to say, we reverse the original process—then the dynamo will revolve, and a belt from a pulley on its axis will transmit power and drive machinery. The first question which springs to the lips of the engineer who learns this truth for the first time is, "How much of the power expended in driving the first dynamo can I get back from the second or driven dynamo?" and it is to answering this question that Professor Lodge has mainly addressed himself. It will be seen from what he has said, that the answer depends on many things; but above all, it depends on the dimensions and insulation of the wire by which the current of electricity is led from one machine to the other.

A current of electricity is made up of two factors—first, quantity; secondly, potential, or, as it is now beginning to be called, pressure. There is an analogy between the action of water and that of electricity, in that the power of both to do work depends on the two factors pressure and quantity. A very small quantity of water under great pressure can do much work; so can a large volume of water under a small pressure. In the same way the frictional electrical machine produces an extremely minute quantity of electricity, but at a tremendous pressure. The quantity is, however, so small that it can do little or no work; and the frictional electrical machine has only been utilised in the arts to supply sparks to explode primers in blasting operations. On the other hand, dynamos may be made to supply huge quantities of electricity at so low a tension as to be useless for all purposes of driving machinery. Now the resistance of a wire or other circuit to the flow of a current of electricity is, so far as is known, proportional only to the quantity. Thus, with a given size of wire, and a given impulse or pressure, a given quantity of electricity can be sent. By doubling the wire in sectional area twice the quantity will be transmitted with the same driving power, and so on. When electricity has to be transmitted to a distance it is better to increase its tension than its quantity, because a much smaller wire will suffice. The power being constant, the sectional area of the wire may be continually diminished as the pressure, or tension, or potential, call it what we will, of the current increases. For this and for other reasons very fully explained by Professor Lodge, it is essential that electricity of high tension should be used if the power is to be transmitted without great loss over long distances. Pressure is expressed in terms of volts, current in amperes, or more strictly in coulombs, which mean amperes per second. Thus, in any given case we have first to ascertain the resistance to be overcome by the electricity in passing through the transmitting core. Let us call this, for the sake of illustration, 1000 ohms, although nothing like this resistance will be met with in practice. Next we have to ascertain the pressure. Let us suppose this to be 100 volts, then $\frac{100}{1000} = 0.1$, that is to say, 100 volts can only force one-tenth of an ampere per second through a resistance of 1000 ohms. Multiplying our 0.1 ampere by 100, the electro-motive force, we have 10, and dividing this by 746, we have, by a well-known formula, $\frac{10}{746}$ of 1-horse power. If our readers have

followed us thus far they will perceive that every wire has a certain co-efficient, as we may term it, which controls the power that can be sent through it, and, the resistance being known, the power transmitted becomes purely a question of volts and of nothing else. Doubling the volts much more than doubles the power, the resistance being a constant. Thus, if, instead of 100 volts, the electro-motive force in the foregoing case, we suppose that we have 1000 volts, then the figures will stand $\frac{1000}{1000 \text{ ohms}} = 1$ ampere, which, multiplied by 1000 volts, and divided by 746, gives us $\frac{1000}{746}$, or over 1.34-horse

power, and this is just what would be expected; for not only is there a larger quantity of electricity passed through the wire, but that electricity is delivered at a higher pressure at the working end. Just the same result could be achieved by keeping down the resistance. Let us, for example, suppose that we go back to our 100 volts, but that we reduce our resistance from 1000 ohms to 10 ohms, we have then $\frac{100 \text{ volts}}{10 \text{ ohms}} = 10$ amperes, and 10 amperes multiplied by 100 volts gives 1000 and $\frac{1000}{746} = 1.34$ -horse power as before. Here we see that the same end is attained by augmenting electro-motive force—expressed in terms of volts—ten times, or by reducing the resistance—expressed in terms of ohms—100 times. The reduction in resistance of a wire of any given metal can only be effected either by shortening the wire or by augmenting its thickness, or by doing both. But it is evident that we are prohibited by the conditions from shortening the wire,

because we want to transmit power to long distances; and we are prohibited by considerations of expense from augmenting the thickness of the wire. Consequently we must fall back on the dynamo to get us out of the difficulty, and resort to electricity of high tension. Prof. Lodge has shown that to get an efficiency of 90 per cent. it would be necessary to use electricity with a tension of 200,000 volts. So far as is known, it would be absolutely impossible to produce such a tension. Sparks an inch long would fly from the wire, and there would be no practicable method of insulating it. As soon, indeed, as we attempt to produce high-tension electricity from dynamos, we get into difficulties—the risk of burning up the wires on the armature and field magnets being very great.

To sum up, anyone desirous of embarking in such schemes as that for the utilisation of the water-power of the Rhone, will do well to satisfy themselves that there is a dynamo available for the production of high-tension electricity which will not be liable to rapid destruction. We are perfectly aware that many inventors and makers of dynamos assert that there is no difficulty in producing such a machine. Such a statement may, however, be very misleading. It is quite true that high-tension dynamos can be made; but whether they can or cannot is not the question, but whether they can be made to last, and on this subject there is no positive information of much value extant. Nevertheless, it may be taken as certain that no true progress will be attained in the transmission of power until a machine capable of working with perfect safety up to at least 1500 volts has been placed in the market. Even then, for anything like long distances not more than about 40 per cent. of useful effect can be realised at the motor end of the line. Of course this may be well worth having. Thus, if 1000-horse power of water be going to waste, a manufacturer might be well content if he got 400 of it delivered at his mill ten miles off at a price represented by the interest on his outlay in plant. There is no difficulty in transmitting some power to a distance; but the questions are how much, and at what price, and these, as we have seen, bear the most intimate possible relation to the tension of the electricity produced by the dynamo, and as that is high or low, so may the results be satisfactory, or the reverse. Furthermore, it is to be noted that the resistance augments exactly as the length of the line does. Thus, if it be 100 ohms for a given mileage, it will be 200 ohms for a double mileage, and so on. Even though this is the case it might be worth while sometimes to put down relay stations when the distance is long. Let us suppose, for example, that we have a line whose resistance is 2000 ohms, and that we work with 1000 volts, then we can transmit $\frac{1000}{2000} = 0.5$

$\times 1000 = 500$ and $\frac{500}{746} = .67$ = the horse-power which would

be transmitted, of which .33 could be realised. If, however, we cut the line into two lengths, we could halve the resistance and, as we have seen, would be able to transmit with 1000 volts 1.34-horse power; 50 per cent. of this might be realised, or .67-horse power. This being employed to drive a second dynamo, 50 per cent. of .67, or .33-horse power, might be had. We should thus obtain just the same result as can be had from the single machine driving over the whole wire. If, however, we could increase the efficiency of the machines over 50 per cent. then there would be a decided gain. Now the efficiency will augment, other things being equal, as Professor Lodge has shown, with the electro-motive force, potential, or pressure of the current employed. But within certain limits reducing resistance is equivalent to increasing pressure, but the resistance is reduced by halving the length of the current by putting in a relay, for it is a very different thing to send a current of electricity through one wire with a resistance of 2000 ohms, and to send the same current through two lengths of wire, each with a resistance of 1000 ohms. The system of using relays is well known in telegraph engineering, although a telegraph relay is not the same thing as that concerning which we write; and it may be found quite possible to put relays into long transmission lines in other ways than by the insertion of a motor and dynamo. For example, it is by no means clear that the storage battery may not be used with advantage for this very purpose. The thing gained is, of course, the possibility of transmitting more power over a given distance than can otherwise be transmitted with a given electro-motive force, and the more high tension can be dispensed with in dealing with electricity the better.

DOMESTIC FIREPLACES.

THE construction and working of the domestic fireplace is entitled to a great deal of attention. Every one, rich or poor, has at least one fireplace, so that opportunities for observation are not wanting; and so much has been said, and said continually, in season and out of season, concerning the defects of the existing system of warming our homes, that a strong stimulus is supplied to dwellers in London, at all events, to make changes for the better, if possible. The whole question of burning fuel in open grates in our houses is in a very curious condition. It is known that the air of London and other great cities is polluted by the combustion of fuel used in warming and cooking. It does not require the chemist or the man of science to tell us this; but furthermore, we have been assured that not only is it quite possible to prevent this pollution from taking place, but that we now burn our coal in the most wasteful way, so that it would pay well to burn it properly. This last proposition has been dinned into the ears of the London householder, at all events, for more than twenty years, and the London householder "keeps on never minding." Why is this? Are we to assume that he does not want to change his ways, from pure wrong-headed perversity? or is there some latent and occult cause which operates to make him neglect all that he is told, and steadily refuse to change his practice? To arrive at a correct answer, we must take a somewhat comprehensive view of the whole question. It can never be properly dealt with in anything like a narrow or one-sided fashion.

Those who know anything about the chemistry of foods

have learned that there are good natural reasons for the way in which men combine these foods. Thus, there is a natural relation between bacon and greens, roast meat and bread, oatmeal porridge and milk. It is by no means a mere whim that induces the rustic to combine beans with his fat bacon. In the animal economy beans are the complement of bacon—each supplies something wanted and lacking in the other. In the same way the desire manifested for pure white bread by every nation which can obtain it, and the rejection of whole meal bread when possible, is an instinct. It is not that which we eat, but that which we digest or assimilate, that nourishes and strengthens the body. It is quite true that whole meal bread contains more nutritive constituents in a given weight than white bread does. But the internal organisation of the ordinary man cannot deal with whole meal bread to advantage, and he rejects it in favour of the food which he can digest. There are, of course, persons with admirable digestions who can manage whole meal bread, but others cannot; and no matter how much the virtues of whole meal bread are preached, men will go on eating white bread. Instinct is in this case a true guide to what is best. Now what is true of food is true of a great many other things. It is true of numerous practices which we are told are wrong, but which instinct, backed up by experience, tells us are right. For example, some advocates of fresh air and ventilation assure us that what are known as "draughts" can do no one any harm, and that it is infinitely better to get plenty of cold air than to breathe air reputedly impure. But instinct and experience tell us that the worst that can be got from breathing the air of a badly ventilated room is a headache, while an open window may give neuralgia, or congestion of the lungs. Applying all this to the open-fire question, we assert that the modern English fireplace, and system of burning coals, is, in a sense, the result of an instinct. In other words, the balance of advantage is in favour of the system adopted; so much in its favour, indeed, that it is next to impossible to see how it can be superseded; and not only is the system eminently convenient, it even possesses, regarded from a scientific point of view, advantages over every other system that has ever been proposed; and we hope to show, before we have done, that the Smoke Abatement Exhibition held in 1881 at South Kensington has done more to prove that existing practice is right than the originators of that exhibition ever intended.

There are only two ways in which dwelling-houses can be heated—namely, by high temperature radiant heat, or by hot air. The former is produced by the open fire, and by it alone. The latter is obtained in various ways too numerous to particularise. We may cite one for convenience, namely, the well-known hot water pipe apparatus of conservatories and churches. The question whether we shall use hot air or radiant heat in our rooms is by no means one to be lightly passed over. Instinct tells us to select radiant heat, and instinct is quite right; and it is so because radiant heat operates in a very peculiar way. It is known that as a matter of health it is best to breathe air considerably below the natural temperature of the body—98 deg.; in air heated to this temperature most persons would in a short time feel stifled. But it is also known that the body likes, as far as sensation is concerned, to be kept at a temperature as near 98 deg. as may be, and that very much higher temperatures can be enjoyed; as, for example, when we sit before a fire, or bask in hot sunshine. Now it so happens that radiant heat will not warm air as it passes through it, and so, at one and the same time, we can enjoy the warmth of a fire and breathe that cool air which is best suited to the wants of our system. Herein lies the secret of the popularity of the open fireplace. But in order that the open fireplace may succeed, it must be worked within the proper limits of temperature. If air falls much below 40 deg. it becomes unpleasant to breathe; and it is also very difficult to keep the body warm enough when at rest by any quantity of clothes. In Russia and Canada the temperature of the air outside the houses often falls far below zero, and in the houses it cannot be much above the freezing point. Here the open fire fails; it can only warm air by first heating the walls, furniture, and other materials in a room, and these, in turn, heat the air with which they come in contact. But this will not do for North American winters; and accordingly in Canada and the United States the stove or some other expedient for warming air by direct contact with heated metal or earthenware is imperatively required. But this is the misfortune of those who live in cold climates, and when they ask us to follow their example and take to close stoves and steam pipes, and such like, they strongly remind us of the fable of the fox who had lost his tail. How accurately instinct works in the selection of the two systems is demonstrated by the fact that a succession of mild winters is always followed in the United States by an extended use of open grates; that is to say, the English system becomes, or tends to become, fashionable, while, on the other hand, a succession of severe winters in this country brings at once into favour with builders and others a whole host of close stoves and similar devices which would not be looked at under more favourable conditions of the weather. While English winters remain moderately temperate the open fireplace will enjoy the favour it deserves, as not only the most attractive, but the most scientific apparatus available for warming houses.

We do not pretend for a moment that it is the most economical method of heating; but it is possible to be penny-wise and pound-foolish, and so long as we have an adequate return from the coal burned, it is not necessary that all that return should be made in the shape of heat. Surely the admirable ventilation caused by the open fire is worth paying a little for? But even on the score of economy the open fire is by no means so wasteful as some persons would have us believe. Mr. D. K. Clark carried out a very elaborate and ably managed series of experiments at the instance of the Smoke Abatement Committee. About these experiments we shall have more to say. They cover a wide field, and some of the results obtained are a little startling. For the present we must confine our attention to the subject in hand, namely, the economy of the

open domestic grate. Mr. Clark's experiments show that instead of nine-tenths of the heat going up the chimney, which we have often been assured is the case, about 43 per cent. of the heat from an open fire is disposed of in this way, while in the case of close stoves, about 24 per cent. goes up the chimney. Taking the value of coal at one-tenth of a penny per pound, and assuming that 100 lb. are burned in a close stove, the whole value of the fuel will be 10d., and that of the heat wasted will be 24d., while in the case of the open grate it will be 43d. Thus, the difference in favour of the close stove will be 19d., or, say, 2d.; and assuming that 33 lb. are burned per day, the loss would be '66 of a penny, or less than three farthings per day; per week it amounts to 4½d. Now, we ask, is it really worth while to give up the cheerful and healthy open fire and substitute for it the close and unhealthy and cheerless stove for the sake of saving 4½d. a week? Three good fires could be kept going with a waste of, say, 1s. a week, or for the winter six months, 25s. It will be seen that the advocates of the close stove system for this country have, to say the least, a very small foundation on which to base their estimates of economical advantage. We may, however, go further than this. It is quite possible to construct open fireplaces which shall heat air directly by contact with metal surfaces and direct that heated air into the room. The comparison between such stoves and the open grate will be even less favourable to the latter. Concerning the prevention of smoke, it does not appear that there is a great deal to choose between them. At least, it seems to be proved by Mr. Clark that it is possible to so make and work an open grate that little or no dark smoke will be produced in it. Whether it is worth while to go to the trouble and expense entailed is quite an open question.

THE SOCIETY OF ARTS AND LONDON FIRES.

SIMULTANEOUSLY with our recent article on "London Fires," the Society of Arts *Journal* published a paper read by Mr. Cornelius Walford at the previous meeting of the Society, on "The Increasing Destruction of Life and Property by Fire," in the course of which certain statistics are cited having the appearance of contradicting some of the figures and arguments which have appeared in these columns. Taking three decades—namely, 1851-60, 1861-70, and 1871-80—Mr. Walford gives the actual number of fires per annum in London as being respectively 977, 1430, and 1795. These numbers, according to our reckoning, to be found in articles which have appeared in THE ENGINEER at different dates, should be 1002, 1480, and 1640. Concerning the last of the three decades, Mr. Walford is clearly in error according to his own showing, for he gives a table taken from Capt. Shaw's returns, in which the total number of fires during 1871-80 is found to be 16,399, giving, therefore, an average of 1639.9 for each year. The importance of being correct in this matter is shown by the conclusion at which Mr. Walford arrives. Taking his erroneous averages as a basis, he calculates that the metropolitan fires per million of inhabitants in the three several decades are in the ascending order of 389, 418, and 465. Thus the fires are represented as increasing more rapidly than the population. We have allowed this to be the case for a certain series of years, but not so more recently. In THE ENGINEER of June 3rd, 1881, we gave a table showing the ratio of fires per 100,000 of the population in several periods, including the three decades mentioned by Mr. Walford. Shifting the decimal point, we find the ratios per million inhabitants to be respectively 391.5, 491.8, and 469.2. It will be seen that the ratio falls off after 1870 instead of rising. In respect to the quinquennial periods ending with 1880, we have shown that the average fire rate increases persistently from 1836 down to 1870, when it becomes 508 per million. In 1871-75 it falls to 477.6, and in 1876-80 it becomes 463. The fact is a remarkable one. It is also encouraging, and ought not to be overlooked. We may add that in all the calculations on this subject in our columns, care has been taken to get correct statistics of the population for each year, so far as these can be estimated for periods between the taking of the census. In what we have said we have no desire to derogate from the general excellence of Mr. Walford's paper, and we trust that the attention which he has called to the subject will promote those measures which are calculated to reduce the ravages of fire in London and elsewhere. We observe that the Metropolitan Board have decided not only to seek for relief from the restriction which now limits them in raising money for the current expenses of the Fire Brigade, but have resolved that any increase of the amount furnished by the ratepayers for this purpose should be accompanied by an increase in the contributions of the fire insurance companies. We are particularly glad to find that the Board have also signified their readiness to bear the expense of the proposed inquiries into the origin of fires in cases where inquiry is considered advisable although no death occurs.

THE USES OF ARSENIC.

A SOCIETY which boasts the grand title of the National Health Society has, it appears, requested the Foreign Office to address a communication to its representatives abroad, desiring them to report on the existing legislation in Continental countries with reference to the precautions and restrictions imposed on the manufacture and sale of articles in which arsenical pigments are employed. A committee, consisting of Members of Parliament and lieutenant-generals to a considerable extent, but in which science is most meagrely represented, and of which Mr. Hart is chairman, has, it is announced, been formed, in connection with the Society, for investigating the subject of arsenical poisoning in respect to the use of arsenical pigments, paper hangings, dress fabrics, and other materials in daily use, and their deleterious effects on health. Reports have been prepared on the medical, chemical, and sanitary aspects of the question, and a Bill has been drafted, with the object of requiring that in the case of articles manufactured with arsenical pigments, due notice shall be given to the purchasers. A considerable body of information has been laid before the committee, showing that the use of arsenical pigments was not confined, as was popularly supposed, to the preparation of green colours, but that numerous cases of arsenical poisoning

had occurred in families living in rooms hung with mauve, red, fawn, and other coloured paper hangings in which arsenic was freely used, and from which arsenical powders floated into the air. The National Health Society does not appear to have got far in this inquiry. It is beyond all manner of doubt that many colours may be found to contain arsenic. The material is so cheap and abundant that it requires special precautions—sometimes costly ones—to avoid using materials which may contain arsenic. Some years ago we received a complete set of tar colours from Rummelsburg, near Berlin, which were prepared without the use of arsenic. This was considered a special virtue in their case, and we infer that the tar colours made by other manufacturers at home and abroad may be expected to contain arsenic. No wonder, then, that mauve and red papers are held to be guilty. Moreover, papers of light and delicate shades, nearly white papers, often contain much arsenic. The *Lancet* has recently been much alarmed at "most mischievous statements" recommending the use of face powders containing arsenic. It considers it its duty to raise a warning cry against such statements, which have recently been circulated, and have already done harm, to the effect that "arsenic in small doses is good for the complexion." It is not difficult to imagine the risks women will incur to preserve or improve their good looks. No more ingenious device for recommending a drug can be hit upon than that which the authors of this most baneful prescription of "arsenic for the complexion" have adopted. Suffice it to recall the fact that, for many years past, chemists and sanitarians have been labouring to discover means of eliminating the arsenical salts from the colouring matter of wall papers and certain dyes once largely used for certain articles of clothing. "It is most unfortunate that this hopelessly antagonistic recommendation of arsenic to improve the complexion should have found its way into print." Those who employ the drug as advised—and there are many either already using it or contemplating the rash act—will do so at their peril. "It is the duty of medical men," writes the *Lancet*, "to warn the public against this pernicious practice, which is only too likely to be carried on secretly." It is not without reason that they are led to speak thus pointedly. While the *Lancet* puts the case thus strongly, it must not be forgotten that about twenty-two years ago the question of arsenic eating in Styria was set at rest. "Hidrach," as arsenious acid is termed in Styria, is unquestionably consumed by the peasants there. To quote one instance, in presence of Dr. Kappe, of Oberzeiring, a man, thirty years of age, and in robust health, ate on February 22nd, 1860, a piece of arsenious acid weighing 4½ grains, and on the 23rd another piece weighing 5½ grains. His urine was carefully examined and shown to contain arsenic; the 24th he went away in his usual health. He informed Dr. Kappe that he was in the habit of taking the above quantities three or four times each week. About the same time it was shown that the water in ordinary use at Whitbeck, in Cumberland, contained a good fraction of a grain of arsenic—metallic—in each gallon. It appears to be derived from veins of arsenical cobalt through which it percolates. This water is habitually used for every purpose by the inhabitants of the little village of Whitbeck, and, as far as could be learnt, with beneficial rather than injurious results. It is the only stream in the neighbourhood where trout and ducks cannot thrive. When the railway was being carried past Whitbeck, the first use of the water quickly produced the usual marked effect on the throats of the men and horses employed on the works. The soreness of mouth from which they at first suffered soon, however, disappeared, and in the horses gave place to that sleekness of coat assigned as one of the effects produced by the administration of arsenic. It is a question how far the rosy looks of the children and the old age which a large proportion of the inhabitants of the village—Whitbeck—attain are to be attributed to the arsenic present in the water they drink. We commend these considerations to the attention of the *Lancet* and the committee of the National Health Society. Likewise the presence of arsenic in the white linings of saucers; for to give the linings the colour which pleases the public eye arsenic is pressed into service.

TYNDALL ON TERRESTRIAL RADIANT HEAT.

LAST month Dr. Tyndall read a paper before the Royal Society on terrestrial radiation. He has recently erected a small iron hut on Hind Head, a fine moorland plateau about three miles from Haslemere, with an elevation of 900ft. above the sea, which forms an extremely suitable station for meteorological observation. Here he has continued to record from time to time the temperature of the earth's surface as compared with that of the air above the surface, the object being to apply the results which experiments had established regarding the action of aqueous vapour upon radiant heat. The air thermometer was suspended with its bulb 4ft. above the earth. The surface thermometer was placed upon a layer of cotton wool, on a spot cleared of heather, which thickly covered the rest of the ground. The outlook from the thermometers was free and extensive. There was no house near, the hut being about fifty yards distant from the thermometers. On the morning of December 10, temperature was very low; snow a foot deep covered the heather; very little movement of air from the north-east. Assuming aqueous vapour to play the part that Dr. Tyndall has ascribed to it, the conditions were exactly such as would give grounds for expecting considerable waste of the earth's heat. At 8.5 a.m. the thermometers were placed in position at a common temperature of 35 deg. A single minute's exposure sufficed to establish a difference of 5 deg.; then at 8.10 a.m., air 29 deg., wool 16 deg.; at 8.15 a.m., air 29 deg., wool 12 deg.; in ten minutes a difference of no less than 17 deg. As the day advanced the difference between air and wool became gradually less. These observations, especially the last, invite attention. There was no visible impediment to terrestrial radiation. The sky was extremely clear, moon shining, the north star, and many others, were visible. On no previous occasion had the firmament been purer; but still the difference between air and wool at 6 p.m. was only 4 deg. December 10th, a striking illustration of the action of that invisible constituent of the atmosphere to which Dr. Tyndall directed attention more than twenty-two years ago. On December 10th the wind was light from the north-east, with a low temperature. On January 16th it was very light from the south-west, with a higher temperature. The one was a dry air, the other was a humid air; the latter therefore, though of great optical transparency, proved competent to arrest the invisible heat of the earth. The advance of temperature from 28 deg. at 5 p.m., to 32 deg. at 6 p.m., was due to the intrusion at 6 p.m. of an invisible screen between the earth and the firmament. As the night advanced the serenity of the air became, if possible, more perfect, and the observations were continued, with the result of a difference of 4 deg. between the temperature of the wool at 8.30 p.m., and its temperature at 10.30 p.m., and which was not to be referred to any sensible change in the atmosphere. Further observations were made in considerable numbers, but they need not be dwelt upon, the object being to illustrate a principle rather than to add to the multitudinous records of meteorology. It is sufficient to

say that, with atmospheric conditions sensibly alike, the waste of the heat from the earth varies from day to day, a result due to the action of a body which escapes the sense of vision.

THE WEATHER FORECASTS.

DURING the last week many letters have appeared in the columns of the daily press—and, in fact, are being continued this week—on the weather forecasts. The Rev. A. W. Owen writes that they are perfectly useless to him, and many, we think, will be disposed to endorse his statement. He finds the actual weather by daily comparison is very unfavourable to the trustworthiness of the forecast; and in making this statement he requests to know the experience of others. Mr. Clark, writing from the district "England, E.," says:—"Please allow me space to assure Mr. Owen, of 'England, S.W.' that his experience of the weather forecasts entirely agrees with ours in 'England, E.' In point of fact the prophets at the Meteorological Office certainly do not 'hit it,' on an average, oftener than once a month. The forecasts are absolutely worse than useless, because they are so misleading. Nevertheless, they do serve to amuse us. I think people in this district have fully learned to put no faith whatever in them." Another clergyman, writing from Aldridge Rectory, near Walsall, finds that very little reliance can be placed in the forecasts as prepared daily at the Meteorological Office. He lives in one of the Midland counties—district No. 4—and his experience as regards the centre of England is by no means more favourable than Mr. Owen's. For many years he has kept a record of the actual weather and the varied indications of change, and has come to the conclusion that much more is to be learned from careful observation of the barometer and the wind than from these forecasts. Over and over again has the weather been very unlike what was foretold, and the wind has, as it were, in a spirit of perversity, blown, not only from an opposite quarter, but, instead of a gale, we have had comparatively a calm and a bright day—rare enough of late—to temporarily cheer us in place of the prevalent "overcast." Mr. Finch Smith, who writes this letter, says he remembers just fifty years ago next summer, hearing the late Dr. John Dalton, whose varied attainments makes his opinion worthy of notice, say, in answer to a question put to him, "I have studied the weather for more than half a century, and made observations thereon, and I have come to this conclusion, that it is impossible to forecast, with anything like certainty, what the weather shall be for the next twenty-four hours." Mr. Smith adds, in this very changeable climate of England, he is very much of the same opinion. He agrees with Mr. Owen in pronouncing the forecasts to be, for the most part, very unreliable, and that their publication, consequently, is of little use. Mr. Bigg-Wither, writing from Southsea respecting his experiences of the weather forecasts, says, "I can give you mine, which are very similar to those of Mr. Owen, for, like himself, I depend upon my aneroid, as at least five times out of seven the forecasts are incorrect." While agreeing with these gentlemen that the publication of the forecasts, as at present drawn up, is of little real value, we would again refer to the forecasting of the state of the weather by the rain-band—see THE ENGINEER, October 13th, 1882—as developed by Dr. Piazzi Smyth. This seems a perfectly safe indicator of the approach of rain, and we would strongly advocate its introduction among those made at the various stations about the British Isles on which the Meteorological Office found their forecasts. We believe that they would lead to a condition of forecasting which would be found to be trustworthy, and gain the good opinion of the many who make their own observations of the weather, and compare them periodically with the one issued by the Meteorological Office with all the authority of print. We were recently informed by the late chairman of the Meteorological Committee, that of the forecasts sent to us from America, some 40 per cent. proved to be more or less correct.

THE NEW AMERICAN TARIFF.

OUR American cousins who make steel rails, pig iron, and wire rods are crying out against the concessions in the new tariff of duties which comes into force next July. Steel rails are reduced from 28 to 17 dols., and pig iron, rods for wire, saws, files, &c., are also reduced. Pennsylvania is in a sore plight, and yet there is no reason for such complaint. The American Government, finding that their public debt was being diminished too rapidly, made up their minds to give away £15,000,000 out of £28,000,000 of estimated surplus, and they went about it after this fashion. They gave £12,000,000 in exemption to themselves, i.e., for relief of internal revenue, and £3,000,000 in the way of reducing external revenue; that is to say, they put aside these three millions for the reduction of duties on every class of goods which enter America from all parts of the world. It is pretty clear that three millions scattered over the habitable globe, with the exception of Uncle Jonathan's vineyard, will not amount to much; and that is exactly how matters stand. The millions amount to so little to England that it will not benefit trade to any appreciable extent. Take rails as a prominent example, seeing that rails are the goods on which the heaviest reductions have been made. Steel rails are now selling at from 40 to 45 dols. a ton in the States. The reduced duty will be 17 dols.; but does any reasonable man suppose that English makers can produce rails in this country and compete with prices at 40 dols. a ton when the duty of 17 dols. and freight—10s. per ton—have to be added? If rails were to rise to 80 or 90 dols. something might be done, particularly in the case of those American railroad kings who are prepared to pay a preferential price for English productions, on account of their superior quality ensuring longer life in the rail. American manufacturers need not continue their complaints. They profess to be in mortal terror of Sheffield invasion. Their fears, if not altogether feigned, are groundless. After exhaustive inquiries in the Sheffield districts, we are in a position to assure them that not a single manufacturer attaches the slightest importance to the revised tariff as holding out any hope of revived trade with the States. They look upon the concessions as interesting in one respect. The American people, when they get rails at 11 dols. less money, may begin to ask if they are not paying too much for other goods, and in this way a ball may be set rolling which, in the future, may lead to conditions under which something like fair trade may be possible.

SALT WORKS IN SOUTH DURHAM.

SINCE we last referred in THE ENGINEER to the development of the salt industry of South Durham there has been a series of movements developing. The pioneers in the trade—Messrs. Bell Bros.—find that there is an abundant market for their production, and they have, it is stated, commenced to put down a second bore-hole, which will in the course of a few months double the production of brine, and, of course, of salt. Adjoining the works of Messrs. Bell Bros., and between the North-Eastern Railway and the river Tees, is a large area of ground which has been leased from the Ecclesiastical Commissioners by the Newcastle Chemical Works Company, which is to be reconstructed to allow it to mine and manufacture salt. This second attempt to work salt in South Durham will be on a still larger scale, for

whilst Messrs. Bell Bros. produce about 350 tons weekly, the Newcastle Company uses and needs 1000 tons of salt weekly. It has already commenced to embark the land on the north bank of the Tees, and it is probable that it will speedily commence boring, so that it is certain that the present year will witness a considerable increase of the tonnage of salt produced. No salt has yet been produced in Cleveland, but there is progress being made with the attempt of Messrs. Bolckow, Vaughan, and Co., to put down a bore hole at their works. The northern shore of the Tees, however, holds out the best inducements, because the surface of the land is comparatively valueless, but that on the Cleveland side is so valuable for various manufacturing purposes that there is only a limited amount of space that could be had. It is probable therefore that there will be a large development of the chemical trade in South Durham, both in the production of brine and probably in its use—in some future that may not be far distant—for the ammonia soda manufacture.

LITERATURE.

Journal of the Society of Telegraph Engineers and of Electricians, including Original Communications on Telegraphy and Electrical Science. Published under the supervision of an editing committee, and edited by PROFESSOR W. E. AYRTON, F.R.S. London: E. and F. N. Spon. No. 45, vol. xi.

THE poverty of the "Journal" of this Society, in spite of the length of its name, impels one to ask, How is it that a body supposed to represent that branch of applied scientific knowledge which has been startling the world by its discoveries and applications every few weeks during the past few years, is unable to make its "Journal" what most people would expect it to be, namely, the one journal of all others which should contain original accounts of the discoveries in electrical science, and the enormous strides in the commercial and industrial applications of electricity which have marked recent years. On the whole it may be said to be one of the last journals to go to for information, instead of the first. Why is it that so many of the best papers on electrical subjects are read before societies which do not pretend to be specially electrical? Why is it that a very few members are so often called upon to occupy the paper-reading evenings, because original communications are not attracted by the Society? There must be some active deterring cause, and to others, as well as ourselves, the question, what is it, or who are they, must present itself.

Elementary Chemical Arithmetic, with 1100 Problems By SYDNEY LUPTON, M.A. Macmillan and Co. 1882.

A LARGE proportion of the books published at the present day are not wanted, and it is refreshing to welcome a book that really presents new features and fills a void in literature. Our estimation of this work is, that it is likely to be of great value both to schoolmasters and to practical men. As a rule the latter avoid mathematical puzzles, even when the mathematics used extend only to the rules of simple arithmetic. This is a great mistake, as a man cannot be said to know a subject till he can pretty readily deal with the concrete. So long as one either talks or writes in the abstract, it is difficult to gauge the real extent of his knowledge, but his treatment of the concrete generally enables us to tell with a fair approximation to exactness his grasp of the subject. It may be taken as axiomatic that the majority of practical questions do not involve the higher mathematics; hence there is no reason why the practical man should not be able to deal with the ordinary concrete problems. Of late years this idea has been steadily gaining ground, and lecturers and schoolmasters have extensively "used numerical problems as a means of emphasising statements made in lectures." Books on the various branches of physics now generally contain numerical examples, and so looseness of thought is made to give way to exactness.

Mr. Lupton states in his preface that it is with "some diffidence" that "an introduction has been prefixed to the examples," and gives two reasons for that introduction. We think the book would have been not altogether valueless without the introduction, but at any rate of far less value than it is with the introduction. This portion of the work extends to about one hundred pages, and consists of brief explanations of the rules and formulæ used with specimen solutions. Now although a schoolboy may be expected to have these rules and processes at his fingers' ends, the practical man forgets much of the formulæ he is seldom called upon to use; and while we should expect the student to remember the formula, say, for interpolation, in twenty years he may be rusty and glad to see it in print with an example of its use. The once familiar process is easily grasped, and the work in hand proceeds with rapidity and certainty. We do not ever remember to have seen an introduction of more real value than this of Mr. Lupton's. The next portion of the book consists of chemical problems. These are arranged in chapters, and range over a wide field. A number of tables and a sheet of four-figure logarithms completed the work.

We have scores of books on arithmetic, algebra, geometry, &c., which we would gladly see consigned to the flames as useless redundancies, whilst we have far too few books similar to the one we have thus briefly considered. We hope that the work which Mr. Lupton has so ably conceived and carried out will lead to similar books in other branches of physics—such as heat, light, and electricity.

A Dictionary of Electricity; or, the Electrician's Hand-book. By G. H. GREER, College of Electrical Engineering, New York. 1883.

TWO DOLLARS, or eight shillings, seems a large sum for a small book, which is made up principally by the use of paste and scissors, and which presents absolutely no feature of originality. Surely Pope when he wrote the lines, "Where ignorance is bliss 'tis folly to be wise," must have had in view those hangers-on of science whose sole peculiarity is an intense conceit, which prevents them from understanding the depth of their own ignorance. The first line of the work reads as follows:—"Accumulator: an instrument that accumulates electricity, &c." Now, if there is one thing which an accumulator does not

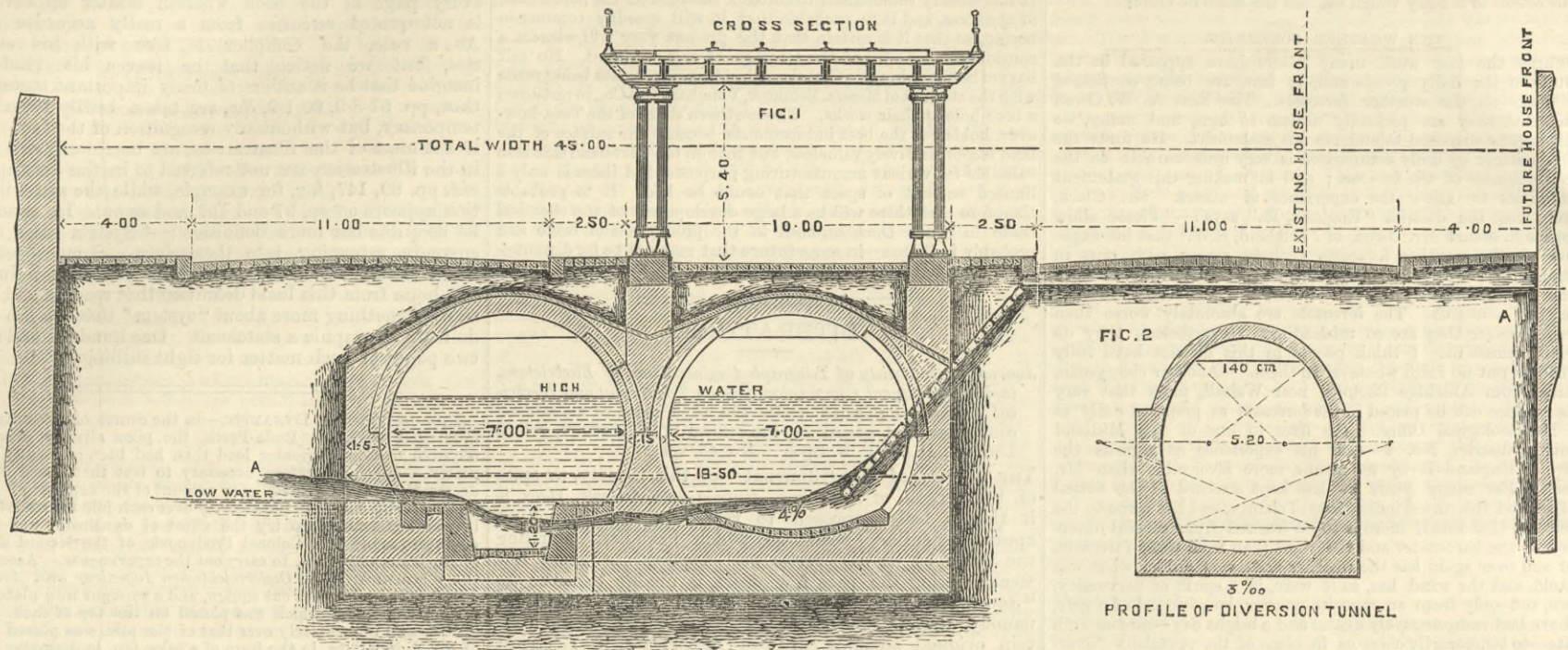
do it is to accumulate electricity. This is a fair sample of the knowledge of the subject exhibited in almost every page of the book wherein matter appears that is not quoted *verbatim* from a really accurate source. As a rule, the compiler is free with his authorities, but we notice that he leaves his readers to imagine that he is author of many important statements; thus, pp. 57-8-9, 60-1-2, &c., are taken bodily from a contemporary, but without any recognition of the fact. Many, if not most of the illustrations, are borrowed, and letters in the illustration are not referred to in the description—*vide* pp. 99, 147, &c., for example, while the same illustration appears on pp. 97 and 192, and so on. In conclusion, let us quote one more definition:—"System—the electric currents returning into themselves. Some electricians claim that the solenoid effectually overcomes induction." We hope from this lucid definition that readers will understand something more about "system" than we are able to do from so graphic a statement. One hundred and ninety-two pages of such matter for eight shillings!

PILE-DRIVING BY DYNAMITE.—In the course of executing some municipal works at Buda-Pesth, the piles already driven were required to stand a greater load than had been originally contemplated. It was, therefore, necessary to test them, and drive still deeper those that yielded. On account of the expense of bringing a pile-driving machine successively over each pile for so little work, it was determined to try the effect of dynamite; and the city engineers applied to Colonel Prodanovic, of the Second Regiment of Austrian engineers, to carry out the experiments. According to the *Wochenschrift des Oesterreichischen Ingenieur und Architekten Vereins*, the piles were cut square, and a wrought iron plate 15in. in diameter and 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ in. thick was placed on the top of each. On its centre, and immediately over that of the pile, was placed a charge of No. 2 dynamite, in the form of a cake, 6in. in diameter and 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ in. thick, and weighing 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. avoirdupois. This was wrapped in parchment-paper, covered with clay, and fired. The effect produced was found on an average to be equal to five blows from a 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ cwt. monkey falling from a height of 9ft. 10in. The iron plates stood from twenty to twenty-four explosions. The system is not considered applicable to a pile standing considerably out of the ground, but saves a great expense when piles already driven have to be sunk deeper. In America, gunpowder has been used for many years, particularly in Philadelphia, for pile-driving, though employed generally to drive the monkey upward.

AN AUSTRIAN WIRE ROPE TRAMWAY.—A description has recently been given in the German technical press of a wire tramway in connection with the coal-mining industry established near the Hersteigg, the products of which it brings to the main line belonging to the Southern Railroad of Austria. In its alternating rise and fall during its distance of 3000 yards, there is a useful excess of incline of about 142 yards, which, it is said, suffices to keep the line in self-acting working, after it has been started by means of the 12-horse power engine provided for that purpose. When there is no return load to be sent to the mine, the speed of line can be regulated by a brake. Under these circumstances, the cost of working the line is estimated at about 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents per ton of coal. In its general arrangement, the tramway forms a straight line, and consists of two drawing ropes and a train rope. The line which is used for conveying the coal to the station is 1.10in. thick, and is composed of 19 steel wires, each 18 of an inch in diameter. The line on which the coal buckets are returned to the mine is only 1.06 of an inch thick, the 19 steel wires of which it is composed being only 13 of an inch thick. Both ropes consist of wires about 765 yards long, coupled to each other, and for the ropes a breaking strength of 73 tons per square inch section is guaranteed. At the ends of the ropes, weights of 5 and 3 tons are applied in the usual way for obtaining the proper tension. The distance between the seventeen supports varies from 60 to 400 yards. The train rope is 1.06 of an inch thick, and consists of twelve soft steel wires of .07 of an inch diameter, and it runs at a speed of about 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ yards per second. The buckets which convey the coal follow each other at a distance of about 83 yards; thus thirty-six are always on the way to and the same number coming from the station. Each bucket contains about 10 bushels, or about a quarter of a ton of lignite, the total quantity carried per hour being about 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ tons. The cost of the line was about 14,000 dols.

OPENING OF THE GREAT EASTERN RAILWAY QUAY AT PARKESTON.—The loop-line lately made by the Great Eastern Company in connection with its new quay at Parkeston, near Harwich, was passed for traffic last June; the station buildings were officially inspected last Tuesday, and yesterday, the 15th, the railway and quay were used regularly for the passenger service to Antwerp and Rotterdam. The new line leaves the present Harwich branch at a point about a quarter of a mile west of Dovercourt, makes a curve to the new quay—called after Mr. Parkes, the chairman of the company—and re-joins the old line at Parkeston junction, 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ miles from Dovercourt. The line, about 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, is well laid with 80lb. rails and every modern appliance; there are, besides, about 6 miles of sidings for sorting wagons. All the bottom ballast consists of burnt clay, while the top ballast is shingle with a little sand. The arrangement of points and signals, by Mackenzie and Holland, of Worcester, is very complete. A siding runs on to the quay and into the two goods sheds, each 520ft. long; the acute angle causes openings 110ft. wide, requiring bowstring girders to support the roof. The quay wall, 1800ft. long, is nearly straight, and affords berths for seven steamers alongside, while screw piles afford moorings for seven more in the river Stour. The bottom is dredged to a depth of 14ft., which will ultimately be increased to 16ft.; but at present none of the company's steamers draw more than 12ft. of water. The wall was constructed by sinking screw piles, those in front being 2ft. in diameter, and those at the back 18in. Between the piles are concrete cylinders, sunk in pairs, and consisting of seven rings, each 4ft. 6in. deep. The rings are 9ft. in diameter outside and 18in. thick, and weigh about 10 tons each. They sank of themselves, on the mud inside being excavated by Bruce and Batho's grab. To keep them in place temporarily a pile was sunk between each pair, by simply weighting it with 10 tons. The spaces inside the rings and that outside them and the piles are filled in with 8 to 1 concrete, so as to form a solid wall. The central building, in the Italian style, of 350ft. frontage, serves for the station and hotel, while on the right are the customs and general offices, and on the left the bonded warehouse. The passenger gangway from the station to the quay is very substantial and 40ft. wide. All buildings, and the station platforms, which are 300 yards long, are built upon whole timber pitch-pine piles, driven to the ancient bed of the river, consisting of black flint gravel. The average depth is 43ft., and there are considerably more than a thousand. The site was selected on account of a hill, formerly an island, which has served to form the embankment. Nearly half the excavation was lost, owing to the stuff sinking in the soft mud. The excavation—close upon a million cubic yards—was effected mainly by means of Ruston, Proctor, and Co.'s steam navvies, of which about four were at work together. No arrangements have been made for gas-lighting, as the quay is illuminated by the Brush electric light, and the buildings will be fitted with Swan incandescent lamps. The works, which will cost about half a million of money, have been completed within four years; and the 600 acres acquired and reclaimed by the company permit of considerable extensions, which the rapidly growing continental traffic will, doubtless, render necessary before very long. The engineer-in-chief is Mr. Mackintire, of Messrs. Edward Wilson and Co.; and the resident engineer, Mr. J. B. Crawford.

REGULATION WORKS ON THE WIEN.



THE VIENNA CITY RAILWAY.

AFTER about as hard and obstinate a struggle as the spirit of modern improvement ever encountered in factious opposition and competitive hindrances, the concession for the Vienna City Railways has at last been granted to Messrs. James Clarke Buntin, of Glasgow, and Joseph Fogerty, C.E., of Westminster. The phases of uncertainty through which this project has passed have sorely tried the patience of the promoters, and the Emperor, at the audience he granted Mr. Fogerty to receive the latter's thanks for the grant of the concession, expressed his unbounded admiration at the perseverance and endurance of Englishmen in fighting so long and so persistently against apparently almost insurmountable obstacles. It was through his Majesty's personal initiative, on the grounds of his great public utility, quite as much as on the advice of his Ministers, who have, nevertheless, consistently supported it throughout, that the final decision was granted without any further delay, and the concessionaires have been assured of his warmest interest in the execution of the works.

The general features of the scheme, as originally proposed, have undergone but little alteration. It is only in detail that changes of any consequence have been introduced into the conditions of the concession, and these chiefly in deference to the wishes of the municipality. Any one who has ever visited Vienna must have a lively, if not an agreeable, recollection of the ugly rivulet, of the same name as the city, which meanders through a great part of the inner town and empties itself into the Danube Canal. On an average of about 360 days in the year it is nothing more than a foul ditch, charged with the refuse of all the neighbouring districts, but for the remaining five a roaring and dangerous torrent. During the past century several schemes have been proposed for its regulation or total diversion, and within the last ten years nearly every proprietor of a city railway—of whom there have been over thirty—has, in some way or other, tried to incorporate this idea as a part of his scheme, but invariably failed from his inability to show in what way the expenses entailed by such an outlay could be secured. The question appears now, however, to have been solved—on paper at least—in a feasible and profitable manner by Herr Berger, technical director of the municipal board, who, under instructions of the corporation, and by permission of the Ministry of Commerce, submitted to, and obtained the approval of, the town council to a project whereby the regulation of the river can be carried out simultaneously and in connection with the elevated railway of Messrs. Buntin and Fogerty in such a way that the greater portion of the expense to the town will be covered by the building and reclaimed by the regulation and by the enhanced value of the adjoining property.

The accompanying illustration of the system proposed explains itself. The acceptance of it by the authorities involves a slight lateral deviation of the route of the line along this part, and a portion of the burden, i.e., the construction of one of the arches—as shown cross-hatched on the sketch—for a considerable distance, as a foundation for the under structure of the railway, has been thrown on the concessionaires. The extra expense is, however, compensated for to a certain extent by the saving in the purchase of house property, and the stability of the structure will be insured against the accidents of floods. To make this last precaution doubly sure, the municipality propose to construct large impounding reservoirs nearer the sources of the river, and, in addition, to divert about one half of the water through a tunnel along the high ground of the western suburbs, with catchpools for flushing the sewers. Should they be able to raise the funds for the simultaneous execution of this undertaking with the erection of the railway, the ground reclaimed will be at once available for building purposes, and, as it is proposed to construct a boulevard on either side of the line, the adjacent property will increase in value from its proximity to the latter, and a good return on the outlay may be expected. In case, however, they are unable to carry it out at once, the position of the one arch under the railway has been so chosen that the actual flood area of the river is thereby consider-

ably increased, and no danger can be apprehended from high water either to the town or to the structure of the railway itself.

Another task is imposed on the concessionaires, which, although it involves a further outlay, adds considerably to the facilities of the traffic, is the construction of four lines of rails along the Danube canal, two of which are to

of native product. The permanent sub-officials are, as much as possible, to be chosen from non-commissioned officers who have completed their time of service in the army and marine. The traffic manager must, however, be an Austrian subject. There are also the usual stipulations with regard to the transport of military and war materials, but this is of more consequence in this special

Character.	No. of line on plan.	Description of route of railway.	No. of lines to be laid.	Period of completion in years.	Length in	
					Kilos.	English miles.
SECTION NO. I.—DONAU CANAL.						
Main line	I.	From the Brigitta Bridge along the Danube Canal to the point where the branch to the Verbindungsbahn in the direction of the Südbahn commences near the Zollamt	2	*	2-980	1-852
Branch line	I.A	From the Brigitta Bridge to the Franz Josefs Bahn	2	2½	1-700	1-056
" "	I.B	From the neighbourhood of the Aspern Bridge to the Verbindungsbahn in the direction of the Nordbahn	2		0-764	0-475
" "	I.C	From a point near the Zollamt on the main line to the Verbindungsbahn in the direction of the Südbahn	2		0-506	0-314
					5-950	3-697
SECTIONAL NO. II.—GURTEL STRASSE.						
Main line	II.	From the point at which the branch to the Südbahn at Meidling leaves the main line in the neighbourhood of the Gumpendorfer Schlachthaus, along the Gürtel Strasse, to the Brigitta Bridge	2	3¼	3-565	3-458
Branch line	II.D	From the point above mentioned in the neighbourhood of the Gumpendorfer Schlachthaus to the Südbahn in Meidling	2		2-528	1-571
" "	II.E	From the main line in the neighbourhood of the Brigitta Bridge, across the Danube Canal, to the point at which the branch to the Nordbahn turns off	2		1-450	0-901
" "	II.F	From the above-named branch line II.E to the Nordbahn	1		1-023	0-636
" "	II.G	From the above-named branch line II.E to the Nordwestbahn	1		0-580	0-360
" "	II.H	From the above-named branch line II.F to the Donau Ufer Bahn	1		0-650	0-404
					11-796	7-330
SECTION NO. III.—WIEN VALLEY.						
Main line	III.	From the Gumpendorfer Schlachthaus in the direction of the regulation of the river Wien, proposed by the Stadtbauamt and sanctioned by the Gemeinderath in their resolutions of 29th December, 1882, to the point of junction with the branch to the Verbindungsbahn described in the main line No. I. near the Zollamt	2	4	4-720	2-933
Branch line	III.J.	From the main line in the neighbourhood of the Gumpendorfer Schlachthaus, up the river Wien, to the Gobkowitz Bridge, and thence to the k.k. Kaiserin Elisabethbahn in Penzing	2		3-635	2-259
" "	III.K	From the Gobkowitz Bridge in the last-named branch to the Penzinger Bridge in Kistzing	2		1-880	1-168
Main line	I.	Eventually the completion of the third and fourth line of rails from the Brigitta Bridge, along the Danube Canal, to the point where the branch to the Verbindungsbahn in the direction of the Südbahn commences near the Zollamt in combination with a central station	2	2-980	1-852	
					13-215	8-212
Grand total					30-961	19-239

N.B.—Add eventually the short curves to the Nordwestbahn and Nordbahn in the direction of the terminal stations, indicated by dotted lines on plan, forming the double junctions with the above-named railways not yet defined nor obligatory under the Act of Concessions, which the companies concerned may fairly be called on to construct. Also the double junction with the Donau Ufer Bahn by the Danube, about 1-350 kilos., or 0-839 miles, making, without sidings, a total length of 32-311 kilos.—20-178 English miles.

serve the external traffic of the existing railway to and from the central station, and the other two the local trains of the companies' lines. The construction of the railway has been divided into three sections, each of which is to be opened for public traffic as soon as completed. The details of the several sections, with their length, the numbers of lines of rails, and term for completion, are given in a tabulated form in the accompanying statement. According to the conditions of concession, the line is to be constructed to normal gauge, with rails of 90 lb. per yard, no level crossings allowed, and all main thoroughfares to be crossed at a mean headway of 17' 8½". The total maximum capital is fixed at £6,000,000, which, with a length of over twenty English miles, gives nearly £300,000 per mile—a very favourable comparison with other metropolitan railways. The capital is to be issued one half in shares and one half in debentures. The caution money of 1,000,000 florins, Austrian currency, was deposited in August, 1882. The seat of the company must be in Vienna, with a second board of directors in London. All the materials used in construction are to be

case, as the strategical advantages of the line are only second to those it offers for local communication. The post and telegraphic service are also provided for, as well as the conveyance, at reduced fares, of Government officials, police, fire brigades, &c. &c.

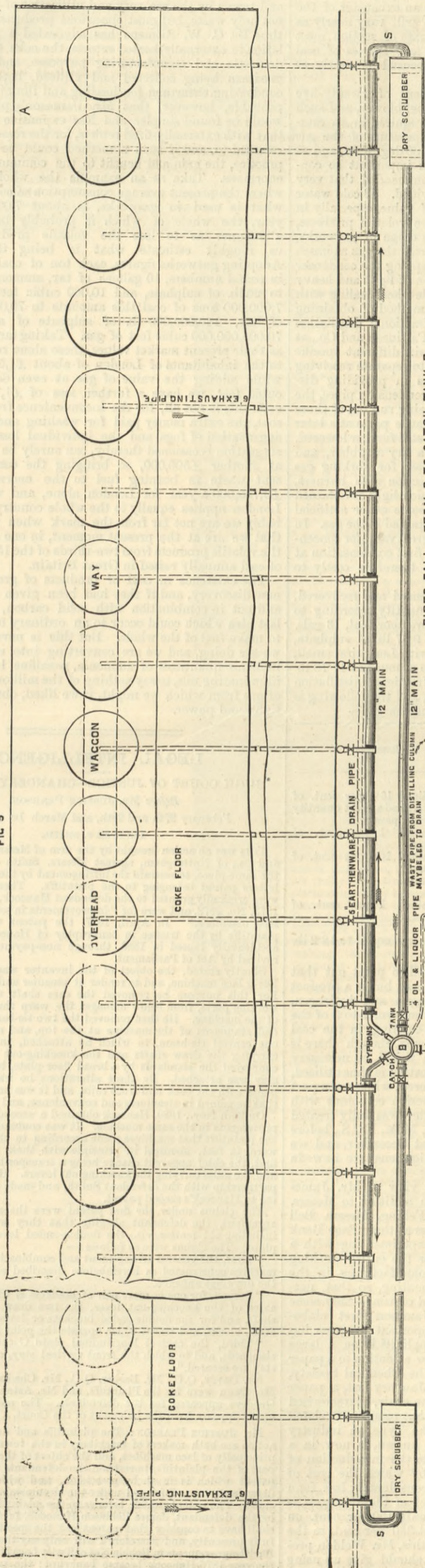
The syndicate, for the purpose of completing the details of the project and floating the company has, in spite of numerous scandalous reports from disappointed competitors and opponents, been fully formed, and the actual surveys and sections are being prosecuted with the utmost vigour by a large staff of Austrian engineers, under the direction of Mr. Fogerty, M. Inst. C.E., F.R.I.B.A., and his local manager, Mr. Wm. E. Thursfield, M. Inst. C.E., and it is confidently believed that the deposition of the plans with the Government will take place in a much shorter time than has been provided for by the conditions of concession.

THE sea wall at Saltburn was almost washed away to the foundations on Sunday night, and the promenade pier was damaged.

COKE OVENS ON JAMESON'S SYSTEM.

(For description see page 214.)

FIG 3



PIPES FALL FROM S TO CATCH TANK B

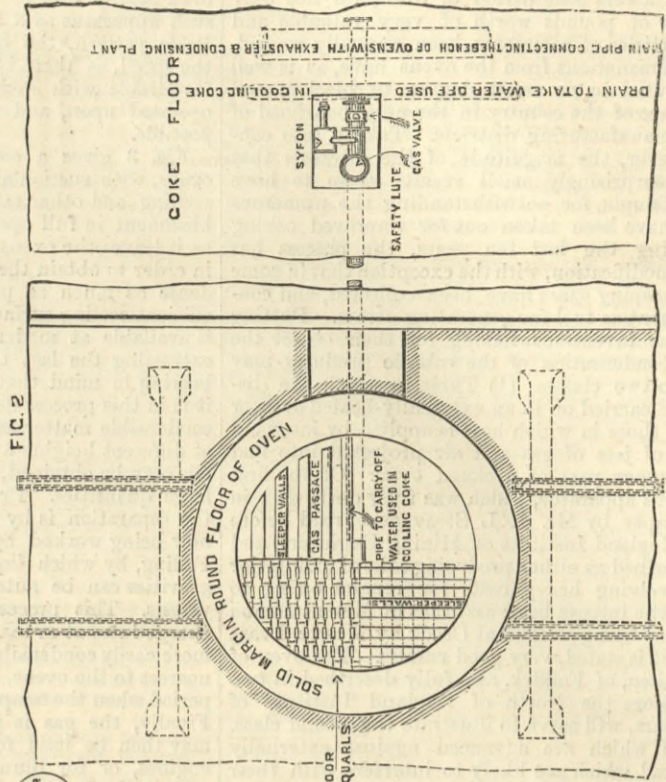
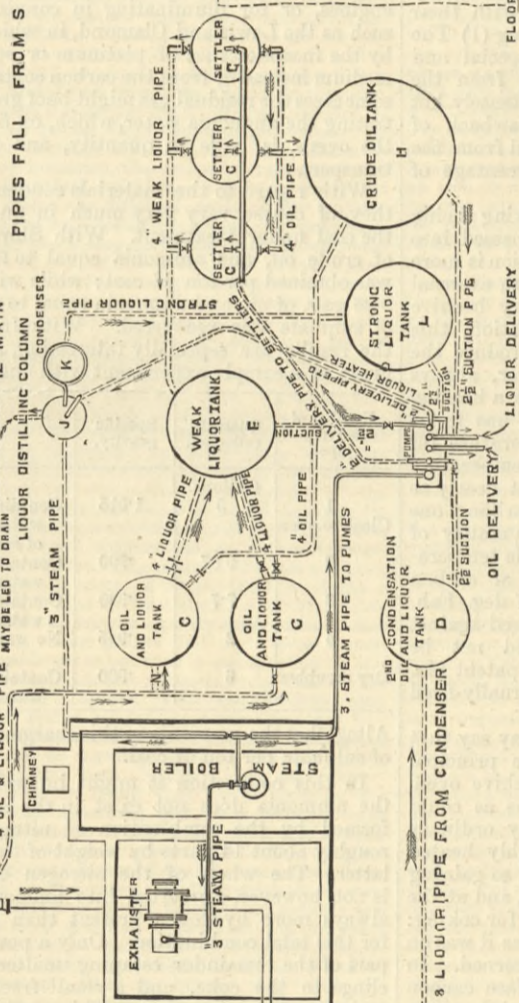


FIG. 2



SCALE OF FEET

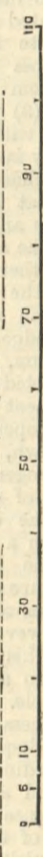


FIG. 3 C

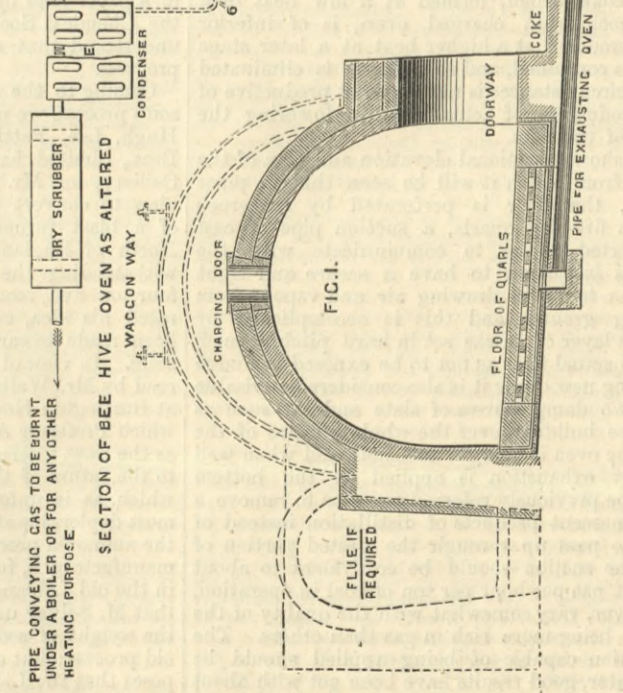
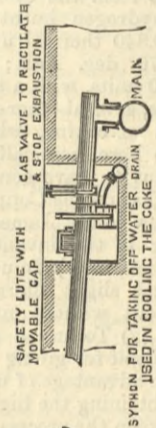


FIG. 1.



SYFON FOR TAKING OFF WATER DRAIN MAIN USED IN COOLING THE COKE

THE JAMESON COKING PROCESS.

THE recovery of the volatile products of the coal used in the manufacture of coke is a subject which has occupied the attention of chemists and others, both in this country and abroad, for a very long period of time; for not only have thousands of pounds worth of very valuable and much-wanted articles of commerce been annually wasted, but the smoky emanations from the ovens have, as is well known, contributed in no small degree to blacken and deface the surface of the country in the neighbourhood of many of our manufacturing districts. Taking into consideration, however, the magnitude of the interests that are involved, surprisingly small results seem to have attended all attempts, for notwithstanding the numerous patents which have been taken out for improved coking apparatus during the last ten years, the process has received little modification, with the exception that in some instances the escaping gases have been collected, and conveyed to be burnt as fuel for generating steam. Putting it generally, the inventions having for their object the collection and condensation of the volatile products may be divided into two classes: (1) Those in which the distillation is to be carried on in an externally-heated oven or retort; and (2) those in which heat is applied by means of a jet or series of jets of gas and air projected into and burnt in the upper part of a closed oven. Of the first class is Pernolet's apparatus, which was fully dealt with in an excellent paper by Mr. A. L. Steavenson, read before the North of England Institute of Mining Engineers, and which was described as either producing coke of an inferior quality, or involving heavy costs for repairs owing to destruction by the intense heat; and that of Messrs. Simon and Carves, now being worked at Crook by Messrs. Pease and Co., with, it is stated, very good results. The oven of Mr. Henry Aitken, of Falkirk, also fully described in two papers read before the North of England Institute of Mining Engineers, will serve to illustrate the second class. The objections which are advanced against externally heated ovens, and which are likely to interfere with their general adoption, may be briefly stated as being (1) The great increase in first cost, due to their special and expensive construction; (2) the loss arising from the radiation and conduction of heat from the intensely hot flues surrounding the oven; and (3) the drawback of having to quench the coke after its withdrawal from the oven, and so leaving an abnormally large percentage of water in it when sent out to the purchaser.

In Mr. Aitken's process the heat for coking being obtained from the combustion of gas and air passed into the top of an otherwise closed oven, the application is more direct, and subject to less loss than there is with external heat. Another advantage is that the ordinary beehive form is retained without very much modification, this being the shape which is acknowledged to produce the best quality of coke. An objection, however, always attends the use of a previously cooled gas as a heating agent, owing to the loss from the heat which has to be imparted to bring it up to the proper temperature for combustion, while, as is well known, the temperature attained in the combustion of hydrogen is not nearly so high as that from the combustion of solid carbon; one pound of hydrogen burnt with the exact quantity of air giving 60,840 thermal units, with a possible temperature of 3476 deg. Fah.; and one pound of carbon giving 14,220 units, with a temperature of 4347 deg. Fah. Besides these, several other objections are alleged against this method of coking, which, however, need not be entered into here, especially as in his latest patent Mr. Aitken seems to have gone back to an externally-fired oven, somewhat on the Coppé principle.

Coming now to Mr. Jameson's process, we may say that in designing it the inventor has kept three principal objects in view:—(1) To use the ordinary beehive oven, with only such slight alterations and additions as could be carried out without much expense by any ordinary bricklayer. (2) To use a portion of the highly heated coal charge itself for giving the requisite heat, so gaining the economic advantage of using carbon as fuel, and at the same time obtaining the highest degree of heat for coking; and (3) To keep the process precisely the same as it was on the old plan, as far as the attendant is concerned. In obtaining heat by the combustion of the surface carbon instead of from gas, it incidentally happens that the portion of the coke which, formed at a low heat in a comparatively cool fresh charged oven, is of inferior quality to that produced at a higher heat at a later stage of the coking, is consumed, and so a factor is eliminated which in many circumstances is not only not productive of gain, but is productive of actual loss in lowering the average quality of the coke.

Figs. 1 and 2 show a sectional elevation and plan of the Jameson oven, from which it will be seen that in place of being solid, the floor is perforated by numerous holes formed in fire-clay quarls, a suction pipe of cast iron being inserted so as to communicate with the openings. It is important to have a secure and tight foundation, so as to avoid drawing air and vapour from the surrounding ground, and this is accomplished by placing a double layer of bricks set in hard pitch at such depth below the actual floor as not to be exposed to undue heat. In building new ovens it is also considered advisable to lay one or two damp courses of slate and tar, such as are used in house building, over the whole surface of the foundation. The oven is charged as usual, and when well ignited a slight exhaustion is applied at the bottom through the pipe previously referred to, so as to remove a portion of the nascent products of distillation instead of allowing them to pass up through the ignited portion of the charge. The suction should be equivalent to about 200 cubic feet of gas per hour per ton of coal in operation, but must, however, vary somewhat with the quality of the coal, some coals being more rich in gas than others. The amount of suction capable of being applied should be about 3in. of water, good results have been got with about $\frac{1}{2}$ in.; but for resistance in the scrubber and a margin for seals, the power available should not be restricted to that

in the first instance. The suction, beginning as soon as the oven is well ignited at the top, should be continued for at least sixty hours for a 5-ton oven, although the charge may before that time be ignited throughout, there being still a yield of oil apparently re-distilled from the oven bottom. It is considered best to employ for suction such apparatus as a Root's blower, or an exhauster of the Beale pattern, the delivery of which will vary nearly as the speed, as there is, of course, one rate of suction most favourable with each kind of oven and species of coal operated upon, and this should be secured as nearly as possible.

Fig. 3 gives a complete arrangement of twenty-five ovens, with suction and condensing pipe, blower, and such settling and other tanks as would be required in an establishment in full operation. The temperature of the gas as it leaves the ovens averages about 180 deg. Fah., and in order to obtain the best results it is important to condense as much as possible, it is recommended that very efficient cooling surface should be provided. If cold water is available at moderate cost it is of value, especially in extracting the last traces of the more volatile products, bearing in mind that, contrary to the usage of gasworks, it is in this process desirable to take from the gas as much condensable matter as possible. By tapping the condenser at different heights a certain separation of light and heavy oils may be obtained, which is valuable when dealing with large quantities. Probably the best method of obtaining the separation is by the process of fractional distillation now being worked by Messrs. H. L. Pattinson and Co., at Felling, by which liquors of five or six different specific gravities can be automatically run into separate receiving vessels. This process simply consists in providing discharge lutes at so many places in the condensing pipes, the more easily condensable constituents being run out of those nearest to the ovens, and the more volatile parts at a later period when the temperature has been still further lowered. Finally, the gas is passed through a dry scrubber, and may then be used for heating purposes, for working gas engines, or for illuminating in connection with burners, such as the Lewis and Clamond, in which light is obtained by the incandescence of platinum or some other artificial medium instead of from the carbon contained in the gas. In some cases the residual gas might be of great value for concentrating the ammonia water, which, on first condensation at the ovens, is large in quantity, and therefore costly to transport.

With regard to the materials condensed and recovered, they, of course, vary very much in quantity according to the coal under treatment. With Shiremoor coal, 13 gals. of crude oil, and ammonia equal to 9.87 lb. of sulphate, was obtained per ton of coal; while with Longhirst small, 9.28 gals. of oil, and ammonia equal to as much as 17.78 lb. of sulphate was recovered. With fractional distillation the results are especially interesting, and the following is given as a sample experiment with one charge:—

Number of delivery pipe.	Quantity collected.	Specific gravity.	Remarks.
1	Gallons.	1.015	Contained 18.6 per cent. of water, and a great quantity of scale paraffine.
Close to oven	5		
2	9.87	.990	Contained 1 per cent. of water.
3	7.7	.980	Contained 10.4 per cent. of water.
4	2	.945	No water.
Dry scrubber	6	.960	Contained 1 per cent. of water.

Altogether the ammonia in this charge was equal to 12.2 lb. of sulphate per ton of coal.

In this connection it might be well to point out that the ammonia does not exist in the coal, but is a product formed by the combination of nitrogen and hydrogen, roughly about 14 parts by weight of the former to 3 of the latter. The whole of the nitrogen existing in the coal is not, however, converted into ammonia, though there is always more hydrogen present than would be necessary for this total combination. Only a portion is thus utilised, part of the remainder escaping unaltered, while some part clings to the coke, and a small fraction combines with carbon to form cyanogen. This matter was fully treated in a paper read by Professor Forster, M.A., F.C.S., before the Chemical Society of London, last December, and we understand that still further investigations are now in progress.

Coming to the strictly commercial view of Mr. Jameson's process, we may first say that in addition to Messrs. Hugh, Lee, Pattinson and Co., at Felling, Messrs. Bell Bros., Limited, have tested the process at their Page Bank Colliery, and Mr. I. L. Bell is now experimenting with a view to convert ovens sufficient for the entire working of a blast furnace. Other coke manufacturers in the North of England are also experimenting, so that, notwithstanding the very short period of time—only some four or five months—since Mr. Jameson first elaborated his idea, considerable and important progress has been made towards its practical application on a large scale. In view of this we might draw attention to a paper read by Mr. Walter Weldon before the Chemical Society, at Burlington House, on the 8th of January last, a paper which Professor Abel, who was in the chair, characterised as the most interesting ever read in that room. It related to the future of the soda trade of the Tyne, an industry which, as is unfortunately too well known, is now in a most deplorable state, owing chiefly to the introduction of the ammonia process of M. Solvay, by which the cost of manufacture is, for various reasons, considerably less than in the old Leblanc system. The chief of these reasons is that M. Solvay uses much less fuel, only 150 per cent. on the weight of soda produced, against 350 per cent. in the old process; but as a set off against this, Mr. Weldon proposes that the Leblanc soda-makers should give up using raw coal altogether, and substitute coke manufactured from "duff," by the Jameson process, which, after crediting the

value of the recovered products, can practically be produced for nothing. If this could be done, the cost of making Leblanc soda would be diminished by almost the total present cost of fuel. Another feature of the Jameson process, on which, however, we can only briefly touch, is in relation to the mitigation of fogs in our large cities and towns by the recovery and utilisation of what are now, not only waste, but most obnoxious products. For a long time Dr. C. W. Siemens has advocated a plan of distillation in externally-heated retorts, the coke to be used for domestic and manufacturing purposes, and the volatile products being collected and utilised, both by partially condensing them and for heating and illuminating. It is probable, however, that Mr. Jameson's plan of coking would be found simpler and less expensive to work than that with externally-fired retorts, for the reasons previously referred to, and if such a method could be brought into practice, the gain and benefit to the community would be enormous. Take as an example the whole of London, where the present average consumption of coal, apart from what is used in gasworks, is about 7,000,000 tons a year, the whole of which is probably burnt in such a manner as to lose the volatile products, and let us roughly estimate what is being thrown away. Adopting gasworks figures, each ton of coal will produce, in round numbers, 10 gallons of tar, ammonia equivalent to 20 lb. of sulphate, and 10,000 cubic feet of gas. On 7,000,000 tons of coal this amounts to 70,000,000 gallons of tar, 140,000,000 lb. of sulphate of ammonia, and 70,000,000,000 cubic feet of gas. Taking tar and ammonia at their present market values, these alone represent a loss to the inhabitants of London of about £1,500,000 a year, while adding the value of gas, at even 6d. a thousand cubic feet, we have a further loss of £1,750,000. But even this is not all, for the inconvenience from smoke and soot, the extra money paid for washing and cleaning, the aggravation of fogs, and the individual loss and business stagnation occasioned thereby, can surely be taken at least at another £500,000, so bringing the cost of our present waste in burning fuel to the enormous total of £3,750,000 a year for London alone, and what is true of London applies equally to the whole country, so that probably we are not far from the mark when we state that that we are at the present moment, in one sense, wasting the volatile products from two-thirds of the 150,000,000 tons of coal annually raised in Great Britain.

The existence in coal of products of great value is no new discovery, and if they had been given us separately, and not in combination with solid carbon, probably the last idea which could occur to an ordinary mind would be to make fuel of the whole. But this is nevertheless what we are doing, and we are converting into smoke and fog immense quantities of ammonia, paraffine, lubricating and illuminating oils, to say nothing of the millions of cubic feet of gas from which we might, if we liked, obtain both heat, light, and power.

LEGAL INTELLIGENCE.

HIGH COURT OF JUSTICE—CHANCERY DIVISION.

Before MR. JUSTICE PEARSON.

February 27th and 28th, and March 1st and 5th.

CROPPER v. SMITH.

THIS was an action brought by the firm of Messrs. H. S. Cropper and Co., of Nottingham, against Messrs. Smith and Hancock, of the same place, to restrain the infringement by the latter of certain letters patent belonging to the plaintiffs. These letters patent were originally granted to the defendant Hancock, on 11th August, 1873, No. 2672, and were for "improvements in bobbin net or twist lace machines." In April, 1877, the patent was sold to the plaintiffs by the trustee in bankruptcy of Hancock, and having accidentally lapsed in 1880, through non-payment of duty, was revived by Act of Parliament.

Shortly stated, the object of the inventor was to simplify the Lever lace machine, and to render it steadier and more accessible. For this purpose he removed the cam shaft which drove the working parts, from below amongst the warp threads, to the top of the machine. He then removed the two tie-bars connecting the end standards of the machine at the top, and replaced them by one central tie-beam, to which he attached, in pairs, brackets carrying the draw shafts and the knocking-out levers. He also connected the standards by a broad floor-plate, to which the back stay was attached. By these alterations he was enabled to dispense with the back and front rails, and it was proved at the trial that he gained in steadiness and convenience, and also in light.

On 26th Nov., 1880, Hancock obtained a second patent for improvements in the same machine. It was contended on behalf of the plaintiffs that machines made according to the second patent were, in fact, identical in principle with those made under the first, the chief apparent change being a transposition of the shafts and the axles carrying the knocking-out levers. Hancock went into partnership with the defendant Smith, and made machines according to Hancock's second patent.

The claims under the first patent were the subject of much argument, the defendant alleging that they were excessive as including old matter, viz., the double-ended lever and the floor plate. The claims were as follows:—

"First, the general arrangement and combination of a twist lace machine constructed as hereinbefore described and illustrated in the drawings annexed.

"Second, for one or more pair of brackets E which support the axles of the knocking-out lever, the two draw shafts, the cam shaft, and for the double-ended brackets or levers N carrying the arms, blocks, and trucks which operate the point bars.

"Third, the central longitudinal plate C connecting the end standards, and to which the front vertical stay, cradles, and back stay are secured."

Mr. Davey, Q.C., Mr. Barber, Q.C., Mr. Chadwyck Healey, and Mr. Cann were for the Plaintiffs, and Mr. Aston, Q.C., and Mr. Goodeve appeared for the defendants. The nature of the arguments appears from the judgment of the Court.

MR. JUSTICE PEARSON: The plaintiffs and defendants in this action are both makers of machinery in the town of Nottingham, principally of lace machines, and the object of the action is, on the part of the plaintiffs, to restrain the defendants from infringing a patent which is in their possession, and which they say the defendants have infringed under the circumstances I am about to state. The patent, which belongs to the plaintiffs, was taken out by the defendant, James Robinson Hancock, in the year 1873. I shall have to consider that patent and the specification very carefully presently, and therefore I will only say that it was a patent for "Improvements in Bobbin Net or Twist Lace Machines." About the year 1876 Hancock became bankrupt; the patent was sold in the course of the proceedings in bankruptcy, it was purchased by the plaintiffs, and the plaintiffs are now the owners of it. Sub-

sequently to his bankruptcy, Hancock went into partnership with the other defendant, Smith; and in the year 1880 Hancock took out a second patent for improvements in bobbin net or twist lace machinery, and the complaint is that the machine made in accordance with the patent so taken out in 1880 is an infringement of the patent taken out in 1873. It seems at first sight rather a strange thing that Hancock should be found himself taking out a patent in 1873, and endeavouring to infringe the patent in 1880; and at first I thought that some difficulty might arise from the manner in which the defence has been conducted in this case, but in the view I take of it no difficulty will arise. I shall treat Hancock and Smith as if they were one person, and not allude any further to the position in which they are considering the consequence of Hancock having taken out the first patent of 1873. Now, there appear to be, and I may consider that there are for the purposes of this judgment, two different kinds of machines employed in lace-making at Nottingham; the one I shall call the lace machine—by which I mean the machine which is more complex in its parts, and is capable of producing more complicated fabrics—and the other the "go-through" machine, which has no landing bars and their connections, and is only used for simpler kinds of fabrics. I need not give any full or accurate description of these machines. There are models of them in Court, and during the time that this action lasted there was a great deal of description given of them. What I am going to say will be sufficient for the purposes of judgment. The lace machines were constructed to a certain extent in this manner: There were two end stays and a middle stay. The machinery itself was hung, in the older machines, rather low down. The warp beams on which the thread was wound, and upon which the thread was worked, occupied the bottom part between the two end stays, and according to the old machines the machinery found its way—at least certain parts of it did—between the threads on the warp beams; and the consequence of which was that they were chafed, and apt to be more or less broken. I may say that from the year 1860, down to the present time, the great object of every person who endeavoured to improve these machines was to improve them in these respects: in getting more light, in getting accessibility for the workman both to the machinery and to the warp beams, in removing the machinery from the warp beams, and in so placing the machinery that the machinery might be accessible and might be easily lubricated without the oil falling on the lace. Several attempts were made before 1873 to effect these improvements, and they more or less probably shadowed beforehand the instrument which Mr. Hancock produced in 1873. They attempted to do those things which I have already stated as being the desiderata of lace machines, but they never succeeded entirely. No one instrument was a success. When they first began to carry the machinery overhead, they carried with it so many rails that they darkened the machine. When they did not carry the machinery overhead, they left the cam shaft down below, and the goose necks came in amongst the warp threads. But in 1873 Mr. Hancock took out his patent, a patent, he it said, not for the making or invention of a new machine, but for the improvement of an old machine; and he improved it in this way:—He took a variety of things which were in themselves old, and he combined and rearranged them so as to make them work more easily and better for the objects desired. One tie beam had been used before; he took one tie beam. Brackets were very well known, and he took brackets. He embodied the machinery to a great extent in the brackets, but he did this with regard to the brackets which had not been done before—he wedded the brackets in pairs by means of axles, which he put through the brackets, and which not only kept the brackets together, but which supported the knocking-out levers. The brackets were therefore double brackets, and his whole system, so far as it was a system, and so far as there was anything new in it, was a system in which the brackets were arranged in pairs, and not singly, as they had been before. He carried the cam shaft through the brackets in such a position that it was directly under the centre of the beam, and then, in order to provide more room for the workman and more room for the warp beams, he took off the front and back rail which had existed before, and instead of them he placed a floor-plate between the two end stays running the whole length of the machine, so as to get rigidity in the floor of the machine instead of getting the rigidity, as it had before, by means of rails running outside the framework and along it. There is no doubt whatever those were very considerable improvements; for they increased the light, increased the accessibility, increased the space that the workmen had to work in; and I cannot help saying that I think, although none of the parts were what you could call new inventions, nor do I find them so claimed in the patent, there was sufficient novelty in the combination and rearrangement to entitle Hancock to a good patent, and that if his patent had stood alone on the first claim, "The general arrangement and combination of a twist lace machine, constructed as hereinbefore described, and illustrated in the drawings annexed," nobody could have been heard to say there was anything invalid in it. I shall not trouble myself much with Hancock's machine of 1880; because I am very clearly of opinion, and I think everybody was of opinion, that you have only to look at it in order to see that it is substantially the same machine with only one or two immaterial transpositions of the machinery.

But the main defence that was raised here was a defence founded on the specification of Hancock's patent of 1873, and it is alleged that for various reasons that patent is void, the specification being bad. The first objection that is taken to the specification—reading the specification from the beginning to the end—is to the description of the second modification, which is to be found on page 4. Beginning at line twenty-four, it runs in this way:—"A second modification consists of a machine constructed as above described, but without the landing bars and their connections, and the draw shafts carry levers, the ends of which form bearings for shafts to which arms are secured, which arms carry the axles of the catch bars. The end arms are hinged to levers which rock on the joint pins, and the draw shafts have independent levers at each end carrying connecting-rods moved by oscillating discs operated by connecting-rods at the front of the machine." It is said that the specification is bad because it would not instruct any workman how to construct a machine of that kind; that everything is vague; you are told that there are to be levers which rock on joint pins; you have to have draw shafts which have independent levers at each end carrying connecting-rods moved by oscillating discs operated by connecting-rods at the front of the machine; but, as one of the witnesses expressed it, the dimensions and proportions are not given, and it would require an intelligent mechanic to design something himself in order to construct such a machine. If I thought that was really so I should be compelled to say that the specification was bad; but I very early in the course of the argument came to a very contrary conclusion, and I see no reason to alter that. Hancock by his patent does not profess to invent a new machine. He takes out a patent simply for an improvement in an existing machine, and, as I have said before, the machinery that he uses, and which he puts together, is old machinery, which was very well known. Now, when you come to the second modification, he begins with taking a lace machine complete in all its parts, and he tells you what you are to do. You are to take away the landing bars and their connections, and then you are to transform it into a go-through machine. And this is so plain that when the specification was put into the hands of one of the defendant's witnesses—Mr. Swift—who had never seen it before, a very short glance at these lines told him at once what it was he had to do. He said at once, this is manifestly to be a go-through machine; and when he was asked whether he would have any difficulty in transforming a lace machine into a go-through machine, he said, certainly not. I hold, therefore, that this specification, being a specification not for the construction of a new machine which nobody knew at the time, but simply for changing one well-known machine into another well-known machine, is perfectly sufficient. But there was a more serious argument raised upon the second and third claims, and I

must honestly say it is very much to be regretted that these second and third claims have been drawn as they are, because no one can say, reading them over, that they are at all accurate—as far, at least, as the English is concerned. Whether they are substantially bad or not is another question altogether, and that will depend upon what is really, having regard to the whole of the patent, the proper construction of them.

Now I will take the third first, because the third is the simplest. He claims first, "The general arrangement and combination of a twist lace machine, constructed as hereinbefore described and illustrated in the drawings annexed;" and then the third claim is:—"The central longitudinal plate C connecting the end standards, and to which the front vertical stay, cradle, and back stay are secured." That is the floor plate of which I have already spoken—a floor plate which runs along with a standard at one end and a standard at the other end, occupying the space between them, and so welded into them as to hold them perfectly rigid. It was said with great force by the counsel for the defendants, and perfectly truly, that it was impossible to suppose that that was a new invention; that a floor plate was nothing but changing a vertical bar into a horizontal bar, and that that was a thing perfectly well known to engineers. The most ordinary mechanic is acquainted with it, and the idea of claiming a patent for that is perfectly absurd. I entirely agree with what counsel say, that to claim a patent for that in the largest possible sense, namely, to say that this person had invented the floor plate and that you could not use a floor plate either in a lace machine or any other machine that might be invented because of this patent, would be to make the claim perfectly ridiculous. But then the moment you have arrived at that you have arrived at this rule of law which prevents you giving this construction to that third claim, because the rule, as I understand it, is as plain as can be, that no man is to be considered to have claimed something which is perfectly absurd and which it would be foolish to suppose he had claimed in order to make the patent a bad patent. In the case of *Harwar v. Hardcastle*, reported in the first volume of *Webster's Patent Cases*, page 484, there was an objection of the same kind taken to a patent, and it was said that the patentee claimed a patent for the rails or staves over which the calicoes or other cloths were to be hung, and the Chief Justice Tindal says this:—"The use of rails and staves for this purpose was proved to have been so general before the granting of this patent that it would be almost impossible *a priori* to suppose that the patentee intended to claim what he could not but know would have avoided his patent, and the express statement that he makes—and then he quotes the passage—shows clearly that he is speaking of those rails or staves, which are things then known and in common use.

So I have here the case in which the idea of claiming the invention of this floor plate would be ridiculous, because everybody knew beforehand that a floor plate of that kind would effect the object for which it is used here. I think, therefore, I am not only not bound to assume that the patentee intended to claim it in that general manner; but I think, according to the rule of this Court, I am bound to assume he did not intend to claim it in that way. Let us see, therefore, what it is he has done. He has described, to begin with, his patent as a patent simply for an improvement. He then states the manner in which it is done. He then claims by his first claim for a new invention, the general arrangement and combination as there described, and then, I think, in the second and third he merely states the different parts of the machine which he has so arranged and combined, in order to state more definitely and specifically the arrangement and combination which he claims to have patented. It will be found that the very parts he takes are the very parts he has arranged and combined, for in the second one he takes, "one or more pair of brackets E which support the axles of the knocking-out levers, the two draw shafts and the cam shaft." That is exactly true. He has a pair of brackets supporting all these different parts of the instrument; and for the double-ended brackets or levers N carrying the arms, blocks, and trucks which operate the point bars. Those are also differently arranged from what they were in the old lever machine. Then he concludes with the floor plate, pointing to all the different matters which he claims by the second and third claim by letters referring to his plan. I think, therefore, I should say that what he really and truly is doing in this case is simply enumerating all the different parts which he has combined and arranged together for the purpose of the patent. It is a very clumsy mode of saying, I mean by my general arrangement and combination, my general arrangement and combination of the following parts of the lace machine, but I do not think it goes to more. I do not think he claims a patent for anything beyond what he has claimed in his first claim, and if that be so, although it may be entirely superfluous it does not make the patent void. I am glad to find that there is most distinct authority to enable me to put such a construction on this patent. It seems to me that this case comes entirely within what the judges said in *Plimpton v. Spiller*. That was the skate case, and there was a claim first of all for the skate altogether, and there was a subsidiary claim for the mode of securing runners and making them reversible as above described, and in giving judgment in that case the Lord Justice James says this:—"It appears to me that in doing that he is claiming not a distinct and substantive invention, but he is claiming it as one of the merits and advantages of the entire construction which he has before given, and he is not in any way pretending or claiming to enlarge his monopoly; because of course it was a novelty as far as *Plimpton's* skates are concerned, for *Plimpton's* skates were novel, and he is only applying an old thing to an entirely new thing. When the new thing ceases to be patented, that old thing will cease to be patented too; so that there is no pretence, really, for saying that he is endeavouring to claim under the colour of that second claim something other and beyond that which the invention itself purports to be; that is to say, an invention for making a rocking skate in the manner which he has described in the first part. That being so, it seems to me to be wholly immaterial what the exact construction of those words is, because, after all, that second claim really comes to nothing more than is included in the description of the invention itself. I mean that part of the invention which describes the runners, and the words "the mode of securing the runners and making them reversible." It seems to me to be perfectly idle and superfluous to the claim in the first part. They neither add to nor diminish from the patent, nor the monopoly which the patentee is seeking to obtain against the public." I really think I might use pretty nearly every word of this passage with regard to this patent. There is nothing new claimed by the second and third. It is a repetition, practically, in detail, of what is in the first. Then Lord Justice Brett says pretty much the same thing, and at page 484 he says:—"Under these circumstances, confining this claim to the runner of the patented skate, it is obvious that the claim, whatever it be for, with regard to this runner, does not in any way increase the monopoly of the good patent; and if you can say that the subsidiary claim in the patent cannot, under any circumstances, increase the monopoly of the patent itself, which is well claimed in the patent, it seems to me that the subsidiary claim is unimportant, is futile, has no effect, and therefore does not raise any objection to the patent." Now that being so, I think it unnecessary to discuss very much what is the proper reading of that second clause, which undoubtedly is very ungrammatical and very inaccurate, because, whether you strike out the "for," and say the second "for" is a mistake altogether, or whether you leave the two in, and take them in as two independent sentences, the result is just the same. There is nothing to my mind to lead to the second and third claim claiming more than in fact the first claim, and that being so, I hold the patent to be good. Those, I think, are all the objections taken to the patent. The question of infringement was not really seriously argued. There being, therefore, admitted an infringement of the patent if good, as I hold the patent is good, I must give the plaintiffs the relief which they seek.

Solicitors; For the plaintiffs, Mr. F. Needham, agent for Mr. Cann, of Nottingham; for the defendants, Mr. B. W. Marsland.

THE INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.

ON TELEPHONES.

THE second of the series of six lectures on the applications of electricity was delivered on Thursday evening, the 1st of March, by Sir Frederick Bramwell, F.R.S., V.P. Inst. C.E., the subject being "Telephones." The following is an abstract of the lecture:—

Prior to the invention of the telephone, by making and breaking circuit at the transmitting station, sounds had been produced at the receiving station—such as the striking of bells, or the vibration of a Morse sounder—but these were independent of sound at the transmitting station, and they varied according to the implement used at the receiving station, and were and are used for purposes of audible telegraphy. Also, prior to the invention of the telephone, it was possible to reproduce at the receiving station, say by a tuning-fork, the vibrations of which break and make contact, the same note produced by a similar tuning-fork at the transmitting station; and in this case there was a reproduction at the receiving station of the sound at the transmitting station. But the only thing that was ensured was the repetition of the same note—there was no reproduction of the same sound. For example, the note might have been uttered by a violin-string, by a tuning-fork, or by a clarinet at the transmitting station; at the receiving station, however, nothing would be given forth but the note of the particular tuning-fork, or other vibrating implement, which was in accord with the number of the vibrations transmitted in a given time. All these modes were due to the variations of the current caused by break and make in the circuit, and were therefore abrupt. The best result obtained with such an agency was in the machine of Reiss, who, in 1862, reproduced tones, and it is said some words were heard. That machine received no development, and telephony lay dormant for fourteen years, until the invention of Professor Graham Bell, patented in this country in December, 1876. In 1874 Mr. William Henry Barlow, F.R.S., Past-President Inst. C.E., turned his attention to the recording of the vibrations produced by speech. He effected this by means of an instrument called a logograph. This was communicated to the Royal Society, and exhibited in operation there. By its agency there was depicted on a travelling band of paper the motions derived from the vibration of a membrane under the influence of speech; but had the results been known, they would probably have deterred an inventor seeking to produce a telephone, as it appeared the vibrations were not always the same for the same syllable, but varied with the speaker and from the circumstances. Professor Graham Bell graphically represented the variations in the electric current, either direct or reversed, caused by break and make, and showed that these were too abrupt for his purpose, namely, the reproduction of articulate speech. He proposed to attain the object sought by having the circuit always closed, and by causing rises and falls, or reversals, as the case might be, of electricity, which should be made gradually, instead of abruptly, as before. The simplest mode in which he attained this end was in one of the original forms of the Bell transmitter or receiver—for the instrument was capable of fulfilling either function—by placing an iron or a steel plate in the neighbourhood of a permanent magnet surrounded by a coil of insulated wire, so that on the plate being set into vibration by the voice it should induce, in the coil, reversed currents of electricity which could travel along the wire in prolongation of the coil to the coil of the similar instrument at the receiving station, thereby varying the power of the magnet at that station and setting up vibrations in the corresponding iron disc. This disc, acting upon the air, gave to it vibrations similar to those which had put the first disc into motion, and in that way a reproduction of the original sound—as Professor Bell said a *fac simile*—was obtained. Other modes were employed by him, such as the use of a battery in the line wire, and best of all, the use of two local batteries to send the current to a primary coil round a core, the line wire being connected with secondary coils acting by induced electricity. As transmitters these instruments were necessarily somewhat feeble, since the whole of the electricity in the first of the three cases mentioned, and what might be called the operative electricity in the other two cases, had to be derived from the microscopic movements of the disc, under the influence of the sound waves produced by the speaker. Mr. Edison's phonograph was exhibited in order to show that a disc, when caused to vibrate under speech, could by a central needle impress those vibrations on tin foil, and that on the tin foil being caused to traverse under the needle, the reproduction on the disc of those vibrations caused it to repeat the speech which had originally set the disc into motion. This was appealed to as a convincing proof that a disc, when mechanically vibrated in a manner corresponding to the vibrations which had been imparted to it by speech was sufficient, wholly irrespective of any electrical agency, to impress upon the air the needful vibrations to reproduce speech. Edison then devised a transmitter wherein the disc need not be metallic, but might be mica, and its vibrations were caused to operate upon a small block of carbon, which carbon was introduced in the circuit of a battery. It was thus found that the almost inappreciable variation in pressure due to the vibration of the disc was sufficient, for some not very well understood reason, to alter the conducting power of the carbon, and to cause varying currents to be transmitted along the line wire to the Bell receiver at the opposite end. At the present day the universal transmitting instrument for commercial purposes is the carbon transmitter of Edison or some modification thereof. Professor Hughes' microphone was next alluded to, and it was stated how by its means the most minute sounds were rendered audible, and how, from the delicacy of the instrument, it was applicable to many scientific purposes. Edison's chalk receiver was subsequently explained. Prior to Edison's time, it had been known that the friction of certain surfaces varied with the electric current passing through them, notably under such circumstances, the friction of the human tissue. Among other appropriate substances prepared chalk was one, and it was shown how Edison availed himself of this. By attaching a stem to the centre of the disc, and pressing this stem by means of an adjustable pressure upon the periphery of a chalk cylinder, a current of electricity passed from the centre of the cylinder through the stem. Upon the cylinder being turned by hand the friction on the stem caused it to move the centre of the disc—its edge being fixed—to a definite position depending on the friction and on the rigidity of the disc; but, on a variation in the current, the change produced thereby in the friction caused the stem either to be drawn in further or to yield to the elasticity of the disc and to allow it to be moved backwards. In this manner vibrations were set up in the disc corresponding with the vibrations of the transmitter that had sent the varying electrical currents. As in the case of this receiver the power was derived, not from the electricity, but from the hand of the operator turning the chalk cylinder, very considerable loudness was obtained, so that the utterances of the receiver were audible in a large room. Mr. Sheldford Bidwell having been good enough to lend a photophone, that beautiful invention of Professor Graham Bell was explained. Mr. Bidwell showed how by speaking to a disc, the front being a mirror, on which a powerful light was directed, that light could be reflected on to a selenium cell, and as the disc vibrated under the influence of the voice the light playing on the selenium cell varied. Selenium was a material the conductivity of which changed with the amount of light upon it. It was therefore possible in this manner to cause a Bell receiver to speak, and reproduce the speech which had been uttered to the mirror disc. It was pointed out that in this manner there was no need of a wire connection between the transmitter and the receiver, the passage of a beam of light being all that was required. Reference was then made to the various purposes to which the telephone might be put, and to the exchange system and the necessary apparatus for receiving the calls and making the

THE PATENT JOURNAL.

Condensed from the Journal of the Commissioners of Patents.

* * It has come to our notice that some applicants of the Patent-office Sales Department, for Patent Specifications, have caused much unnecessary trouble and annoyance, both to themselves and to the Patent-office officials...

Applications for Letters Patent. * * Patents have been "communicated," the name and address of the communicating party are printed in italics.

- 1185. CENTRE BOARDS FOR SAILING VESSELS, W. Blakely, Bourmouth.
1186. GOVERNORS, W. Mellor, Oldham.
1187. FEED MOTION OF SAWING MACHINES, T. N. Robinson, Rochdale.

7th March, 1883.

- 1213. FITTINGS FOR BATHS, T. Bradford, Manchester.
1214. CLIPPING MACHINES, J. Range, Nottingham.
1215. BRECH-LOADING FIRE-ARMS, G. Macaulay-Cruikshank, Glasgow.

8th March, 1883.

- 1244. CONSOLIDATING CARDED AEBSTOS FIBRES, A. Hollings, Salford.
1245. GOVERNORS, W. Murdoch, Glasgow.
1246. DARNING FABRICS, F. C. Glaser.

9th March, 1883.

- 1263. UMBRELLAS, &c., H. Hughes.
1264. AUTOMATIC GAS REGULATOR, J. and E. Tuckett, Exeter.
1265. HOT-WATER APPARATUS, T. C. Olney, Manchester.

10th March, 1883.

- 1276. LAMPS, H. J. Haddan.
1277. ATMOSPHERIC AIR MOTOR, H. J. Haddan.
1278. RAISING MUD INTO CARBS, E. Burton, London.
1279. COOKING UTENSIL, J. Darling, Glasgow.

12th March, 1883.

- 1295. ELECTRICAL APPARATUS, A. R. Molison, Swansea.
1296. CRUSHING SUGAR CANES, A. S. Brindley, New Radford, and J. Worsnop, London.
1297. BRAIDING MACHINES, W. Ashton, Manchester.

Inventions Protected for Six Months on Deposit of Complete Specifications.

- 1149. MULTIPLE COPIES OF WRITINGS, A. Paget, Loughborough.
1167. BOILER FURNACES, H. J. Haddan, Kensington, London.
1192. UNDERGROUND CONDUITS FOR ELECTRIC WIRES, A. J. Boulton, High Holborn, London.

Patents on which the Stamp Duty of £50 has been paid.

- 1053. REGULATING THE SUPPLY OF AIR TO FURNACES, T. S. Pridoux, Brockley.
856. SECURING LATHES TO METAL BANDS, C. C. Sherry, London.
981. RIVETING MACHINES, R. H. Tweddell, London.

Patents on which the Stamp Duty of £100 has been paid.

- 1111. STEAM BOILERS, F. G. Bone, London.

- 970. GAS BURNERS, W. T. Sugg, London.
1028. ARMOUR PLATES, &c., J. Yates, Rotherham.
1425. MAKING CAKES, A. M. Clark, London.

Notices of Intention to Proceed with Applications.

(Last day for filing opposition, 30th March, 1883.)

- 5059. ELECTRIC ROTARY AIR BRUSHES, N. J. Holmes, London.
5250. VALVE FOR BATHS, W. D. Scott-Moncrieff and W. Dodds, London.
5272. COUPLING FOR LEATHER HOSE, E. Nunan, London.
5283. TRANSLUCENT PLATES, W. Kennedy, Glasgow.
5286. BOBBINS, J. Clayton, Bradford.

(Last day for filing opposition, 3rd April, 1883.)

- 5304. DYNAMO ELECTRICITY, H. Mayhew, London.
5333. BOTTLE STOPPERS, J. J. Varley, Brixton.
5338. WARMING CARRIAGES, T. Perkins, Hitchin.
5339. DISTRIBUTING SEED, &c., J. H. Wood, London.
5346. INCANDESCENT ELECTRIC LAMPS, J. Jameson.

- 5438. CONDUCTION OF ELECTRIC CURRENTS, R. E. B. Crompton, London.
5474. PRINTING MACHINES, W. W. Taylor, Ripon.
5663. PROPELLING BOATS, W. J. Sage, London.
5692. CRICKET BAT HANDLES, H. J. Haddan, London.
5699. TRICYCLES, H. J. Hissett, Plymouth.

Patents Sealed.

(List of Letters Patent which passed the Great Seal on the 9th March, 1883.)

- 4315. BOILERS, &c., M. J. O'Riordan, Cork.
4323. VEGETABLE PARCHMENT, H. Hymans, London.
4329. STARTING, &c., ENGINES, W. H. Allen, R. Wright, and W. L. Williams, London.
4334. BOILER FURNACES, J. R. Russell, Glasgow.

